



International Migration Outlook 2020

44TH EDITION



International Migration Outlook 2020

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Foreword

This publication constitutes the 44th report of the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration. The report is divided into four chapters plus a statistical annex.

Chapter 1 provides a broad overview of recent trends in international migration flows and policies up to the first months of 2020 and the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on international movements. Chapter 2 takes an in-depth look at the employment situation of immigrants and highlights major changes in policies that support the integration of immigrants and their children.

Chapter 3 provides a comprehensive comparative overview of the presence of migrants across sectors in OECD countries. It shows that migration has sectoral implications, whether these are intentional or not. It also assesses how migration policy instruments are associated with specific sectors, with a focus on agriculture, hospitality, and information technology (IT). Few OECD countries currently have strong sectoral migration policies, with the exception of agriculture. With the asymmetric employment impact of the COVID-19 crisis across sectors, and the essential role of migrants in certain key sectors, there is, however, a renewed interest in the links between sectors and migration.

Chapter 4 presents succinct country-specific notes and statistics on developments in international migration movements and policies in OECD countries in recent years. Lastly, the statistical annex includes a broad selection of recent and historical statistics on immigrant flows, asylum requests, foreign and foreign-born populations, and naturalisations.

This year's edition of the OECD International Migration Outlook is the collective work of the staff of the International Migration Division in the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs. Chapters 1, 2 and 4 are a collective work of the staff of the International Migration Division with important contributions from John Salt (University College London). Chapter 3 was prepared by Yves Broom (OECD) and Thomas Liebig (OECD). Jean-Christophe Dumont and Cécile Thoreau edited the report. Research assistance and statistical work were carried out by Véronique Gindrey and Philippe Hervé. Editorial assistance was provided by Dominika Andrzejczak and Charlotte Baer as well as Liv Gudmundson and Lucy Hulett.

Editorial

We should not roll back progress made on migration and integration

The COVID-19 pandemic quickly generated a global health emergency, which has turned into an economic and social crisis unseen in generations. It has also once again shown the key contributions that migrants make in keeping our societies functioning. During the confinement, foreign-born workers were highly represented in essential activities such as health care and food retail and in some of the hard jobs that the native born eschew, such as picking fruit. Even when travel and admission were severely restricted, most countries realised they needed to make exceptions for some migrants in these sectors.

Migrant workers are on the frontline of the COVID-19 crisis: in the health sector, they account for 24% of medical doctors and 16% of nurses. More broadly, as discussed in the special chapter of this publication, “The Role of Migration in Shaping Industry Structure”, migrants are overrepresented in domestic services, the cleaning industry, seasonal agricultural work and the transportation sector. Their contributions to these sectors should at least be recognised, if not rewarded.

Migrants are also highly exposed to the health and economic impacts of the pandemic, due both to their representation in frontline jobs and to their particular vulnerabilities, for example linked to their housing conditions, exposed migrants and their families to COVID-19, often with a disproportionate incidence of death even in countries with universal access to treatment for COVID-19.

Migrants have also been disproportionately exposed to the economic consequences of the pandemic. Many work in the most affected sectors, such as hotel, restaurant and catering and tourism, and many hold temporary work contracts, a number of which lapsed without renewal during the crisis. In the United States, for example, in the year to August 2020, the unemployment rate for the foreign born jumped from 3.1% to 10.2%, while it increased from 3.9% to 8.1% for the native born. Similar trends are observed in most European countries, despite the wide scale use of job-retention schemes that helped preserve many jobs.

Looking forward, the latest baseline OECD projections suggests that in most economies, the level of output at the end of 2021 is projected to remain at or below that at the end of 2019 and considerably weaker than projected prior to the pandemic. The unemployment rate has already skyrocketed from an average of 5.2% in December 2019 to 8.6% in April 2020 before slightly declining in July at 7.7%. It is becoming evidence that a number of countries are in a second wave, albeit less pronounced and with fewer fatalities than the previous one. In these circumstances, OECD countries will not have returned to the pre-crisis level of employment even by the end of 2021.

Even as migrants contributed to their host-countries’ economies, the COVID-19 crisis led to a dramatic drop in migration flows to OECD countries. According to our preliminary estimates, flows fell by half in the first semester of 2020. Border closures, suspension of domestic and consular services, COVID-19 related restrictions on travel and admission, disruption on international commercial flights explain this trend, as well as the concerns of employers and migrants themselves about travel. Even if migration flows are expected to bounce back as the economy reopens, there are strong signs that they will not reach previous levels for some time because of weaker labour demand, ongoing travel restrictions and alternatives to

mobility linked, for example, to the widespread use of teleworking among high-skilled workers and remote learning by students.

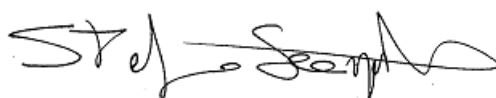
Migration, on the other hand, will continue to have an important impact on origin countries. Remittances are expected to decline and employment opportunities to become scarcer. As traditional migration destination countries increase their focus on fighting against irregular movements, as legal channels for migration contract and as travel restrictions remain in place, we can expect more tension between migration intentions and actual opportunities that, in turn, can generate frustration in origin countries.

The past decade has seen encouraging progress on migration policies and integration as well as on international co-operation on migration management. Although significant further improvement is needed, there have been some important successes at both global and regional levels, in the context of the UN, in the G20, and at the OECD. The first-ever ministerial meeting devoted to migration issues, held in early 2020, acknowledged that “international dialogue and co-operation help to make migration and integration policies future-ready”. Our indicators on migrant integration also show that, in most OECD countries, access to employment has progressed for migrants, and labour market outcomes tend to improve with the length of stay in the host country and from one generation to the next. Prior to the pandemic, we were looking forward to seeing these outcomes progress further.

Today, there is a risk that some of the progress in migration and integration outcomes may actually be erased by the pandemic and its economic fallout. The pandemic has created many public policy challenges and public opinion and policy attention may be focused more on other key domestic issues. Public spending for integration, which should be considered as a long-term investment, may become scarcer in some countries at a time when it needs to be reinforced in the face of the looming overall employment crisis.

Securing the health and safety of all workers in essential activities – native-born and migrants alike – as well as support to all those in need is a key priority. Nevertheless, we should not forget that the most migration is undertaken by families, people seeking international protection and people moving within free mobility areas. We should be concerned if travel restrictions and border closures are prolonged beyond what is necessary for preventing the spread of the virus, in order to reassure the public about the presumed impact of migration on the domestic economy. More generally, we should guard against unilateral actions again replacing dialogue and concertation on migration issues.

We do not know today if these risks will indeed materialise, but their consequences would undoubtedly be dramatic. We need to reaffirm that migration is an integral part of our life and that it links us together. If there is anything we have learned from lockdown and isolation, it is how much we need “the other”. This is true at a global level as much as at a local level. Public measures are needed to secure the progress of the past decade on migration and integration, with the active contribution of all stakeholders and civil society. Protecting these achievements and advancing in these areas are key elements of an overall strategy to *building back better* as our economies and societies begin the road to recovery.



Stefano Scarpetta,

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Executive summary

Migration flows were stable in 2018 and 2019, but halted in the first half of 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic

OECD countries, with the exception of Colombia and Turkey, together accepted about 5.3 million new permanent migrants in 2019. This represents a stable level compared to 2018. Flows to the United States and Germany (the top OECD receiving countries) continued to decrease, while in most other OECD countries flows tended to increase, notably in Spain and Japan.

Initial estimates of migration flows in 2020 suggest that the COVID-19 pandemic has had a major impact on migration flows in the first half of the year, with the number of new residency permits granted to migrants down by 46% on average in the OECD. Part of the effect might be offset by a rise in flows during the second half of the year, notably for international students, but the current economic downturn will also most likely aggravate the impact on labour migration. Overall, 2020 is projected to be a historical low for international migration in the OECD area.

After two years of decrease, the number of asylum applications to OECD countries rebounded 11% in 2019, reaching 1.2 million. The number of asylum applications remained, however, much lower than the record highs of 2015 and 2016. About half of all asylum applications in the OECD were made in OECD European countries. More than 20% of all asylum seekers came from Afghanistan, Venezuela and Honduras, while asylum requests from Middle East countries were now at their lowest level since 2013-14.

Partial data on the number of newly accepted refugees in OECD countries in 2019 showed an overall 25% drop. Permanent labour migration rose sharply (+13%) and family migration remained relatively stable.

Temporary labour migration, when a person migrates for limited time to do a specific job, continued to increase in 2018, reaching 5.1 million, compared with 4.8 million in 2017. Preliminary data indicate that this upward trend continued in 2019. Poland was the top temporary labour migration destination, followed by the United States. The main categories of labour migration were: posted workers within the EU/EFTA (1.7 million), working holidaymakers (475 000) and seasonal workers (323 000, not counting Poland). In 2018, more than 1.5 million visas were granted to tertiary-level students, 3% more than in 2017. Flows of tertiary-level students rose in 2019 as well, notably in Europe.

COVID-19 impact may hamper progress on labour market inclusion

The labour market outcomes of immigrants continued to improve in 2019. On average, more than two-thirds of immigrants were employed and about 8.2% were unemployed, a 0.5 percentage point decrease compared to 2018.

However, the economic consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic may set back the progress in the labour market inclusion of immigrants in OECD in recent years. Early, partial evidence shows that the pandemic has revealed and reinforced vulnerabilities of migrants in the labour market. Migrants are for example more

likely to hold temporary contracts and tend to be concentrated in sectors more affected by the pandemic and its economic consequences. Migrants may also be disproportionately impacted by COVID-19/health concerns due to higher proportions working in sectors with high COVID-19 exposure.

Immigrant women remain at higher risk of exclusion from the labour market and may be particularly vulnerable in the current context due to their share of temporary contracts. They are overall more prone than native-born women to be in long-term unemployment, in involuntary inactivity and to be “not in employment, formal education or training”. They are also more at-risk of being over-qualified for the work they do.

Adjusting migration programmes and fostering integration in 2019

The bulk of 2018-19 labour migration management measures and reforms addressed emerging needs among highly and medium-skilled occupations. Some European countries, notably Germany, significantly enlarged their shortage occupation lists and/or relaxed the requirements in terms of minimum educational attainment to recruit migrant workers from abroad. Measures concerning asylum seekers mainly focused on reducing processing times. A limited group of receiving countries eased their entry conditions and access to the labour market while many others put in place stricter conditions.

OECD countries continued to design and fine-tune comprehensive integration programmes for newcomers, to facilitate their rapid labour market integration and their access to basic social services.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, in most countries migration and asylum offices as well as consular services abroad were closed for one to three months in the first half of 2020, leading to a quick increase in backlogged applications. Nevertheless, in some countries the pandemic accelerated re-organisation, digitalisation and/or simplification of administrative procedures measures. Return and resettlement activities have de facto been suspended in most countries.

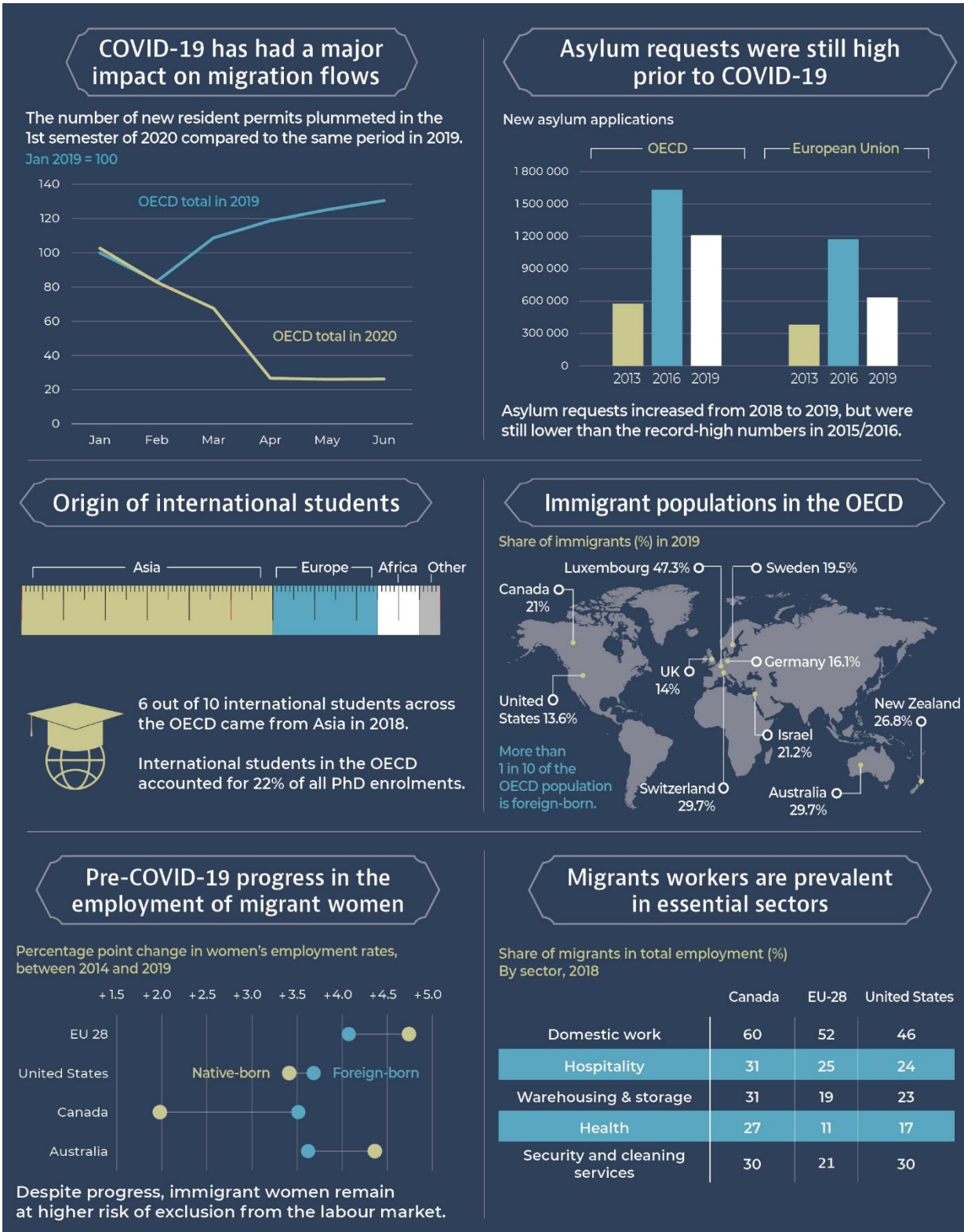
The impact of migration on sectoral development

Migrants – and especially recent arrivals – are not equally distributed across the economy. They are strongly concentrated in a number of sectors, especially in low-skilled services, but also in information technology (IT) and manufacturing in some countries, and sectoral concentration of migrants has tended to grow since 2005. Few OECD countries currently have strong sectoral migration policies, with the exception of agriculture where almost half of all countries have specific policies to promote seasonal labour migration to this sector. Migration has sectoral implications – whether these are intentional or not. To be aware of this dimension is a precondition for reaping intended sectoral benefits as well as for avoiding unintended adverse impact. This is particularly important in the current context, as the economic consequences of COVID-19 has affected some sectors more than others.

Key findings

- Permanent migration flows to OECD countries remained stable in 2018 and 2019 and reached about 5.3 million (bar Colombia and Turkey). First indications show that it might plummet by as much as 46% over the first semester of 2020 as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic.
- More than 5.1 million labour migrants entered OECD countries on temporary migration programmes in 2018, a 5% increase over 2017. This trend continued in 2019, but a sharp drop is expected in 2020.
- In 2019, immigrant unemployment rate in the European Union dropped below the symbolic threshold of 10% for the first time and was less than 4 percentage points higher than that of the native-born. Immigrant unemployment rates were lowest in Canada and the United States, at about 3%. COVID-19 has however reverted this trend, jeopardising more than a decade of progress in migrant labour market inclusion in OECD countries.
- In OECD European countries, Israel and the United States, migrants are strongly over-represented in services sectors with high shares of lower-skilled workers, especially in domestic services, and accommodation and food services. In Canada, Australia and New Zealand, while migrants are also over-represented in hospitality and support service activities, many migrants work in sectors with a high share of highly skilled jobs, especially the IT sector in Canada (33%) and finance in Australia (37%). In all OECD countries, with the exception of New Zealand, migrants are under-represented in public services, notably public administration and defence.

Infographic 1. Key facts and figures



For more information see <https://www.oecd.org/migration/international-migration-outlook-1999124x.htm>.

1 Recent developments in international migration movements and policies

This chapter provides an overview of recent developments in international migration movements and policies in OECD countries. First section analyses the shock to migration from COVID-19 based on preliminary data for the first semester of 2020. A detailed analysis of the trends in permanent migration from 2009 to 2019 follows, by country and by main category of migration – migration for work, family or humanitarian purposes, and migration within free movement areas. The next section addresses temporary migration for work purposes, including seasonal workers, intra-company transferees, posted workers, trainees and working holidaymakers. The chapter then examines international student mobility and the recent trends in asylum requests in OECD countries. It then looks at the composition of migration flows by gender and by country of origin, the evolution of the size of the foreign-born population, and trends in the acquisition of nationality across OECD countries. The chapter concludes with a section on policies concerning the main 2018-20 changes made to migration management frameworks.

In Brief

Key findings

- The COVID-19 pandemic has had a major impact on migration flows in the first semester of 2020. First estimates suggest an unprecedented reduction in the number of new permits granted by 46% on average in the OECD. Part of the effect might be offset in the second half of the year, notably for international students, but the current economic downturn will also most likely aggravate the impact on labour migration. Overall, 2020 will appear as an historical low for international migration in the OECD area.
- In 2018 and 2019, the number of new immigrants who were granted permanent-type permits remained stable (about 5.3 million). This excludes Colombia and Turkey which have received a large number of humanitarian migrants in the recent years. Flows to the top two receiving countries (the United States and Germany) continued decreasing while they tended to increase in a majority of OECD countries, notably in Spain and Japan.
- In 2019, partial data on humanitarian flows to OECD countries displayed a 25% overall drop, with the United States accounting for most of it. Permanent labour migration rose sharply (+13%), with half of the countries registering double-digit increases, including the United Kingdom (+42%), Finland (+29%), Luxembourg (+29%), Japan (+17%) and France (+12%). Family migration also increased in 2019, by about 2% and accounts for about a third of overall permanent flows.
- More than 5.1 million temporary labour migrants entered OECD countries in 2018, a 5% increase over 2017. Preliminary data indicate that the upward trend continued in 2019.
- For the third consecutive year, Poland was the top OECD destination for temporary labour migrants in 2018, with 1.1 million authorisations delivered to non-EU seasonal and temporary workers and 27 000 intra-EU posted workers. The United States followed with 724 000 new temporary workers.
- The total number of international students in the OECD enrolled in tertiary programmes reached 3.9 million and accounted for 13% and 22% of all enrolments in master's programmes and PhD enrolments, respectively, in 2018.
- In 2018, more than 1.5 million visas were granted to tertiary-level students, 3% more than in the previous year. 2019 data confirm a strong growth in flows of tertiary-level students in Europe notably.
- After two years of decrease, the number of asylum applications to OECD countries has rebounded in 2019 by 11% to reach 1.2 million. The number of asylum applications is however much lower than the record-high number in 2015 and 2016 (about 1.65 million each year). Numbers have more than doubled in Spain (+62 000) and Mexico (+41 000) and has also grown by 47 000 in the United States. About half of all asylum applications were lodged in OECD European countries in 2019.
- Afghanistan, Venezuela and Honduras were the top three countries of origin of asylum seekers, accounting for more than 20% of all applications to OECD countries. By contrast, asylum requests from Middle East countries are now at their lowest level since 2013-14.

- After a sharp increase in the number of resettlements between 2015 and 2016, numbers have decreased significantly since then, stabilising around 60 000 resettlements annually between 2017 and 2019.
- China, India and Romania were the top three countries of origin of new migrants to the OECD area. Emigration from India to OECD countries increased sharply (+10%) and reached 330 000 people.
- In 2019, 135 million people living in OECD countries were born in a country other than their country of residence, accounting for more than one in ten inhabitant. A third of them live in the United States, and almost half in a European OECD country.
- In 2018, 1.95 million people acquired the citizenship of an OECD country, 3% more compared to 2017. EU countries granted 42% of this total and the United States 39%.
- Most OECD countries quickly put in place travel bans to limit the spread of the COVID-19, with some notable exceptions for cross border workers, seasonal workers and some health professionals. Migration and asylum offices as well as consular services abroad have remained closed to public for one to three months in most countries and backlogs of applications quickly increased. Some countries have facilitated online applications or email communication. Return and resettlement activities have de facto been suspended in most countries.
- The pandemic boosted measures to reorganise, digitalise and/or simplify some administrative procedures, started in the previous years. The objective of these policies is to control better migration flows, improve the coordination across services and shorten processing times for migration applications.
- The bulk of 2018-19 measures and reforms addressed emerging needs among highly and medium-skilled occupations. Some European countries, notably Germany, significantly enlarged their shortage occupation lists and/or relaxed the requirements in terms of minimum educational attainment to recruit migrant workers from abroad.
- Regarding seasonal and other low-skilled temporary workers, the trend was towards more control over flows while also making it easier for temporary workers to be recruited.
- Some countries have introduced measures designed to encourage international students to come and study in their higher educational institutions and/or to stay on after graduation and enter the labour market. This is notably the case for the United Kingdom which reintroduced a post-study work route and for New Zealand which linked post-graduation with pathways to residence.
- Many developments regarding asylum seekers and their families were implemented in 2018-19, notably to reduce processing times. A limited group of receiving countries eased their entry conditions and access to the labour market while many others put in place stricter conditions: shortening the time limits to lodge an application or an appeal; limiting the possibilities to move across the territory or extending the cases for detention during the procedure; reinforcing the operational capacities to detain and remove rejected asylum seekers, etc.
- Several countries have brought in measures, mainly aimed at employers, to deal with irregular employment and worker exploitation.
- An increasing number of countries implemented measures to promote the returns of national citizens living abroad, notably in Southern and Eastern Europe.

Introduction

This chapter offers an overview of the most recent trends in international migration flows and policies. The chapter starts by providing an overview of new issuances of residence permits/visas during the first semester 2020. It then examines flows according to category of entry from 2009 to 2019 : (i) permanent movements broken down into labour, family, humanitarian and free mobility; (ii) the main channels of temporary labour migration: seasonal workers, working holidaymakers, trainees, intracompany transferees and posted workers; (iii) international mobility of foreign students; and (iv) asylum seekers. The chapter also gives an overview of flows by gender and origin, foreign-born populations and naturalisation. The second part of the chapter deals with major recent developments in policies that regulate the entry and stay of foreign nationals in OECD countries.

Recent trends in international migration

Evolution of migration flows over the first semester 2020

This section provides a first overview of migration flows during the first semester of 2020 across OECD countries. The shock to migration from COVID-19 related restrictions appears towards the end of the first quarter and is severe in the second quarter, although with a few exceptions. The uneven expansion of the epidemic and the range in policy responses is reflected in the sudden – but not simultaneous – declines in migration flows into different OECD countries. Changes in the number of issuances of new temporary and longer-term visa/permits over the first semester 2019 and 2020 are shown in Figure 1.1.

Overall, in OECD countries, issuances of new visa/permits plummeted by 46% in the first semester of 2020 compared to the same period in 2019. The decline was even sharper when looking only at the second quarter of 2020: 72% lower than the same period in 2019. On average, the drop was smaller in European OECD countries: a 35% decrease from the first semester 2019 to the same period in 2020 and a 59% decline comparing second quarter 2019 and 2020.

While there is no doubt that migration declined, the exact magnitude of the decline should be weighed with caution due to variations in data coverage and definitions. It should also be noted that these data are largely drawn from administrative processing of visas and permits and do not directly correspond to migration flows to OECD countries. Depending on the source, they reflect decisions, issuances, admissions or arrivals. It should also be noted that data do not include intra-EU and other free mobility movements, except when they show arrivals. The magnitude of entry restrictions imposed during the COVID-19 pandemic suggests that the impact on free mobility will ultimately be larger than during the 2007-08 economic crisis. At that time, the crisis had severe effects on migration flows in OECD countries. Overall, free mobility decreased by 40% between 2007 and 2009.

In addition, data do not include asylum applicants. First estimates show that asylum requests in Europe declined by 33% over the first six months of 2020 compared to the same period in 2019 (by 66% when considering only the second quarter). Some countries suspended the processing of asylum applications at least in April while others continued at a slower pace. The rebound generally observed from May is partly due to the processing of requests from persons who entered prior to the lockdown.

What is clear is that the sharp decline in most countries over the first six months of 2020 is largely explained by COVID-19 related restrictions on travel and admission, and by suspension in services or reduced issuance of visas and permits. Many OECD countries introduced COVID-19 related entry bans or travel restrictions between mid February and April 2020 – restrictions which largely remained in place into the third quarter of 2020. By May 2020, much of the population in a number of countries – including Belgium, France, Italy, Spain as well as the United States – was in strict lockdown and foreigners subject to entry restrictions. Many countries also limited or suspended the processing of visa applications. For many

countries, consular and residence permit services had not fully resumed even by June 2020, especially for foreigners. Relaxation of admission restrictions in July and August in several countries will only be gradually reflected in third quarter data for 2020. Only a few countries – such as Sweden – did not impose restrictions during this period.

Nonetheless, despite the decline in most OECD countries for which data are reported, flows did not drop to zero. Inflows continued even during the peak of the first wave of COVID-19 – although a mere trickle in some countries. The continuation of inflows of non-nationals is largely due to the patchwork of exceptions to entry restrictions. Many countries drew up exemptions for certain categories, such as family members of nationals and permanent residents; international students following courses requiring their presence (Box 1); and essential workers (especially in health care but also in agriculture (Box 2) and transportation, in many cases). The definition of essential and critical workers or sectors varies among countries, but is rarely broad enough to keep labour inflows at anything resembling pre-COVID-19 levels.

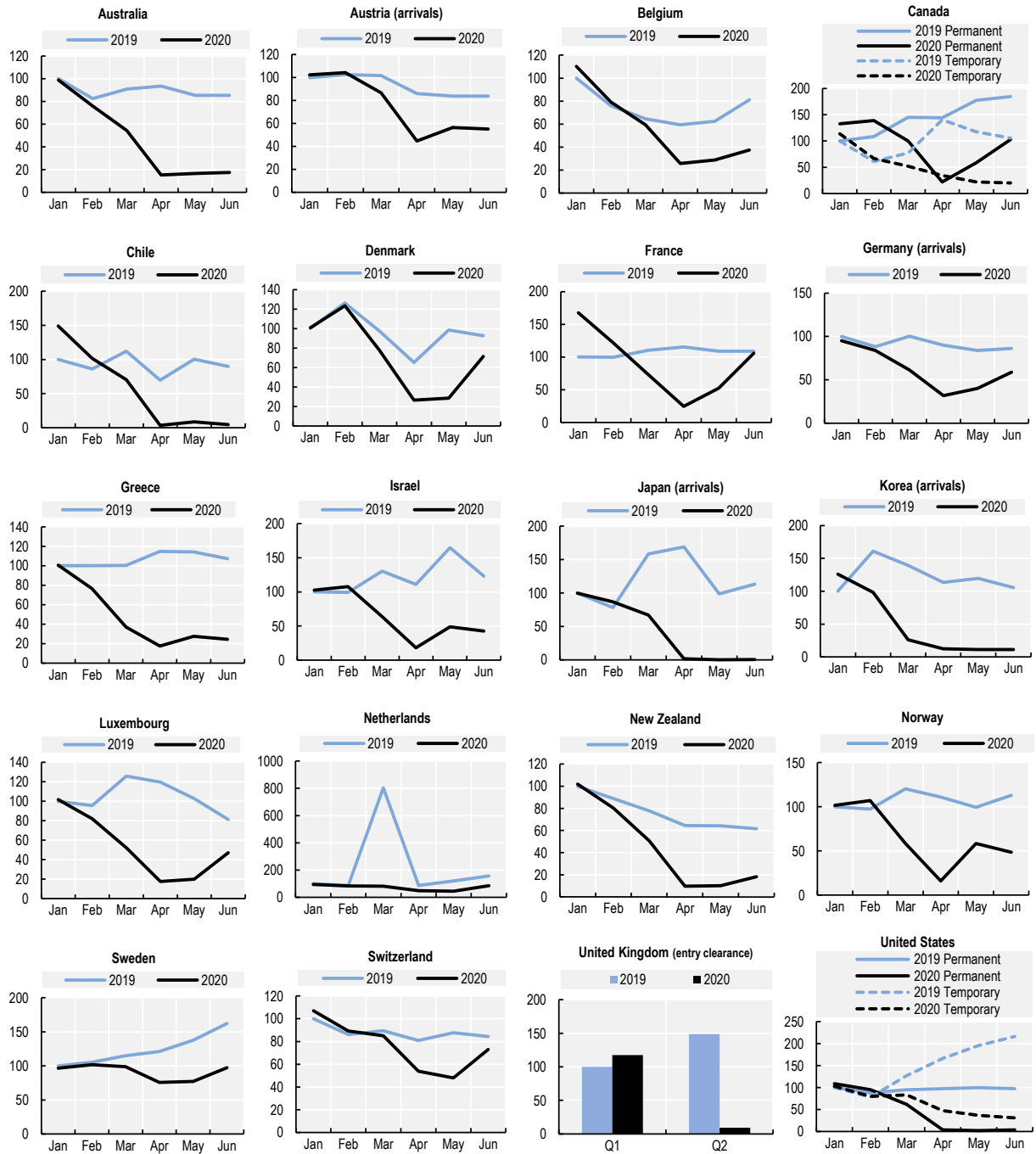
The largest drops in issuances were observed in countries which imposed the strictest and/or the longest entry restrictions. In Chile, Greece, Japan, Korea and the United States, numbers of issuances were less than half in the first semester 2020 compared to 2019. Japan and Korea – which also suspended the validity of previously issued visas to limit new entries – saw issuances of temporary and longer-term visas drop drastically over the first semester 2020, by -64% and -75%, respectively. In Korea, new visas were issued only if the applicant could submit a medical certificate and commit to self-quarantine. Visa-waiver and visa free entry programmes were suspended on a reciprocal basis. The 72% drop in permits issuances in Chile is partly due to the restrictions imposed on the entry of Venezuelans from the end of 2019 but also to the suspension of in-person appointments for issuance of permanence residency applications for selected nationals required to apply in person (notably nationals of Haiti and Peru). In Greece, Immigration and Asylum Services remained closed to the public from 12 March to 15 May 2020, processing only pending residence permit or asylum applications.

The United States reduced consular services and gradually suspended entry for aliens arriving from certain countries, started in February; by mid-March the list of restriction origin countries included China, Iran, the Schengen area in Europe and the United Kingdom and Ireland. Restrictions were placed on a number of visa categories in April, focusing on temporary visas allowing employment. Combined with reduced visa application processing, this produced a sharp drop in the number of visas issued by the US State Department. In the United Kingdom, the Home Office suspended all visa issuances. Visa processing capacity in New Zealand was disrupted and did not start to increase until May 2020, with priority given to residents, and temporary visa applications where the applicant has the capacity to support the government response to COVID-19. In Israel, restrictions on entry for foreigners meant work permit applications remained minimal and new long-term permits were issued only in urgent and exceptional cases.

Even when residence permit and long stay visa applications continued to be processed, residence permits were sometimes still withheld. In Finland, for example, data on applications approved remained stable over the period, since they reflect working through a backlog of applications rather than issuance of new visas. The significant exceptions to entry bans, generally related to essential sectors, such as health, food, energy and IT, explain why permit issuances appear relatively flat comparing 2019 with 2020, or even positive in some countries (Figure 1.1). In particular, Spain did not formally suspend visa processing, but implemented practical limitations on issuing visas. Work permit procedures were prioritised and streamlined for health care workers and agricultural workers. In other cases, the continuity in the data reflect the administration continuing to work through a backlog despite the pandemic.

Figure 1.1. Trends in migration inflows to OECD countries, first semesters 2019 and 2020

January 2019=100



Note: Number of issuances of new temporary (mostly temporary workers and students) and longer-term visa/permits, unless otherwise stated. Data do not include free mobility movements except arrival data. Estimates for Austria (Q2 2020); Belgium, Canada (temporary), Mexico, Spain (June 2020).

Source: Calculations from the Secretariat based on data provided by the Delegates of the OECD Working Party on Migration.

Box 1.1. International Student Admission under COVID-19

The COVID-19 pandemic affected universities, leading to closures of in-person learning and movement to on-line courses during the last part of the academic year 2019/2020. OECD countries allowed students to remain through the academic year even if their classes were on-line. A few countries, such as Finland and Israel, allow on-line students to enter the territory. However, many OECD countries decided not to admit students for the academic year 2020/2021 if their courses were entirely on-line. The United States, for example, issues visas only to new students meeting minimum levels of in-person instruction. Canada allows students to enter if their courses have been moved on line due to the pandemic, but only in the case when study is not possible in their home country, for example due to technical or political restrictions; the exception is made by the border officer. Initial evidence on visa issuance, however, suggests that entries for the new academic year will be delayed or reduced. The United States State Department issued 1 100 F-1 student visas in April-June 2020, compared with more than 140 000 in the same period of 2019. In Australia, visa grants for higher education students abroad fell by 85% between April-July 2019 and the same period in 2020. Regardless of the decision about visa issuance and admission for students following on line instruction, visa closures and processing delays impacted student visas and declines will be visible also in the third quarter of 2020.

Source: EMN/OECD. Inform # 2 – Impact of COVID-19 on international students in EU and OECD Member States.

Other countries where exceptions ensured ongoing flows include Ireland, where entry visa applications were processed only in certain categories (e.g. health care professionals, transport personnel engaged in haulage of goods and other transport staff to the extent necessary and immediate family members of Irish nationals). Migrants with an approved employment permit outside of these categories were not able to travel to Ireland. In Austria, long-term residents and their immediate family, as well as foreign health workers, were exempted from the travel ban. In Switzerland, the issue of new permits to foreigners outside the country mostly ceased, except for specific categories, such as health professionals or researchers working on the coronavirus, and for EU/EEA nationals working in essential sectors such as food, energy and IT sectors. In Canada, new visas for workers were only on the basis of exemptions to travel restrictions. These apply to persons employed in essential services; new temporary foreign workers were allowed to enter Canada. In Australia, there are only individual exemptions to general admission restrictions. The grounds for exemption for workers are determined by the Commissioner of the Australian Border Force and include “critical skills or working in a critical sector” as well as other exemptions.

In Belgium, applications for visas and permits were still accepted. Single permit applications could be submitted via email in all regions and pending applications, including renewals, were still processed. Nonetheless, issuances declined significantly.

Asylum seekers – included in the figures for some countries – continued to arrive, although in most cases in much smaller numbers due to the lockdown-related collapse in traditional transportation networks.

Restrictions and exemptions remain in place in many OECD countries and it is not likely that issuance of new visas will return to pre-COVID scale during 2020. In the United States, for example, restrictions on temporary employment visas remain in place through the end of 2020.

Box 1.2. Recruitment of seasonal agricultural workers in time of COVID-19 pandemic

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the lockdown posed critical issues to recruit temporary migrant workers who used to fill in jobs in key sectors, such as food, health and IT. Most OECD countries put in place special arrangements to let in key workers, notably seasonal workers and health professionals. Regarding seasonal agricultural workers, common responses included measures to extend the stay of seasonal workers already present and facilitations to allow categories of migrants otherwise prohibited from employment to work in agriculture. Many countries also included specific measures to allow and even facilitate the recruitment of new seasonal workers from abroad. However, many of them could ultimately not come and work in OECD countries due to exit bans imposed by selected origin countries (Thai workers to Sweden for example or Moroccans to Spain and France).

Australia, Canada and the United States took the path of providing individual exemptions to the general admission restrictions. In the United States, H-2 temporary workers – in agriculture (H-2A) and seasonal and cyclical jobs (H-2Bs) became the most important temporary work category. H-2s were just 5% of all temporary visas issued in April-June 2019, but 71% of all visas issued April-June 2020. There were no restrictions on H-2A workers, although H-2B workers could only be accepted if the worker was endorsed by a US Government agency as critical, or demonstrate that they were “necessary to facilitate the immediate and continued economic recovery”.

Australia resumed admission of seasonal workers in August 2020, requiring employers to pay for their 2-week quarantine. The Seasonal Worker Program and Pacific Labour Scheme are the only automatic exemption to a general admission restriction for foreign workers. Charter flights for some workers were arranged starting in August.

In Japan and Israel, exemptions were very limited. In New Zealand, new admission of seasonal agricultural workers under the Recognised Seasonal Employers (RSE) programme is suspended; most efforts are concentrated on repatriation or redeployment of the RSE workers stranded in New Zealand at the end of the season.

In Europe, Austria, Belgium, Germany, Finland, Poland, Sweden and Slovak Republic lifted travel restrictions for seasonal workers planning to enter the territory during the pandemic; Hungary did so as well, but only for arrivals from neighbouring countries. Germany authorised the entry of foreign seasonal workers in April and May for a total of 80 000 persons – predominantly Romanian and Bulgarian citizens, who do not appear in the statistics in Figure 1.1. Greece re-authorised, on 1 May 2020, the entry of seasonal workers from non-EU countries exempted from entry visa requirements, such as Albania, upon an employer’s request lodged before 30 June 2020. The Czech Republic reinitiated admission of seasonal workers on 11 May 2020. Austria, Italy and the United Kingdom arranged special charter flights for seasonal agricultural workers.

In Norway, special measures have been taken for seasonal agricultural workers to enter from 12 May. Sweden saw 43% fewer berry-pickers come, since Thailand, the main origin country, initially discouraged its nationals from departing due to the pandemic and only authorised departures mid-season. There were 6 200 berry-pickers in Sweden in 2019, and only 3 500 through August 2020 – most of whom were only approved in July, and do not appear in the first semester data. In Finland, Thai berry pickers only arrived from July.

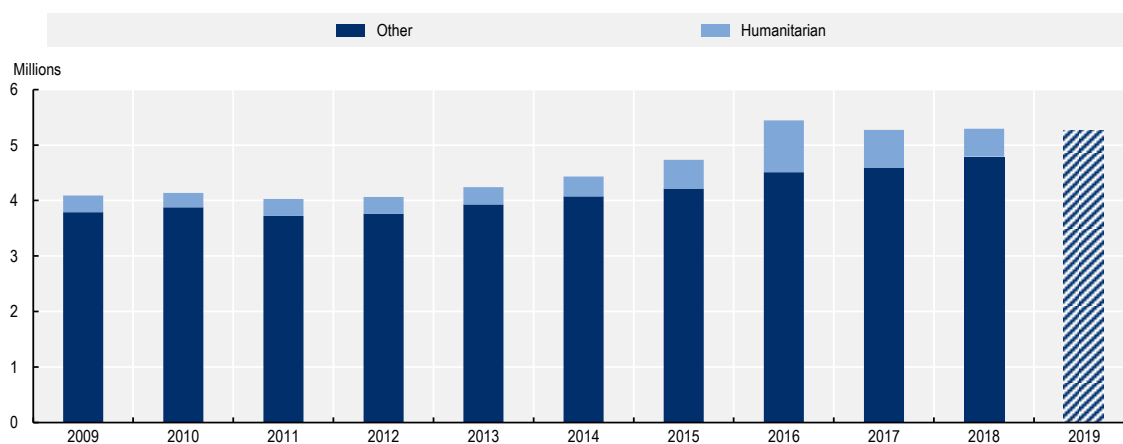
Source: Information provided by the Delegates to the Working Party on Migration and by the European Migration Network.

Permanent-type migration to OECD countries in 2018 and 2019

Overall permanent-type migration in 2019 in the OECD (referred to as “permanent migration” in this section) reached around 5.3 million new migrants. This excludes flows to Colombia and Turkey which hosted a large number of humanitarian migrants in the recent years. Excluding these two countries, flows of new permanent immigrants remained stable in 2018 and 2019 (Figure 1.2). In 2019, permanent migration declined to the two main OECD destination countries, United States and Germany for the third year in a row, but flows to most other OECD countries went up.

Permanent migration flows to the United States have been regularly declining since 2017 and stood at 1 million new lawful permanent residents in 2019 (Table 1.1). In Germany, after a 27% and a 3% drop in 2018 and 2019, respectively, migration flows were back to around 600 000, a level comparable to that observed before the refugee crisis. Migration flows to Spain increased sharply, reaching around 400 000 immigrants in 2019, more than in any year since 2008. Over the same year, in Canada, migration flows increased by 6% to reach 340 000, the highest level of the decade. The decade also ends with a record in France where flows from non-EU countries increased every year throughout the 2010s. In the Netherlands and Japan too, the strong increase observed in 2019 put flows at record levels, and Israel, with lower levels of migration flows, also witnessed a 2-digit increase.

Figure 1.2. Permanent migration flows to OECD countries, 2009-19



Note: Data for 2008 to 2018 is the sum of standardised figures for countries where they are available (accounting for 95% of the total), and unstandardised figures for other countries (excluding Turkey and Colombia). 2019 data are estimated based on growth rates published in official national statistics and include humanitarian flows.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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Sweden is one of the rare OECD countries that saw a significant reduction in permanent migration flows in 2019 (-14%) although the number of new immigrants remained above 100 000. In New Zealand, migration reached its lowest level in a decade (38 000). The only other OECD countries where immigration declined were Italy (-9%), Denmark (-4%) and Korea (-2%). Migration flows to Australia, Austria and Switzerland were stable in 2019. Small increases were registered in other OECD countries.

Table 1.1. Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD countries, 2010-19

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019 (estimates)	2019/18 change (%)
Standardised statistics											
United States	1 043.3	1 062.4	1 031.9	990.8	1 017.3	1 051.0	1 183.5	1 127.2	1 096.6	1 031.0	-6
Germany	222.5	290.8	400.2	468.8	574.8	686.5	1 054.0	861.0	630.8	612.1	-3
Spain	280.4	265.0	220.1	285.7	275.2	276.3	299.2	324.1	344.2	408.5	+19
United Kingdom	448.7	339.8	287.0	295.1	350.0	369.9	351.0	342.2	342.8	345.7	+1
Canada	281.3	249.3	258.3	262.8	261.4	275.9	296.4	286.4	320.4	340.5	+6
France	220.4	226.6	244.5	254.4	250.7	255.4	258.8	259.9	277.3	292.3	+5
Italy	445.3	375.3	308.1	278.7	241.8	221.6	212.1	216.9	224.6	205.3	-9
Australia	208.5	219.5	245.1	254.4	231.0	226.2	227.0	218.1	192.8	193.0	+0
Netherlands	84.5	89.9	88.5	92.8	104.0	111.3	125.1	128.2	136.2	152.6	+12
Japan	55.7	59.1	66.4	57.3	63.9	81.8	95.2	100.6	116.4	132.1	+14
Switzerland	115.0	124.3	125.6	135.6	134.6	131.2	125.0	118.4	122.1	122.5	+0
Belgium	117.0	100.9	100.1	95.6	100.5	103.8	106.2	107.7	109.2	114.8	+5
Sweden	79.9	87.6	99.5	108.9	118.0	121.1	154.9	132.9	123.7	106.2	-14
Portugal	41.2	34.3	27.9	26.4	30.5	31.2	32.8	39.6	64.0	87.7	+37
Austria	45.9	55.2	70.8	70.8	80.9	103.0	105.7	98.6	87.1	81.0	-7
Korea	38.1	43.0	39.7	48.2	55.7	59.6	66.5	66.0	70.2	68.8	-2
Czech Republic	28.0	20.7	28.6	27.8	38.5	31.6	34.8	43.5	55.9	63.3	+13
Denmark	37.4	36.7	39.7	47.7	55.1	66.9	60.8	56.8	56.0	53.6	-4
Ireland	23.5	26.3	24.3	28.2	30.5	35.5	41.9	40.2	45.1
Norway	58.6	64.0	61.7	61.1	58.6	53.1	55.8	45.3	40.5	41.3	+2
Mexico	26.4	21.7	21.0	55.0	43.5	34.4	35.9	32.6	38.7	38.7	+0
New Zealand	48.5	44.5	42.7	45.1	49.9	54.6	55.7	47.2	45.0	38.3	-15
Israel	24.1	27.9	26.0	26.4	28.1	33.0	+17
Finland	18.2	20.4	23.3	23.9	23.6	21.4	27.3	23.7	23.1	24.2	+4
Luxembourg	17.5	18.0	19.0	19.4	19.5	21.5	21.6	22.6	+5
Total	3 968.1	3 857.2	3 872.5	4 033.1	4 233.2	4 450.7	5 051.0	4 765.1	4 612.5
EU included above	2 092.9	1 969.5	1 980.1	2 123.0	2 293.1	2 454.9	2 884.1	2 696.9	2 541.6
Of which: free movements	923.9	1 034.2	1 139.5	1 199.6	1 343.7	1 360.2	1 374.7	1 314.2	1 283.0
Annual percent change (%)		-3	0	4	5	5	13	-6	-3
National statistics (unstandardised)											
Turkey	273.9	364.6	466.9	578.5	+24
Chile	41.4	50.7	65.2	84.4	83.5	101.9	135.5	207.2	339.4	254.1	-25
Poland	41.1	41.3	47.1	46.6	32.0	86.1	107.0	128.0	137.6	154.3	+12
Greece	35.4	33.0	32.0	31.3	29.5	34.0	86.1	80.5	87.3	94.3	+8
Hungary	23.9	22.5	20.3	21.3	26.0	25.8	23.8	36.5	49.3	55.3	+12
Slovenia	12.7	10.8	12.3	11.6	11.3	12.7	13.8	15.5	24.1	27.6	+14
Lithuania	1.1	1.7	2.5	3.0	4.8	3.7	6.0	10.2	12.3	19.7	+60
Estonia	1.2	1.7	1.1	1.6	1.3	7.4	7.7	9.1	9.7	11.0	+13
Iceland	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.9	4.3	5.0	7.9	11.8	11.5	9.5	-17
Colombia	5.7	8.3	11.3	10.6	7.8	-27
Latvia	2.8	2.9	3.7	3.5	4.5	4.5	3.4	5.1	6.6	6.6	+1
Slovak Republic	4.2	3.8	2.9	2.5	2.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9	2.5	-13
Grand total (bar Turkey and Colombia)	4 134.7	4 028.2	4 062.5	4 242.9	4 432.9	4 735.5	5 445.8	5 271.8	5 293.1	5 289.1	0

Note: Includes only foreign nationals. The inflows include status changes, i.e. those in the country on a temporary status who obtained the right to stay on a longer-term basis. Series for some countries have been significantly revised. In this table as well as in the rest of the publication, EU averages cover countries stated in the table, including the United Kingdom. 2019 data are estimated.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

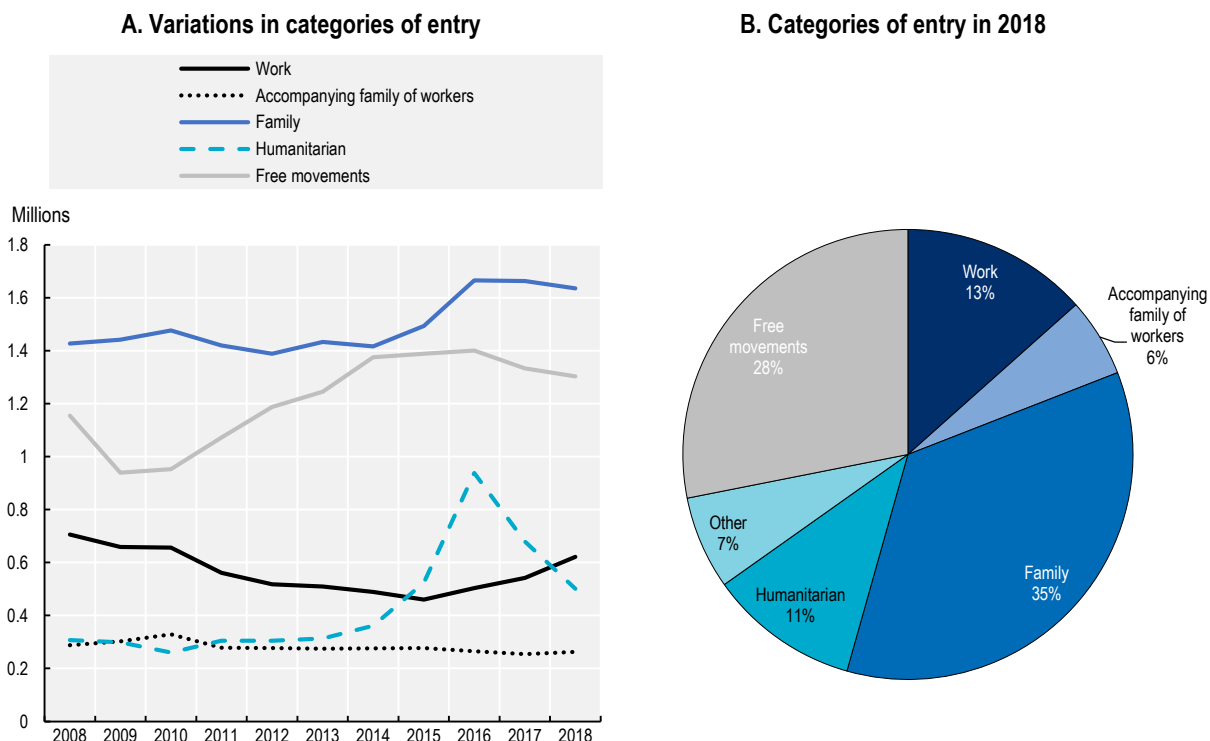
StatLink  <https://stat.link/q8o9pi>

Among countries for which standardised migration figures are not available, Lithuania registered a huge increase (+60%), the fourth consecutively since 2015, so that immigration in 2019 is five times higher than in 2015. Estonia also witnessed a rising trend in immigration since 2015, but at a slower pace (+13% in 2019). In Chile, after a 66% increase in 2018 (90% of which is due to flows of Venezuelans and Haitians), the number of visas granted declined by 25% in 2019. In Iceland, the number of new immigrants went back below 10 000 (-17%).

Humanitarian migration to OECD countries has been declining rapidly since 2016 (Figure 1.3). In 2019, humanitarian flows to OECD countries for which data are available displayed an overall 25% drop, with the United States accounting for most of it. The United Kingdom, Sweden and Austria also admitted much fewer humanitarian migrants in 2019 than in 2018. The share of humanitarian migrants in total permanent immigration to OECD countries had gone down from 14% in 2017 to 11% in 2018, and went down further in 2019, under 10% for the countries for which the information is available.

Overall, other categories of migration flows went up slightly in 2019. In fact, non-humanitarian migration to OECD countries increased every year since 2011 but this trend was hidden by the large fluctuations of refugee flows.

Figure 1.3. Permanent migration flows to OECD countries by category of entry, 2008-18



Note: Includes only countries for which data on permanent migration are available.
 Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink <https://stat.link/8nksya>

In 2019, permanent labour migration to OECD countries rose sharply (+13% in countries with available data). Half of the countries registered double-digit increases, including the United Kingdom (+42%), Finland (+29%), Luxembourg (+29%), Japan (+17%) or France (+12%). Flows of highly skilled workers

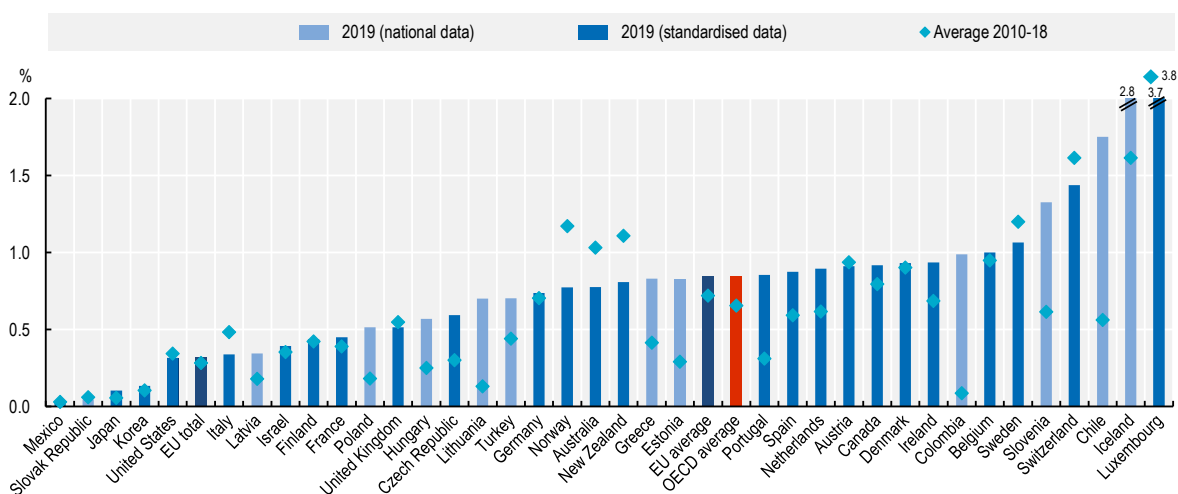
largely drove this trend, notably in the United Kingdom. Only New Zealand saw a reduction in labour migration (-5%) in the context of a general decline of immigration (Annex Table 1.A.1).

Family migration also increased in 2019, by 2%, and remained the main category. Family migration accounted for 32% in 2018, and partial data show that more than one in three migrant to OECD countries in 2019 was a family migrant. This small rise set family migration (excluding accompanying family) to around 1.7 million new permanent migrants. The United States is by far the main country of destination for family migrants and granted lawful permanent resident status to more than 700 000 of them in 2019 (+2%). Family migration increased in two-thirds of OECD countries for which data on permanent migration are available, notably in the United Kingdom (19%), Luxembourg (+14%), Japan (+13%) and in the Netherlands (+10%). Among the countries where family migration declined, New Zealand stands out (-31%).

Within the European Union free mobility decreased slightly (-2%) in 2019 but its share remained at 28% of all flows. Migration from the EU to the United Kingdom had almost doubled between 2009 and 2015, but has dropped regularly since. In 2019, the decline reached -10%. Other countries with a notable reduction of inflows of EU citizens are Sweden (-11%), Norway (-9%) and Finland (-4%). On the other hand, the Netherlands and Denmark experienced increases in intra-EU migration.

Figure 1.4. Permanent migration flows to selected OECD countries, 2010-19

Percentage of the total population



Note: 2018 instead of 2019 for Italy, Ireland, Poland, and Greece. Data for countries in light blue are not standardised. EU average is the average of EU countries presented in the chart. EU total represents the entries of third-country nationals into EU countries for which standardised data are available, as a percentage of their total population.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/fy5mkh>

In 2019, OECD countries received on average eight new migrants per thousand inhabitants (Figure 1.4). This figure is stable since 2017, and slightly above the average for the rest of the decade. In two-thirds of the OECD countries, the 2019 ratio is higher than the one for the 2010-18 period. The difference is particularly strong in many Central and Eastern European countries, as well as in Chile and in Iceland. Norway, New Zealand, Australia, Switzerland, Sweden and Italy are the main countries for which this ratio has declined between 2010-18 and 2019.

Temporary labour migration

This section presents the latest statistics on national programmes for the international recruitment of temporary workers and on posted workers in the European Union.

There is a wide range of national work programmes helping employers to recruit, for a short period, persons in specific occupations or sectors, in particular those with a seasonal activity such as agriculture and tourism. Working holidaymakers programmes target youth and internship programmes new graduates. Many temporary labour migration programmes are governed by bilateral agreements. The international mobility of intra-company transferees is governed by international treaties such as the General Agreement on Trade in Services and a specific EU directive. Annex Table 1.A.3 lists the national temporary labour migration permits presented in this section and their characteristics. Inside the EU-EFTA, temporary labour migration is largely driven by postings inside the area.

Poland, the United States, Germany, Australia and France remain the five main OECD destinations for temporary labour migrants (Figure 1.5). In 2018, more than 5.1 million temporary labour migrants entered OECD countries, a 5% increase over 2017. The number of entries decreased in only five countries out of 34 countries for which statistics are available. The first permit statistics available indicate that the upward trend continued in 2019 (Table 1.2).

Figure 1.5. Inflows of temporary labour migrants: 20 main OECD receiving countries in 2018



Note: Intra-EU labour mobility is only partially captured through posted workers. Excludes accompanying family of temporary workers.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zk6ywc>

Seasonal workers

In several European OECD countries, the number of entries for seasonal work rebounded in 2017 or 2018 after a decade of decline when the recruitments from the new EU members were enough to meet employers' labour needs in agriculture or tourism (Table 1.2). In light of the anticipated shortage of agricultural workers following Brexit, the United Kingdom opened a 2-year seasonal programme in 2019 that allowed recruiting 2 500 seasonal workers from outside the EU. In 2020, the programme was expanded to allow farmers to hire up to 10 000 workers. Germany, after delivering not less than 300 000 seasonal worker permits annually prior to the EU enlargement in 2004, now recruits essentially

within the EU, with Polish workers filling most seasonal vacancies. In turn, the number of workers Poland receives, mostly from Ukraine, is notable in the OECD. Rapidly after it entered the EU, Poland became the first OECD destination for seasonal workers, before the United States. In 2018, the number of entries for seasonal work in Poland cannot be isolated from other entries for temporary work in general but is likely to exceed half-a-million given the overall increase of 5% for temporary workers in 2019. With the exception of Mexico, the number of permits delivered to perform seasonal work grew continuously in the last decade in non-European OECD countries. In the United States, the number of seasonal workers in the agriculture exceeded 200 000 in 2019, a 4% increase, down from a 22% rise in 2018.

Table 1.2. Inflows of temporary labour migrants for selected categories, 2010-19

Destination	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2018/17 change (%)
Thousands											
Seasonal workers											
Total OECD	605.5	(368.5)	(191.2)	(192.4)	362.5	527.5	685.5	795.6	(323.2)
Poland	73.2	176.1	321.0	446.8	525.4
United States	55.9	55.4	65.3	74.2	89.3	108.1	134.4	161.6	196.4	204.8	+22
Canada	24.1	25.1	25.7	27.6	29.8	30.8	34.2	35.2	35.9	..	+2
Finland	12.0	12.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	12.0	14.0	14.0	15.5	..	+11
Spain	8.7	4.5	3.8	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.9	5.7	13.8	11.6	+142
New Zealand	7.7	7.8	8.2	8.4	9.4	9.8	11.1	11.7	13.1	14.4	+12
Mexico	27.4	27.6	21.7	15.2	14.6	15.9	14.9	12.4	10.7	10.0	-14
Australia	0.1	0.4	1.1	1.5	2.0	3.2	4.5	6.2	8.5	..	+37
France	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.1	6.6	6.7	6.8	7.2	8.1	11.4	+13
Austria	31.4	17.5	13.2	15.1	7.2	6.9	6.7	6.9	7.6	..	+11
Italy	27.7	15.2	9.7	7.6	4.8	3.6	3.5	3.6	5.6	..	+56
Sweden	4.5	3.8	5.7	6.2	2.9	4.1	3.3	3.1	5.0	..	+62
Norway	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.4	+10
United Kingdom	21.3	16.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	..
Working holidaymakers											
Total OECD	(379.2)	(378.6)	(420.1)	(470.6)	467.0	465.1	469.5	479.7	(475.1)
Australia	183.2	192.9	223.0	258.2	239.6	226.8	214.6	211.0	210.5	209.0	-0
United States	118.2	97.6	79.8	86.4	90.3	95.0	101.1	104.9	104.5	..	-0
New Zealand	43.3	43.1	48.7	54.7	61.4	65.3	70.1	67.3	63.2	..	-6
Canada	0.0	13.6	36.3	36.6	36.0	33.4	38.5	48.2	48.6	..	+1
United Kingdom	21.3	20.7	19.6	20.9	23.5	25.3	22.3	21.6	20.9	20.2	-3
Japan	10.1	7.5	9.3	9.1	8.1	10.4	11.9	13.8	15.9	..	+15
France	2.7	2.9	3.9	4.3	5.0	..	+17
Ireland	1.6	1.3	1.4	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.3
Korea	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.7	+29
Denmark	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.8	3.7	+19
Sweden	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.2	..	+87
Trainees											
Total OECD	95.1	99.8	103.5	101.5	115.7	130.8	139.3	162.5	174.7	..	+8
Japan	77.7	82.3	85.9	83.9	98.7	112.7	121.9	144.1	157.8	186.9	+10
Germany	4.9	4.9	4.1	3.9	3.8	4.3	3.9	4.0	4.6	..	+14
Australia	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.5	4.6	4.2	4.5	2.9	..	-36
France	1.0	1.0	1.2	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	..	+0
Denmark	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.9	2.3	2.4	+19
New Zealand	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.2	..	-22
Korea	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.8	-21
United States	1.8	2.1	2.9	2.7	2.2	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.0	-16

Destination	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2018/17 change (%)
Thousands											
Intra-company transferees											
Total OECD	136.2	137.8	133.5	139.4	(142.1)	155.0	155.5	153.8	149.3	..	-3
United States	74.7	70.7	62.4	66.7	71.5	78.5	79.3	78.2	74.4	77.0	-5
United Kingdom	29.2	29.7	29.3	33.2	36.6	36.4	36.0	32.8	31.7	27.2	-3
Canada	10.3	11.1	12.4	11.5	11.4	9.8	9.8	11.0	12.8	..	+16
Japan	5.8	5.3	6.1	6.2	7.2	7.2	7.7	8.7	9.5	10.0	+9
Germany	5.9	7.1	7.2	7.8	9.4	9.3	7.5	7.3	8.0	6.7	+10
Australia	6.0	8.2	10.1	8.9	..	7.8	8.1	7.6	4.4	..	-42
France	2.2	2.8	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.8	3.4	3.4	..	+0
Spain	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.0	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.8	1.9	..	+4
Norway	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	0.7	1.4	1.7	1.7	..	-2

Note: For each type of permit, the table presents only the countries for which inflows exceed one thousand in 2018 (numbers in brackets indicate that the total differs from the sum of the countries presented). The number of seasonal workers refers to the number of permits granted, with the exception of France where counts are the actual number of entries and of Austria where it refers to the number of individuals. Seasonal workers in Poland cannot be isolated in 2018 and 2019; they are included in the category “other temporary workers” in Figure 1.5.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/gey46p>

Working holidaymakers and trainees

In 2018, more than 475 000 youth received permits to enter OECD countries for holidays with the permission to engage in certain paid activities of a duration between 4 and 12 months (see Annex Table 1.A.3 for the characteristics of the national programmes). Large and well-established programmes in Australia, the United States, New Zealand and the United Kingdom are partly capped and did not grow in number in the last years. On the contrary, newer programmes as well as the Canadian programme gained importance every year in the last decade.

The international mobility of trainees is not widespread in OECD countries apart for Japan. This country delivered 158 000 new permits for trainees and technical intern trainees in 2018, twice the number of permits delivered in 2010.

Intra-company transferees

The number of temporary permits delivered by OECD countries to the staff of companies with local branches in different countries is marking time since 2017. In 2018, this number is only 10% higher than eight years earlier. In 2019, while it rebounded in the United States, the largest destination country, it decreased for the third year in a row in the United Kingdom.

Intra-EU/EFTA posted workers

Inside the EU/EFTA, posted workers are defined as salaried or self-employed workers who generally carry out their activity in another member country while staying affiliated to the social security system in their home country. When workers are posted in one single country, the posting cannot exceed 24 months (EC No 987/2009 Article 12), whereas there is no time limit for workers posted in two or more countries (EC No 987/2009 Article 13)¹. In 2018, the average duration of a posting is 91 days for postings falling under Article 12 of the Regulation and 299 days for postings falling under Article 13 of the Regulation. Workers posted to work in a unique country are often employed in the construction sector (40%) while half of the workers posted in multiple countries work in the freight transport sector. The certificate of affiliation (portable document A1) delivered by the country of origin can only be used as an estimate of the number of postings to another country in the case of workers falling under Article 12 of the regulation because in the case of workers falling under Article 13 the country where work is performed is not recorded. Therefore,


the number of postings per country of destination in the last decade presented in Table 1.3 is not comprehensive. Still, it can serve for international comparisons and trend observations purposes.

Table 1.3. Postings of workers inside the EU/EFTA by destination country, 2010-18

Destination	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2018/17 change (%)
	Thousands									
Total OECD	1 040.8	1 191.1	1 173.4	1 275.6	1 365.9	1 425.2	1 539.1	1 639.1	1 718.2	+5
Germany	250.1	311.4	335.9	373.7	414.2	418.9	440.1	427.2	428.9	+0
France	160.5	162.0	156.5	182.2	190.8	184.7	203.0	241.4	262.1	+9
Belgium	90.5	125.1	125.3	134.3	159.7	156.6	178.3	167.3	156.7	-6
Netherlands	91.6	105.9	99.4	100.4	87.8	89.4	90.9	111.5	126.3	+13
Austria	59.6	76.3	76.4	88.6	101.0	108.6	120.2	141.0	119.9	-15
Switzerland	52.0	62.6	64.9	78.1	87.5	97.7	104.3	105.7	113.8	+8
Italy	60.5	64.2	48.7	47.4	52.5	59.1	61.3	64.7	73.9	+14
Spain	63.3	47.6	46.1	46.5	44.8	47.4	52.4	60.5	63.9	+6
United Kingdom	34.3	37.2	40.4	43.5	50.9	54.3	57.2	59.6	60.8	+2
Sweden	19.5	24.4	26.1	29.4	33.0	37.4	39.1	44.0	53.8	+22
Luxembourg	27.7	24.3	19.7	20.5	21.8	21.7	26.6	32.7	36.5	+12
Czech Republic	15.9	17.1	17.8	18.6	17.2	19.1	22.7	24.2	30.6	+26
Portugal	12.2	13.3	11.4	10.7	12.8	15.4	18.1	22.6	29.0	+28
Poland	12.9	16.0	16.0	14.4	14.5	17.9	17.8	20.6	26.7	+30
Norway	18.8	30.5	16.2	18.8	21.3	25.0	23.8	22.9	26.6	+16
Denmark	9.6	11.0	11.0	10.8	10.9	13.4	15.7	15.6	20.3	+30
Finland	20.2	22.2	22.5	19.9	6.6	18.6	21.0	22.3	19.6	-12
Hungary	8.5	9.9	9.9	8.9	9.0	9.7	11.3	12.8	17.1	+34
Slovak Republic	8.7	6.9	6.6	7.0	7.6	8.1	9.7	13.6	14.0	+3
Greece	10.7	7.8	6.8	4.8	4.7	5.7	6.4	8.1	11.2	+38
Slovenia	3.4	2.7	3.3	4.5	6.6	5.7	5.1	6.2	9.2	+47
Ireland	5.0	6.1	4.7	5.6	4.0	4.0	5.8	6.2	7.8	+27
Estonia	1.2	1.9	2.3	3.0	3.0	2.3	3.7	3.0	3.2	+5
Lithuania	1.9	2.2	3.5	2.3	1.9	2.4	2.0	2.3	3.0	+34
Latvia	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.4	2.2	+62
Iceland	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.6	1.4	1.7	1.0	-44

Note: The receiving country is unknown for 41% of the 3 million postings in 2018: when the posted workers is active in two or more member states and for postings originating from Norway, Switzerland and from part of Austria. In addition, in previous years, the receiving country is unknown for postings originating from Denmark, Finland and the United Kingdom; therefore, comparability over time is limited.

Source: De Wispelaere and Pacolet – HIVA-KU Leuven (2019).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t61vwp>

Almost 3 million postings were recorded inside the EU-EFTA in 2018. Among them, 1.7 million fell under Article 12 and were directed to an OECD country. This represents a 5% increase compared to the previous year and a 65% increase since 2010. Germany remains the first destination country for postings in 2018 followed by France. The number of postings grew up in most European OECD countries in 2018. The number of postings to Austria, Finland and Belgium decreased slightly in 2018 but remained higher than the levels observed in 2015. Interestingly some of the countries which traditionally received very few posted workers have registered some of the largest increases in 2018. This is the case notably for Slovenia (+47%), Greece (+38%), Slovak Republic (+34%) and Lithuania and Latvia with respectively +34% and +62%.

Poland was the first issuing country of postings (directed to one or more countries) followed by Germany and Spain. The number of postings originating from Slovenia decreased by a third in 2018 while those originating from Austria and Spain increased respectively by 60% and 30% that same year.

Net postings are challenging to measure due to some data limitation, but it is worth noting that the largest receiving countries such as Germany and France are also amongst the top five largest sending countries.

International students

Most recent stock data show that in 2017 and 2018 the number of international students enrolled in tertiary programmes across the OECD area increased by 5%. This trend confirms the continuous increase in movements of international students observed over the past few decades. In 2018, around 3.9 million and 1.8 million of international students were enrolled in the OECD area and in the European OECD countries, respectively (Table 1.4).

In 2018, more than 60% of international students in tertiary programmes were in the top five receiving countries (United States – 25.1%; the United Kingdom – 11.5%; Australia – 11.3%; Germany – 7.9% and France – 5.8%). The greatest growth in absolute numbers of international students took place in Norway, Portugal and Latvia. Six OECD countries experienced a reduction in their stock of international tertiary students, notably Mexico, Poland and France. Overall, the distribution of international students across OECD countries remained stable: nearly half of the international students went to study in a European OECD country.

International students accounted for an average of 6% of the OECD tertiary-level student population in 2018. In spite of recent increases, the share of international students is still negligible in Latin American countries, and remains low in Central and Eastern European countries (except in the Czech Republic and in Hungary). Conversely, 19.7% and 26.5% of tertiary-level students in New Zealand and Australia are international, and this proportion reaches nearly 50% for Luxembourg.

On average in the OECD, international students account for 13% of all enrolments in master's programmes and 22% of PhD enrolments. The latter share reaches more than 50% in Luxembourg and Switzerland, and more than 40% in New Zealand, the Netherlands, Belgium and the United Kingdom.

Around 2.2 million of the total 3.9 million international tertiary-level students across the OECD area come from Asia (Figure 1.6), with Chinese students representing almost a fourth of all enrolments (904 000). Other major Asian source countries of international students are India (317 000) and Korea (96 500). European students represent a fourth of all international students enrolled in OECD countries. Germany, France and Italy are the largest origin countries, with respectively 116 000, 93 000 and 70 000 students in other OECD countries. Although only less than one in ten international students originate from Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean, these regions experienced some of the fastest growth rates in emigration of tertiary-level students between 2013 and 2018.

Table 1.4. International students enrolled in OECD countries, 2018

	International tertiary students		International students as a share of all students (%)		
	Total (thousands)	2018/17 change (%)	Total tertiary education	Master's or equivalent level	Doctoral or equivalent level
Australia	445	+17	27	53	34
Austria	75	+2	17	22	33
Belgium	54	+20	10	19	42
Canada	225	+7	14	17	35
Chile	6	+21	0	1	12
Colombia	5	+5	0	1	3
Czech Republic	45	+1	14	16	18
Denmark	33	-1	11	20	36
Estonia	4	+12	10	14	17
Finland	24	-2	8	12	23
France	230	-11	9	12	38
Germany	312	+20	10	16	12
Greece	26	+5	3	1	1
Hungary	32	+13	11	19	19
Iceland	1	+16	8	11	33
Ireland	22	+12	10	20	30
Israel	11	+0	3	5	7
Italy	107	+9	6	6	16
Japan	183	+11	5	9	19
Korea	85	+20	3	9	11
Latvia	8	+23	9	20	10
Lithuania	6	+9	5	11	7
Luxembourg	3	+2	48	78	86
Mexico	7	-71	0	1	2
Netherlands	105	+9	12	17	44
New Zealand	53	+0	20	32	49
Norway	12	+37	4	7	21
Poland	54	-15	4	5	2
Portugal	28	+27	8	10	29
Slovak Republic	12	+8	8	10	10
Slovenia	3	+11	4	6	10
Spain	71	+9	3	11	17
Sweden	31	+8	7	12	36
Switzerland	54	+2	18	29	56
Turkey	125	+16	2	5	8
United Kingdom	452	+4	18	35	41
United States	987	+0	5	13	25
EU23 total	1 806	+5	9	14	23
OECD total	3 939	+5	6	13	22
OECD average	..	+7	10	16	24

Note: Data for Colombia, the Czech Republic, Israel, Italy, Korea, the Slovak Republic and Turkey refer to foreign students instead of international students.

Source: OECD Education at a Glance Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/edu-data-en>.


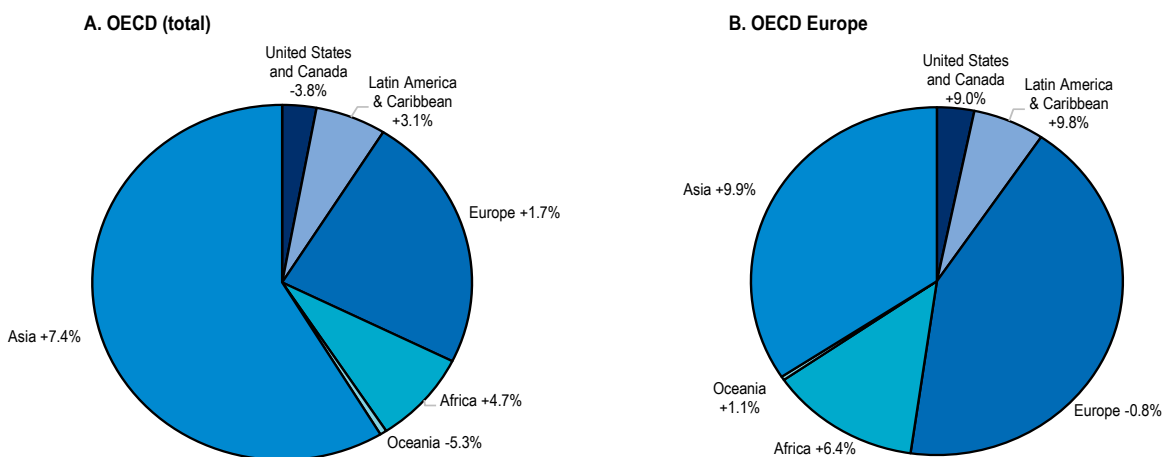
StatLink  <https://stat.link/vkp792>

Figure 1.6. International students enrolled in OECD countries by origin, 2018 and 2018-17 percentage change



Source: OECD Education at a Glance Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/edu-data-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/9r16ul>

Previous data analysed international students stocks up to 2018. Statistics on new permits granted to international students in 2018 (excluding intra EU movements of students) shades some additional light on the dynamic of the phenomenon.

In 2018, around 1 560 000 visas were granted to tertiary-level students, 3% more than in the previous year (Table 1.5). There has been an almost continuous rise over the past decade, driven most recently by increasing flows to European and Asian destination countries. 2019 data confirm a strong growth in Europe while flows to Korea remained stable and decreased slightly by 2% in Japan.

After a sharp decrease from 644 000 in 2015 to 362 900 in 2018, the number of residence permits issued to international tertiary-level students in the United States slightly rose by 0.4% in 2019. The increase was notable for students from China (+6.9%) and India (+2.4%), the two main origin countries. Permits for all others fell by 4%. The increase for China and India follows several years of decline – between 2015 and 2018, flows from these countries fell by 64% and 43% respectively, although these declines were partly due to introduction of multi-year permits.

Excluding the United States, inflows of tertiary-educated students have been increasing continuously since 2012 in the OECD area. Among the top six destinations in 2019, flows have increased the most in Canada and the United Kingdom (+13%), and decreased only in Japan (-2%).


Table 1.5. Inflows of international tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2008-19

Number of permits issued

	2008	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019/18	2018/08
	Thousands					Change (%)	
United States	340.7	471.7	393.6	362.9	364.2	+0	+7
United Kingdom	249.9	270.6	305.8	330.9	374.5	+13	+32
Australia	114.4	136.8	156.6	162.9	173.4	+6	+42
Canada	45.9	107.1	135.6	152.6	173.1	+13	+233
Japan	58.1	108.1	123.2	124.3	121.6	-2	+114
France	52.1	71.2	77.9	80.4	87.4	+9	+54
Germany	22.2	37.3	39.5	48.0	+117
Spain	21.7	35.6	39.7	42.0	45.0	+7	+94
Korea	14.7	27.3	28.2	35.5	35.3	+0	+141
Ireland	12.5	21.4	27.6	30.2	34.7	+15	+141
Poland	4.5	21.3	21.6	26.0	6.1	-77	+483
New Zealand	20.0	25.5	24.5	22.7	14
Netherlands	8.9	16.0	17.0	18.3	20.2	+11	+106
Sweden	11.2	11.3	13.4	13.9	15.5	+11	+24
Switzerland	11.0	11.3	11.2	11.2	+1
Hungary	7.8	7.8	10.8	10.8	+39
Denmark	7.4	9.2	8.9	8.9	8.5	-5	+20
Portugal	4.3	3.5	4.9	8.4	13.4	+60	+93
Belgium	6.4	5.7	6.2	6.2	8.0	+28	-2
Finland	4.8	6.3	5.2	5.2	5.2	+1	+8
Austria	3.0	4.5	4.1	3.8	3.6	-4	+25
Norway	2.7	3.2	3.8	3.6	3.8	+6	33
Czech Republic	1.4	5.7	2.9	3.5	6.1	+73	+146
Italy	25.1	8.5	2.9	3.2	2.9	-12	-87
Mexico	..	6.0	3.6	2.9	5.7	+95	..
Latvia	0.3	1.3	1.6	2.3	2.4	+5	+799
Slovak Republic	0.3	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.6	+26	+667
Slovenia	0.1	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.8	+16	951
Estonia	0.3	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	+9	+247
Lithuania	..	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	+12	..
Iceland	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	-28	+208
Luxembourg	..	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	+20	..
Greece	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	-7	-77
Chile	..	1.5	1.5
Total	1 053.2	1 441.4	1 477.9	1 527.6	(1 518.5)	..	+45
Total EU/EFTA	459.4	557.3	611.1	663.9	(645.2)	..	+45

Note: Data refer to international tertiary-level students, including students enrolled in language courses who were issued a residence permit or a visa. Therefore, students benefitting from free mobility (intra-EU and Australia-New-Zealand movements) are not included. Likewise, the data do not include inflows related to professional training courses. For some countries, data have been revised compared with the previous editions of the International Migration Outlook notably for Chile, France, Norway and the United Kingdom.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/er0oz9>

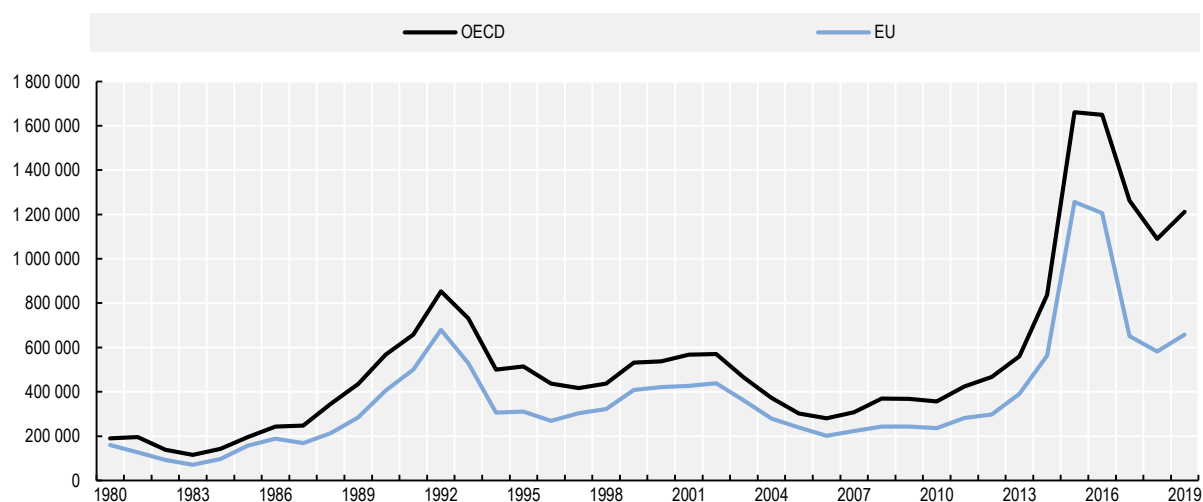
Asylum seekers

After two years of decrease, the number of asylum applications to OECD countries has rebounded in 2019. While that number has dropped by one third between 2016 and 2018, new applications has increased by 11% in 2019, compared to the previous year, amounting to 1.2 million (Figure 1.7). Although increasing, the number of asylum applications is still far from the record-high number in 2015 and 2016 (about 1.65 million each year).

Although some important OECD destinations for asylum seekers have witnessed a drop in the number of applications, e.g. Turkey (-27 000), Germany (-19 000) and Italy (-18 000), this decrease has been largely offset by increases in many others. The number of asylum applications has more than doubled in Spain (+62 000) and Mexico (+ 41 000) and has also grown by 47 000 in the United States. Applications in OECD European countries made up about half of the overall OECD number in 2019, while there represented almost three quarters during the 2015-16 period.


As in previous years, statistics on asylum seekers do not fully account for the situation in Turkey, which hosts a large number of Syrian nationals under temporary protection. However, that number has slightly dropped over the last year, from 3.63 million in January 2019 to 3.58 million in December. The same applies to Colombia, which receives relatively few asylum applications but host a large number of humanitarian migrants from Venezuela.

Figure 1.7. New asylum applications since 1980 in the OECD and the European Union



Note: Preliminary data for 2019.

Source: UNHCR, Eurostat.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/up1tk4>

In 2019, Afghanistan, Venezuela and Honduras were the top three countries of origin of asylum seekers, accounting for more than 20% of all applications to OECD countries (Table 1.6). Although the main country of origin, with 91 000 applications, Afghanistan continued its decline, which began in 2015 and has now reached its lowest level since 2014 (-4% compared with 2018). Overall, asylum requests from Middle East countries that used to be among the top three origin countries for the last five years are now at their lowest level since 2013-14. The number of asylum seekers from Syria (-8%) and Iraq (- 22%) decreased sharply in 2019 and flows are four to five times lower than in 2015.

By contrast, the recent surge of asylum applications from South and Central America has intensified in 2019, reflecting the political instability and insecurity in key origin countries. In 2019, with around 400 000 applications, Latin American and Caribbean countries made up more than a third of all asylum applications to OECD countries. The number of applications from Venezuela has increased by 53%, reaching 90 000, the highest level ever registered. Although the numbers are much lower, increases from Colombia (+134%), Honduras (+88%) and Guatemala (+60%) are also sizeable. The number of applications from El Salvador also increased sharply (+17%) and reached its highest level.

Another noticeable change is the large drop in asylum applications from the main African origin countries, especially driven by the drop to Italy. For instance, the number of asylum seekers from Nigeria fell by 25% in 2019 and those from Eritrea by 39%. Therefore, for the first time in the last decade, there are no African countries in the top ten asylum origin countries.

For the third year in a row, the United States received in 2019 the highest number of asylum applications of all OECD countries, with 300 000 applications, up from 252 000 the previous year (Table 1.7). Almost 60% of asylum applications to the United States originated from five Latin American countries: Guatemala (17%), Honduras (13%), El Salvador (11%), Venezuela (9%) and Mexico (7%). Most of the increase in the number of asylum seekers in the United States came from Guatemala (+56%) and Honduras (+62%).

Table 1.6. Top ten origin countries of asylum applicants in OECD countries, 2015-19

2015		2016		2017		2018		2019	
Syria	372 860	Syria	336 010	Afghanistan	110 770	Afghanistan	95 180	Afghanistan	91 094
Afghanistan	251 970	Afghanistan	214 930	Syria	96 700	Syria	80 100	Venezuela	90 390
Iraq	179 790	Iraq	155 300	Iraq	89 290	Iraq	59 550	Honduras	77 290
Albania	67 530	Iran	56 880	El Salvador	59 290	Venezuela	58 990	Syria	73 631
Kosovo	62 320	Pakistan	51 880	Venezuela	58 150	El Salvador	45 320	Guatemala	56 048
Pakistan	51 450	Nigeria	51 230	Nigeria	50 330	Honduras	41 140	El Salvador	53 247
Eritrea	47 500	El Salvador	40 840	Guatemala	41 790	Nigeria	36 850	Iraq	46 616
Iran	40 780	Eritrea	40 680	China	39 520	Guatemala	34 830	Colombia	39 492
Nigeria	33 390	China	39 010	Pakistan	36 240	Iran	33 260	Iran	30 932
China	31 970	Mexico	35 530	Honduras	33 980	Pakistan	30 400	Turkey	30 788

Note: Preliminary data for 2019.

Source: UNHCR, Eurostat.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zawuc2>

The second largest destination country of asylum applicants in the OECD in 2019 remained Germany, although the number decreased for the third consecutive year. The country received 140 000 first asylum applications, a 12% drop compared to 2018. This is five times lower than the 2016 peak (722 000 applications). The main origin countries in 2019 remained Syria and Iraq, which made up 37% of all asylum requests. The third country of origin has become Turkey, with 11 000 applications (+6% compared with 2018 level).

Table 1.7. New asylum applications since 2014 and main origin countries of asylum seekers in 2019

	2014-16 annual average	2017	2018	2019	2019/18 absolute change	2019/18 change (%)	Asylum seekers per million population (2019)	Top three origins of the asylum seekers (2019)
Australia	16 330	36 250	28 840	27 400	-1 440	-5	1 077	Malaysia, China, India
Austria	51 210	22 470	11 610	10 790	-820	-7	1 214	Syria, Afghanistan, Iran
Belgium	22 420	14 060	18 160	23 140	+4 980	+27	2 018	Syria, West Bank and Gaza Strip, Afghanistan
Canada	17 850	49 430	55 390	58 340	+2 950	+5	1 564	India, Mexico, Nigeria
Chile	1 070	5 660	5 780	770	-5 010	-87	41	Cuba, Colombia, Venezuela
Colombia	10 620	211	Venezuela, Cuba, Cameroon
Czech Republic	1 130	1 140	1 360	1 580	+220	+16	148	Armenia, Ukraine, Georgia
Denmark	14 080	3 140	3 500	2 650	-850	-24	454	Syria, Eritrea, Somalia
Estonia	150	180	90	100	+10	+11	76	Russia, Turkey, Ukraine
Finland	13 700	4 350	2 960	2 460	-500	-17	444	Turkey, Russia, Iraq
France	68 030	91 970	111 420	119 920	+8 500	+8	1 772	Afghanistan, Albania, Georgia
Germany	445 780	198 310	161 930	142 510	-19 420	-12	1 710	Syria, Iraq, Turkey
Greece	23 550	56 950	64 990	74 920	+9 930	+15	7 074	Afghanistan, Syria, Pakistan
Hungary	81 200	3 120	640	470	-170	-27	48	Afghanistan, Iraq, Pakistan
Iceland	550	1 070	730	810	+80	+11	2 234	Venezuela, Iraq, Nigeria
Ireland	2 320	2 910	3 660	4 740	+1 080	+30	981	Albania, Georgia, Zimbabwe
Israel	4 460	15 370	16 260	9 440	-6 820	-42	1 045	Russia, Belarus, India
Italy	89 670	126 560	53 440	35 010	-18 430	-34	578	Pakistan, El Salvador, Peru
Japan	7 830	19 250	10 490	10 380	-110	-1	82	Sri Lanka, Turkey, Cambodia
Korea	5 380	9 940	16 150	15 430	-720	-4	298	Russia, Kazakhstan, China
Latvia	350	360	180	180	0	0	94	Azerbaijan, Russia, India
Lithuania	340	520	390	630	+240	+62	226	Russia, Tajikistan, Syria
Luxembourg	1 740	2 330	2 230	2 200	-30	-1	3 535	Eritrea, Syria, Afghanistan
Mexico	4 580	14 600	29 620	70 370	+40 750	+138	566	Honduras, El Salvador, Cuba
Netherlands	28 450	16 090	20 470	22 540	+2 070	+10	1 303	Syria, Nigeria, Iran
New Zealand	340	560	460	540	+80	+17	109	China, India, Sri Lanka
Norway	15 450	3 390	2 550	2 210	-340	-13	412	Syria, Turkey, Eritrea
Poland	8 970	3 010	2 410	2 770	+360	+15	73	Russia, Ukraine, Turkey
Portugal	940	1 020	1 240	1 740	+500	+40	170	Angola, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau
Slovak Republic	200	160	160	220	+60	+38	39	Afghanistan, Iran, Armenia
Slovenia	630	1 440	2 800	3 620	+820	+29	1 743	Algeria, Morocco, Pakistan
Spain	11 860	30 450	52 750	115 190	+62 440	+118	2 456	Venezuela, Colombia, Honduras
Sweden	84 660	22 230	18 110	23 150	+5 040	+28	2 253	Syria, Eritrea, Iran
Switzerland	28 700	16 670	13 540	12 600	-940	-7	1 459	Eritrea, Afghanistan, Turkey
Turkey	99 750	123 600	83 820	56 420	-27 400	-33	685	Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran
United Kingdom	36 900	33 380	37 370	44 320	+6 950	+19	663	Iran, Albania, Iraq
United States	185 290	331 700	254 300	301 070	+46 770	+18	912	Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador
OECD total	1 375 860	1 263 640	1 089 800	1 211 250	+121 450	+11	892	Afghanistan, Venezuela, Honduras
<i>Selected non-OECD countries</i>								
Bulgaria	16 720	3 470	2 470	2 080	-390	-16	297	Afghanistan, Syria, Iraq
Romania	1 330	4 700	1 950	2 460	+510	+26	127	Iraq, Syria, Afghanistan

Note: Figures for 2019 are preliminary. Figures for the United States refer to “affirmative” claims submitted to the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases, multiplied by 1.5 to reflect the estimated number of persons) and “defensive” claims submitted to the Executive Office for Immigration Review (number of persons). “..” means that figures are not available.

Source: UNHCR; Eurostat; OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/dpvbrl>

The United States and Germany were followed by France (120 000 applications), Spain (115 000), Greece (75 000) and Mexico (70 000). All these countries have received in 2019 a larger number of asylum seekers than in the previous year, in particular Spain and Mexico, where the number of applications has more than doubled. In Spain, this sharp increase was driven by asylum seekers from Venezuela (+111%) and Colombia (+241%). In Mexico, it was mainly due to Honduran applicants (+121%). Over the past five years, Mexico has become an important receiving country of asylum seekers: the current number of applications received is 10 times higher than in 2011 and that number has almost doubled each year since 2014.

Apart from Spain and Mexico, compared with 2018, asylum applications increased the most in Portugal (+40%), Ireland (+30%), Slovenia (+29%), Sweden (+28%) and Belgium (+27%). Conversely, there was a sharp decrease in applications in countries that used to be important destinations of asylum seekers, such as Italy (-34%, especially from African countries and Bangladesh), Turkey (-33%) and Hungary (-27%). The largest fall was in Israel (-42%), mainly because applications from Eritrea virtually stopped; and in Chile (-87%).

In a few European OECD countries, the main origin countries are not necessarily in the list of top countries of origin. In France, for example, the top three countries, representing 21% of all applications, were Afghanistan, Georgia and Albania. Albania and Georgia were the main origin countries in Ireland. Italy also mostly received asylum seekers from Pakistan, El Salvador and Peru. In Central and Eastern Europe, the Russian Federation and Ukraine were among the top origin countries. Finally, in Australia and New Zealand, the main countries of origin were India and China, with Malaysia as the top country in Australia. Indians were in 2019 the largest group of asylum seekers in Canada, followed by Mexicans and Nigerians.

Ratios of first asylum-seeker applications to host country populations reveal that OECD countries registered 892 applications per million inhabitants in 2019. Among OECD countries with more than 1 million inhabitants, Greece was the top receiving country in this respect, with a ratio of 7 000 asylum seekers per million, followed by Spain (2 500), Sweden (2 300) and Belgium (2 000). Among other traditional immigration countries, ratios were well above the average for France (1 800), Germany (1 700) and Canada (1 600), but close to or below in the United States (900), the United Kingdom (700) and Italy (600). Compared with the size of their population, New Zealand, Japan, Chile, Central European and Baltic countries (bar Lithuania), received few asylum applications, with ratios fewer than 150 per million inhabitants.

Mirroring the decrease in the number of asylum applications, the number of positive decisions giving an international protection status in OECD countries has regularly dropped since 2016. In 2019, 520 000 humanitarian migrants were admitted, a 15% decline compared to 2018 (Table 1.8), just after a 19% decline between 2017 and 2018. That number was almost twice as low as the one for 2016 (almost 980 000). Countries of destination of humanitarian migrants have diversified since the beginning of the surge. If three quarters of all positive decisions were received by OECD European countries in 2016, this was true for about two thirds in 2019.

While the United States became the main destination country of humanitarian migrants in 2018, with almost 190 000 admissions, numbers significantly dropped by 42% in 2019, to 110 000 entries (22% of the OECD total). Therefore, Germany, which received more than 40% of all humanitarian migrants in 2016-17, was again the main destination country for this category in 2019, with almost 120 000 admissions (22% of the OECD total). Those two countries were followed by Canada (9%), France (8%) and Spain (7%). In the latter, the number of positive decisions on applications for international protection multiplied by 13 in 2019, of which more than 90% were to Venezuelan nationals. Partly driven by the treatment of backlog and the evolution of first asylum applications (both in terms of numbers and in terms of composition by country of origin), other notable increases in the number of positive decisions between 2018 and 2019 among countries with more than 1 000 applications included Mexico (+37%) and the United Kingdom (+35%). By contrast, largest drops occurred in Hungary (-84%), the United States (-42%) and Sweden (-40%).

Table 1.8. Positive decisions on applications for international protection, 2010-19

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019/18 change (%)
Australia	14 553	13 976	13 759	20 019	13 768	13 756	17 555	21 968	16 250	18 762	+15
Austria	4 885	5 870	6 000	6 345	10 035	17 750	31 750	29 130	20 700	13 730	-34
Belgium	3 790	5 550	5 880	6 710	8 525	10 900	15 400	12 895	10 250	6 940	-32
Canada	24 699	27 880	23 098	24 139	24 068	32 111	58 914	41 477	45 493	48 510	+7
Czech Republic	225	705	200	365	410	460	445	145	165	155	-6
Denmark	1 630	1 735	2 110	3 360	5 770	10 280	7 405	2 750	1 650	1 785	+8
Estonia	15	10	10	10	20	80	130	95	20	45	+125
Finland	1 665	1 340	1 835	1 830	1 435	1 795	7 365	4 255	3 825	4 400	+15
France	10 375	10 740	14 325	16 155	20 640	26 015	35 170	40 570	41 440	42 120	+2
Germany	12 915	13 045	22 165	26 080	47 555	148 220	445 215	325 385	139 560	116 230	-17
Greece	145	590	625	1 410	3 850	5 875	8 545	12 015	15 805	18 595	+18
Hungary	285	205	460	420	550	465	435	1 290	365	60	-84
Iceland	10	10	10	15	35	85	115	175	195	380	+95
Ireland	155	150	145	205	495	555	790	840	1 275	1 550	+22
Italy	4 585	7 480	22 820	14 465	20 625	29 635	40 175	35 130	47 885	31 010	-35
Japan	429	287	130	175	144	125	143	94	104
Korea	47	38	60	36	633	234	320	409	632
Latvia	25	30	30	35	25	30	150	270	30	55	+83
Lithuania	15	25	55	60	75	85	195	290	140	90	-36
Luxembourg	105	85	45	140	130	210	770	1 130	1 015	670	-34
Mexico	222	262	389	198	348	615	1 760	3 335	5 756	7 903	+37
Netherlands	8 680	8 385	5 630	7 045	13 250	17 045	21 825	9 090	4 795	5 845	+22
New Zealand	2 807	2 741	3 032	3 385	3 551	3 784	4 021	4 149	4 191	3 615	-14
Norway	5 715	4 725	6 125	6 775	5 870	7 150	13 195	5 270	1 740	2 005	+15
Poland	560	575	590	735	740	695	380	560	435	275	-37
Portugal	55	65	100	135	110	195	320	500	625	170	-73
Slovak Republic	95	120	200	75	175	80	215	60	50	40	-20
Slovenia	25	20	35	35	45	50	175	150	100	100	+0
Spain	625	1 010	565	555	1 600	1 030	6 875	4 120	2 965	38 525	+1 199
Sweden	9 760	10 630	15 295	26 400	33 035	34 620	69 785	31 305	19 685	11 795	-40
Switzerland	8 255	6 800	4 580	6 605	15 575	14 135	13 335	14 790	15 550	11 055	-29
United Kingdom	14 125	14 495	14 770	13 505	14 185	18 650	17 080	15 655	19 155	25 955	+35
United States	136 291	168 460	150 614	119 630	134 242	151 995	157 425	146 003	185 909	107 057	-42
All countries	267 768	308 039	315 687	307 052	381 514	548 710	977 378	765 300	607 755	519 427	-15
All European countries	88 720	94 395	124 605	139 470	204 760	346 090	737 240	547 865	349 420	333 580	-5

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.


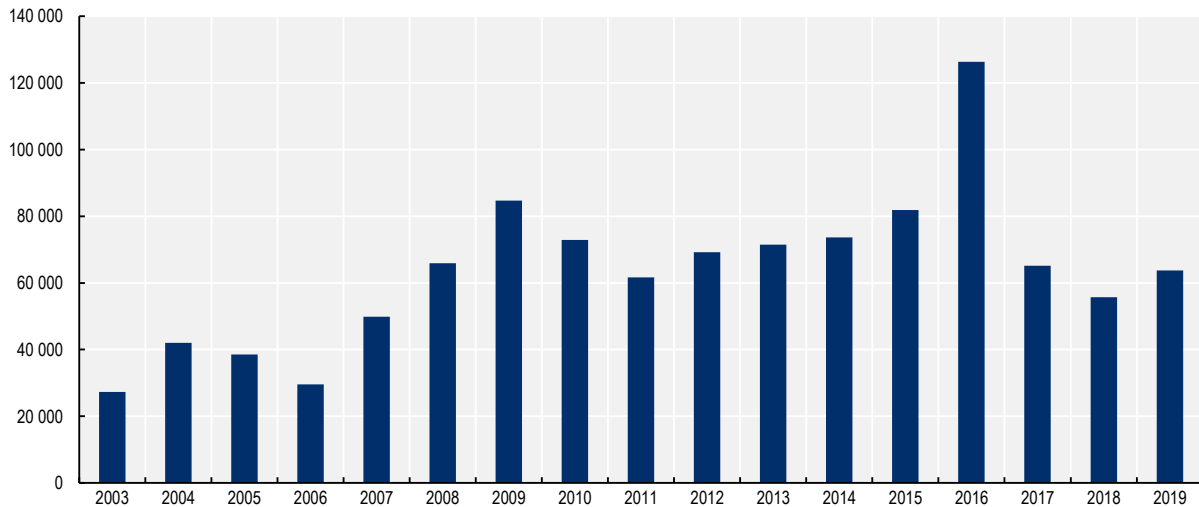

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Figure 1.8. Refugees admitted under resettlement programmes in OECD countries, 2003-19

Note: Some data presented may differ from statistics published previously due to retroactive changes or the inclusion of previously unavailable data. In addition, resettlement departure figures reported by UNHCR may not match resettlement statistics published by States as Government figures may include individuals who were resettled outside of UNHCR processes. More information about UNHCR's resettlement programme can be found at <http://www.unhcr.org/resettlement.html>.

Source: UNHCR.

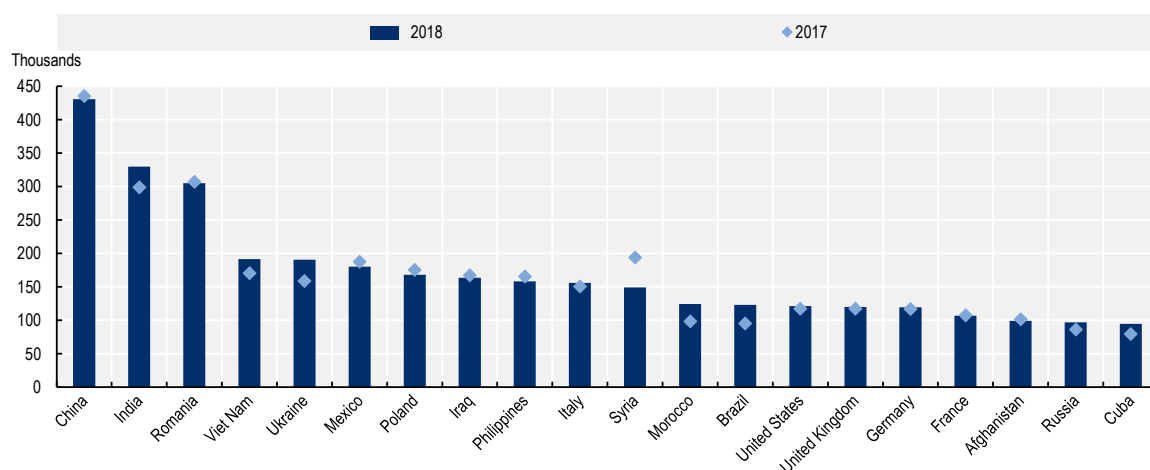
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Beyond the asylum channel, many refugees have been resettled to OECD countries (Figure 1.8). Following the expansion of refugee resettlement quotas during the 2014-15 humanitarian crisis in many OECD countries, the number of resettlements increased sharply between 2015 and 2016. This increase was only temporary, however, and numbers have decreased significantly since then, stabilising around 60 000 resettlements annually between 2017 and 2019. The United States remained the top destination country, followed by Canada, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Germany and France. However, while non-European OECD countries made up 80% of all UNHCR resettlements in 2016, there made only 48% in 2019. Indeed, compared to the peak in 2016, the largest decrease was observed in the United States (- 75%), Canada (-59%) and Australia (-54%). By contrast, European OECD countries took a larger share of resettlement, with about three times more in 2019 than in 2016 in Sweden, Spain, France and Germany.

Countries of origin of new immigrants to OECD countries


Over the past 10 years, the People's Republic of China has been the top country of origin of new migrants to the OECD area. In 2018, about 430 000 Chinese migrants settled in an OECD country (Figure 1.9), accounting for 6.5% of the total of migration inflows. Compared to 2017, fewer migrants from China chose the United States (-6 300) and Australia (-3 600) as destination countries in 2018, but more went to Japan (+6 000) and to Korea (+3 000). Overall, migration flows from China to OECD countries went down slightly (-4 500).

India took the second place to Romania in 2018, as emigration from India to OECD countries increased sharply (+10%) and reached 330 000 people. Migration from India represents almost 5% of overall migration to OECD countries. The rise is mostly due to the higher number of Indians going to Canada (+18 300), but many other OECD countries witnessed more arrivals from India, such as Germany (+3 900), Italy (+3 300), and also Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands and Sweden (around +2000 each).

Figure 1.9. Top 20 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2017-18

Note: Migration flow series for Germany and Korea have been adjusted to exclude short-term immigrants. Migration flows to Chile, Colombia, Greece and Ireland are not included. 2018 migration flow data for Slovenia and the United Kingdom are estimated.

Source: Calculations from the Secretariat based on data provided by the OECD Expert Group on Migration. Data available online: *OECD International Migration Database*, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/7b415t>

Migration flows from Romania to OECD countries remained stable in 2018 at just over 300 000 people. Declines of flows to traditional destination countries like Italy (-3 400) and Spain (-2 100) have been counterbalanced by increases in the Netherlands (+1900), Belgium (+1 500) and Austria (+1 300). 4.6% of all new migrants in OECD countries in 2018 were Romanian.

Both Viet Nam and Ukraine gained several places in the ranking as they saw almost 200 000 of their nationals emigrate to an OECD country in 2018. Moreover, both had a favourite partner country, Japan for Viet Nam and Poland for Ukraine, although flows from Ukraine are somewhat more diversified and flows increased sharply in Hungary and in the Czech Republic.

Flows from Mexico are even more concentrated as the United States received almost 90% of the 180 000 new migrants in OECD countries in 2018. However, the number of new lawful permanent residents in the United States declined by 5% in 2018 leading to an overall 4% decline for migration from Mexico to OECD countries.

Migration flows from Poland to OECD countries also dropped by 4% in 2018, to 170 000 new migrants. A decline also due to a significant drop in the top destination country, Germany (-10%). On the other hand, flows to the Netherlands increased again and reached a record level (26 000).

Despite a higher number of new Iraqi migrants in Turkey in 2018, migration from Iraq to OECD countries declined slightly (-4 000). The Philippines is still a major origin country for Canada but flows shrunk by 5 800 in 2018, leading to an overall decline in immigration of Filipinos to OECD countries of 7 300.

Migration from Italy increased by 4% in 2018 without it being linked to a specific migration corridor, movements from Italy being fairly well distributed among OECD countries.

Syria was no longer in the top ten countries of origin in 2018, falling from 4th position to 11th as flows dropped from 200 000 migrants to 150 000 in 2018. However, this level is higher than all recorded before 2015.

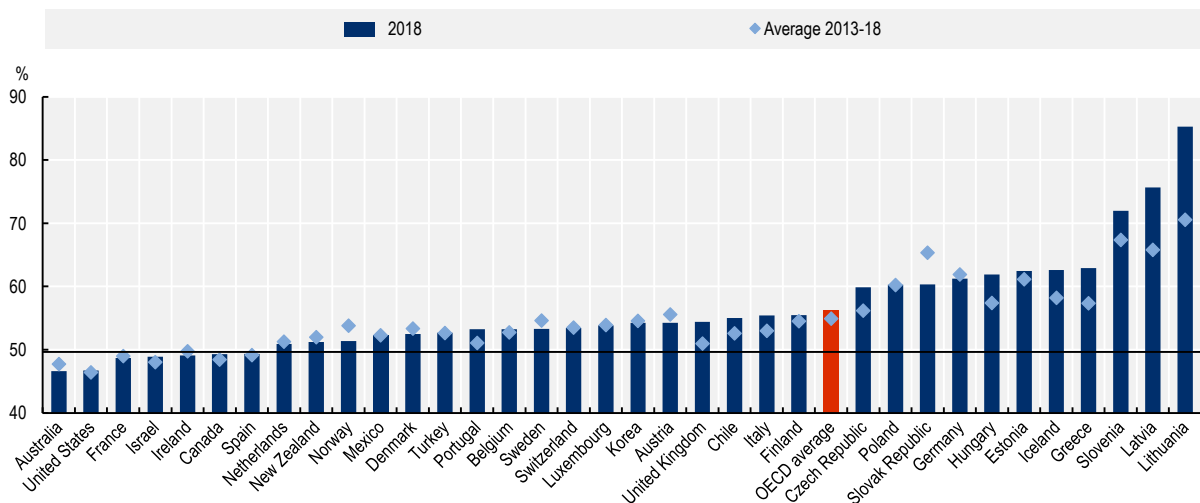
The most salient evolutions among other countries of origin were the sharp increases of inflows from Brazil, Morocco, Venezuela and Colombia, and to a lesser extent, from Cuba, Turkmenistan, Iran and Russia.

In terms of expatriation rate to OECD countries, the highest ratio is observed every year in Romania. In 2018, as in 2017, Romania saw 16 departures per thousand population (Annex Table 1.A.2). Albania followed with 15 per 1 000, then came Bulgaria and Croatia (13 each). Other countries with ratios above 10 are also European countries: Bosnia-Herzegovina (11), North Macedonia (10) and Lithuania (10). The first non-European countries are Syria (9), Cuba (8) and Eritrea (8).

Flows of migrant men and women to OECD countries

Migration flows generally include more men than women. In 2018, men represented on average more than 56% of new migrants to OECD countries (Figure 1.10). This is similar to the 2017 figure but slightly higher than over the period 2013-17 (+1.4 percentage points). In 2018, several countries even displayed the highest share of men among the new immigrants since 2000. This is the case of Latvia and Lithuania, where this share was particularly high (76% and 85% respectively), and of Greece (63%), Hungary (62%), or Portugal (53%). Italy had followed this trend until 2017, when the share of men among new immigrants reached a peak at 58% (14 percentage points above the 2010 figure), but this share fell to 55% in 2018.

Figure 1.10. Share of men in overall migration flows to OECD countries, 2013-18



Note: The OECD average is the average of the countries featured in the figure above. For Chile, 2016 instead of 2018, for France and the United Kingdom, 2017 instead of 2018.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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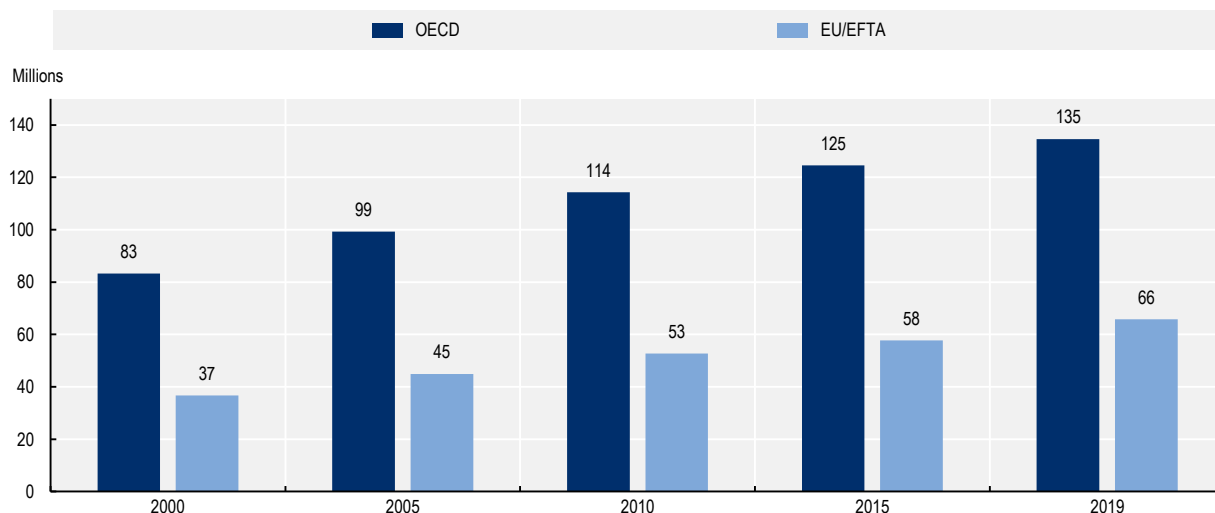
On the other hand, men have never been so few among migrants to Australia and to the Slovak Republic than in 2018. With under 47% men, Australia has the lowest share of migrant men of all OECD countries. In the Slovak Republic, despite successive declines since 2013, the share of men remains high (60%). Besides Australia, six countries receive fewer immigrant men than immigrant women: the United States (47%), France, Israel, Ireland, Canada and Spain (49% for all of them).

Size and composition of the foreign-born population in OECD countries

Since 2010, the size of the foreign-born population in OECD countries has increased by around 2% every year on average. In 2019, 135 million people living in OECD countries were born in a country other than their country of residence (Figure 1.11). A third of them live in the United States, and almost half live in a

European OECD country. Between 2000 and 2015, the growth rate of the foreign-born population in OECD countries slowed down, from 4% per year between 2000 and 2005, 3% between 2005 and 2010, 2% between 2010 and 2015. It stabilised over the past five years due to the refugee crisis. In EU/EFTA countries, which received the largest number of refugees, the annual growth rate of the foreign-born population even rebounded to over 3%.

Figure 1.11. Foreign-born population in the OECD area and Europe, 2000-19



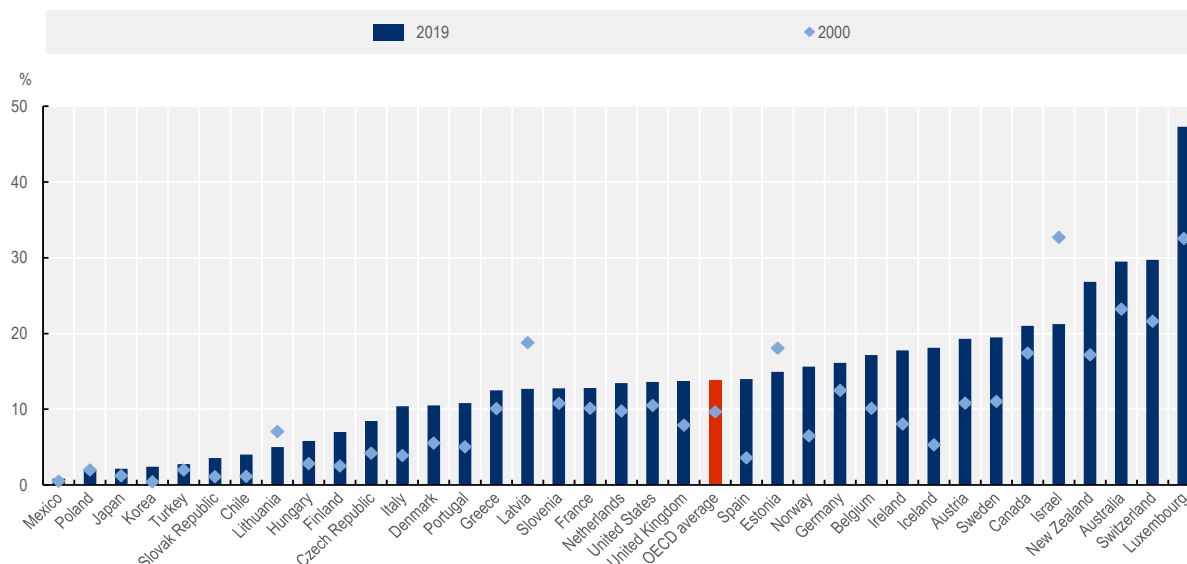
Note: Estimated 2019 data for Australia, Canada, Chile, Colombia, the Czech Republic, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Switzerland, and Turkey. Data for the United States include an undetermined share of undocumented migrants.

Source: *OECD International Migration Database*, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>; Eurostat; UNDESA.


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Between 2000 and 2019, the foreign-born population has increased in most OECD countries, sometimes rather strongly (Figure 1.12). The rise was above 5 percentage points in 15 countries, and reached 15 points in Luxembourg, 13 points in Iceland and 10 points in New Zealand. Luxembourg is also the OECD country with the largest share of foreign-born population (47%). Switzerland and Australia follow quite far behind, at 30%. Thirteen OECD countries count more than 15% foreign-born in their population, and across OECD countries, the foreign-born population represented more than one in ten inhabitants.

Figure 1.12. The foreign-born as a percentage of the total population in OECD countries, 2000 and 2019



Note: Data refer to 2000 or the closest available year, and to 2019 or the most recent available year. The OECD average is a simple average based on rates presented. For Japan and Korea, the data refer to the foreign population rather than the foreign-born population. Source: *OECD International Migration Database*, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>; Eurostat ; UNDESA.

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Acquisitions of citizenship in OECD countries

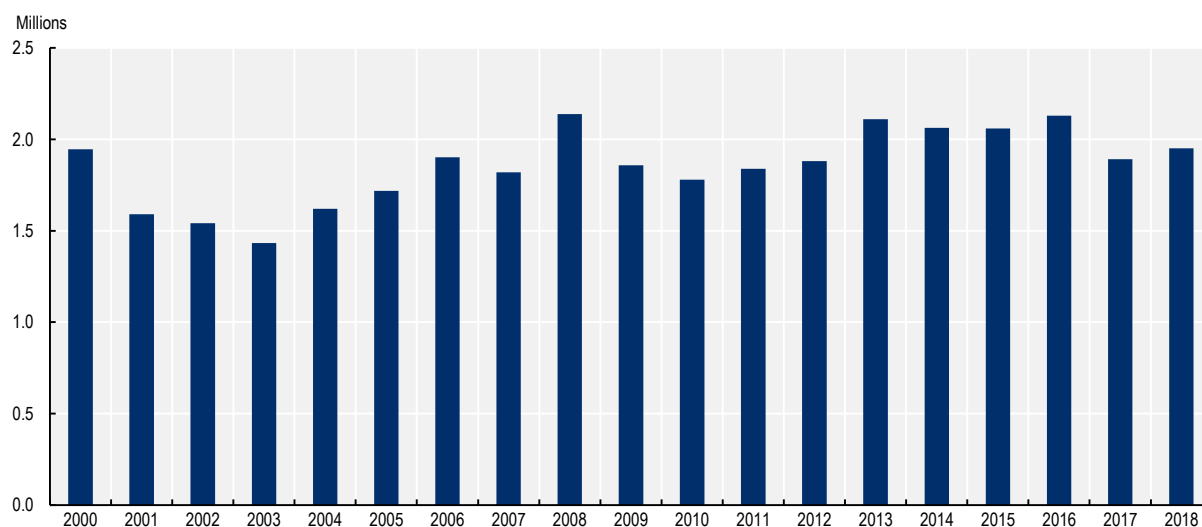
The overall trend in acquisition of citizenship of OECD countries has been very stable since the mid-2000s. The annual global figure for acquisitions of citizenship has fluctuated around 2 million in the past few years. In 2018, 1.95 million people acquired the citizenship of an OECD country (Figure 1.13), which represented a 3% increase compared to 2017. EU countries granted 42% of this total (810 000) and the United States 39% (760 000).

Acquisitions of Canadian citizenship went up by 67% in 2018 to reach 180 000, although levels were still below their 2014-15 peak. In 2018, increases were most noticeable for India, Iran, Philippines and Pakistan. This trend was confirmed in 2019 with a 41% increase, mostly due again to former Indians (+11 800), Syrians (+4 500) and Iranians (+4 000).

The second largest absolute increase was registered in the United States (+55 000 to 760 000), where 132 000 Mexicans became US citizens (+13 000). British nationality was also in high demand in 2018, mainly from EU nationals. Overall, decisions to grant British citizenship rose to 157 000 (+33 000). In Spain, citizenship was granted to 91 000 applicants (+24 000), including 25 000 Moroccan citizens. In Luxembourg, acquisitions of citizenship increased very rapidly between 2015 and 2018 to reach 12 000, more than twice the 2015 figure. Other notable increases in relative terms occurred in Mexico (+26%), in Hungary (+25%), and in Portugal (+18%).

Australia and Italy registered the largest absolute declines in 2018. Only 80 000 foreign citizens obtained the Australian citizenship (-57 000) and 113 000 the Italian citizenship (-34 000). Acquisitions of host country citizenship also declined in all Nordic countries, in particular in Norway where they were divided by two, to just over 10 000.

Figure 1.13. Acquisitions of citizenship in OECD countries, 2000-18

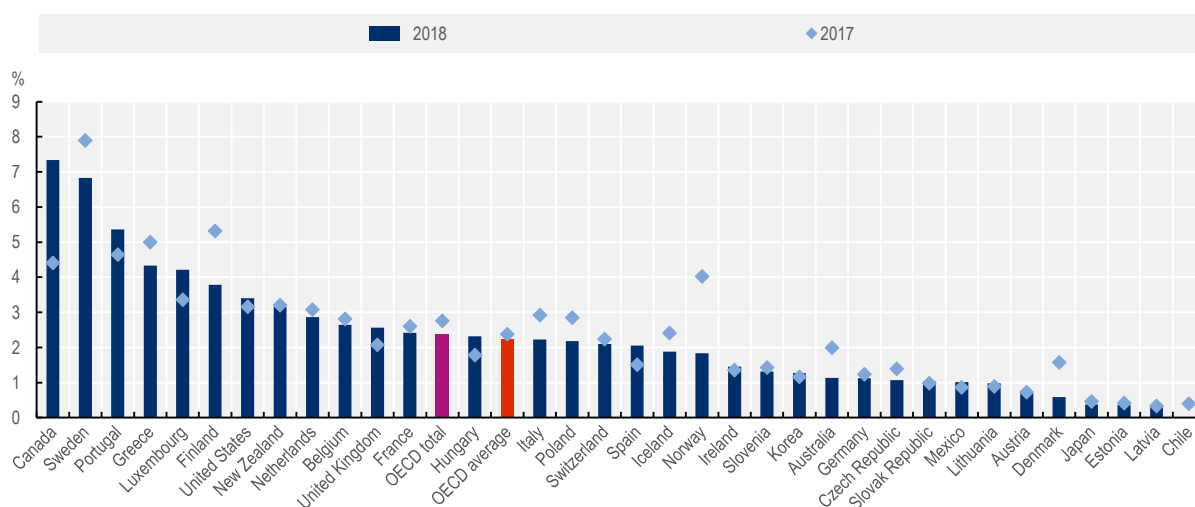


Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/tcqe5>

Looking at acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of the foreign population, Sweden had long been leading OECD countries but Canada came out first in 2018 with 7.3% foreign residents being granted Canadian citizenship (Figure 1.14). Sweden ranks second with 6.8%, followed by Portugal with 5.4%. Luxembourg climbed to fifth place at 4.2%, while Finland dropped from second to sixth, with a 1.5 percentage point decline to 3.8%. Of the about 80 000 foreign residents in OECD countries, 2.4% became citizens of their host country in 2018.

Figure 1.14. Acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of foreign population, 2017-18



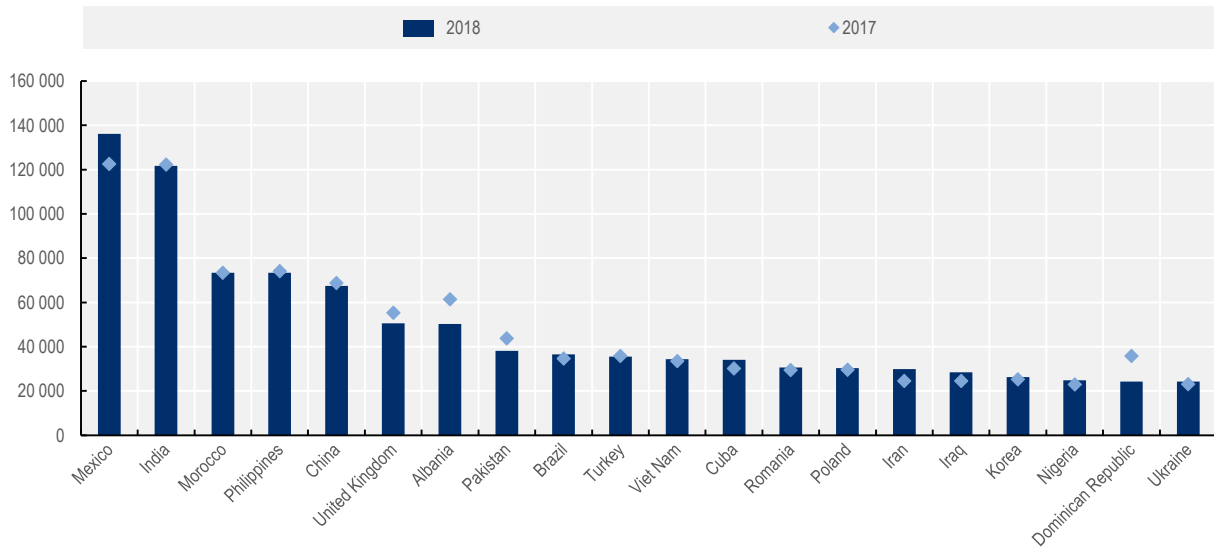
Note: Australia, Chile and New Zealand: the data refer to the foreign-born population rather than the foreign population. The OECD average is the average of the countries featured in the figure above.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/0cs2j3>

The number of Mexican citizens who acquired the nationality of an OECD country increased sharply both in 2017 and in 2018 to reach 136 000 in 2018 (Figure 1.15). Almost all of them became US citizens. India is the second main country of origin of naturalised citizens, with about 120 000 naturalisations in 2017 (of whom 52 000 in the United States and 19 000 in Canada). Morocco, the Philippines and China follow as countries of origin, at about 70 000 each. In 2018 only 50 000 Albanian nationals were granted citizenship of an OECD country (-18% compared with 2017).

Figure 1.15. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries: Top 20 countries of former nationality, 2017 and 2018



Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/0guvmr>

Probably as a result of the Brexit, in almost all EU countries for which 2019 data are available, there has been an increase of the naturalisations of UK citizens. Their number more than doubled in Germany, from 6 600 in 2018 to 14 600 in 2019. It also almost tripled in Sweden, to 5 000, and increased by more than 50% in Belgium, to 1 630. Finland and Austria too, registered sharp increases, although at lower levels. Only Denmark granted citizenship to fewer UK citizens in 2019 than in 2018.

Recent policy developments

In 2018-19, many countries have continued adapting or reorganising their migration systems. While attracting and retaining international students, adapting the admission of family members and humanitarian migrants, and fighting against irregular migration remained key areas of policy changes, the bulk of recent measures was focused on labour migration, notably to address emerging skill needs. A large number of countries implemented new measures or legislation to attract specific groups of semi-skilled and highly skilled foreign workers. These include inter alia the introduction of greater flexibility in existing systems, streamlined administrative procedures or more attention to specific occupations and sectors. Conversely, some countries implemented measure to limit or better control migration flows.

Managing migration

Some countries reorganised administrative services in charge of migration policies, to improve administrative procedures and the coordination between actors and ultimately better control migration flows. Many amendments have been driven by the need to better target specific migrant groups while other legal changes tightened residence procedures.

In Luxembourg, the objectives of the 2018 coalition agreement include shorter processing times for migration applications through notably the simplification and digitalisation of administrative procedures. Similarly, in March 2018 the Dutch government launched its Comprehensive Agenda on Migration, meant to prevent irregular migration; to strengthen reception and protection for refugees and displaced persons; to reinforce the asylum system; to improve information system about legal migration; and to strengthen integration and social participation.

In 2018, New Zealand moved away from the historical management of residence through a planning range. The new, equally-weighted, objectives for the programme are: to maximise its contribution to the country's economic and social wellbeing by attracting skilled workers and business migrants; reunifying the families of New Zealand residents and citizens; and meeting international and humanitarian commitments. Overall residence numbers will be managed by controlling each of the individual components of the programme.

Australia, Japan and Lithuania proceeded to major administrative reorganisations. In Australia, the 2018 law provides for greater information sharing within government by authorising the Department of Home Affairs to obtain and use tax file numbers of skilled visa applicants and visa holders for research and compliance purposes. This includes identifying and taking action against sponsors who underpay overseas workers and sponsored overseas workers who work in employment that is not approved by the Department. To protect the wages and conditions of Australians and overseas workers, the Act requires the Department to publish the register of employers sanctioned for failing to comply with their obligations to sponsored workers.

In light of increasing numbers of foreign nationals visiting Japan and the growing number of foreign nationals residing in Japan, in 2019 the government amended the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act and established an Immigration Services Agency as an external organ of the Ministry of Justice. The aim is to achieve both strict immigration control and implement better residence management of foreign nationals.

Lithuania endorsed a major institutional reform of migration management in 2018. Police will no longer perform functions related to migration. The Migration Department (which earlier was subordinated to the Police Department) will now be responsible for legal migration with regional units, whereas the State border guard service will be responsible for border security and irregular migration. In addition, a *Strategy for Demography, Migration and Integration* for 2018-30 was adopted with a view of having a better balanced population growth. In addition, from March 2019, a new electronic card will replace paper forms and will record biometric data. Greece also reorganised its services. In July 2019, the responsibilities of the former Ministry for Migration Policy were transferred to the Ministry of Citizen Protection. However, following important developments, a separate Ministry of Migration and Asylum was established in January 2020.

Canada launched two pilot projects using computer analytics to help immigration officers triage with online temporary resident visa applications from China and India. The goal is to identify applications that are routine and straightforward, allowing for faster processing, improving service and enhancing system efficiency.

With a view to facilitating access to the Bulgarian labour market for non-EU citizens, legal amendments enable a quicker processing of applications (seven instead of 14 days) and facilitate access to permanent residency for people with Bulgarian origin (e.g. no need to provide proof of available funds and reduced fees).

The Russian Federation has made it easier to gain permanent residence, notably for citizens of the former republics of the Soviet Union and the period of the permanent residence permit became unlimited instead of five years, renewable. Citizens of Ukraine or stateless persons who permanently resided in Ukraine were recognised as refugees or granted temporary asylum in the Russian Federation.

Since February 2018, in Poland immigrants applying for a long-term residence permit are obliged to present a state certificate confirming their knowledge of the Polish language at the intermediate level (B1) or, alternatively, a graduation certificate of a school in Poland or a school abroad with Polish language instruction. Only children under the age of 16 are exempted from this requirement. Such a permit is issued mainly to people of Polish origin, holders of the Card of the Pole, foreigners granted protection in Poland, or victims of human trafficking.

In the United States, in 2020 a final rule on “inadmissibility on public charge grounds” became effective. DHS will look at the factors required under the law by Congress, like age, health, income, education and skills, among others, in order to determine whether the foreign migrant is likely at any time to become a public charge. Temporary migrants (non-immigrants) seeking an extension of stay or change of status must demonstrate that they have not received public benefits over the designated threshold since obtaining the non-immigrant status they seek to extend or change.

In the United Kingdom, a new points-based immigration system will start in 2021. To be eligible, all immigrants will need 70 points, 50 of which must come from having a job offer by an approved sponsor at a medium or high skill-level and meet an English language requirement. Extra points will be awarded for a job offer with a higher wage, a job on the Shortage Occupation List, or for having a PhD.

Managing labour migration

Easing the administrative procedures to recruit migrant workers

A few OECD countries have introduced more flexibility for the recruitment of international high skilled or semi-skilled migrant workers. Legislative changes in the Slovak Republic (January 2019) streamlined the system governing the entry and residence of third-country nationals for employment purposes, notably in professions with identified labour shortages. In Finland, the government implemented several legislative amendments to encourage immigration of international specialists. They included a new residence permit for start-up entrepreneurs as well as changes to the duration of residence permits for specialists and labour market testing. Amendments to immigration law in Latvia allowed companies to employ third-country nationals on the basis of a long-term visa, the process being simpler, cheaper and faster than drawing up a residence permit. In Germany, people with vocational training can receive a six-month stay to look for a job. The prerequisite is that the skilled worker has a recognised qualification, the necessary language skills and a secured subsistence sum. During the search period, the migrants may work up to ten hours per week, such as internships with a potential employer (see Box 1.1. in International Migration Outlook 2019).

In France, the 2018 law extended the multi-year “talent passport” residence permit to four years. This permit can now be issued to family members (spouse and children) without going through the family reunification procedure. In Lithuania, from 2018 the requirement for an enterprise to employ three persons has been waived, but the monthly wage paid to employees must be not less than twice average earnings. A foreign worker applying for a job in an enterprise that is on the Approved Entities list will have to submit fewer documents. It has also become easier for applicants for the EU Blue Card to be employed in Latvia. The wage rate offered is now more flexible and a decision on the application must be made within ten working days instead of 30, while the time limit for examining applications for residence permits for family members is now aligned with that of the Blue Card applicant. In addition the rule that only those third-country nationals who had completed higher education in the relevant sector/profession could receive the Blue Card was relaxed.

Austria and Japan introduced new residence statuses as well as other changes to target skills. Austria's threefold approach in 2018 is designed to facilitate the uptake of the R-W-R-Card by skilled workers. Proof of accommodation before entering Austria is no longer necessary, and the minimum wage required for skilled workers to obtain an R-W-R-Card was reduced in line with collective wage agreements. Japan established (April 2019) two new residence statuses, Specified Skilled Worker (i) and Specified Skilled Worker (ii), for foreign workers with professional and technical skills who could contribute immediately where there were shortages and who would also help to improve the productivity and recruitment of domestic workers.

Some noticeable changes also took place in selected non-OECD countries. The overall quota of foreign workers in Romania doubled in 2019 to 30 000 (20 000 supplemented by an additional 10 000 for the last four months of the year). The conditions for obtaining the work authorisation necessary for employing a permanent or cross-border worker have been simplified. Vacancies may be made public by publishing an advert in any mass media and it is no longer necessary to publish such adverts on three consecutive days. In a further move to attract highly-qualified workers the minimum salary has been reduced from four times to twice gross national average salary. At the same time, the support required for the extension of the right to stay for posted/ICT workers was reduced, from the gross average salary level to the national gross minimum.

Legal amendments in the Russian Federation in July 2019 were also designed to attract more skilled specialists. Access to Russian citizenship for selected groups of skilled workers was simplified by allowing foreigners in some professions to become citizens after only one instead of three years' work experience in the country. However, the government also limited the number of foreign workers in certain sectors of the economy (e.g. construction).

Targeting shortages notably in high and semi-skilled occupations and sectors

In several countries, measures have been targeted at occupations in shortage, notably to enlarge recruitment to semi-skilled occupations. Through the launch of its Agri-Food Pilot in May 2020, Canada expanded pathways to permanent residency for workers at the intermediate skill level, already in Canada under temporary permits. This three-year economic pilot particularly aims to address persistent labour shortages in the meat processing, mushroom and greenhouse crop production, and livestock raising industries. In Germany, the 'Skilled Workers Immigration Act' that came into force in March 2020 opened the labour market to skilled non-EU migrants with vocational training. Labour migrants with an employment contract or job offer no longer need to undergo a labour market test or work in occupations with labour shortage, notably in the health and care sector and in the so-called STEM occupations (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) (refer to Box 1.1 in 2019 edition of International Migration Outlook). As already the case for university graduates, skilled labour migrants need to prove professional training qualifications equivalent to German standards. As already possible for university graduates, skilled workers with recognised vocational qualifications will be able to come to Germany for up to six months to seek employment. They have to be able to finance their stay and provide proof of at least intermediate German language skills. Because of a shortage of skilled nurses, two special recruitment projects have been developed, one with Viet Nam, the other with Serbia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, the Philippines and Tunisia. The projects involve knowledge transfer, language training and placements.

In 2018 and 2019, Belgium introduced a list of shortage occupations to attract medium-skilled foreign nationals. For the listed occupations employers no longer need to prove that they could not find a suitable candidate on the labour market within a reasonable period of time. Poland has also made it easier to employ workers with skills likely to improve the Polish economy by issuing work permits to certain occupations without a labour market test: the 289 occupations listed include construction workers, bus and lorry drivers, machine operators, IT specialists and medical personnel. Holders of the permits are given easier access to residence permits after four years rather than five, or ten for less privileged categories.

The Slovak 2018 Strategy of Labour Mobility of Foreigners was designed to streamline and make more flexible the system governing the entry and residence of third-country nationals for employment purposes, particularly in professions with identified labour shortages.

The United Kingdom Shortage Occupation List (SOL) was expanded, adding occupations in several fields, including health, IT, and STEM. Jobs on the SOL are, in general, exempt from resident labour market testing and are given top priority when allocating places in the numerical cap. In addition to doctors and nurses, all PhD-level occupations are now removed from the Tier 2 cap thus freeing up space within the cap for other UK sectors seeking to fill skilled worker vacancies. The number of available visas open to third country nationals of 'exceptional talent' was doubled. In addition, in February 2020, the Global Talent visa replaced the Tier 1 Exceptional Talent visa. It is a fast track visa for talented and promising individuals in the fields of science, engineering, medicine, humanities, digital technology and arts and culture, with an accelerated path to settlement for many applicants. A numerical cap no longer applies to this visa. In Ireland, in response to skills needs, changes were made to the occupation lists for employment permit purposes. These provided for the removal from the ineligible categories of employment list of chef grades with a minimum annual remuneration threshold of EUR 30 000 and certain occupations in the agri-food sector with a minimum annual remuneration threshold of EUR 22 000. The labour market needs test was extended from two to four weeks. Requirements for balanced hiring practices were adjusted to meet a broader range of enterprise needs, including relaxation of the '50:50 Rule' (which requires that at least 50% of employees in an enterprise seeking to hire a non-EEA national should be from Ireland or the EEA) in cases of new or early stage companies working with Irish development agencies.

Ireland also changed its Highly Skilled and Ineligible Employment Lists to be more responsive in real time to employer demand. Sectors experiencing severe labour shortages were allowed to submit a business case for consideration as they arose; salary thresholds and other criteria for various employment permit types were able to respond more flexibly to changing skills and labour market needs. The Slovak Republic is updating the job shortage list on a quarterly basis instead of annually. In Denmark the Fast Track Scheme now allows a change of job position internally within the company without applying for a new permit and researchers may be granted a permit for six months of job seeking after their work permit has expired. In 2019, the French government announced that it would implement a professional immigration policy by sector of activity, based on revised regional shortage occupation lists (not updated since 2008).

Bulgaria has reduced the burden on employers by changing procedures and easing its labour market test. First, it increased the quota of third country nationals for an individual employer from 10% to 25% and for small and medium enterprises to 35%. Second, the time to issue a work permit was reduced from 30 to 20 days and labour market test requirements have been lifted for Blue card applicants.

Lithuania in 2018 and 2019 made it easier for highly qualified workers to change job function with the same employer and lesser skilled foreign workers no longer need to provide documentation confirming their qualifications and those who changed job duties at the same employer or changed employer do not require a new temporary residence permit. At the same time, stricter controls were introduced in some cases. In response to a steep increase in labour migrant inflow in Lithuania, an amendment to the law introduced quotas for third country workers coming to work in shortage occupations in July 2019. A first list of occupations will be established in 2021. The Czech Republic limited the opportunity for a foreigner to change employer and place of residence, while Estonia required greater language proficiency for those applying for a temporary residence permit issued for employment purposes.

EU countries continue to transpose EU Directive 2014/66 on intra-company transfers (ICTs) into their law, most recently the Czech Republic, Greece, the Netherlands and Poland. The ways in which this is done tend to bring ICTs into line with other skilled migrants and make it easier for them to enter and work. In October 2018, the Aliens Employment Implementation Decree in the Netherlands was changed to allow ICTs to work on a self-employed basis, parallel to the work for this specific purpose of residence, without having to apply for a work permit for third-country nationals. With these changes the regulations regarding

ICTs were brought into alignment with the scheme for highly skilled migrants and students. Following implementation of the Directive, Poland introduced two new types of temporary residence and work permits for intra-company transferees, one valid for up to one year for trainee employees and one valid for up to three years for managers and specialists. These may be granted without a labour market test.

New Zealand and Australia have continued their policies of linking employers and their visa systems in targeting the skills needed by their labour markets. Changes to New Zealand's employer-assisted temporary work visa from September 2019 include: a requirement that employers apply for accreditation from Immigration New Zealand prior to supporting a migrant's temporary work visa application; developing regional rather than national skills shortage lists; and sector Agreements to address longer-term structural issues.

Australia tightened its labour market testing regime in August 2018. The test now has to be conducted over four weeks (previously three) and within four months (previously six months) of lodging a nomination, and advertisements should specify skill or experience requirements. For key groups there is more flexibility, including ICTs, key medical occupations, internationally recognised talent and positions with annual salary of at least AUD 250 000. Australia's talent visa framework has been developed to allow highly skilled, specialised and niche positions to be filled by overseas applicants, where there are no suitable Australians to fill the role. In August 2018, the Skilling Australians Fund (SAF) levy on all employers sponsoring overseas skilled workers under the temporary and permanent employer sponsored visa programs commenced. Its purpose is to require employers seeking to access skilled overseas workers to contribute to the broader skills development of Australians. In December 2018, the government announced the Global Talent – Independent programme (formerly known as the Global Talent Initiative) with an investment of AUD 12.9 million over three years to strengthen Australia's ability to identify, attract and invite the best and brightest skilled migrants. The programme will identify high calibre candidates for up to 5 000 permanent migration places annually, on the basis of their potential to be significant economic contributors to Australia.

Regulating the recruitment of seasonal and low-skilled workers

The trend is towards more control over flows of temporary and seasonal workers while also making it easier for temporary workers to be recruited and under improved conditions. In Spain special measures have been introduced to strengthen the protection of workers' rights and to increase cooperation with the Moroccan administration and coordination with business associations. Improvements have been made in harvest planning, monitoring and control of working conditions and accommodation of the people who have moved. In 2019 it was decided to expand these programmes to other countries and at the end of June a pilot project for circular migration with Senegal was launched. Australia also broadened the geographical scope of its Seasonal Worker Program (SWP) in July 2018 as employers may recruit workers from all participating countries in the scheme for a maximum of nine months. Previously, only seasonal workers from Kiribati, Nauru, and Tuvalu could be so employed.

In addition to its agricultural seasonal recruitment, Australia's temporary work system has been developed as part of its 'step-up' in the Pacific region. The Pacific Labour Scheme (PLS) which commenced in July 2018 helps fill labour shortages in Australia whilst providing opportunities for low and semi-skilled workers from Pacific Island countries and Timor-Leste to earn income and develop skills in Australia. Workers may engage in any sector in regional and rural Australia for up to three years, with a focus on non-seasonal agriculture, fisheries and aquaculture, accommodation and tourism, health care and social assistance. The PLS is facilitated by the existing Temporary Work (International Relations) visa. In November 2018, the cap of 2 000 places for the PLS was lifted, becoming employer-demand driven to provide more opportunities for Pacific workers.

A few other OECD countries have also recently made important changes regarding seasonal agricultural workers schemes, notably regarding contractual arrangements. From May 2018, employers in Poland were allowed to hire foreigners on the basis of a new type of civil-law contract on help at harvest times. The new

contract provides workers with health, accident and maternity insurance but does not guarantee the minimum hourly and monthly wage. The United Kingdom decided to restrict its new migration policy to skilled foreign workers but put in place a two-year pilot scheme that will allow 2 500 non-EU migrant workers to work no more than six months on farms. The scheme, announced in September 2019, will run until the end of the Brexit transition period due at the end of December 2020 and will operate similarly to the former Seasonal Agricultural Worker Scheme.

Following implementation of EU directive 2014/36/UE on seasonal workers in January 2018, Poland simplified the procedure for short-term employment of foreigners. Seasonal work permits are now issued for a period of up to nine months during a calendar year in three sectors of the economy: agriculture, horticulture and tourism. These permits are available to foreigners from all third countries, but in the case of nationals of Armenia, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russian Federation and Ukraine they are granted without conducting a labour market test. They are only issued when the remuneration proposed to a foreigner is not lower than the remuneration of other workers performing work of comparable type or in a similar position. It has also become possible to limit the employment of foreigners. The Minister of Labour or the Minister of Agriculture (since January 2018) or the Minister of the Interior (since January 2019) may respectively determine, by means of a regulation, the maximum number of seasonal work permits, work permits, employers' declarations on hiring a foreigner, temporary residence and work permits.

Austria has amended its policy on short-term seasonal stays: workers receive the right to stay directly from the Labour Ministry, which acts as a one-stop-shop. Similarly, following transposition of Directive 2014/36/EU on seasonal workers in 2019, in Belgium seasonal workers can apply for a single permit at the level of the region. They may obtain a single permit valid for a period of up to 150 days in a period of 365 days.

Israel has reduced the employer's levy: from 2019 the agriculture sector is exempt and in all other sectors the levy was reduced to 15%. In February 2018, the Israeli government decided that such workers in the construction sector would be allowed to work in infrastructure projects as well as in housing. In June 2018, a new law on seasonal work took effect in Sweden. It applies to people from countries outside the EEA and Switzerland who have been offered temporary seasonal work in Sweden from an employer who is established in the country. In May 2018 the United States increased its cap on H-2B non-immigrant visas by 15 000.

Following public consultations, in September 2019 New Zealand introduced changes to its employer-assisted temporary work visa settings. The changes introduced a new framework, which requires employers to apply for accreditation from Immigration New Zealand prior to supporting a migrant's temporary work visa application. In addition regional rather than national skills shortage lists were developed, Sector Agreements introduced and alignment of the immigration, welfare and education systems improved.

Easing recruitment of foreign entrepreneurs and investors

In January 2019, the accredited sponsor scheme in Australia was expanded to make it easier for large reputable companies who make major investments in Australia to utilise the employer sponsored skilled migration programmes. In the United Kingdom, Start-up and Innovator visas replaced Tier 1 Entrepreneur and Graduate Entrepreneur visas in March 2019. Industry experts rather than immigration officials are now in charge of the selection of visa applicants. In New Zealand, a second evaluation of the new Global Impact Visa (GIV) was released in 2019. GIV provides individual entrepreneurs and investors with a three-year visa to create, support and incubate ventures. After 30 months, migrants may apply for permanent residence.

In the Netherlands, a new residence permit for essential personnel of start-ups was introduced in July 2019, allowing start-ups to hire third country nationals that are essential to their success with a lowered salary criterion (in comparison to regular knowledge migrants), combined with a share in the company.

Lithuania continued to strengthen the business environment for start-ups and help them become stronger and more successful. In 2019, the Ministry of the Interior, the Migration department and the Ministry of the Economy and Innovation signed a memorandum of understanding to establish a Start-up Employee Visa scheme. In the same year, Latvia amended its procedures for issuing a temporary residence permit to start-up company founders from third countries, extending for up to 12 months after the issue of a temporary residence permit the period during which a third-country national has to submit information relating to company progress and innovation.

Expanding Working holiday maker schemes

The general tendency has been for countries to expand and strengthen their working holiday maker (WHM) and youth mobility schemes. More agreements between countries have been signed, age limits, periods of stay increased and freedom of travel eased. Overall the rationale is to encourage young people to work, study and travel.

From November 2018, WHM visa holders in Australia may complete agricultural work from an expanded list of regional locations to qualify for a second visa. They may also stay with the same agricultural employer from six to 12 months and may now work for the same employer for more than six months in plant and animal cultivation anywhere in Australia. In Northern Australia they may also work in certain industries (aged care and disability services, fishing and pearling, tree farming and felling, construction, mining, tourism and hospitality) for up to 12 months. From July 2019, the maximum number of WHM visas an applicant may hold increased from two to three. The option of a third visa is available to applicants who undertake six months' specified work in a specified regional area whilst on their second visa. The upper age limit for working holiday visas and the number of places available for certain countries have been increased and in July 2019 new WHM arrangements commenced with Greece and Ecuador.

Canada has continued promoting youth mobility by signing a new WHM agreement with Portugal and by amending an existing agreement with Australia to increase the eligible upper age limit from 30 to 35. These initiatives will encourage Canadian, Portuguese and Australian young adults aged 18 to 35 to work and travel through the International Experience Canada (IEC) programme. Findings from the recently completed evaluation of the IEC programme demonstrated that many of the participants find the programme to be valuable to both their personal and professional lives.

Three agreements, with Chile, Chinese Taipei and Canada, were signed by Luxembourg to introduce a working holiday visa for young adults between 18 and 30 years old. The objective of this programme is to promote international youth exchanges and to develop cultural and linguistic exchanges. In addition, participants may engage in a remunerated activity or continue their studies. During their stay, participants are free to travel within their host country according to the terms of the bilateral arrangement. To this end, the working holiday visa allows the holder to re-enter or leave the country several times with the same visa, which is valid for a period of 12 consecutive months. Visa holders will not be granted permission to extend their stay beyond this period.

In 2019, Portugal signed new Working Holiday agreements with the United States and Peru. In June 2018 Poland signed 'work and travel' agreements for young people with Korea and Argentina, in addition to the seven current ones. In order to promote cultural exchange and youth mobility, in 2018 Sweden entered into Working Holiday Visa Agreements with Uruguay and in 2019 with Japan to add to similar agreements with Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Chile, Hong Kong, China, and Argentina. To ease movement, applicants do not need a job offer when applying for a permit.

On the broader youth mobility theme, Romania and France have introduced the concept of "au pair" worker in their law. In France, au pair young workers are issued a one-year residence permit (renewable once). In Romania, work authorisations for au pair workers may be issued for people aged 18 to 30 years old, who have completed lower secondary education and for whom the employer covers expenses related to subsistence, accommodation and social health insurance.

In 2019 the United Kingdom increased its Immigration Health Surcharge for those on the Youth Mobility Scheme, which includes working holiday makers, from GBP 200 to GBP 300 per year.

Continuing attracting migrants to selected regional areas

In 2019, the Australian Government introduced a series of initiatives to support regional development. These included three new skilled regional visas, namely: Skilled Work Regional (Provisional) visa; Skilled Employer Sponsored Regional (Provisional); Permanent Residence (Skilled Regional) visa, accessible to holders of one of the new skilled regional provisional visas. To be eligible for permanent residence, regional provisional visa holders need to demonstrate they have lived and worked in regional Australia as holders of a regional provisional visa for at least three years. At the same time the Skilled Occupation List was reviewed and updated, with an additional 77 occupations available for regional Australia while the skilled migration points test mark was tightened from 60 to 65 points.

Canada launched its Rural and Northern Immigration Pilot in January 2019 in 11 rural and northern communities to help fill chronic labour shortages and enhance retention, combining jobs with career development potential and connections to settlement services. The pilot builds on existing economic initiatives to the regions, such as the Atlantic Immigration Program. Furthermore, in March 2019, IRCC expanded pathways to permanent residency to workers at the intermediate skill level already in Canada temporarily by allocating an additional 2 000 nominations under the Provincial Nominee Program (PNP).

Attracting and retaining international students

Several OECD countries have sought to increase student numbers by targeting specific groups or improving conditions. In 2018, Canada introduced the Student Direct Stream (SDS), an expedited study permit processing stream open to applicants living in India, China, the Philippines and Viet Nam. The programme is for legal residents from these countries applying for a study permit at a post-secondary designated learning institution and who provide proof indicating that they meet specific language, medical and financial requirements. Eligible applicants may obtain their study permit within 20 days, rather than the standard 60 days.

In Portugal changes in the status of international student allow refugees or victims of crimes of human trafficking to enter higher education. Foreign students who are Portuguese or EU family members have access to higher education under the same conditions as the Portuguese.

New measures in the Netherlands focused on accommodation. In order to attract international students a national action plan on 'student housing' has been developed, in response to growing housing concerns among international students. A key aim is to improve the provision of information and to exchange experiences with regard to their accommodation.

In Romania, a new ordinance in 2018 also amended the legal framework to attract international students by granting scholarships offered by universities and accrediting programmes of study for them, including language training.

Several approaches are in use to encourage international graduates to stay on, seek and take up work. They include lengthening the stay period after graduation in order to seek work; allowing international students to work longer hours during their educational course; linking graduation with pathways to residence. Australia announced an extra year of stay for regional Temporary Graduate Visa (TGV) holders, to be implemented in 2021. It allows students, who graduate with a Bachelor's degree or higher from a regional institution and reside in a regional area on their TGV, to get an extra year of post study work rights. Ireland revised its list of eligible educational programmes for immigration purposes in mid-2018. The revised programme allows new graduates at NFQ Level 8/ISCED 5 or above to live and work full-time for up to 12 months after graduation, albeit with a total limit of seven years overall duration of residence in the

country (including studies). Graduates at Level 9/ISCED 6 may work for up to two years post-graduation, subject to a total cap of eight years residence in Ireland.

Since 2018, in Lithuania, international students have the possibility to stay after studies and look for a job for a longer period (up to 12 months). Their residence period during studies is now counted in full when calculating the time the foreign national has resided in Lithuania (previously this time was halved). Family members of PhD candidates will be able to apply for a temporary residence permit with more favourable conditions. Estonia made it easier for students who had been issued with a residence permit for study to return for employment, for research activities or as an intra-company transferee.

Since abandoning its post-study work route, the United Kingdom has gradually relaxed its rules on student entry and work and will finally reintroduce a new Graduate Route in the summer of 2021. Since 2018 students are permitted to switch to the main work route (Tier 2), earlier than they had previously been able to; short-term students are allowed to remain in the United Kingdom for up to 30 days at the end of their course; and work rights of dependants of students have been relaxed. The 2021 Graduate Route will provide students with an opportunity to work or look for work for two or three years at any skill level. Students completing a course at Bachelors or Masters level will be able to apply to remain for two years and Doctorate students will be able to apply to remain for three years. Students who successfully complete a degree course at undergraduate level or above at a Higher Education Provider (HEP) with a track record of compliance will be eligible, provided they hold valid leave as a student when the route is introduced.

Another approach, followed by Belgium, Romania and Luxembourg, is to allow international students to work longer hours during their educational course. In Belgium, they no longer have to obtain a work permit and now have access to the labour market on the basis of their residence permit. They may work without limit during school/college holidays and up to 20 hours a week outside holidays as long as the job does not interfere with their studies. Romania has also relaxed its rules on student work. The applicability of study visas has been extended under certain conditions for students in a professional training programme in Romania. For students attending an EU intra-mobility programme, specific rules have been introduced for granting the right to stay for study purposes in the country.

In Luxembourg permitted hours of work is part of a broader approach. The number of hours that international students may work during their studies has been increased from 10 to 15 hours per week. In addition, they may stay nine months after completing their studies or research activities in order to find a job or start a business; they are allowed to move around the EU more easily during their stay; the category of trainees has been reviewed to broaden the scope in which a student or a young graduate can gain initial professional experience; processing times have been reduced from 90 to 60 days, or in some cases 30 days.

Another strategy is to link post graduation with pathways to residence, as in New Zealand, Spain, Finland, Poland and Latvia. Changes were announced in July 2018, intended to increase the attraction of international students studying at higher levels to New Zealand and to preserve a pathway to residence for those with the skills and qualifications the country needs as well as to minimise the risk of exploitation. Specific changes include: removing employer-assisted post-study work visas at all levels of study (these required an employer to sponsor the former student and were associated with exploitation); making the length of a post-study work visa dependent both on the level of study and on whether or not there is a professional registration requirement; requiring that the subjects studied by international students for a Level 8 qualification be relevant to a skill specified on the Long Term Skills Shortage list.

In Spain a new residence authorisation has been created for participation in an internship programme for foreign persons who have obtained a higher education qualification in the two years prior to the application date, or who are undertaking studies which lead to one. International students who have already completed their studies at a higher education institution may now remain in Spain to seek employment or start a business. Finland will grant a residence permit to students for the full period of their studies. The post-graduation residence permit will additionally be prolonged to two years and will allow the permit holder to

take short-term work. An investigation has begun on financial support modes to compensate for the tuition fees of non-EU/EEA students studying in Finland if they stay on to work after graduation.

From February 2018 foreign graduates of Polish universities applying for temporary residence permits issued for the purpose of seeking work in Poland no longer need to possess a source of stable and regular income to cover costs of living; it is enough to possess financial means sufficient to cover the costs of subsistence without recourse to the social assistance system. On the basis of the same amended Act, foreign graduates of Polish universities were given an obligatory right (previously optional) to stay in Poland for a period of nine months (previously one year) on the basis of a temporary residence permit in order to seek employment or set up a business.

Following transposition of EU Directive 2016/801/EU, third-country nationals studying in another EU Member State may enter and stay in Latvia for one year without a Latvian residence permit and as well as receiving a permit to study in Latvia may be employed for up to 20 hours per week. In addition, Masters and PhD students are entitled to work 40 hours per week during the summer break. Amendments to the Immigration Law provide for the possibility of revoking a temporary residence permit if the student has not made sufficient study progress and if this is not based on circumstances beyond the control of the third-country national. Upon successful completion of the studies, third-country nationals have the right to request a temporary residence permit for a period of nine months if they wish to seek employment or start a commercial activity in Latvia.

Adapting admission of humanitarian migrants

A number of OECD countries have adapted their resettlement programmes. In September 2018 New Zealand increased its annual Refugee Quota Programme from 1 000 to 1 500 people per year, taking effect in July 2020. To implement the increase, new settlement locations and increased funding for settlement support and housing were announced. Central and South America became a new priority region for Australia's resettlement programme, with places made available for people from El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras under the Protection Transfer Arrangement and for people displaced from Venezuela. Conversely, the United States set the annual refugee resettlement cap for FY2020 at 18 000, down from 30 000 in 2019 and continuing a downwards trend since 2016. The actual number of resettlements is below the quota. The Danish Government reduced in 2019 the number of resettled refugees. Residence permits to refugees and family members of refugees are granted for only a temporary stay.

In January 2019, Austria comprehensively restructured the system of asylum and aliens affairs within the Federal Ministry of the Interior. All relevant areas were concentrated in one directorate of the Ministry of the Interior. In Greece in July 2019, in a new approach to migration management the government closed down the Ministry of Migration Policy, which was responsible for managing issues of reception, asylum and integration, and moved its competencies to the Ministry of Citizen Protection. Since 2020, new legislation regarding the asylum process came into force. Among other provisions, Greece may now detain asylum seekers for up to 18 months.

In June 2018, following a review of the Canadian asylum system, measures were introduced for better coordination across the entire asylum process. They included the creation of a Deputy-level Asylum System Management Board and the piloting of an Integrated Claim Analysis Centre to eliminate duplication and prepare hearing-ready cases more quickly. In response to increased demand under the Private Sponsorship of Refugees Programme, processing times were reduced from over four years (80% of applications were processed within this period) in 2014 to approximately two years in 2018.

Ireland, Lithuania, Belgium and Switzerland have introduced measures to improve conditions for asylum seekers, including changes to family reunification rules, access to labour markets and faster procedures. Ireland and Lithuania made it easier for asylum seekers to enter the labour market. From June 2018 they

are allowed to work from nine months after their application for asylum is lodged if they have not received a decision on their case. The employment permission is valid for a period of six months, renewable if the applicant has not received a decision on their final application. Family reunification is not permitted under the scheme however, so a partner, spouse or dependent child living outside the country may not join the applicant in Ireland.

In spring 2018 a range of new measures was introduced in Belgium, relating to the procedural needs of applicants, a list of criteria for admissibility and a shortening of the time limits to lodge an appeal. The law also defined the criteria to determine the “risk of absconding”, allowing the administration to detain an applicant for international protection in the context of the Dublin procedure. The number of reception places for applicants was reduced in order to return to the capacity before the influx of 2015-16. However, throughout 2018 and 2019, the national reception network came under pressure and several new reception places were created. Since December 2018, applicants for international protection have access to the labour market after four months.

Many other OECD countries, notably in Europe, have adopted further changes to their asylum system, generally to make it more restrictive. Under a temporary act of 2016, prolonged in 2019, refugees and those eligible for subsidiary protection were granted a temporary residence permit in Sweden. Refugees are granted a residence permit for three years and a person who is eligible for subsidiary protection is granted a 13-months permit with the possibility of renewal for another two years. When the temporary act was prolonged, persons with a subsidiary protection status were given the same right to family reunification as persons with conventional refugee status.

In France, the 2018 law on immigration, asylum and integration, which fully entered into force in March 2019, introduced administrative measures to reduce the average processing time for asylum applications from 11 to six months. Foreigners have now 90 days instead of 120 to submit their asylum application. A national reception scheme now specifies the regional share of asylum seekers. Since 2019, asylum seekers are no longer free to move around without the authorisation of the Office for Immigration and Integration (OFII). In the event of non-compliance, the material reception conditions are automatically interrupted and the processing of the asylum request can be stopped. The administrative authority may now reject an asylum request in the event of a conviction for serious transgressions in another EU country. It also makes it possible to detain asylum seekers who pose a threat to public order.

An amendment to the Asylum Act in Switzerland entered into force in March 2019. Asylum applications for which no further clarification is needed are processed under an accelerated procedure which provides for free legal protection for claimants. If further clarification is required, the asylum application is continued in an extended procedure which must result in an enforceable decision within one year, including enforcement of any removal. Applicants are entitled to free advice on the asylum procedure and free legal representation.

Greece and Japan brought in faster determination systems. A legal amendment in Greece in December 2018 shortened the time limit for accelerated procedure to 30 days, while the appeal decision within the accelerated procedure should be taken within 40 days. A new law, entering into force in January 2020 focuses on new reception procedures and seeks to achieve a unified regulation and reform of various aspects of the Greek asylum system. It affects the rules regulating asylum procedures, the rights and obligations of asylum seekers, reception and detention conditions, access to integration processes and the economic and social rights attached to asylum and refugee status. Other legal amendments limit access by asylum seekers to some public services and curtail the appeals system.

In January 2018 Japan revised its refugee recognition system in order to offer protection promptly to those who genuinely require asylum and to curb abuse. A time limit was set for dealing with first-time applications; those whose applicability as a refugee were deemed to be high under the Refugee Convention were quickly granted a status of residence permitting work; those whose applications did not correspond to Refugee Convention conditions were not permitted to stay; even if restrictions on stay were not imposed, some applicants were not permitted to work and the period of stay was reduced to three months.

In Germany, policy changes in asylum and return law allow for the detaining of rejected asylum seekers, the easier return of those found guilty of criminal offences and sanctioning of those who refuse to help clarify their identity. Germany reduced social welfare benefits for asylum seekers with protected status in other EU states and created a new tolerated status prohibiting employment and limiting movement across Germany for individuals whose identity remains unclear.

In the United States, since 2019, people who applied for asylum after crossing the border illegally from Mexico or without proper documentation at border points are required to return to Mexico and await the processing of their cases. In July 2019, a new bar was added to eligibility for asylum for those who enter or attempt to enter the United States across the southern border, but who did not apply for asylum where it was available in at least one third country outside the origin country through which he/she transited. The bar is subject to limited exceptions. In addition, in June 2020 employment eligibility for asylum seekers was changed. The rule prevents foreigners who entered illegally from obtaining employment authorisation based on a pending asylum application. In addition, the rule defines new bars and denials for employment authorisation, such as for certain criminal behaviour; extends the wait time before an asylum applicant can apply for employment authorisation from 150 days to 365 calendar days; limits the employment authorisation validity period to a maximum of two years; and automatically terminates employment authorisation when an applicant's asylum denial is administratively final.

During 2018 and the first half of 2019 in Italy, legal changes were aimed at preventing humanitarian ships engaged in picking up asylum seekers and other migrants from landing in Italy. The Ministry of Interior was given the power to restrict or prohibit the entry into, transit through or parking in the territorial sea of ships, with the exception of military ships and ships engaged in non-commercial governmental service, for reasons of public order and security. Non-compliance by the ship's captain with the prohibitions and limitations imposed may be fined from a minimum of 150 000 euros to a maximum of 1 000 000, without prejudice to the applicability of any criminal penalties.

In February 2019, a draft amendment to the Act on granting protection to foreigners in Poland aims to prevent the abuse of the asylum procedure by people not entitled to receive international protection. The most important changes include the introduction of an accelerated asylum procedure and listings of safe countries of origin and of safe third countries. Foreigners entering Poland from a safe country of origin and posting inconsistent, contradictory or improbable claims may be sent to guarded centres. Decision is due to be taken within 20 days from the receipt of the application. If no decision is taken within 28 days, they are allowed to enter the country where their application is examined through normal asylum procedure.

In the Slovak Republic, following transposition of the Directive 213/32/EU on common procedures for granting and withdrawing international protection, the link between subsidiary protection and family reunification was broken. In addition, if a person who has been granted asylum in the Slovak Republic acquires the nationality of another EU country, he/she will cease to be a refugee in the Slovak Republic.

Austria and the Netherlands have also made important changes in their asylum system. Austria has expanded the conditions under which an asylum status withdrawal procedure may be initiated. It has also introduced an obligation for asylum seekers to cover part of the costs of federal care and established a scheme to seize asylum seekers' cash. However, an application for international protection has been extended also to cover an asylum seeker's child born in Austria. A further legal change, effective from September 2018, allows detention of asylum seekers pending removal if they represent a potential threat to public order. In 2018 and 2019 the Netherlands reduced the validity of the temporary asylum permit from five to three years: after three years a new application may be made for another temporary permit for another two years. For recurrent asylum applications with no/limited chance of success a hearing was abolished.

Contrasted policy responses have been put in place in Colombia and Chile in reaction to the large influx of Venezuelans. In June 2019, Chile requested Venezuelans to obtain a visa prior to their entry. A 90-day work authorisation is generally obtained rapidly when providing a valid passport, a proof of economic

solvency and an invitation letter from a Chilean company or person. Colombia has responded to the large influx of Venezuelans by introducing a special residence permit for those entered prior to November 2019. An estimated 200 000 Venezuelans are expected to benefit from this measure. Special work authorisations are granted on the basis of a job offer.

Admissions of unaccompanied minors

In March 2018, Belgium introduced new procedures for identifying unaccompanied minors more systematically and as early as possible in the procedure. They include a detailed questionnaire in the registration phase at the Immigration Office and a separate assessment in the reception centres. Following a ruling by the EU Court of Justice, Belgium changed its practice to allow an unaccompanied minor who reaches the age of majority during the procedure for international protection to retain his or her right to family reunification as a minor.

In Sweden, from July 2018 unaccompanied minor applicants who turned 18 before receiving a decision on their application for asylum may, under certain conditions, be granted a temporary residence permit for studies at upper secondary school level. In France, a decree passed on November 2019 strengthens the measures to evaluate persons who claim to be minors and temporarily or permanently deprived of the protection of their family as well as identifying any exploitation they may be suffering.

In 2019, Greece made additional steps to implement its new guardianship system for unaccompanied minors, with guardians to represent them in legal matters and ensure their best interest. In addition, a scheme for the relocation of a total of 1 600 unaccompanied minors from Greece to other EU Member States, started being implemented on 15 April 2020.

Admission of family migrants

Australia and Canada have adopted comprehensive measures designed to streamline and broaden the family visa class, including improved access for grandparents and those with disabilities. Australia's Migration Amendment (Family Violence and Other Measures) Act 2018 came into force in April 2019. It establishes an assessable sponsorship framework for family sponsored visas where a sponsorship must be approved before a visa application can be made. The framework allows character check results to be shared with all parties to an application, but a sponsorship application may be refused if adverse information is detected. The intention is to apply progressively the framework to other family visas through regulation and system changes, with timeframes yet to be determined. The framework currently applies to the Sponsored Parent (Temporary) visa, which opened to visa applications in July 2019. The visa provides parents with a new pathway to reunite temporarily with their children and grandchildren in Australia for up to five years, without the need to depart. It imposes obligations on sponsors, including the requirement to provide financial support and accommodation, and to repay any outstanding public health debts incurred by sponsored parents in Australia. In order to recognise the contribution retirees have made to Australia, with most having lived in the community for many years, in November 2018 a pathway to permanent residence for holders of Retirement and Investor Retirement visas was set out by applying for a Parent or Contributory Parent visa.

In 2019 Canada increased the annual cap on applications for parents and grandparents to 20 000. In order to encourage inclusiveness and diversity it adjusted its policies on the selection and sponsorship of newcomers, including persons with disabilities. Under the new policy fewer applicants with disabilities will be deemed inadmissible on health grounds. In addition, Canada has renewed the cost-sharing agreement with the Rainbow Refugee Society until March 2020. This agreement is aimed at increasing awareness of the unique needs of LGBTQ2 refugees among Canadian sponsors and at strengthening overall sponsorship of them.

In Romania and the United Kingdom policies to deter family migrants have been adopted. The extension of the temporary right to stay for family reunification purposes in Romania is now conditioned by the primary

migrant providing proof of support means for each family member, amounting to at least the level of the national minimum gross salary. Since July 2018 in the United Kingdom, adopted children aged 18 or above and with limited leave under the family Immigration Rules, must meet a Knowledge of Language and Life requirement before being eligible to apply for settlement in the country.

Fighting against irregular migration

Several countries have brought in measures, mainly aimed at employers, to deal with irregular migration, employment and worker exploitation. In the United States, since January 2019 foreign citizens attempting to enter illegally or without documentation through the Southern border, including those who claim asylum, may be returned to Mexico and wait outside of the United States for the duration of their immigration proceedings. This rule is subject to limited exceptions. In July 2019, expedited removal applied to anyone encountered anywhere in the United States within two years of illegal entry. In June 2020, the United States Supreme Court sided with the Trump administration and reversed a lower court decision that challenged expedited removal.

Changes in Estonia are intended to reduce the abuse of employment regulations there, putting more onus on employers to prove that the actual work being done by a foreigner corresponds with the content and purpose of the legal basis for working in the country. Poland also introduced measures to protect foreign workers from exploitation. From January 2018, all employers hiring foreign workers are obliged to conclude a written contract. In addition, fines were increased for illegal employment of foreigners or requesting a financial benefit from a foreigner for a work permit or other document entitling foreigners to work in Poland. A further amendment was aimed at preventing people who entered Poland for tourism or family visiting from obtaining temporary residence or work permits.

In an attempt to prevent unsound employers from exploiting irregular migrants, the Police Authority in Sweden was given extended rights to conduct workplace inspections in sectors where there was an elevated risk of individuals working without the necessary work or residence permits.

In 2018, France introduced measures to securing the obligations to leave the French territory after the rejection of an asylum application and increasing control over undocumented foreigners. The detention period has been extended from 45 to 90 days to give more time to the administration to organise the expulsion.

Luxembourg strengthened its fight against the exploitation of prostitution and the procurement and traffic of human beings for sexual purposes. From February 2018 a new law penalised clients in cases involving minors, vulnerable persons, or victims of sexual exploitation. It prohibited modifications or destruction of any travel or identity documents of other persons and also prevented victims of sexual exploitation from being criminally responsible for a solicitation offence.

Ireland, Portugal and the Russian Federation introduced measures to regularise certain migrants who were in an irregular situation. In October 2018 Ireland announced a limited temporary regularisation programme for immigrants from outside the European Economic Area, who held a valid student permission but had subsequently become undocumented, allowing them to apply for permission to remain in the country. Successful applicants are permitted to live and work in Ireland for two years without an employment permit. Family reunification is not permitted under the scheme, so a spouse or partner and dependent children living outside the country cannot seek to join the applicant in Ireland. However, the family circumstances of persons present in the country is taken into consideration, meaning that where a person qualifies under this scheme, the family unit which has been residing with them may be given permission to remain. A legal change in Portugal in 2019 allows foreigners who have entered the country irregularly and have fulfilled their obligations towards social security for more than 12 months to be presumed legal if they are working (or have a contract for service delivery). In 2019 the Russian Federation announced a short-term migration amnesty for the nationals of Kyrgyzstan who stayed in Russia irregularly. They were allowed to leave Russia and subsequently re-enter. They may also legalise their stay in Russia without leaving the country.

Return and reintegration

In the United States since 2019, expedited removal which allows an immigration officer to deem aliens eligible to be removed without further administrative review, was expanded to cover the entire country and apply to any alien presumed to have unlawfully entered within the previous two years. A court ruling suspending this expansion was overturned in 2020.

In 2018, Belgium concluded agreements with Tunisia and Mauritania on cooperation with regard to the identification and return of undocumented migrants. A temporary measure was adopted to allow Georgian and Ukrainian nationals returning voluntarily to their countries to benefit from return and reintegration support. In addition, foreign nationals who have received an order to leave may now submit information related to their fear or risk in case of return to the Immigration Office and which may be considered as an implicit application for international protection.

In September 2019 Denmark transferred administrative responsibilities relating to migrant return from the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice to that of the Ministry of Immigration and Integration and cooperated with other European countries to establish reintegration programmes for rejected asylum seekers in a number of countries, including Iraq and Afghanistan. A specific and temporary subsidy scheme in 2018 allowed Iranians who left Denmark voluntarily to receive a cash subsidy. The support for voluntary return includes counselling services as well as information on the return procedure, reintegration and reestablishment in his or her country of origin and on the financial support schemes. Legal changes in Lithuania are designed to encourage foreigners who unlawfully entered Lithuania or are irregularly staying in it to leave voluntarily, with voluntary returns prioritised over deportations.

Encouraging national citizens and co-ethnics living abroad to return

A major policy development in Poland in July 2019 was the introduction of the Card of the Pole, which may be obtained by foreigners with Polish origin from all over the world. It is granted to people who can demonstrate at least basic knowledge of the Polish language as well as of Polish traditions and customs and can prove that they or at least one of their parents or grandparents or two great-grandparents were of Polish nationality (ethnicity). The Card provides numerous privileges to its holders and members of their immediate families. Holders may obtain a permanent residence permit free of charge from the very beginning of their stay in Poland and Polish citizenship only after one year of residence in Poland. They are entitled to a financial allowance for partial coverage of their and their immediate families' living costs for up to nine months and are exempted from administrative fees for a permanent residence permit and the grant of Polish citizenship.

The Polish Returns Programme, implemented since 2018 by the National Academic Exchange Agency (NAWA), is addressed to prominent Polish scientists working in foreign scientific institutions interested in returning to Poland and taking up employment in Polish higher education or research institutions. It provides for the payment of remuneration for the returning scientist and members of his/her research team, as well as resettlement expenses and costs of adapting the workplace.

In March 2019 the Spanish government approved a Plan for Return to Spain with the objective of promoting the return of Spanish people by facilitating the return process. A pilot project was developed, due to run into 2020, to encourage people of Spanish origin in Argentina to come to Spain. The project is aimed at children or grandchildren of Spanish people who do not have Spanish nationality and who have the qualifications and experience necessary for working in medium and high qualification sectors, particularly those related with technology, computing, research, marketing and finance. They may obtain a job in Spain without any restrictions and, as being children and grandchildren of Spanish people, immigration regulations exempt them from the application of national employment market testing.

Romanian concern with its emigrant citizens is with their treatment while away. Legal amendments in 2018 aim to protect Romanians living and working abroad and the role of agencies which orchestrate movement. The main changes relate to: the registration procedure; control of commissions, tariffs or taxes by the employment agents while performing mediation services relating to the employment of Romanian citizens abroad; strengthening the coercive framework in case of violation by employment agents.

In May 2018, Bulgaria extended the scope of its Labour Migration and Labour Mobility Law to cover the employment of Bulgarians abroad and the free movement of people in the European Economic Area.

In October 2018 the Russian Federation adopted a new Concept of the State Migration policy for the period 2019-25. It simplifies the rules of entry and naturalisation and encourages the resettlement of Russian nationals abroad.

Box 1.3. Countries continue to adapt to the United Kingdom's departure from the European Union

The United Kingdom has officially left the European Union (EU) on 1st February 2020. In accordance with the Withdrawal Agreement, it is now officially a third country to the EU and hence no longer participates in EU decision-making. However, EU law continues to apply to and in the United Kingdom for a “transition period” lasting until 31 December 2020. This period of continuity is notably used to negotiate an agreement on a new partnership between the EU and the United Kingdom.

As of 1st January 2021, free movement between the EU and the United Kingdom ends. However, the residency rights of EU citizens who were residing in the United Kingdom and UK nationals who were residing in one of the 27 EU Member States at the end of the transition period, where such residence is in accordance with EU law on free movement, will be safeguarded. Family members that are granted rights under EU law (current spouses and registered partners, parents, grandparents, children, grandchildren and a person in an existing durable relationship), who do not yet live in the same country as the EU citizen or the UK national will be able to join them in the future. Cross-border workers and frontier self-employed persons are also protected in the countries where they work. Over 3 million EU citizens in the United Kingdom and over 1 million UK nationals in EU should be concerned by this arrangement.

All movements to the EU of UK nationals who are not beneficiaries of the Withdrawal Agreement will be governed by Union and Member States' migration rules. EU companies wanting to recruit UK nationals will have to follow the relevant rules for third-country nationals of the Union and their respective Member States. For those EU citizens who will exercise some form of mobility under the new UK regime, the current coordination of social security systems foreseen by Union regulations will cease to exist. The same will be true for UK nationals in the EU, unless they are covered by specific Union rules related to third-country nationals. There will not be the same extensive cross-border social security protection as under current Union rules, as Union rules will no longer apply.

EU countries and the UK Government started to propose legal adjustments in a no-deal scenario. In the United Kingdom the post-Brexit *EU Settlement Scheme* commenced in January 2019. It is open to EU residents (and EU citizen family members) and to their non-EU citizen family members with a biometric residence card. A UK Government policy statement in February 2020 proposed an extension of the existing points based system to EU citizens from 2021. There would be no route for ‘low-skilled’ labour immigrants and the salary cap would be EUR 28 400, down from EUR 33 200. EEA and Swiss citizens already in the United Kingdom on 31 December 2020 will continue benefiting from free-movement. Irish citizens will still benefit from free-mobility under the Ireland-UK Common Travel Area after 2021.

National regulations for UK citizens in some EU countries

Most EU countries proposed reciprocal regulations to those relating to their national citizens in the United Kingdom, following Brexit. In a no-deal scenario, after the transition period, British citizens would be obliged to submit an application for a residence permit, as any other third-country national. In EU countries that have a permanent residence system in place, they would generally be entitled to such a permit after five years of residence (three years in Hungary to eight years in Denmark).

A new transition period is generally envisaged to give UK citizens who are already settled in an EU country on a permanent basis more time to apply for a residence permit in 2021 (e.g. nine months in Lithuania, with no requirement on language skills; 21 months starting on the day of withdrawal with no agreement in Spain). Luxembourg agreed in December 2018 to incorporate any UK withdrawal agreement into national legislation, with respect to the right of residence of British nationals and the rights of cross-border workers.

Note: European Commission and OECD Expert Group on Migration.


Annex 1.A. Supplementary tables and figures

Annex Table 1.A.1. Permanent flows to OECD countries by category, 2018

Thousands and percentage change compared to 2017


	Work		Accompanying family of workers		Family		Humanitarian		Other		Free movements	
	2018	%	2018	%	2018	%	2018	%	2018	%	2018	%
Australia	52.2	-10	58.9	-10	51.1	-14	16.3	-26	0.2	-44	14.1	+13
Austria	5.6	+11	1.5	+41	7.7	-9	15.0	-41	0.4	+6	56.8	-2
Belgium	5.0	+2	29.7	+3	10.5	-24	0.1	+20	63.9	+6
Canada	95.9	+19	89.8	+15	85.2	+3	45.5	+10	4.0
Denmark	8.3	+9	5.2	+12	4.6	-34	1.7	-40	5.5	+0	30.7	+5
Finland	1.7	-7	0.0	..	10.4	+5	3.9	-27	0.0	-43	7.0	+9
France	40.3	+32	101.9	+3	30.5	-6	21.4	+9	83.2	+6
Germany	64.9	+5	97.1	-15	78.5	-70	7.1	+1	383.1	-7
Ireland	9.8	+22	0.6	+21	2.8	-9	0.8	-3	31.1	+12
Israel	6.3	+2	21.8	+8
Italy	8.3	+72	0.0	..	122.8	+8	30.7	-4	5.0	-4	57.8	-6
Japan	66.0	+24	31.9	+7	0.1	+11	17.0	+5
Korea	0.6	+20	0.0	..	14.1	+7	0.6	+55	54.9	+6
Luxembourg	1.8	+19	0.0	..	2.0	+10	1.2	-10	0.1	-15	16.6	-1
Mexico	5.8	+13	19.3	+18	5.8	+73	7.8	+0
Netherlands	21.0	+17	0.0	..	31.2	+8	3.6	-54	0.0	..	80.3	+9
New Zealand	9.2	-23	10.8	-12	15.2	+22	4.2	+1	5.7	-13
Norway	3.8	+34	10.9	-23	3.9	-51	22.0	+8
Portugal	20.0	+163	21.0	+49	0.6	+25	5.8	+213	16.7	+6
Spain	29.8	-2	0.0	..	125.1	+7	4.8	+18	36.7	+20	147.8	+4
Sweden	16.6	+27	0.9	+27	50.9	+1	25.1	-31	..	.	30.2	-6
Switzerland	2.1	+13	20.7	+1	6.7	-2	3.4	+9	89.2	+4
United Kingdom	36.3	+17	21.7	+21	67.3	+10	25.2	+35	32.7	+11	159.5	-13
United States	65.3	+1	72.8	+0	695.5	-7	185.9	+27	77.0	-19
OECD	621.8	+15	262.3	+3	1 635.7	-2	501.4	-26	309.1	+3	1 302.8	-2

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>

StatLink  <https://stat.link/btecm9>

Annex Table 1.A.2. Top 50 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2017-18

	Number 2017	Number 2018	Share in 2018 (%)	2018/17 absolute change	2018/17 change (%)	Difference with 2017 rank	Expatriation rate (per '000 population) in 2018
China	435	431	6	-5	-1	0	0.3
India	299	330	5	+31	+10	+1	0.2
Romania	307	305	5	-2	-1	-1	15.6
Viet Nam	170	191	3	+21	+12	+3	2.0
Ukraine	159	191	3	+32	+20	+5	4.3
Mexico	188	180	3	-7	-4	-1	1.4
Poland	175	168	3	-7	-4	-1	4.4
Iraq	167	163	2	-4	-2	+0	4.3
Philippines	165	158	2	-7	-4	+0	1.5
Italy	150	156	2	+6	+4	+1	2.6
Syria	194	149	2	-44	-23	-7	8.8
Morocco	98	124	2	+26	+26	+5	3.5
Brazil	95	123	2	+28	+29	+5	0.6
United States	117	121	2	+4	+3	-2	0.4
United Kingdom	117	120	2	+2	+2	-2	1.4
Germany	117	120	2	+3	+3	-2	1.8
France	107	107	2	+0	+0	-2	1.6
Afghanistan	101	99	1	-2	-2	-2	2.7
Russia	86	97	1	+11	+13	+2	0.7
Cuba	80	95	1	+15	+19	+2	8.4
Pakistan	88	91	1	+3	+3	-1	0.4
Bulgaria	91	89	1	-3	-3	-3	12.6
Colombia	66	86	1	+21	+31	+4	1.7
Iran	65	79	1	+14	+22	+4	1.0
Spain	77	79	1	+2	+2	-2	1.7
Venezuela	53	75	1	+21	+40	+7	2.6
Korea	71	73	1	+3	+4	-2	1.4
Nigeria	70	71	1	+2	+2	-2	0.4
Dominican Republic	72	71	1	-1	-2	-5	6.7
Turkey	63	69	1	+6	+9	0	0.8
Portugal	60	61	1	+1	+2	0	6.0
Hungary	64	58	1	-6	-9	-3	6.0
Croatia	55	52	1	-2	-5	-1	12.6
Bangladesh	49	50	1	+1	+3	0	0.3
Egypt	42	47	1	+5	+12	+1	0.5
Greece	45	43	1	-2	-5	-1	4.1
Albania	38	42	1	+4	+11	+4	14.6
Australia	41	42	1	+1	+3	-1	1.7
Algeria	38	42	1	+4	+11	+3	1.0
Honduras	33	42	1	+9	+26	+7	4.4
Nepal	40	41	1	+1	+2	-2	1.5
Netherlands	40	41	1	+0	+0	-4	2.4
Thailand	39	39	1	+0	+0	-3	0.6
Serbia	36	38	1	+1	+3	-1	4.3
Peru	31	37	1	+6	+18	+5	1.1
Indonesia	32	36	1	+4	+14	+3	0.1
Turkmenistan	21	36	1	+15	+70	+23	6.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	36	35	1	-1	-2	-4	10.6
El Salvador	33	34	1	+1	+4	-1	5.3
Canada	36	34	1	-2	-6	-5	0.9

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.StatLink  <https://stat.link/215rgc>

Annex Table 1.A.3. Permits considered in the statistics on temporary labour migration and their characteristics

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Australia (Temporary visas granted, fiscal years; excludes New Zealand citizens)	Seasonal workers: Seasonal Worker Programme (within subclass 416 replaced by subclass 403 from Nov 2016)	From 4 to 7 months.	Uncapped.
	Working holidaymakers: subclasses 417 and 462	Up to 1 year.	Subclass 417: uncapped; Subclass 462: capped except for the United States.
	Trainees: The Training visa (subclass 407) introduced in 2016. Former Temporary Work (Training and Research) visa (subclass 402) streams –'Occupational trainee' and 'Professional development', closed to new applications from 2016; and the following visas closed to new applications from 24 November 2012: Visiting Academic visa (subclass 419), Occupational Trainee visa (subclass 442), Professional Development visa (subclass 470); and the Trade Training Skills visa (subclass 471) which was repealed in September 2007.	Up to 2 years.	
	Intra-company transferees: subclass 457 visas granted (primary applicants)	Up to 4 years.	
	Other workers: other temporary work (Short Stay Specialist); International relations (excl. seasonal workers); Temporary Activity; Temporary work (Skilled) (excl. ICTs)		
Austria	Seasonal workers: Winter and Summer tourism; Agriculture; Core seasonal workers; Harvest helpers (number of persons estimated based on the number of permits delivered).	Up to 12 months.	
	Intra-company transferees		Uncapped.
	Other workers: Researchers, Artists (with document or self-employed), Self-employed workers; Au pair; Other specific paid jobs.		Uncapped.
Belgium	Working holidaymakers: top ten countries of origin (estimation)		
	Trainees (estimation)		
	Other workers: Au Pair; Artists; Sports(women); Invited Professors or trainers; Other temporary workers (estimation)		
Canada (TFWP & IMP programmes – initial permits)	Seasonal workers: Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme (TFWP): effective entries	Not renewable.	
	Working holidaymakers: International Experience Canada Working Holiday and International Youth Programme (IMP)	Not renewable.	Uncapped.
	Intra-company transferees: International Mobility Program (IMP) Work Permit Holders by year in which Initial Permit became effective (Trade – ICT; NAFTA – ICT; GATS professionals; significant benefits ICT)	Varies.	
	Other workers: International Mobility Program (IMP): Agreements (excl. ICT); Canadian Interests (excl. working holidaymakers, spouses and ICT); Self-support; Permanent residence applicants in Canada; Humanitarian reason; Temporary Foreign Worker Program: Live-in caregivers; agricultural workers (non seasonal); other TFWP	IMP: varies; Live-in caregivers: unlimited; Other TFWP: not renewable.	Uncapped.
Denmark	Working holidaymakers		
	Trainees		
	Other workers: De facto status; Au Pair; Volunteers.		
Finland	Seasonal workers: Seasonal work visas	Up to 9 months	
	Trainees		
	Other workers	Up to 12 months	

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
France (first permits issued)	Seasonal workers: annual entries – OFII statistics	Up to 9 months per year (3-year authorisation).	
	Working holidaymakers: <i>Programme vacances Travail</i>	Up to 12 months.	
	Trainees: <i>Stagiaires</i>	Up to 1 year initially (extension up to 3 years in total).	
	Intra-company transferees: <i>Salarié en mission / Salarié détaché ICT</i>	Up to 3 years.	
	Other workers: Temporary economic migration (visa “salarié” < 12 months)	Up to 12 months (renewable).	
Germany (grants of work permits)	Trainees		
	Intra-company transferees: § 8 BeschV (<i>Praktische Tätigkeiten als Voraussetzung für die Anerkennung ausländischer Berufsqualifikationen</i>), § 10 BeschV (<i>Internationaler Personalaustausch, Auslandsprojekte</i>), § 10a BeschV (<i>ICT-Karte / Mobiler-ICT-Karte</i>)		
	Other workers: § 8 Abs. 2 BeschV (<i>Anerkennung ausländischer Berufsqualifikationen – § 17a AufenthG bis zu 18 Monate</i>), § 8 Abs. 3 BeschV (<i>Anerkennung ausländischer Berufsqualifikationen – sonstige</i>), § 11 Abs. 1 BeschV (<i>Sprachlehrerinnen und Sprachlehrer</i>), § 11 Abs. 2 BeschV (<i>Spezialitätenköchinnen und Spezialitätenköche</i>), § 12 BeschV (<i>Au-Pair-Beschäftigungen</i>), § 13 BeschV (<i>Hausangestellte von Entsandten</i>), § 19 Abs. 2 BeschV (<i>Werklieferverträge</i>), § 25 BeschV (<i>Kultur und Unterhaltung</i>), § 27 BeschV (<i>Grenzgängerbeschäftigung</i>), § 29 Abs. 1 BeschV (<i>Internationale Abkommen – Niederlassungspersonal</i>), § 29 Abs. 2 BeschV (<i>Internationale Abkommen – Gastarbeitnehmer</i>), § 29 Abs. 3 – 4 BeschV (<i>Internationale Abkommen</i>), § 29 Abs. 5 BeschV (<i>Internationale Abkommen – WHO/Europaabkommen</i>)		
Ireland	Working holidaymakers: Working holidaymaker visas		
	Trainees: Internship employment permit		
	Intra-company transferees		
	Other workers: Contract for Services; Exchange Agreement; Sport and Cultural Employment Permits		
Israel (entries excl. Palestinian workers, and stock of Jordanian daily workers working in uncapped sectors)	Working holidaymakers		
	Other workers:		
	Construction: Jordanian workers (daily workers in capped sectors); Tel Aviv city rail project; Sea ports projects; Jordan Valley irrigation project; Foreign Construction Workers (bilateral agreements with Bulgaria, China, Moldova, Romania, Turkey, Ukraine)	Daily workers: unlimited; other workers: renewable up to 63 months.	Capped.
	Tourism: Jordanian daily workers in hotel industry and construction in Eilat	Unlimited.	Capped.
	Agriculture	Not renewable.	Capped.
	Home care	Renewable up to 63 months (or up to 7 years if no employer change between 5 and 7 years of stay).	Uncapped.
	Specialists and skilled (experts working visa)	Unlimited.	Uncapped.
Italy	Seasonal workers		
	Working holidaymakers		
	Other workers	Up to 12 months	
Japan (New visas, excl. re-entry)	Working holidaymakers: Working holidaymaker visas		
	Trainees: Trainees and Technical intern training		
	Intra company transferees		

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
	Other workers: Professor; Artist; Religious Activities; Journalist; Researcher; Instructor; Entertainer; Cultural Activities; Designated activities (including some permanent workers and their spouses, such as highly skilled professionals)	1 to 5 years, renewable	Uncapped.
Korea (Visas issued)	Industrial trainees: D-3		
	Working holidaymakers: H-1		
	Intra-company transferees: D-7		
	Other workers: visas D-6; D-9; E-1 to E-9; H2		
Luxembourg	Trainees		
	Intra-company transferees		
	Other workers	Up to 12 months.	
Mexico	Seasonal workers: Cards of visiting border-worker (<i>Tarjetas de Visitante Trabajador Fronterizo</i>)	Up to 5 years.	
	Other workers: Temporary residence permit (<i>Tarjetas de Residente Temporal</i>) for work		
New Zealand (excludes Australian citizens)	Seasonal workers: Recognised Seasonal Employer Limited Visa; Supplementary Seasonal Employment (extensions)	Up to 7 months (or 9 months for citizen-residents of Tuvalu and Kiribati); extensions possible up to 6 months.	Capped.
	Working holidaymakers: Working Holiday Scheme	Up to 12 months (or 23 months for citizens of the United Kingdom or Canada).	Capped for some countries.
	Trainees: Work experience for student; Medical & dental trainee; NZ racing conference apprentice; Religious Trainees	Practical training for students not enrolled in New Zealand (or enrolled for 3 months maximum): up to 6 months; Religious trainees: up to 3 years; Apprentice jockeys: up to 4 years.	Uncapped.
	Other workers:		
	Essential skills	Up to 5 years.	Uncapped.
	Entertainers and Associated Workers	Contract duration.	Uncapped.
	Talent (Accredited Employer)	Up to 30 months.	Uncapped.
	Exchange Work	Up to 12 months.	Capped.
	Long Term Skill Shortage List Occupation	Up to 30 months.	Uncapped.
	China Special Work	Up to 3 years.	Capped.
Norway (non EU/EFTA nationals)	Skilled Migrant and Specialist skills	No limit.	Uncapped.
	Talent – Arts, Culture and Sports	No limit.	Uncapped.
	Seasonal workers	Not renewable	
	Working holidaymakers		
	Trainees		
Poland	Intra-company transferees		
	Other workers: Unskilled non seasonal temporary workers		
Poland	Other workers: Estimates based on the number of administrative forms from employers for recruiting workers from six countries of origin (Armenia, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine) under simplified procedures.	Up to 9 months (declarations) 6 to 11 months (residence permits).	Uncapped.
Portugal	Other workers	Up to 12 months	
Slovenia	Seasonal workers		
	Other workers	Up to 12 months	

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Spain	Seasonal workers: Authorisations for temporary employment		
	Intra-company transferees		
	Other workers: Permits for employees with contracts of limited duration; Permits for international service providers; Temporary residence permits for specific professions not requiring a work authorisation; Researchers; Trainees and workers in Research and development		
Sweden	Seasonal workers: Berry pickers		
	Working holidaymakers: Working holiday visas		
	Trainees		
	Other workers: Athletes and coaches; Au Pair; Intra-company transferees; Performers; Visiting researchers.		
Switzerland	Trainees	Up to 18 months.	Capped.
	Other workers (excluding detached workers):		
	Employed with work permits	Up to 12 months.	Capped (contracts of 4 to 12 months duration) or uncapped (permits < 4 months).
	Musicians and artists	Up to 8 months.	Uncapped.
United Kingdom (Entry clearance visas granted)	Working holidaymakers: Tier 5 – pre PBS Youth Mobility	Up to 24 months (multi-entry visa).	
	Intra-company transferees:		
	Tier 2 – Intra Company Transfers Short Term (closed on 6 April 2017)		
	Tier 2 – Intra Company Transfers Long Term	Maximum 5 years (9 years if salary > GBP 120 000 per year).	
	Other workers:		
	Tier 5 – pre PBS Charity Workers	Up to 12 months or the time given on the certificate of sponsorship plus 28 days, whichever is shorter.	
	Tier 5 – pre PBS Creative and Sporting	Maximum of up to 12 months, or the time given in the certificate of sponsorship plus up to 28 days, whichever is shorter.	
	Tier 5 – pre PBS Government Authorised Exchange	Up to 12 or 24 months (depending on the scheme) or the time given on the certificate of sponsorship plus 28 days, whichever is shorter.	
	Tier 5 – pre PBS International Agreement	Maximum 2 years, or the time given on the certificate of sponsorship plus up to 28 days, whichever is shorter.	

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
	Tier 5 – pre PBS Religious Workers	Maximum of up to 3 years and 1 month, or the time given on the certificate of sponsorship plus 1 month, whichever is shorter.	
	Non-PBS – Domestic workers in Private Households	Up to 6 months.	
United States (non-immigrant visa statistics)	Seasonal workers: H-2A – Temporary worker performing agricultural services	Up to 3 years.	Uncapped.
	Working holidaymakers: Summer Work Travel Programme (included among J-1 – Exchange visitor)	Up to 4 months.	Capped.
	Trainees: H3	Up to 2 years.	
	Intra-company transferees: L-1 – Intracompany transferee (executive, managerial, and specialised personnel continuing employment with international firm or corporation)	Maximum initial stay of one year. To 3 years (L-1A employees). Extended until reaching the maximum limit of seven years (5 years for L-1B).	
	Other workers:		
	H-2B – Temporary worker performing other services	Up to 3 years.	Capped.
	H-1B – Temporary worker of distinguished merit and ability performing services other than as a registered nurse	Up to 3 years initially. Maximum limit of six years in total (with some exceptions).	
	H-1B1 – Free Trade Agreement worker (Chile/Singapore)		
	H-1C – Nurse in health professional shortage area (expired in 2009)	Up to 3 years.	
	O-1 – Person with extraordinary ability in the sciences, arts, education, business, or athletics	Up to 3 years (extension up to 1 year).	
	O-2 – Person accompanying and assisting in the artistic or athletic performance by O-1	Up to 3 years (extension up to 1 year).	
	P-1 – Internationally recognised athlete or member of an internationally recognised entertainment group	Up to 5 years (1 year for athletic group). Maximum limit of 10 years (5 years for athletic group).	
	P-2 – Artist or entertainer in a reciprocal exchange programme	Up to 1 year initially (extension up to 1 year).	
P-3 – Artist or entertainer in a culturally unique programme	Up to 1 year initially (extension up to 1 year).		
R-1 – Person in a religious occupation	Up to 30 months initially.		
TN – NAFTA professional	Up to 3 years.		

Notes

¹ For a detailed review of the data limitations, see De Wispelaere and Pacolet – HIVA-KU Leuven (2019).

2 Labour market outcomes of immigrants and integration policies in OECD countries

The first part of this chapter examines the labour market outcomes of immigrants in OECD countries during the period 2014-19. Particular attention is given to job quality, with a focus on the professional careers of immigrant women. The last part of this chapter discusses recent changes in integration policies in OECD countries. It highlights in particular the increased policy interest in social integration, and the multi-stakeholder approach to integration policy.

In Brief

Key findings

- The labour market outcomes of immigrants have continued to improve in 2019, thanks to the overall improvements in economic conditions in most OECD countries. On average, more than two thirds of immigrants were employed and about 8.2% were unemployed, a 0.5 percentage point decrease compared to 2018.
- These figures mask, however, substantial heterogeneity across countries. In 2019, and for the first time, immigrants' unemployment rate in the European Union was below the symbolic threshold of 10%, and less than 4 percentage points higher than the native-born. Immigrants' unemployment rates were the lowest in North American countries, at around 3% in Canada and the United States.
- Specific immigrant groups are performing better than others, such as intra-EU in Europe and North American immigrants in United States and Canada. By contrast, some groups are facing persistent difficulties. Despite significant improvements over the last years, North African and Middle Eastern immigrants had the lowest employment rates in Europe, and more broadly across the selected countries, at about 51% in 2019.
- Immigrant women remain overall at higher risk of exclusion from the labour market, from the beginning of their career. They are overall more prone than native-born women to be in long-term unemployment, in involuntary inactivity and for young adults, not in employment, formal education or training (NEET). They are also more at risk of over-qualification.
- The careers of immigrant women seem to be more affected by motherhood than for native-born women. In particular, and for a number of reasons including their higher number of children, they are less likely to enter the labour market in the early years of their career than native-born women.
- OECD countries have continued to design and fine-tune comprehensive integration programmes for newcomers, to facilitate their rapid labour market integration and access to basic social services.
- Several OECD countries reacted to allow immigrants to better face the Coronavirus, mostly by improving their access to information.
- Many countries have taken measures to improve immigrants' language skills, with a particular emphasis on on-the-job language training. Digital technologies are also increasingly used to improve the effectiveness of language courses.
- The promotion of social integration and equal opportunities have gained more policy attention. Anti-discrimination and diversity policies, as well as civic courses are among the main tools used to foster social integration.
- The activation of immigrant women is increasingly high on the integration policy agenda. Several countries have taken specific measures, for instance by facilitating access to child care.
- Efforts to mainstream integration policy also consider vulnerable groups, such as migrant youth or children of immigrants as key targets to reach out to. Measures include language courses for young children of immigrants.

- In many OECD countries, the promotion of newcomers' integration follows a whole-of-society approach, which relies not only on policies implemented by the central government, but also on the role of local authorities and civil society. Municipalities more often play key roles in the implementation of social integration policy and language courses. Moreover, given their increasing central management role, municipalities start to form networks to improve their integration expertise.

Introduction

In 2019, economic conditions continued to improve, which benefited immigrants' labour market outcomes, and native-born as well. However, not all immigrants took advantage of these improvements and some groups are still lagging behind. Immigrant women, for example, can face difficulties in the labour market related to both their country of birth and their gender. To facilitate migrants' integration, most OECD countries focus their efforts on language training, skills assessment and development and introduction programmes for newcomers. In addition, OECD countries recently dedicated some efforts to increase coordination between stakeholders.

The first section of this chapter examines the changes in labour market outcomes of immigrants during the period 2014-19. A specific section looks at job quality for immigrant women. The second part of the chapter discusses recent developments in policies governing immigrants' integration into the labour market.

Recent changes in labour market outcomes of immigrants in the OECD area

Labour market outcomes of immigrants in OECD countries continue to improve

Over the course of 2019, the labour market situation of immigrants in OECD countries benefited from the overall improvements in economic conditions. On average across the OECD area, immigrants' employment rate increased from 67.8% to 69.3%, and unemployment rate decreased from 9% to 8.2% (Table 2.1).

With few exceptions, employment rates of immigrants have improved and their unemployment rates have declined in almost all OECD countries. Similarly to the previous year, progress in immigrants' labour market outcomes was particularly noticeable in the European Union, where more than two-thirds (67%) of immigrants are now employed. The most striking improvements were recorded in Estonia, Hungary and the Slovak Republic. In addition to being the country with the highest increase of immigrants' employment rate, Hungary is also one of the countries with the highest employment rate (sixth highest in absolute term) and the second lowest unemployment rate. In contrast, the situation has deteriorated for immigrants in Denmark and Sweden compared to 2018. France and Belgium still have extremely low employment rates of immigrants with only Mexico, Greece and Turkey lagging behind.

The unemployment rate of immigrants in the European Union has fallen below 10% for the first time since the 2007 economic crisis, reaching 9.7% after a decrease of 0.9 percentage points between 2018 and 2019. This drop is particularly marked in Estonia, Finland and Hungary. Elsewhere in the OECD, unemployment of immigrants has increased in countries like Mexico and Turkey. The unemployment rate of immigrants is still low in North American countries in 2019, with 3.1% in the United States and 6.3% in Canada. By contrast, the situation in Greece, and to a lesser extent in Spain, remains critical with very high unemployment rates for immigrants (with respectively 28.6% and 18.9%).

Table 2.1. Immigrants' labour market outcomes in OECD countries in 2019

	2019		Annual change		Gap with the native-born in 2019	
	Percentages		Percentage points			
	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate
Australia	5.5	72.3	-0.0	+0.3	+0.3	-3.4
Austria	8.3	68.9	-1.1	+0.8	+4.8	-6.1
Belgium	10.4	58.7	-1.2	+0.4	+6.1	-8.2
Canada	6.3	73.2	-0.1	+0.8	+0.8	-1.8
Czech Republic	2.9	79.2	+0.4	-0.2	+0.8	+4.3
Denmark	8.4	65.7	-1.3	-0.7	+3.7	-10.6
Estonia	6.2	74.6	-1.7	+4.5	+1.8	-0.7
Finland	11.9	64.2	-2.2	+2.0	+5.5	-9.4
France	13.1	58.9	-1.5	+0.4	+5.3	-7.7
Germany	5.6	70.8	-0.4	+1.3	+3.0	-7.4
Greece	28.6	53.3	-0.0	+0.5	+12.2	-3.5
Hungary	2.7	77.4	-1.9	+5.7	-0.7	+7.5
Iceland	4.7	82.4	-0.4	-0.1	+1.2	-1.9
Ireland	5.9	71.5	-1.4	+0.8	+1.1	+2.6
Israel	3.4	79.1	-0.1	+0.3	-0.6	+12.6
Italy	13.1	61.4	-0.6	+0.5	+3.4	+2.8
Latvia	7.0	70.5	-0.6	+1.5	+0.6	-2.0
Lithuania	5.6	71.9	-1.8	+0.9	-0.9	-1.1
Luxembourg	6.7	72.0	+0.3	+0.6	+2.7	+9.2
Mexico	5.3	53.2	+1.2	+1.4	+1.7	-9.0
Netherlands	6.0	66.5	-0.9	+1.6	+3.1	-13.7
New Zealand	3.6	77.8	-0.5	+0.7	-1.0	+0.6
Norway	7.4	69.8	-0.5	+0.1	+4.5	-7.0
Poland	5.7	75.0	+0.9	+2.0	+2.3	+6.9
Portugal	8.4	76.3	-0.1	+1.2	+1.9	+6.5
Slovak Republic	-	78.7	-	+5.5	-	+10.4
Slovenia	5.9	68.0	-0.6	+1.0	+1.6	-4.3
Spain	18.9	62.7	-1.8	+1.2	+5.8	-0.7
Sweden	15.5	65.8	-0.1	-0.9	+11.1	-15.0
Switzerland	7.3	77.1	-0.6	+0.5	+4.1	-5.1
Turkey	14.6	44.2	+2.5	-3.2	+0.6	-6.3
United Kingdom	4.3	74.7	-0.4	+1.0	+0.6	-0.6
United States	3.1	72.2	-0.4	+0.6	-0.8	+2.4
OECD average	8.2	69.3	-0.5	+1.0	+2.7	-1.8
OECD total	6.6	69.7	-0.5	+0.7	+1.0	+2.2
EU28	9.7	67.0	-0.9	+1.0	+3.8	-2.6

Note: The gap with the native-born refers to the difference between the corresponding rates of foreign-born and native-born. "OECD Total" is a weighted average and "OECD average" a simple average.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel; New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/w2e3u1>

The gap in employment rate between foreign-born and native-born remains negative in 2019, meaning that immigrants' employment rate is still lower than that of native-born, by 1.8 percentage points on average. The gap is particularly high in Denmark, Netherlands and Sweden (Table 2.1), where the employment rate of native-born is more than 10 percentage points higher than that of immigrants. The gap between the two groups is however very small in Estonia, Latvia or Spain, where immigrants are about as

likely as native-born to be employed. The employment rates of foreign-born are even higher than native-born in several countries, like for example in Hungary, Luxembourg or the United States.

While the unemployment rate of immigrants in the OECD area has continued to decrease over the past year, the unemployment rate of native-born remains lower than the one of foreign-born in most countries. Across OECD countries, this gap reached 2.7 percentage points in 2019, and 3.8 percentage points in the European Union (Table 2.1). The gap in unemployment rate between immigrants and native-born reached high levels in Greece and Sweden, with respectively 12.2 and 11.1 percentage points. Inversely, in a few countries such as Hungary, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, and the United States, immigrants have a lower unemployment rate than native-born in a few OECD countries.

But these improvements are unequally distributed across demographic groups

To examine the extent to which the demographic composition of the immigrant population influences aggregate labour market outcomes, Figure 2.1 breaks out changes in employment rates by gender, age and educational attainment in the EU28, Australia, Canada and the United States (see Annex Figure 2.A.1 for the corresponding changes in unemployment and participation rates). It shows that all groups have experienced a positive change in employment rate between 2014 and 2019.

Between 2014 and 2019, both immigrant women and men experienced greater drops in their unemployment rate than their native-born counterparts in European countries. However, the decline was more pronounced for immigrant men than for women. Similarly, in the United States, and to a lesser extent, in Canada and Australia, foreign-born women improved their labour market conditions compared to native-born women at a slower pace than men. In addition, the participation rate of immigrant women has more strongly and consistently improved compared to that of immigrant men in all the countries presented, hence reducing the gender gap in participation rate.

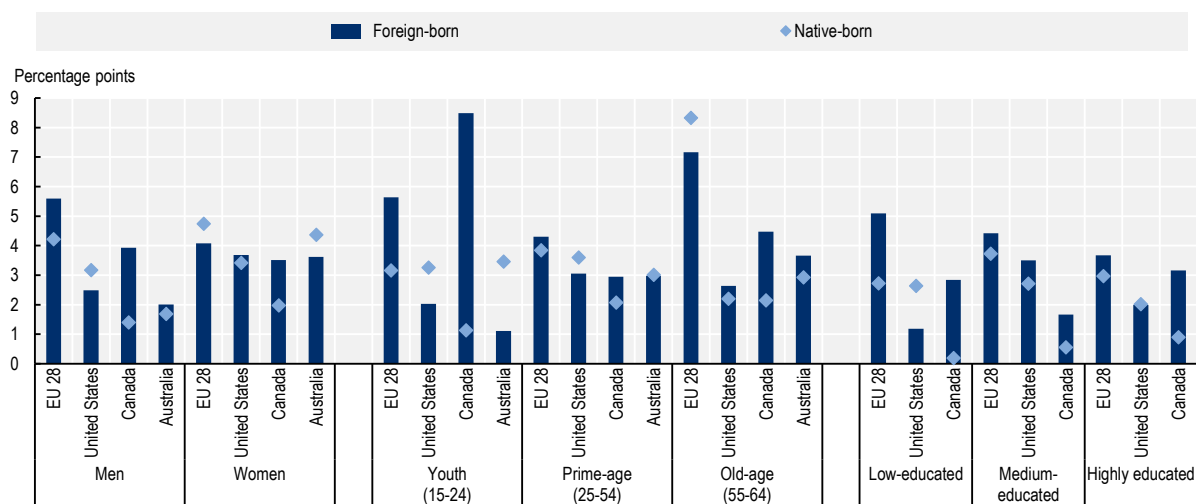
In European OECD countries and Canada, young immigrants (aged 15-24) have experienced greater employment growth than prime-age immigrants (aged 25-54), with respectively 5.6 and 8.5 percentage point increases. In Canada, young immigrants benefitted from the significant job creation in 2019. Young immigrants in Europe also experienced the largest drop in unemployment rate, with a 4 percentage point decline. The growth in their participation rate additionally suggests that after being particularly hurt during the 2008 economic crisis in terms of participation to the labour force, youth have known a significant improvement since then. This change can be related to the general improvements for low-skilled youth in 2019 in several OECD countries. The situation is more mixed in Australia and the United States, with smaller variations. In Australia, youth even saw their unemployment rate rise by 0.2 percentage points, while in the United States, their participation rate fell by 0.3 percentage points between 2014 and 2019.

Looking at changes in labour market outcomes by age also reveals that immigrants in the age group 55-64 experienced greater improvements in their labour market outcomes in Europe, with their employment rates increasing by more than 7 percentage points (Figure 2.1). Moreover, their participation rate significantly increased over the period, by close to 6 percentage points. This might be driven by the need for older workers to stay in work longer in order to support other family members, but is also clearly related to population ageing. The improvement for older immigrants is the most striking in Europe, Australia, Canada and to a lesser extent the United States also exhibits improvements in the labour market outcomes of immigrants in the age group 55-64. This improvement is greater than for native-born older workers.

In the European Union, Figure 2.1 highlights that the employment rate of immigrants has increased more for the low-educated than for the medium- and highly educated over the course of 2014-19 and their unemployment rate declined more (by respectively more than 5 percentage points and 4.6 percentage points). This illustrates the clear progress for low-skilled immigrants, who suffered the most from the economic crisis, in particular in Southern European countries. In Canada, while the employment rate of low-educated immigrants improved by 2.8 percentage points, that of the highly educated increased slightly

more (by 3.2 percentage points). In the United States, medium-educated immigrants are clearly the ones benefitting the most from the improvements in labour market conditions.

Figure 2.1. Changes in employment rate by demographic group and country of birth in selected OECD countries, 2019 compared to 2014



Note: The reference population is the working-age population (15-64). “Low-educated” here refers to less than upper secondary attainment, “Medium-educated” to upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary, “Highly educated” to tertiary. The data for European countries refer to the first three quarters only.

Source: Panel A: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat). Panel B: Current Population Surveys. Panel C: Labour Force Surveys. Panel D: Labour Force Surveys.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/4crdng>

Migrants' labour market outcomes significantly vary with the region of origin

Immigrants' labour market outcomes strongly differ depending on their region of origin. Several reasons can contribute to this. The characteristics of the immigrant population vary by region of origin, such as share of women, of highly educated, of youth, etc. (d'Aiglepiere et al., 2020^[1]). Regional differences are also driven by the different migration waves, which can have an impact on the main categories of entry and the duration of stay of immigrants in their host country.

Table 2.2 shows that, overall, and across different labour market indicators, many immigrant groups have experienced an improvement in their labour market conditions over the period 2014-19, although not to the same extent. The significant increase of immigrants' employment rate in Europe, from 62% in 2014 to 65.7% in 2019, was primarily driven by progress for immigrants from EU countries (more than 5 percentage points increase), North African (6 percentage points increase) as well as sub-Saharan Africa (5.5 percentage points increase), while the employment rates of immigrants from Asia and North America increased by only about 2 percentage points. Immigrants from North Africa and the Middle East however had the lowest employment rates in Europe (and more broadly across the selected OECD host countries in Table 2.2) at respectively 51.1 and 51.7% in 2019. While the employment rate of immigrants from African countries significantly improved over the past five years, the limited progression of immigrants from the Middle East, who constitute an important region of origin of humanitarian immigrants who recently arrived in European countries, have contributed to a more limited overall progression for foreign-born. Despite an improvement of unemployment rate of 2 points between 2014 and 2019, Middle Eastern immigrants in

European countries remain largely affected by unemployment as well, with an unemployment rate of about 20% in 2019. Similarly, the unemployment rate of North African immigrants in Europe reached 18.9%, after a 10 percentage points decline. This important decline comes after North African immigrants were hardly hit by the last economic crisis, which had lasting consequences.

In the United States, the employment rate of Mexican immigrants reached 71% in 2019, thereby surpassing the employment rate of natives. Similarly, with employment rates between 74 and 76.2%, immigrants from other American countries surpass by 4 to 6 percentage points the employment rate of natives. African immigrants in the United States have benefited from greater improvements than natives, with a 5.6 percentage points increase in their employment rate and a 3.8 percentage points decline in their unemployment rate to 3.7% in 2019. Canadian immigrants are the best integrated immigrants in the United States, through all the indicators presented in Table 2.2. At 78%, they have the highest participation rate, surpassing that of natives by over 5 percentage points. Additionally, they have the highest employment rate (76.2%) and the lowest unemployment rate (2.2%). On average, Canadian immigrants in the United States also do better than Canadians who have not emigrated.

By 2019, at 72.8%, the employment rate of immigrants is less than 1 percentage point below the one of the native-born in Canada (Table 2.2). While the increase is observed for all origin countries, it has largely been driven by large increases for immigrants from the Middle East, and to a lesser extent from North Africa, Europe and Central and South America and Caribbean. Immigrants from the MENA region also experienced sharp declines in their unemployment rate, with -4.5 percentage points for immigrants from the Middle East and -3.4 percentage points for those from North Africa.

In Australia, on average, between 2014 and 2019, immigrants' employment rates increased (2.7 percentage points) and unemployment rates dropped (-0.6 percentage points). Yet, natives have benefited from greater improvements than immigrants. Large heterogeneity in terms of region of origin also exists in Australia. Immigrants from North Africa and the Middle East still remain the most disadvantaged group in the country, with an unemployment rate close to 11% in 2019, twice the average foreign-born unemployment rate. They are the only group of foreign-born in Australia who have witnessed an increase in unemployment rate between 2014 and 2019. In addition, their employment rate remains the lowest (at 52.6%), as well as their participation rate (at 59%). By contrast, immigrants from Europe and the Americas enjoy a better situation, with their employment rate reaching up to 80% and their unemployment rate below 4.5%.

Table 2.2. Employment, unemployment and participation rates by region of origin in selected OECD countries in 2014 and 2019

Percentages

	Region of birth	Employment rate		Unemployment rate		Participation rate		
		2014	2019	2014	2019	2014	2019	
Australia	Other Oceania	74.7	76.9	6.4	5.9	79.8	81.7	
	Europe	73.9	78.0	4.7	4.0	77.6	81.2	
	North Africa and the Middle East	49.2	52.6	10.1	10.9	54.8	59.0	
	Sub-Saharan Africa	74.2	76.2	7.7	6.1	80.3	81.1	
	Asia	66.6	69.8	6.5	5.7	71.2	74.0	
	Americas	73.5	80.0	5.5	4.5	77.8	83.8	
	Foreign-born (total)	69.6	72.3	6.1	5.5	74.1	76.5	
	Native-born	72.7	75.7	6.3	5.2	77.6	79.9	
Canada	Sub-Saharan Africa	67.2	69.0	12.2	11.9	76.6	78.3	
	North Africa	62.9	66.8	14.0	10.6	73.2	74.7	
	Middle East	57.5	62.4	14.6	10.1	67.3	69.4	
	Asia	69.9	72.8	8.1	6.2	76.1	77.6	
	Europe	74.1	77.9	5.9	5.0	78.8	82.0	
	Oceania	81.0	81.6	0.0	4.3	81.0	85.3	
	Other North America	71.3	71.7	5.8	6.0	75.7	76.3	
	Central and South America and Caribbean	71.2	75.1	9.8	6.8	79.0	80.6	
	Foreign-born (total)	70.1	72.8	8.4	6.8	76.5	78.1	
	Native-born	72.6	73.7	7.1	6.3	78.1	78.6	
EU28 countries	EU28 + EFTA	67.2	72.6	12.7	7.6	77.0	78.6	
	Other European countries	56.8	63.6	18.2	11.7	69.4	72.0	
	North Africa	45.0	51.1	28.9	18.9	63.3	63.0	
	Sub-Saharan Africa	60.0	65.5	18.4	13.0	73.6	75.3	
	Middle East	50.4	51.7	22.2	20.0	64.7	64.6	
	North America	69.4	71.0	6.8	6.1	74.5	75.6	
	Central and South America and Caribbean	58.7	66.3	24.4	15.0	77.7	78.0	
	Asia	63.5	65.8	9.8	7.2	70.4	70.9	
	Other regions	63.4	69.2	10.8	9.6	71.1	76.5	
	Foreign-born (total)	62.0	65.7	15.9	11.1	73.8	74.0	
	Native-born	63.4	68.0	10.8	6.6	71.1	72.8	
	United States	Mexico	68.6	71.0	5.7	3.5	72.8	73.6
		Other Central American countries	73.8	74.0	6.0	3.3	78.5	76.5
South America and Caribbean		69.9	74.8	7.2	3.5	75.4	77.5	
Canada		73.1	76.2	3.6	2.2	75.8	78.0	
Europe		71.7	74.2	4.8	2.8	75.3	76.3	
Africa		67.3	72.9	7.6	3.7	72.9	75.7	
Asia and the Middle East		67.2	70.6	5.1	2.6	70.8	72.5	
Other regions		62.1	67.5	5.4	2.7	65.7	69.4	
Foreign-born (total)		69.1	72.2	5.8	3.1	73.4	74.6	
Native-born		66.5	69.8	6.5	3.9	71.1	72.7	

Note: The population refers to working-age population (15-64) for the employment and participation rates and to active population aged 15-64 for the unemployment rate. EU28 does not include Germany because data by region of birth are not available for this country in 2014. The regions of birth could not be made fully comparable across countries of residence because of the way aggregate data provided to the Secretariat are coded. The data for European countries refer to the first three quarters only for both years.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Surveys.

Migrant women in the labour market: a widespread double disadvantage

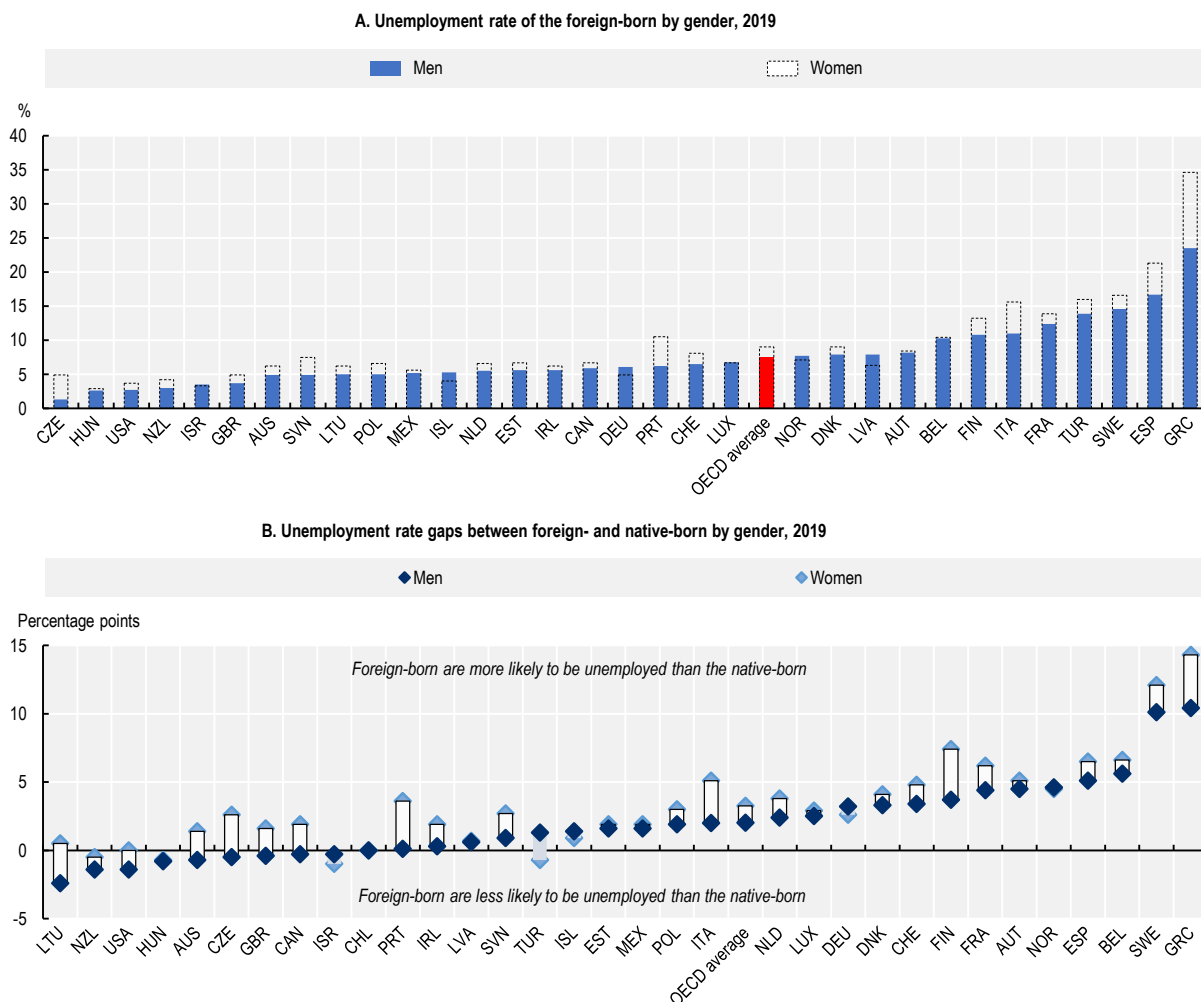
More than half of the foreign-born are women, yet more needs to be known about their integration in the labour market. While the labour market is quite unfavourable to women in general, foreign-born women face a double challenge, both as immigrants and as women. In the past few years, gender equality has gained attention both in the public sphere and in policy agendas. But gender equality cannot be tackled without taking into account the specific challenges faced by foreign-born women. For example, the education of their children is a major issue for the emancipation of foreign-born women. This section aims to characterise the integration of these immigrant women in the labour market, by adopting a multidimensional perspective. This section also investigates how motherhood can affect their careers.

Immigrant women are more likely to be unemployed than both immigrant men and native-born women

Beyond the overall improvement in immigrants' labour market outcomes in most OECD countries, gender differences remain significant among the active immigrant population. Immigrant women are for instance more likely to be unemployed than immigrant men. Across OECD countries, the unemployment gender gap among immigrants reached 1.5 percentage points in 2019 (Figure 2.2). This gap is particularly large in the Czech Republic, Portugal and Slovenia. However, in some countries, immigrant women are less likely to be unemployed than immigrant men. It is notably the case in Germany, Iceland and Latvia, partly related to policy changes targeting women, as in Germany for instance. This gender gap is also very small in some countries, such as Austria, Luxembourg and Norway.


In most OECD countries, the difference in unemployment rate between immigrants and the native-born is significantly more pronounced for women than men (Figure 2.2). On average across OECD countries, this gap reached 3.3 percentage points in 2019 for women, compared to 2.1 for men. The gap is smaller for men in most OECD countries, as in Finland, Greece, Italy and Portugal, where the difference is between 3 and 4 percentage points. However, the foreign- and native-born gap is broadly the same for both genders in some OECD countries, such as Canada, Chile, Israel, New Zealand, Estonia, Iceland, Mexico, Norway and Belgium. In these countries, immigrant women do not bear an extra penalty to integrate the labour market compared to their native-born counterparts.

Figure 2.2. Unemployment rate of immigrants and unemployment rate gap between immigrants and native-born by gender, 2019



Note: The population refers to the active population, aged 15-64.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN)*; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE)*; United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Young foreign-born women also face higher risks of being NEET

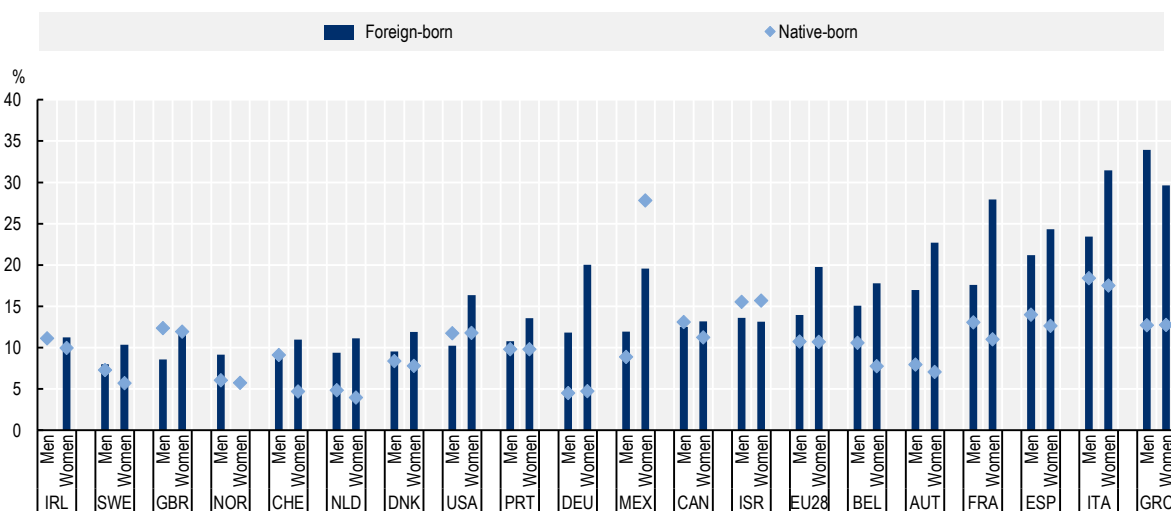
School-to-work transitions are also more difficult for immigrants compared to the native-born, and more strikingly for women. Figure 2.3 displays the proportions of young adults who are not in employment, formal education or training – the so called “NEETs”. In 2019, in most OECD countries, immigrants are more likely to be NEET than natives. This trend relates to the disadvantages associated to the sometimes poor educational background of immigrants, whose educational outcomes lag well behind those of their native-born peers. Moreover, the fact that women can already have started their reproductive life at that age partly explains why they are more likely to be NEET than men.

The highest levels can be found in the European Union, where more than one-fifth of immigrant women aged 15 to 24 are NEET, while this is the case of less than one-sixth of immigrant men. By comparison,

only 11% of the native-born are NEET in the EU. The situation is particularly challenging for both genders in Greece, Italy, Spain and France. On the contrary, in Israel, Mexico, and the United Kingdom, the NEET rate is lower among immigrants compared to their native counterparts. In the United Kingdom, while immigrant men are 3 percentage points less likely than native-born men to find themselves neither in employment, education, or training, immigrant women are as likely as native-born women to be NEET. In Mexico and Israel, immigrant women are even less likely than native-born women to be NEET, with respectively an eight percentage point and three percentage point difference. In the United States, at 10%, immigrant men are less likely than native-born men (12%) to be neither in employment, education, or training, contrarily to immigrant women who, at 16%, have a higher likelihood of being NEET than native-born women (12%).

Figure 2.3. NEET rates by place of birth and gender in selected OECD countries, 2019

Share of the population aged 15-24 that is not in employment, education or training



Note: Data for Denmark, Ireland and Portugal refers to the year 2018. Compulsory military service is excluded from the calculation.

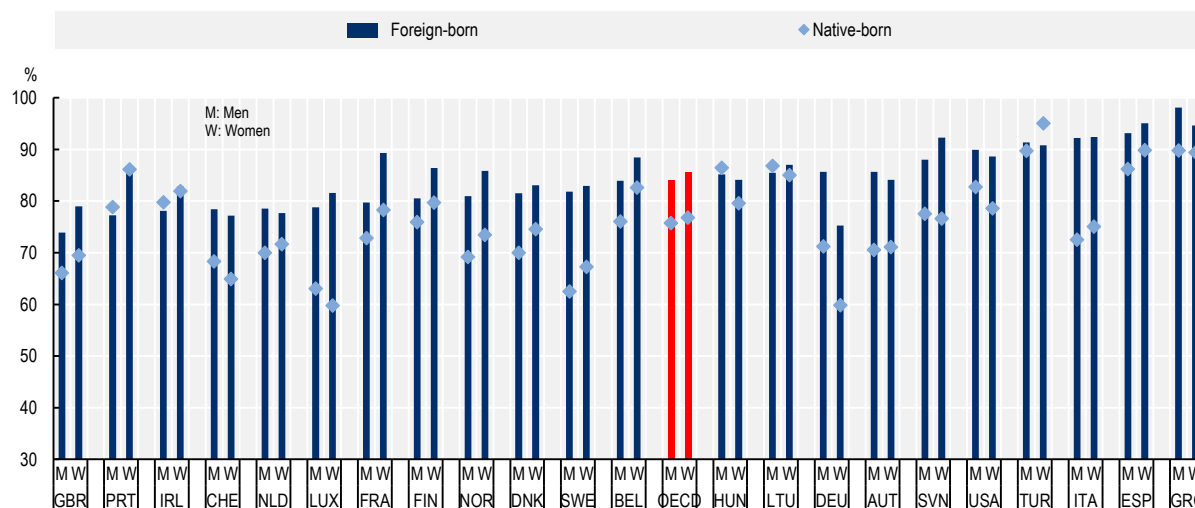
Source: EU28: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Canada, Israel: Labour Force surveys; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Immigrant men are however the most likely to work in low-skilled occupations, mostly because of lower education levels

Foreign-born are more likely to work in low-skilled occupations than native-born, and this share is the highest for foreign-born men (Annex Figure 2.A.2). This distribution of employment is likely to be related to the education level of immigrants. Immigrants living in OECD countries are indeed overrepresented at both ends of the education distribution, i.e. they are more likely than the native-born to have both a low and high education level. Moreover, foreign-born women have on average a higher education level than their male counterparts, making them less likely to work in low-skilled occupations.

Figure 2.4. Low- and medium-skilled employment as a percentage of total employment for low- and medium-educated in OECD countries, 2019



Note: Low- and medium-skilled employment refers to ISCO 4 to 9. Low- and medium-educated refers to upper secondary and less and post-secondary non-tertiary. Data for Denmark, Ireland and Portugal refers to the year 2018.

Source: Australia: Labour Force Surveys; European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Table 2.3. Composition of the workforce by economic activities in a selection of OECD countries

By gender and place of birth, in percentages

			Manufacturing, energy and construction	Trade, accommodation and food services	Non market services	Services to households	Other sectors	Total
EU-28	Men	Foreign-born	33.7	31.5	10.0	0.7	24.1	100
		Native-born	34.2	24.0	15.8	0.1	25.9	100
	Women	Foreign-born	10.9	25.4	29.6	7.7	26.3	100
		Native-born	12.5	22.3	39.5	1.0	24.7	100
United States	Men	Foreign-born	30.6	20.8	11.8	0.2	36.7	100
		Native-born	27.7	21.5	16.3	0.1	34.5	100
	Women	Foreign-born	10.6	21.8	34.1	2.9	30.7	100
		Native-born	8.0	20.0	42.1	0.6	29.4	100

Note: Non market services includes public administration and defence; compulsory social security; education; human health and social work activities.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Figure 2.4 depicts the share of low-skilled occupations across OECD countries in 2019 and considers only low- and medium-educated workers. In addition to the overrepresentation of foreign-born workers in low-skilled occupations compared to the native-born, it shows that, this time, the share of low-skilled occupations is the highest for foreign-born women. In the OECD area, 86% of low- and medium-educated employed immigrant women, and 84% of low- and medium-educated foreign-born men worked in low- and medium-skilled occupations in 2019. At comparable level of education, immigrant women are therefore

slightly more likely than foreign-born men to work in low-skilled occupations. This varies across countries, with higher percentages for both genders in southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Spain) and lower ones in the United Kingdom, Portugal and Ireland. Yet, at these comparable levels of education, foreign-born men are the most likely to work in low-skilled occupations in a number of OECD countries (e.g. Austria, Greece Hungary, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United States). In Germany, low- and medium-educated employed immigrant women are 11 percentage points less likely than low- and medium-educated foreign-born men to work in low- and medium-skilled occupations (with respectively 75% and 86%).

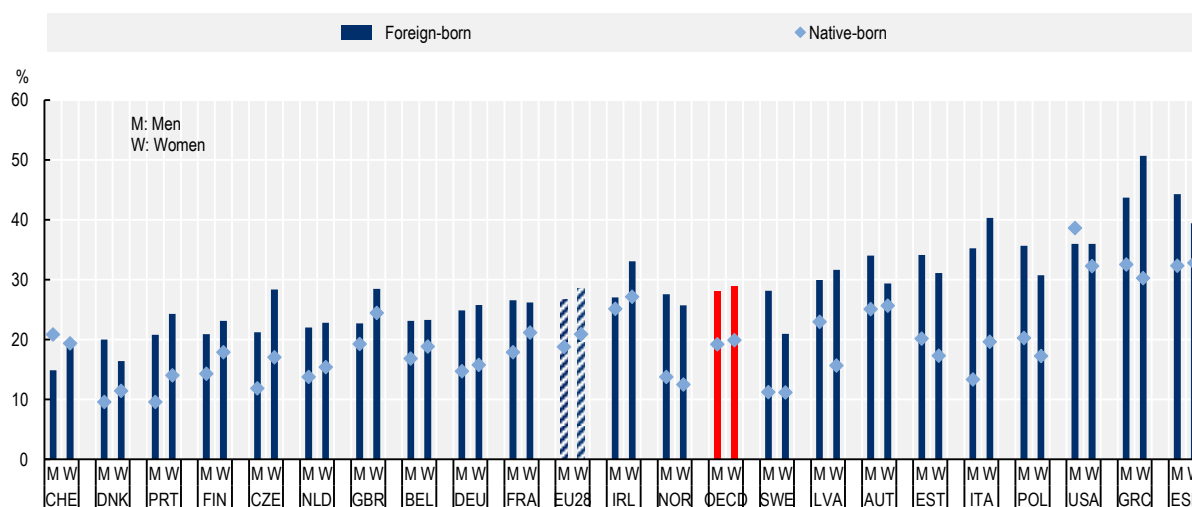
The skill-level of foreign-born women employment is related to their sectoral distribution. In Europe, the industries that employ most immigrant women were mostly sectors with a high number of low- and middle-skilled jobs (Table 2.3). Compared to native-born women, immigrant women are particularly over-represented in services to households. In Europe, they were more than seven times more likely than native-born women to work in this industry, and five times as likely in the United States. Close to 30% of foreign-born women work in non-market services (mostly in social services) and more than one-fourth of them work in the trade, accommodation and food services sector.

The risk of over-qualification is only slightly higher among immigrant women than their male counterparts

Even highly educated immigrant women face difficulties to make full use of their skills. Figure 2.5 presents the incidence of over-qualification¹ by gender and place of birth. It highlights that, on average across OECD countries, immigrant women are the most likely to be overqualified in their employment; 29% of them are, compared to 28% among immigrant men and 20% among native-born women. In most OECD countries, immigrant women are the ones most affected by over-qualification. This shows that education and experience obtained by immigrants in their origin country are less valued and sometimes not formally recognised on the labour market of the host country. The gender difference might be the result of being overrepresented in fields of study where formal recognition of qualification is more challenging, or where the demand in the host country is lower. In addition, foreign-born women tend to be less represented than foreign-born men in medical, upper-level management, engineering, information technology and physical research fields, which are favoured by receiving countries' immigration policies.

In all OECD countries, except Switzerland and the United States, the foreign-born are more likely to be overqualified than the native-born. The gap between immigrants and the native-born is particularly striking in Italy (more than 20 percentage points) and Greece where the overall risk of over qualification is very high. This gap is also noteworthy in countries with a relatively high population of humanitarian immigrants. In Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, immigrants are indeed significantly more likely to be overeducated than the native-born. In the United States and in Switzerland, however, immigrant men are respectively 3 and 6 percentage points less likely to be overqualified than native-born men. In addition, in Switzerland, at 19%, immigrant women are as likely as native-born women to be overeducated.

The gender gap in overeducation is the same among the foreign-born and the native-born. Among the foreign-born, the gender gap in terms of over-qualification is the highest in Greece, in Czech Republic (both at 7 percentage points), Ireland and the United Kingdom (both at 6 percentage points). In Greece, more than half of highly educated women are overqualified in their employment. By contrast, the gender gap is relatively limited among immigrants in a majority of countries, such as in the Netherlands and Germany (only 1 percentage point) and equal to zero in Belgium, France and the United States. Immigrant men are even more likely than immigrant women to be overeducated in Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway and Sweden), as well as in Austria, Estonia, Poland and Spain. Nordic countries have for instance stepped up efforts to make sure that immigrant women do not face additional difficulties in the labour market compared to their male counterparts, for example by offering mentoring programmes in Denmark or dedicating specific language classes to immigrant women with children.

Figure 2.5. Incidence of over-qualification by gender and place of birth, 2019

Note: The reference population are persons with tertiary education aged 15-64. The data for Portugal refers to the year 2018.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey.

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Immigrant women remain at higher risk of exclusion from the labour market, especially in European OECD countries

Immigrants remain disproportionately at higher risk of exclusion from the labour market, and particularly immigrant women. Figure 2.6 shows the evolution of the risk of long-term unemployment² by place of birth and gender, between 2007 and 2019. After a universal increase resulting from the 2008 economic crisis, all countries show a progressive decline. For most of the period, immigrant women are the most likely to experience long-term unemployment as compared to their male counterparts and native born women.

In the European Union, foreign-born are significantly more likely than native-born to experience long-term unemployment, and foreign-born women consistently more so than foreign-born men since 2007. In 2019, 4.1% of unemployed women were out of work for more than one year, compared to 3.2% for their male counterparts. By contrast, it concerns only 2.4% of native-born men and women. Going back to employment after a long-term experience of unemployment is particularly challenging for everyone, but even more so for immigrants. In addition to outdated skills, they also face increased difficulties related to language proficiency, as working often constitutes the most important link with host country language.

Contrary to European countries, immigrants' probability to be in long-term unemployment is comparable to the native-born in Canada and the United States, and lower than in Europe. In Canada, there is no significant gender difference among the foreign-born. In the United States, foreign-born men are twice less likely to be in long-term unemployment than native-born men and than foreign-born women (both at 0.6%).

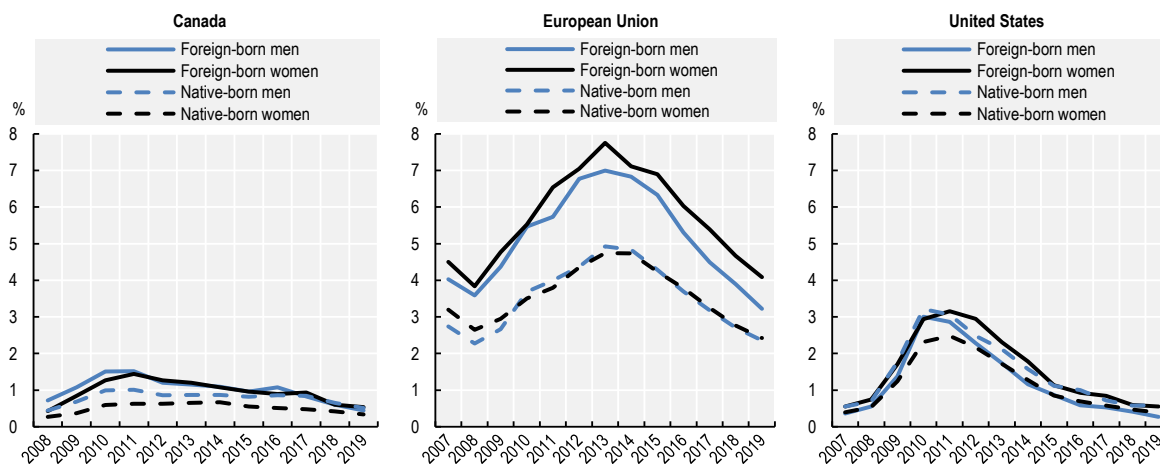
More than a fifth of immigrant women are in situations of involuntary inactivity in Europe in 2019 (Figure 2.7). This share is much higher than that for native-born women (11.7%). While immigrant women do not face a high risk of being in long-term unemployment in the United States, they are still the most likely to be in situations of involuntary inactivity. In 2019 in the United States, 2% of immigrant women are involuntarily inactive, compared to 1% among native-born.

The challenges that immigrant women face to enter the labour market are indeed the results of a combination of specific issues. Migrant women have on average more children than native-born women

(OECD/European Union, 2015^[2]; Volant, Pison and Héran, 2019^[3]), which can have consequences in terms of household or childcare duties. Ultimately, these responsibilities can stand in the way of job-seeking and employment, and prevent them from taking part in introduction programmes and language training. Moreover, foreign-born women have on average a lower education level than native-born women, despite a significant increase over the years (OECD/European Union, 2015^[2]). Foreign-born women who arrived in their host country recently are indeed significantly more educated than settled foreign-born women, driving the remarkable increase in education level of foreign-born women in OECD countries. Foreign-born women with a low education level might have less incentive to join the labour market.

The share of involuntary inactivity among foreign-born women in Europe has increased by more than five percentage point since 2007 whereas it has decreased by close to 1 percentage point for native-born women over the same period. At 4%, the share of involuntary inactivity is also limited for immigrant men, but remains higher than for native-born men. In the United States, this share has declined for both native-born and foreign-born women, after an increase in the immediate years of the 2008 economic crisis. In this country, immigrant men are the least likely to be involuntarily inactive (at 1%). Men are overall less affected by involuntary inactivity than women, most probably because they are less likely to report not being in employment and are not looking for work due to family responsibilities.

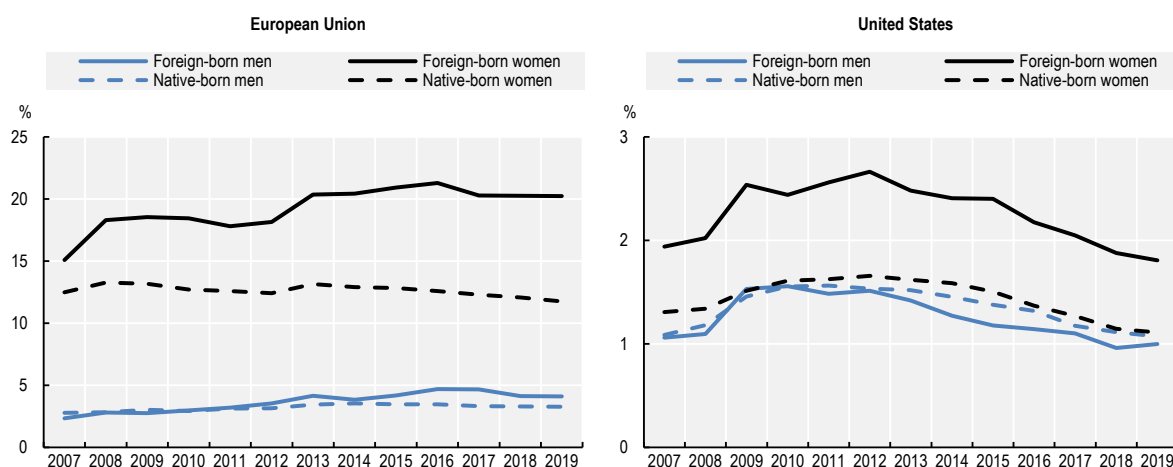
Figure 2.6. The risk of long-term unemployment faced by workers by place of birth and gender, 2007-19



Note: The risk of long-term unemployment is defined as the share of persons unemployed for more than one year in the labour force aged 15-64. Data for the European Union excludes Malta for the years 2007 and 2008.

Source: European Union: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Canada: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Surveys.

Figure 2.7. The risk of involuntary inactivity faced by workers by place of birth and gender, 2007-19



Note: The risk of involuntary inactivity is defined as the share of persons who are not in employment and are not looking for work because of family responsibilities or because they think that no work is available or for reasons other than illness, education or training. In the United States, it also includes discouraged workers who couldn't find any work and persons who cite transportation problems as a reason for not having looked for work in the last four weeks. In the European Union, it excludes persons who are retired and persons who are awaiting recall work. The reference population is the population aged 15-64. Data for the European Union excludes Malta for the years 2007 and 2008.

Source: European Union: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Canada: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Foreign-born women bear most of the consequences of having children, but the gap with native-born women is narrowing

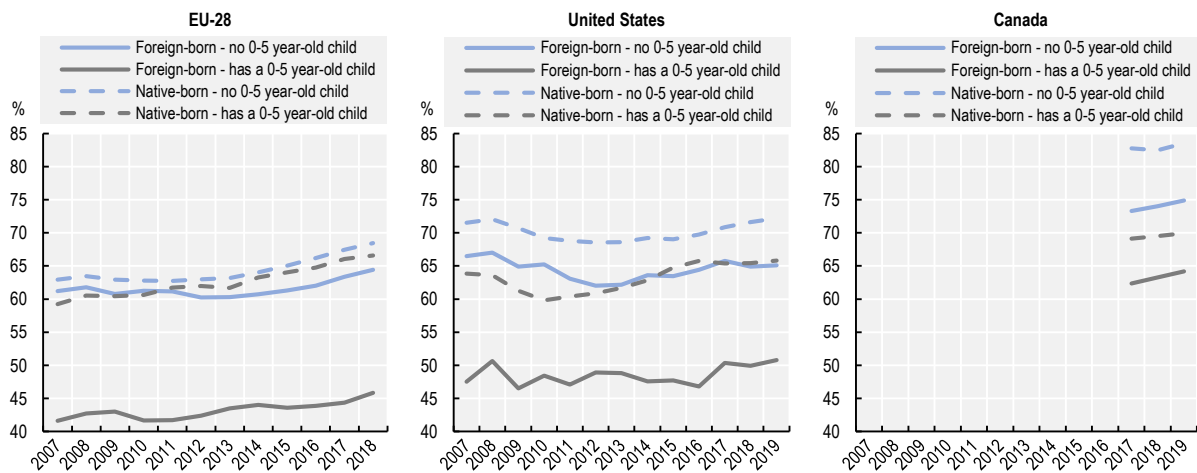
Figure 2.8 shows the evolution of women's employment rates in the presence of young children in a selection of OECD countries between 2007 and 2019. The employment rate of immigrant women who have a young child (0 to 5 years old) is consistently lower than that of any other group of women. In 2019, their employment rate reached 45.9% in European countries and 50.8% in the United States. Estimation results (in Annex Table 2.A.1) controlling for several individual characteristics confirm that having young children has a stronger effect on foreign-born women's employment rate than on their native-born peers'.

For all groups of women, the employment rate has improved since 2007 in the European Union, albeit more significantly for women with young children. This illustrates the investments dedicated to activate women with young children in European countries. While the employment rate of immigrant women with young children reached 45.9% in 2019, a 4.3 percentage point improvement since 2007, it still is below the one of native-born women with young children, which reached 66.6% in 2019, and had a more noteworthy increase since 2007, of 7.4 percentage points.

The gap between foreign-born women with and without young children in terms of employment rate is smaller in the United States than in EU 28 countries (with respectively 14.4 and 18.5 percentage points in 2019) and tends to decline over time in both European countries and the United States. This decline is however more substantial in the United States (more than 5 percentage points) than in EU-28 countries (about 1 percentage point). The increase in employment rate of women with young children can be related to the increase in education level of recent immigrant women, who are more likely to combine work and family life.

Figure 2.8. Employment rate of women in the presence of young children in selected OECD countries, 2007-19

Percentage of the women aged 20-64



Note: Data for the European Union excludes women living in Sweden, Finland and Luxembourg (as no information on the number of children in the household is available for these countries on the whole period) and excludes Malta for the years 2007 and 2008.

Source: EU: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: April Current Population Surveys; Canada: Labour Force Surveys.

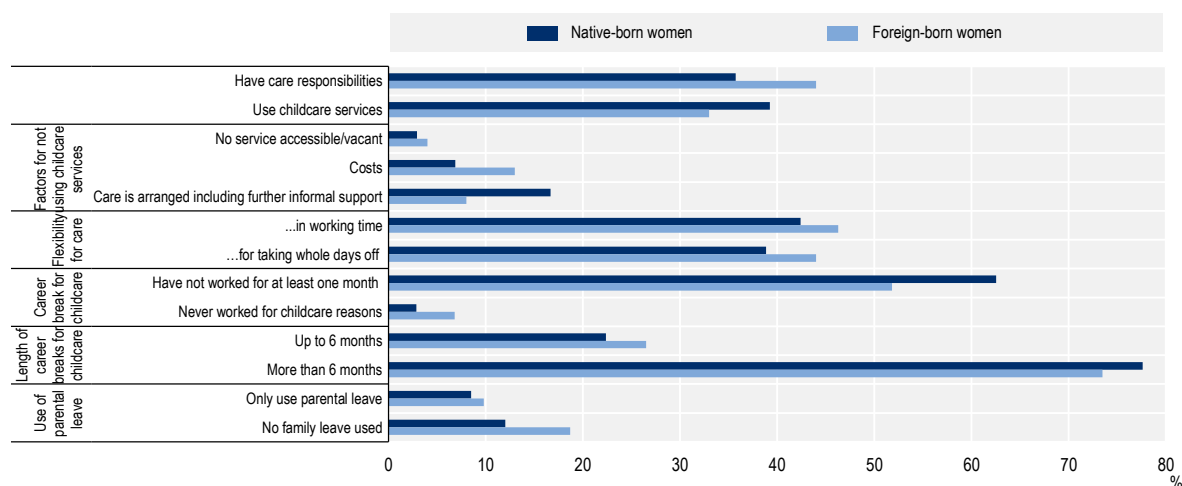
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Several reasons can explain the systematic lower employment rate of foreign-born women with young children compared to their native-born counterparts. Figure 2.9 shows that foreign-born women are more likely to have care responsibilities than native-born women (with respectively 44% and 36%), which can be partly explained by the higher number of children foreign-born women have. However, foreign-born women are 6 percentage points less likely to use childcare services than native-born women. Among the reasons for this lower take-up among foreign-born women, they mostly report the availability of childcare services and their costs (twice more often than native-born women). Moreover, foreign-born women are 9 percentage points less likely than native-born women to benefit from informal support in care arrangements. Specific policies implemented for immigrant women with children, such as a better access to childcare for immigrants' children, as well as during integration or language classes, can therefore have a positive impact on their labour market integration.

Childcare has different consequences on foreign-born and native-born women's careers (Figure 2.9). Native-born women are disproportionately more likely to have not worked for at least one month to take care of their own or partner's children than foreign-born women (respectively 63% and 52%). Foreign-born women are, on the contrary, more than twice as likely to have never worked for childcare reasons than native-born women (respectively 7% and 3%). In other words, foreign-born women are more likely not to enter the labour market when having children than native-born women, while the latter favour career breaks. This difference between native-born and foreign-born women might for example be related to the overrepresentation of the latter among the low-educated in certain countries, or to the fact that, in some countries, they have on average more children.

Moreover, when taking career breaks for childcare, foreign-born women tend to take relatively shorter breaks than native-born women, albeit the difference remains limited. More than one-fourth (27%) of foreign-born women taking career breaks for childcare indeed take less than six months whereas 22% of native-born women do so. This difference in career break length is also related to the differential use of parental leave between native-born and foreign-born. Immigrant women are almost twice more likely than native-born women not to use any family leave.

Figure 2.9. Reconciliation between work and family life of women in Europe



Note: For variables referring to past situations (for career breaks and the use of parental leave), only migrant women who arrived before 20 years old are considered. Career breaks cover individuals who did not work for at least one month in his/her employment history to take care of own or partner's children.

Source: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat), 2018 ad-hoc module.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/l1hz24>

Immigrant women's employment conditions are more precarious than that of native-born women

Drawing a comprehensive picture of the integration of immigrant women on the labour market requires to go beyond indicators of their participation and to explore indicators that capture the quality of their jobs, such as the quality of their working environment and their labour market security.

Figure 2.11 displays the shares of foreign-born women and the reasons for working part-time in selected OECD countries. Figure 2.11 first sheds light on the significant higher proportion of women working part-time in all countries, and higher for foreign-born women in Europe, where 39% of them work part-time, compared to 30% for native-born women. Yet, native-born women are more likely to work part-time than foreign-born women in Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States and Switzerland. In Switzerland, 54% of employed foreign-born women work part-time and only 20% in the United States. In all countries where the information is available, it reflects more a choice for family reasons than a wish to work full-time without finding any full-time job. However, in Europe, more than one-fourth of immigrant women cite this latter reason for working part-time, which is more than for native-born women. As highlighted as well in Box 2.1, the use of part-time among immigrant women varies widely across the OECD, and can represent for them both a way to reconcile work and family life and a drawback that hinders their career prospects.

Box 2.1. Immigrant women’s professional progression is not linear over their professional life

Immigrant women combine different patterns of employment over their professional life. Using cross-sectional data, Figure 2.10 displays the detailed activity status of women, by age and place of birth. It also indicates the activity rate of men for reference (the black continuous line is to be compared with the sum of the three solid-filled layers for employed full-time, employed part-time and unemployed). For both gender among immigrants, in most countries, the activity rate profiles presented have the typical inverted-U shape or hump-shaped pattern as a function of age, as labour force participation usually increases in the first half of the career and decreases afterwards. Still, these figures highlight key moments in immigrant women’s careers and underlie major differences with native-born women’s careers.

Figure 2.10 first underlines the significant and consistent high share of inactivity among immigrant women. They tend to participate less in the labour market than immigrant men, especially at the beginning of their working lives. This gender difference is more striking among immigrants than native-born. In some countries, like Austria and Germany, the entry of native-born women into the labour market is similar to that of men, but this is not the case among the foreign-born. In France, the Netherlands, or Austria, immigrant women are less likely to enter the labour market at early stages of their careers than native-born women, but the latter are more likely to work part-time. In some countries, such as Ireland, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United States, a significant share of immigrant women never enter the labour market. Several studies have shown that the first years in the labour market are critical for long-term career mobility (OECD, 2015^[4]), this tends to be even more important for immigrants, as being away from the labour market also prevent them from one of the main paths of economic and social integration. This calls for specific actions to promote immigrant women’s participation in the labour market, at the beginning of their active years (see Migrant women are at the top of the integration policy agenda for examples of programmes implemented by OECD countries to promote the activation of immigrant women).

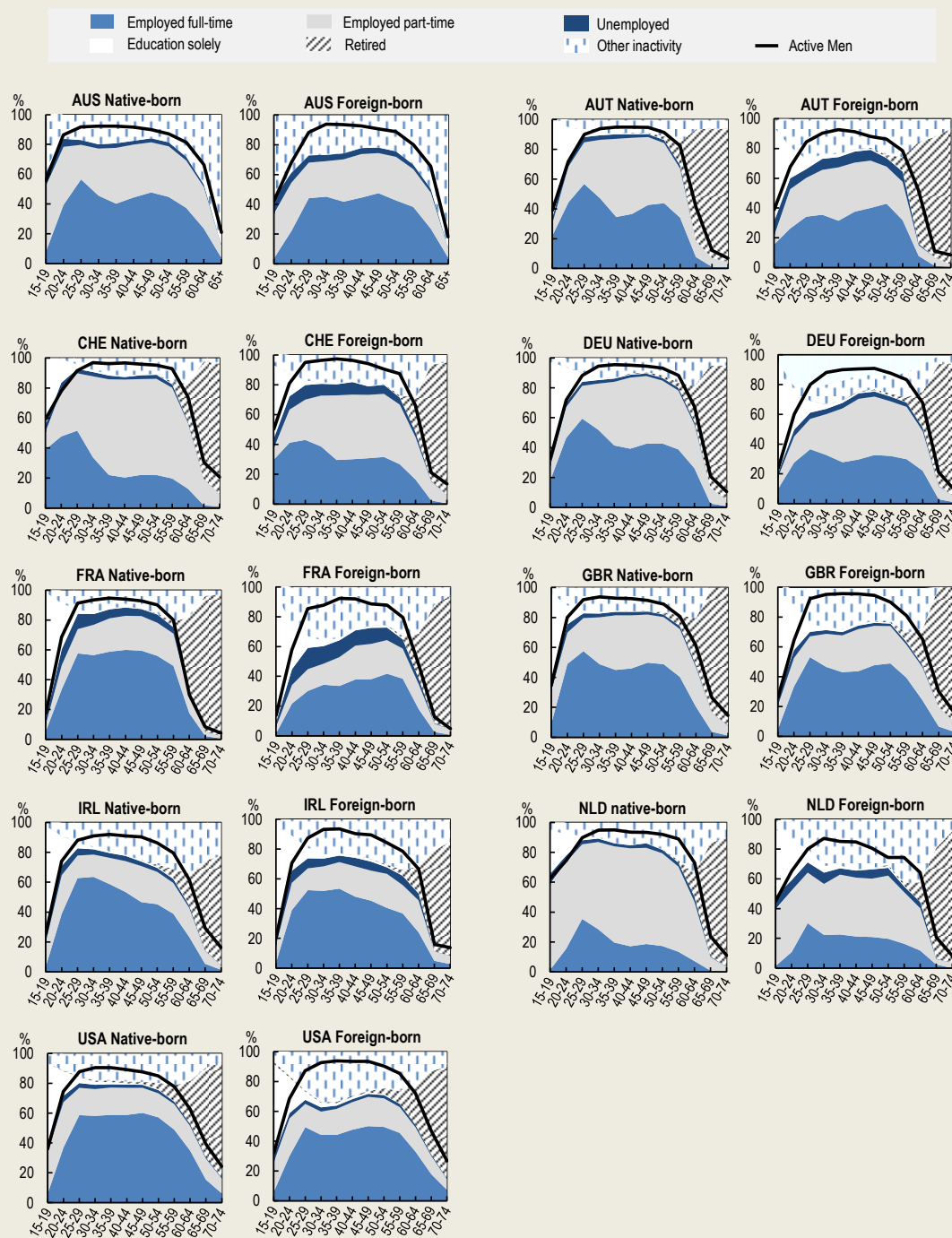
These life-cycle charts also point that in most countries, foreign-born women still join the labour market in a “second working career”. A significant share of immigrant women enter or re-enter the labour market at a later stage in Austria, France, Germany, the United States and to a lesser extent in Australia and the United Kingdom. This “second working career” generally starts around 30-34 years old, and is not visible for immigrant men. Although Goldin and Mitchell (2017^[5]) and OECD (2018^[6]) argue that women’s employment careers now follow more of a M-shaped curve than the inverted-U shape that applies to men, foreign-born women do not follow this trend. The first peak in employment is rarely visible, apart from the United Kingdom and the United States. The most common scenario for immigrant women is the progressive increase in labour force participation after 30-34 years old, as in France, Germany and Austria.

Part-time work represents a large share of employment among foreign-born women in most OECD countries, particularly in Austria, the Netherlands, Germany and Switzerland. Yet, these high shares of part-time work recall those of native-born women in these countries. Part-time work helps women to reconcile work-life balance, especially at a transitional time for women with young children, but at the same time, Figure 2.10 points out that immigrant women seem to remain in part-time work after that period.

All these lifecycle components, and especially the large differences in the first ten years of immigrant workers’ careers, shape earnings differentials. These results (e.g. lost opportunities in the first part of immigrant women’s careers, and crucial professional transitions that they miss around childbirth) suggest larger gender gaps among foreign-born workers throughout and at the end of the carer.


Figure 2.10. Activity status of women and men, by age and place of birth

Cohort population = 100, 2019 or latest available year



Note: The areas refer to the activity status of women. The grey cells in the reference table indicate that the population in the given category relies on a small sample of individuals. It is only presented for illustration purposes and should not be referred to. Data for Australia includes all the persons aged 15 and above; it doesn't allow to identify those who are in education or the retirees among the inactive.

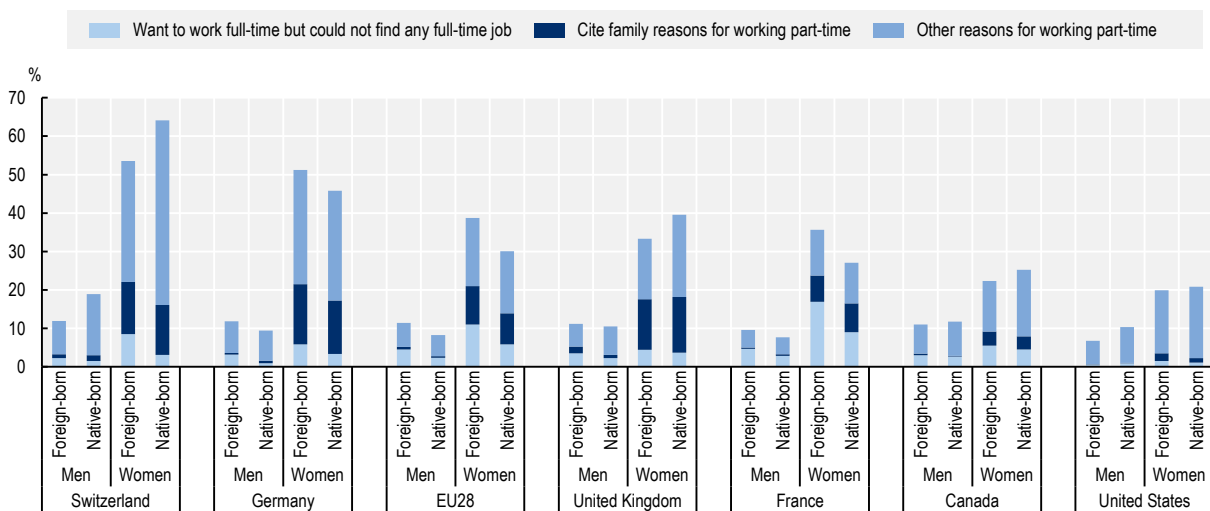
Source: Australia: Labour Force Surveys 2019; European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2017-18; United States: Current Population Surveys 2019.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xb9qdt>

Immigrant women are more likely than native-born women to work in temporary employment, which means that they are at a higher risk of job loss. Figure 2.12 highlights that 17.6% of immigrant women in employment have a temporary contract in Europe whereas only 13.6% of native-born women do. In the past five years, this proportion has increased by more than 1 percentage point for immigrant women, while it has decreased consistently for native-born women (-0.3 percentage point). However, it is worth noting that the proportion for immigrant men is slightly lower than immigrant women. While immigrant women are at a disadvantage compared to their native-born counterparts in Europe, they are not compared to immigrant men.

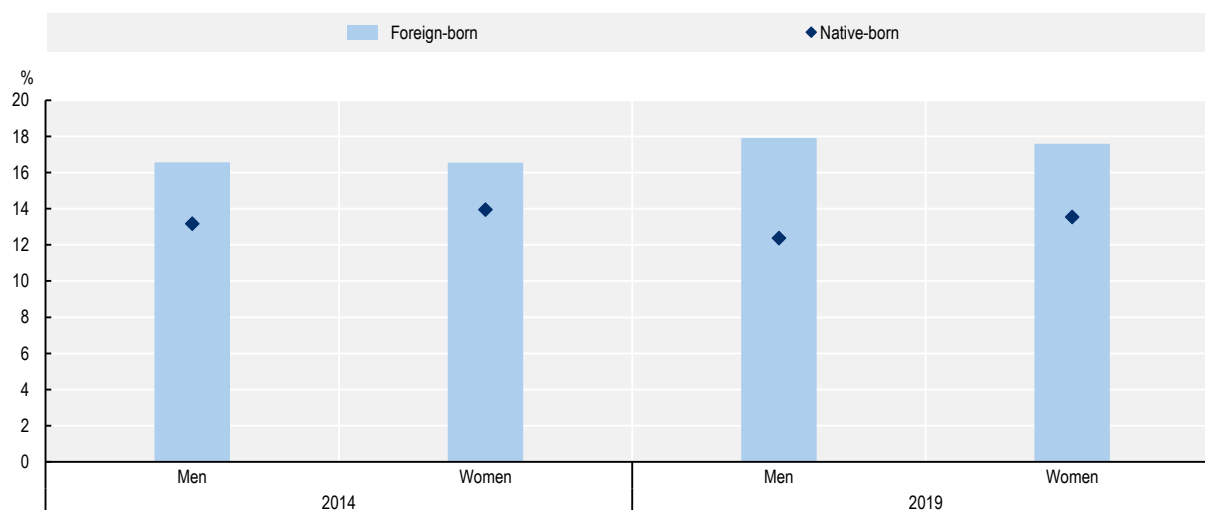
Figure 2.11. Part-time work and reasons for working part-time in selected OECD countries by place of birth and gender, 2019

Percentages of the persons in employment aged 15-64



Note: Family reasons includes child-care; in European countries, it also includes looking after incapacitated adults.

Source: EU28: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys.

Figure 2.12. Share of workers having a temporary contract in the European Union, 2014 and 2019

Source: European Union: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

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Box 2.2. Immigrants are more likely to be in atypical work in European countries

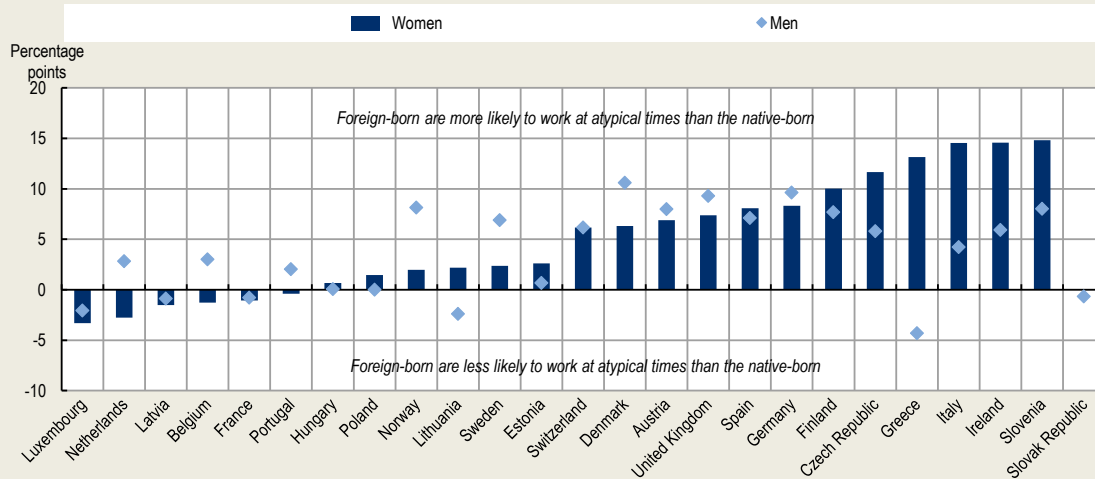
Figure 2.13 reveals that immigrants are overall more likely than natives to work atypical hours across European countries. Atypical work consists in persons doing shift work and/or usually working in the evening and/or at night and/or on Saturdays and/or on Sundays. The difference between native-born and foreign-born is quite remarkable in Slovenia, Ireland and Italy, especially for foreign-born women. In these countries, foreign-born women are about 15% more likely than native-born women to work at atypical times. On the contrary, foreign-born are less likely to work at atypical times than the native-born in Luxembourg or France. The importance of the agricultural sector in France or Greece might explain why foreign-born men are less likely to work at atypical times than native-born men. They indeed participate less to this sector than the native-born.

The gap between foreign-born and native-born is stronger for women than for men in most OECD countries, with the notable exception of most Nordic countries (Norway, Sweden and Denmark). Immigrant women are for instance two to four times more likely than immigrant men to work at atypical times than their native counterparts in Czech Republic, Estonia, Italy and Ireland. Working at atypical hours is especially challenging for women with children, as it impedes a satisfying work-life balance.

Working atypical hours may have significant implications for immigrants' well-being, and their work-life balance. Shift work and night work in particular, can indeed interfere with their ability to maintain family and social relationships, and it can contribute to poorer health by disturbing sleeping and eating habits (Costa, 1996^[7]). In addition to the health consequences, it brings specific challenges to immigrants, as it could hinder a proper social integration.


Figure 2.13. Occurrence of atypical work times by place of birth and gender in European OECD countries, 2018

Gaps between foreign-born and native-born in percentage points



Note: The population refers to the population in employment aged 15-64. Atypical work consists in persons doing shift work and/or usually working in the evening and/or at night and/or on Saturdays and/or on Sundays.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/iy7hjt>

Recent changes in integration policies in OECD countries

Significant investment and innovation in integration policy has been made by OECD countries in the past few years. Policy attention has moved from organising the reception and accommodation of new immigrants to the development and refinement of integration strategies, to better take into account the heterogeneity of the immigrant population. In 2019 and early 2020, the focus of integration policy in OECD member countries has been on vulnerable groups, in particular asylum seekers, immigrant women and youth. Moreover, holistic approaches now also put an emphasis on social integration, while fine-tuning the combination of both early interventions and measures for more settled immigrants. Finally, integration policies are now increasingly a multi-stakeholder process, with a growing role of local authorities and social partners. This section provides an update on these recent policy changes in OECD countries as well as in Bulgaria, Romania and the Russian Federation.

A comprehensive and early intervention policy remains essential for successful integration of newcomers

OECD countries keep designing and fine-tuning their early integration policy

For several years, countries of the OECD area have structured their early integration efforts into global introduction programmes. In 2018/2019, new programmes were introduced in Belgium, Greece, Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Norway, Spain and Switzerland. The new strategies significantly vary in the

extent of the services that constitute them, ranging from specific measures to the creation of a holistic package of integration measures – as was for instance introduced in Greece and Spain.

New integration strategies have been launched in OECD countries. In early July 2019, Greece adopted its new National Integration Strategy, which replaces the first National Strategy for the Integration of Third Country Nationals of 2013. Important changes have taken place in Greece since 2013 (among which the recent refugee crisis, the persistent economic crisis, the establishment of an autonomous Ministry for Migration in 2016, the need to involve all stakeholders), and have prompted an update of the institutional framework. Broader in scope than the previous one, the new strategy contains measures on education, labour market integration, access to public services, racism and xenophobia, among others, to better adapt to the changed immigrant population in the country since 2013. In addition, local authorities are given new responsibilities for social integration. Municipalities and NGOs are in charge of providing language courses to newcomers. However, given the change of government in July 2019, the strategy is currently re-examined. In Spain, the new Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration (PECI) has been developed in 2019 to promote the integration of the immigrant population. The Plan builds on the experience of previous plans (the two previous PECIs (2007-10 and 2011-14)), while adapting to new challenges and migratory reality, which is characterised by more heterogeneous profiles and an increase in the number of asylum seekers and refugees. This new Plan, designed by the General Directorate for Integration and Humanitarian Care in collaboration with the consultative body called Forum for the Social Integration of Immigrants and several stakeholders, includes measure to structure the integration policy, to guarantee social cohesion and curb negative discourse on immigration. In addition, this Plan intends to strengthen the role of the Forum for the Social Integration of Migrants and the fund for integration.

The Swiss Integration Agenda that entered into force in May 2019 aims at allowing refugees and asylum seekers to integrate quickly and durably the labour market. To this end, the Federal Council tripled the integration package, up to CHF 18 000 (Swiss Francs). This additional funding should notably enable the cantons to promote early language learning for asylum seekers. The objective of the integration agenda is to allow those concerned to have basic knowledge in one of the national languages after three years in the country, and for half of the target group to access the labour market after seven years in Switzerland. These measures should also help unload social assistance. This new deal involves obligations as well for cantons, who are responsible for the implementation of the Agenda. In addition, the new asylum law, which entered into force in March 2019, accelerated asylum procedures, therefore ensuring shorter waiting periods for asylum seekers and an earlier start of the integration measures.

The Luxembourgish Government Council recently approved a new National Action Plan on integration, replacing the 2010 Action Plan. This comprehensive Plan defines five overall priorities to be addressed through the framework of the national integration policy, with the aim of improving social cohesion. These priorities include the creation of a long term monitoring and evaluation system for the integration policy; the support to foreigners' employability; the promotion of their education, vocational training and language learning; the reinforcement of the local stakeholders and support for the municipalities regarding the implementation of the shared responsibility at the local level; and finally the implementation of the shared responsibility of integration with the host society by promoting intercultural exchanges. While newly arrived immigrants have to participate to trainings, these training sessions are only four-hour career guidance sessions This Action Plan dedicate particular attention to the access to information, the quality of their services, as well as international and national cooperation and coordination. In Czech Republic, the integration framework, called "In Mutual Respect" has been updated in 2019. Starting in 2021, all newcomers will be required to complete an 8-hour adaptation-integration course within the first year of their arrival in the country. This course, tested on a voluntary basis since 2012, will be mandatory under the newly approved amendment to the law on foreigners. In addition, this update includes some supporting measures for the integration of newcomers in a longer-term perspective, such as integration courses, including language courses and courses of socio-cultural orientation.

Some countries focused on improving their integration strategies, for instance by increasing hours of integration courses or extending the target group. For instance, a new law modified the integration trajectory of newcomers in the Belgian Walloon Region. The target audience was broadened and the duration of the language classes as well as citizenship trainings for newcomers were increased, and measures were implemented to facilitate the labour market integration of newcomers (more details below). Moreover, additional reception facilities were opened to meet the need resulting from the increase in the number of asylum applications. In the United Kingdom, the Ministry of Housing, Communities and Local Government published in 2018 an Integrated Communities Strategy. This includes reviewing the “Life in the United Kingdom” test, to strengthen its focus on the values and principles of the United Kingdom, working with civil society and others to increase integration support for refugees recognised after arrival in the country, and focusing on English language, employment, mental health and orientation as key aspects of integration for all refugees. In Norway, the government has proposed a new integration law, to follow up the 2018 Integration Strategy. It contains several new regulations concerning both the Introduction Programme and the Norwegian language training. A part of this reform is to increase the number of graduates from the Introduction Programme, who are qualified for work or education. Some of the main proposals in the new Integration Act include for example a mandatory skills mapping and career guidance before the participation to the Introduction Programme. Finally, Turkey and the European Union are discussing how to revisit the 2016 refugee deal, which comes to an end in 2020. The discussions will notably focus on updating the integration strategy for the 4 million Syrian refugees living in Turkey.

Box 2.3. Measures in the next EU budget to improve integration of immigrants

In 2019, the next Multiannual Financial Framework (MFF) of the European Union has been negotiated by the European Parliament and Member States, and has been presented together with the new European Recovery Instrument “Next Generation EU” in May 2020. This MFF sets the limits in annual expenses for the 2021-27 period and defines the EU budget for different policy areas, including the integration of third country nationals (TCNs). By dedicating one of the seven priorities to migration and border management, it provides funding for EU member states to deliver effectively on the priorities set up in the EU Action Plan for Integration of the TCNs defined in 2016.

The proposed budget acknowledges the fact that integration is not limited to labour market integration, but instead puts an emphasis on immigrants’ social inclusion. The new proposed budget dedicates important resources to support social cohesion, by investing in people and tackling regional disparities, with specific attention to the immigrant population. In addition, the proposal allows civil society to have a more prominent role. In particular, actors with limited budget capacity, such as local NGOs, immigrant-led organisations, and some local authorities, are granted lower co-financing rates to participate in calls for proposals and to provide their expertise in services provision. Finally, the proposal insists on meeting the needs of the most disadvantaged groups of immigrants, notably by streamlining the use of many financial instruments. A programme is for instance dedicated to children: the “Child Guarantee” aims at tackling inequalities among children, and children of immigrants are one of the four target groups of disadvantaged children.

Two main instruments will mostly be mobilised for the integration of TCNs: the European Social Fund Plus (ESF+) (replacing the current European Social Fund and merged with the Youth Employment Initiative, the Fund for European Aid to the Most Deprived, the Employment and Social Innovation programme and the Health programme) and the Asylum and Migration Fund (AMF).

For the first time, the ESF+ includes a specific priority for economic and social inclusion of immigrants. The new Framework promotes a mainstream approach to integration, which allows immigrants and asylum seekers to access broader social inclusion measures. Moreover, AMF is prioritising early integration measures addressing specific needs of immigrant populations. However, the regulation does

not specify a minimum amount that has to be spent for integration, unlike the current AMIF, which requires member states to spend at least 20% of their funding on integration. This may undermine sufficient investment in integration in some member states.

Besides the substantial increase of the fund (10.4 billion euros for the AMF fund compared to 3.8 billion euros for the AMIF in 2014), the proposal also sets a new balance in the management of the fund. By suggesting that 60% of the AMF should be allocated to national programmes and 40% to a thematic facility that would be managed by the Commission, the proposal gives the EU the possibility to compensate possible imbalances between funding allocation and effective needs, and create a direct instrument to channel resources to civil society and local authorities.

Language training remains a cornerstone to any integration policy...

Mastering the host-country language might be the single most important skill immigrants need in order to successfully integrate into local labour markets and in the society at large. Investing in effective language training is therefore essential, and a majority of OECD countries have recently designed or fine-tuned language courses for newcomers.

Sweden continues to devote particular attention to the language acquisition of immigrants. A recent governmental initiative intends to improve the knowledge of the Swedish language for non-working parents with young children. In particular, new funding for 2020-22 has been proposed by the government for newly arrived immigrant women or the ones away from the labour market taking care of children. The government has also introduced support to municipalities to offer language and introduction courses with child care to newly arrived immigrants on parental leave. The Norwegian government also aims at strengthening Norwegian language training and social studies, by providing more formal qualifications and making sure the participants acquire the necessary language skills for working in Norway and participating in society in general. Some of the main proposals in the new Integration Act include for example that the current requirement of a certain number of hours in Norwegian language will be replaced by a requirement to achieve a certain level in Norwegian, based on the participant's educational background. In Australia, the new Foundation Skills for Your Future Measure aims to favour immigrants' labour market integration by supporting employed or recently unemployed individuals (aged 15 to 44) to identify and address their Language, Literacy, Numeracy and Digital (LLND) skills deficits through appropriate training.

Australia also recently reorganised the responsibilities for the provision of language services to make them more efficient. In July 2019, the responsibility for settlement services and the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) shifted from respectively the Department of Social Services and the Department of Education, to the Department of Home Affairs. In addition, the Settlement Services Operation (SSO) section was created to identify innovative ways of measuring and improving integration outcomes, including language.

Other OECD countries invested in language courses, including in countries where there are several official languages. Belgium recently devoted additional efforts to language courses. Part of the mandatory integration trajectory into the German-speaking community now includes language classes, and in December 2018, the Walloon Region of Belgium increased the duration of French language courses, as part of the mandatory integration programme, from 120 to 400 hours. In the Quebec region of Canada, since July 2019, temporary workers, foreign students, and their spouses are now eligible for full-time French courses and associated financial assistance. Moreover, as part of the Official Languages Action Plan, several Canadian service provider organisations received funding to deliver language training to newcomers settling in Francophone minority communities. The funded projects aim at helping newcomers improve their skills in both languages to facilitate their labour market and social integration in Canada, and include a mix of in-person and online language training that is flexible and accessible. Lastly, Luxembourg recently worked on the framework and governance of the language programme. A new law passed in July

2018 aiming at promoting the Luxembourgish language with, amongst others, the introduction of the new role of Commissioner for the Luxembourgish Language and the creation of a Centre for the Luxembourgish Language.

Countries are trying to make the most out of digital technologies for their language courses. France has made new online tools available in 2020 for learning French, as well as the values and functioning of the French society in the context of the *Contrat d'Intégration Républicaine*. Sweden and Poland also launched online initiatives to tackle the needs of newcomers to continue language training and to stay connected.

Finally, some countries support local authorities in the implementation of language courses. In September 2018 the British Government launched the new English Language Co-ordination Fund to help support local authorities and their local partners improve the co-ordination of ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) provision.

...and especially on-the-job language training

Language training can have only limited effects on labour market integration if not linked with occupational language skills. Some OECD countries recently took initiatives to adjust the content and objectives of language training to labour market needs, such as Latvia, Portugal or Switzerland. The Latvian State Employment Agency recently introduced a new language mentorship programme for employed refugees and persons with alternative status. This new language mentorship service aims at developing the professional vocabulary and adapting workers to their working environment. This type of vocation-specific language training, provided on the job, has proven to be highly effective. Switzerland also devoted efforts to facilitate the professional integration of recognised refugees and provisionally admitted persons through language. Since 2018, the pilot programme of early language encouragement allows asylum seekers to benefit from an early and intensive language training. Portugal will also fund Portuguese language classes focusing on employment contexts from 2020 on.

Early labour market integration remains high on the policy agenda

To enable immigrants to fully participate into the host country's labour markets, OECD countries developed new labour market integration programmes. Sweden has for instance introduced a new "entry agreement" and a reform of the Employment Service. Planned to be implemented in 2020, the new "entry agreement" allows newcomers and immigrants (but not only) who have been unemployed for a long time or been away from working life to start again with a new job. An indirect wage subsidy will be paid to the employee, and it will also be possible for the employee to participate in education during the employment. In addition, a labour market entry deduction will be introduced to facilitate the entry of young people and newly arrived immigrants into the labour market.

A strong emphasis of the German "migration package" has been put on immigrants' labour market integration. In June 2019, the German Parliament adopted seven bills concerning migration and integration, and among them, several aimed at fostering the labour market integration of immigrants. The Aliens Employment Promotion Act that entered into force in August 2019 allows asylum-seekers with good prospects of being granted asylum receiving assistance at an earlier stage and being more rapidly integrated into the labour market. It will be easier for immigrants who are expected to be in Germany for a longer period to access integration courses and vocationally relevant German courses as well as receiving training assistance.

The Belgian Public Employment Services took various initiatives to enhance the integration of newcomers into the labour market. Information sessions are for instance organised, newcomers have now to participate in trainings and internships, subsidies are devoted to integration projects and cooperation agreements are signed between the federal reception agency and regional integration services. In addition to privately funded experimental projects to promote immigrants' employment, the Finnish government

recently allocated additional funding to develop Skills Centre activities for immigrants. In Spain, the current Strategic Plan for Inspection of Labour and Social Security set among the priorities the insertion and integration of immigrants in employment.

Other countries developed measures to include immigrants into vocational training. Part of the Greek National Integration Strategy contains a separate vocational training programme for 3 000 refugees. In early 2020, part of the actions funded through the EU's Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF) in Portugal focus on training actions for unaccompanied minor refugees: vocational assessment and guidance, awareness-raising actions with training centres and potential employers and coaching. Part of the German new laws that entered into force in August 2019 is also promoting vocational training for immigrants. Sweden also increased resources for labour market training in 2019 to boost participation in the programme and meet labour shortages, with specifically targeting newly arrived immigrants who participate in the Introduction Programme.

Access to the labour market for asylum seekers has been a priority for several OECD countries. The new Swiss asylum law, which entered into force in March 2019 particularly aimed at facilitating an earlier labour market integration of asylum seekers. The main change is the accelerated asylum procedure, which ensures shorter waiting periods for asylum seekers and an earlier start of integration measures. Similarly, the Lithuanian government has adopted in January 2020 amendments to allow asylum seekers whose applications are not examined within nine months to access the labour market. In Germany as well, another important change introduced in the "migration package" relates to the access to employment of asylum seekers. The new bill now entitles asylum seekers to employment under certain conditions.

Integrating refugees into the labour market is also a key concern in the United Kingdom. In October 2019, four pilot projects to encourage refugees to establish businesses were launched across the country. Working directly with refugees and established local businesses, the pilots will deliver tailored start-up programmes that will take refugees from the idea stage to the launch of their business. Since January 2020, Australia as well provides more flexible support for newly arrived refugees, with more time to settle in Australia and learn English before having to look for work. In addition, more support is provided to newly arrived job seekers who are ready to engage with employment services.

Assessing skills and recognising formal qualifications continues to help labour market integration. Germany's skilled immigration act, which entered into force in March 2020, eased the recognition of vocational qualifications for immigrants from third countries. Skilled workers with vocational qualifications will be allowed to enter the country to work, something which has so far only been done for so-called 'problem professions'. Moreover, whether Germans or EU citizens are already available for a vacant position does not matter for these immigrants. Norway extended the European Qualifications Passport for Refugees (EQPR) method with a pre-pilot in Zambia. This method facilitates the integration of newly arrived refugees by providing a qualified evaluation of their educational background and providing advice on their career in Norway. Since January 2019, the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT) is also accepting applications for general recognition of foreign post-secondary vocational education. Russia signed bilateral agreements with Uzbekistan and Hungary for a mutual recognition of education and qualifications for all occupations, including health care.

Some programmes are directly targeted to the labour market integration of highly skilled immigrants. During 2018 and 2019 in New Zealand, government agencies implemented a revised package of 13 settlement services, mainly targeting highly skilled immigrants. These services include the Tertiary Education Commission's Work Connect career mentoring programme. Work Connect is a free programme to help immigrants prepare for the New Zealand job market. The programme, funded by Immigration New Zealand is mainly addressed to skilled immigrants, their partners and international student graduates who are looking for work. The revised package of settlement services also includes the expansion of the Regional Skills Matching programmes. These free programmes connect job-seeking immigrants and employers who need their skills in seven regions of the country. They target eligible skilled immigrants and their partners

who are work-ready and keen to establish themselves in New Zealand in roles that match their skills and qualifications.

An early access to basic services such as housing and health ensures that nobody is left behind

Over the course of 2019, several countries took measures to favour the access to basic services such as housing and health. In early 2020, the Lithuanian authorities have made changes to refugee housing arrangements so that they can benefit from European funding when expenditures exceed the established standards. In Poland, some rent subsidies are granted since January 2019 to certain immigrants within the “Flat for Start” programme. These subsidies are conditional on income, and immigrants need to rent a flat in a new dwelling built in cooperation with the local authorities. The Greek Ministry of Immigration Policy has applied in 2019 a time limit for refugees’ stay in accommodation centres and apartments designated for refugees. The goal is to allow more refugees located on the Greek islands to be able to relocate to the mainland, where conditions are much better.

In Spain, a new Royal Decree provides universal access to the national health system, no matter their administrative situation. To ensure the financial sustainability, health care for immigrants will be paid for with public funds of the competent administrations under some conditions.

To ensure that immigrants can have access to these services, some countries invested in the provision of interpreters. The Norwegian government recently worked on a law proposal for an Interpretation Act that would improve the use and quality of interpreting in the public sector, to make services more efficient. The objective is to make it mandatory to use interpreters in given situations, and to use only qualified interpreters. In June 2019, eligibility for access to the Free Interpreting Service (FIS) in Australia was expanded for medical practitioners and pharmacists, and the definition of medical practitioners now includes nurse practitioners in private practice. Several local programs have been developed to spread interpretation in health services. Children’s Health Queensland has for instance developed *Working effectively with interpreters and translators* e-learning packages to provide education for clinicians, interpreters and translators.

Australia recently launched various initiatives for immigrants’ health. New South Wales implemented the new Plan for Healthy Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Communities 2019-23, which ensures equitable access to high quality health care services that are culturally responsive. The New South Wales Ministry of Health is also undertaking a review of the NSW Refugee Health Plan 2011-16 and is developing a revised Plan for 2020 onwards. Finally, a new psychosocial support service (Mental Health Community Living Supports for Refugees) has been developed for refugees and asylum, and has started mid-2019.

Some European OECD countries as Germany, Greece and Norway, also continued to devote efforts to reach asylum seekers. Greece defined the framework for implementing the programme of financial aid and housing called “ESTIA” (Emergency Support to Integration and Accommodation) for refugees and asylum seekers. This programme, which provides urban accommodation and cash assistance, is co-funded by the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund of the European Union, and implemented by the Greek government, UNHCR, local authorities and NGOs. The accommodation facilitates refugees and asylum seekers’ access to basic services, such as education, and the eventual integration for those who will remain in the country. Besides, cash assistance empowers refugees and asylum-seekers who can now choose how to cover their basic daily needs. In addition to the ESTIA programme, the Ministry of Migration Policy launched the “HELIOS” programme (Hellenic Integration Support for Beneficiaries of International Protection). Started in June 2019, the programme provides integration activities and rental support for six months for 5 000 recently recognised refugees. It includes integration courses (including language and culture classes), employability support, integration monitoring and sensitization of the host community. The programme does not cover refugees recognised before January 2018 and will support beneficiaries for one year.

Box 2.4. Governments' responses in terms of integration policy to the COVID-19 crisis

The COVID-19 crisis has called for an adaptation of integration policy throughout the OECD.

Most countries dedicated efforts to improve access to information on health care services and prevention. Reaching out notably those arrived recently and not speaking the host country language has been key. This required to rely on a variety of stakeholders, notably at local level. OECD countries provide multilingual information on COVID-19 (e.g. Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Slovakia, Switzerland, and the United States). More specifically, in the United Kingdom, a Migrant Information Hub has been launched to provide immigrants with information and resources. In Lithuania, an online doctor volunteer network provides health-related consultations available in three languages, and translators are offering free services to disseminate information. In this context, civil society organisations also played an important role in informing undocumented immigrants in a few countries.

Several OECD countries also took actions to maintain the continuity of integration programmes during the lockdown. Countries are trying notably to make the most out of digital technologies for their language courses. In Sweden for instance, immigrants took advantage of online language-learning. It enables virtual meetings between a newcomer and a resident mentor, hence contributing to both language acquisition and to mitigate the risk of isolation. Germany has also invested about EUR 40 million in e-learning. France made available new online tools in 2020 for learning French, as well as the functioning of the French society in the context of the *Contrat d'Intégration Républicaine*. These digital tools are particularly relevant in the context of the COVID-19 crisis, which imposes respecting social distancing rules. However, in many countries integration programmes have been put on hold and citizenship ceremonies postponed. In Denmark for example, the citizenship ceremony of the first semester of the year has been cancelled.

What is more, immigrants' access to unemployment benefits, health care and social protection has been extended in many OECD countries. In most OECD countries, immigrants benefited from the same exceptional measures as citizens but in a few countries access to unemployment benefits have been modified to protect immigrants during the crisis. Belgium for instance included the COVID-19 pandemic within its "temporary unemployment due to force majeure" regime. Under these new conditions, workers' access to unemployment benefits is no more conditioned on the number of hours worked. In Spain, the usual minimum duration of work required to qualify for unemployment benefits was suspended. Direct global support was also provided to employers in the Netherlands for example, in order not to terminate workers' employment contracts, which applies to immigrants. Other labour market measures were implemented to specifically support immigrants. Sweden for example extended various labour market integration measures for immigrants for another 12 months, such as subsidised employment within the public sector, introductory jobs, new start jobs or support for starting a new business.

Most OECD countries offer access to treatment for all categories of immigrants if contaminated by COVID-19. Some countries like France or Belgium already offered free universal access to health care, and others like Portugal have temporarily regularised all undocumented immigrants and asylum seekers waiting for their residence permit at the time of the state of emergency to ensure full access to the health system. Several countries provide access to emergency health care to undocumented immigrants, and most of them cover all costs for the diagnosis and treatment of COVID-19. These include inter alia Chile, Colombia, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Korea, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mexico, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. In a few countries, treatment can be subject to payment for undocumented immigrants. This is the case for

example in the Czech Republic and Hungary. In Australia, Canada and the United States, the conditions vary across States/Provinces.

Finally, a number of OECD countries adopted measures to facilitate immigrants' stay during the lockdown and beyond. Most OECD countries extended the validity period of current temporary labour or study permits, while others tolerated stay of those enable to return home due to COVID-19.

Promoting social integration and equal opportunities for long term immigrants is crucial

Social integration is increasingly high on the policy agenda

Countries also take concrete initiatives to facilitate social integration and avoid marginalization and exclusion of immigrants. Part of the new actions devoted to favour social integration of immigrants in New Zealand consist in raising awareness of employers and training centres of the potential of immigrants. This includes for instance on-site visits or meetings at the facilities where unaccompanied minor refugees live. Over 2018 and 2019, the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment also piloted an innovative new approach to improve social inclusion outcomes for recent immigrants. The Welcoming Communities Programme supports local government councils to create intentionally welcoming and inclusive communities where newcomers and local residents can participate fully in the social, civic, cultural and economic life of the community. An evaluation of the pilot for 2017/18 showed that the programme is starting to deliver economic, social, civic and cultural benefits. Based on its success, the government has approved in 2019 the expansion of the programme to other regions in New Zealand. In 2019, the Spanish government launched the Forum for the Social Integration of Immigrants. This consultative body to the government, composed of experts (mainly from academics), aims at promoting the participation and integration of immigrants in the Spanish society, by promoting tolerance and coexistence.

Paying attention to social integration is also important for the new German Expert Commission on the Framework Conditions for Integration. This commission, which started its work in 2019, aims at setting out the standards of successful integration. These include “the availability of childcare, schools, housing, and access to jobs. But integration is also about political education, values, respect and rules, all of which allow for peaceful coexistence”.

In March 2019, the Australian Government announced a USD 71 million comprehensive package of social cohesion initiatives. The ‘Bringing Australians Together’ package provides funding for initiatives that encourage and support new arrivals to actively become part of and contribute to Australia’s economic and social development, as well as facilitating intercultural understanding and encourage diversity in the public debate. As part of its social cohesion package, the Australian Government has announced ongoing support for the Fostering Integration Grants Program, which helps local community organisations to assist migrants to integrate into life in Australia, mainly through cultural events. Also under its social cohesion package, the Australian Government will provide USD 10 million grant to allow more young Australians to learn another language, which would help them connect to the cultures of their community. Other funding of the package are for instance allocated to sport and physical activity initiatives.

Anti-discrimination and diversity policies remain a major tool to foster integration

Throughout 2018-19 and into 2020, many OECD countries have adopted new or enhanced existing frameworks to combat discrimination against immigrants and promote diversity. In Portugal, a cooperation protocol has been signed in 2019 between public agencies to fight discrimination. This new protocol will identify measures and solutions regarding equality, racial and ethnic discrimination, interculturality and integration. The goal is overall to promote greater knowledge of cultural diversity, in particular about immigrants and refugees, and develop a more inclusive public administration. To combat racism, xenophobia, LGBTphobia and other forms of intolerance, an institutional cooperation agreement was

recently signed between several Spanish public institutions. The main objective of the agreement is assistance and collaboration between all institutions in strategies, plans, activities against racism, xenophobia, LGBTphobia and all forms of intolerance carried out, with a central focus on the assistance and defence of victims of hate crimes, discrimination and intolerance.

Norway has adopted in May 2019 the White Paper “The Power of Culture”, which gives new direction for the future cultural policy based on equality principles, freedom of speech and tolerance. This White Paper contributes to guaranteeing equality, combatting discrimination and strengthening unity and inclusion in society. In 2017, the Norwegian government launched an Action Plan to Combat Negative Social Control, Forced Marriage and Female Genital Mutilation (2017-20). The new government committed in 2019 to further strengthening these actions, notably via the Action Plan directly, the Integration Strategy (2019-22) and increased funding to civil society and NGOs. In 2019, Norway also initiated the establishment of a Nordic Network on work against negative social control and honour related violence. The network aims to share information and exchange experiences, foster innovative national policy development and explore opportunities for cooperation between the Nordic countries.

Voting is also a means of social inclusion. In Norway, in 2019, The Directorate of Integration and Diversity (IMDI) has been commissioned to work for increased voter turnout among immigrants. This is done in collaboration with the Norwegian Directorate of Elections, which is responsible for the election process nationwide. The most recent local election (municipal), carried out in September 2019, included 5% of the candidates with an immigrant background, a slight increase from the local elections in 2015.

Canada has long considered that diversity was a strength for the country. In June 2019, the former Canadian minister of Canadian Heritage launched Building a Foundation for Change: Canada’s Anti-Racism Strategy 2019-22. This strategy aims at fostering and promoting a more inclusive and equitable country for all, by supporting communities and improved policies, initiatives and practices in federal institutions. With an investment of CAD 45 million, the strategy is meant to be the first step of a longer-term commitment to address racism and discrimination in Canada. The strategy also includes two separate initiatives targeting youth and Black youth. In 2018-19, *Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada* (IRCC) also adjusted the policies on the selection and sponsorship of newcomers to better align with Canadian values of inclusion and diversity. Under the newly updated policy, fewer applicants with disabilities will be deemed inadmissible on health grounds. In addition, IRCC announced that the Canadian government has renewed the cost-sharing agreement with the Rainbow Refugee Society until March 2020. This agreement aims at increasing awareness of the unique needs of LGBTQ2 refugees among Canadian sponsors and at strengthening the overall sponsorship of this vulnerable group. Luxembourg is also committed to the promotion of diversity. The national action plan on integration (PAN) introduced in 2018 includes the fight against discrimination, the promotion of diversity and equal opportunities as an integral part of all its axes.

Fighting segregation can favour inclusion

Segregation of immigrants is an increasing challenge in OECD countries and countries actively try to tackle it, particularly the Scandinavian countries. Policymakers in Sweden and Denmark are adopting different approaches to combating it, notably because the dimensions of segregation considered vary in each country. In early 2018, Denmark presented a new strategy against so-called ghettos or parallel societies. This strategy comes after several anti-segregation policies in the country since the 2000s. The Danish strategy, which is primarily focused on ethnic residential segregation, stresses measures related to housing, though more targeted settlement rules. It also includes measures on early childhood and education, with compulsory kindergarten and language testing for children. This strategy comes with sanctions, with the withdrawal of some benefits in case of non-respect. Around the same time, Sweden launched its new long-term strategy against segregation. The strategy has five main areas of intervention: housing, labour market, education, crime and democratic participation. From January 2020 in Sweden, the

provisions for asylum seekers to make their own living arrangements will be limited in order to reduce segregation. Moreover, several of the proposals in the 2020 budget aim directly or indirectly at decreasing and preventing socio-economic segregation. For instance, the government proposed measures to safeguard welfare throughout the country and address crime and its causes.

Labour market measures are targeted in particular towards newcomers, young persons, women and the long-term unemployed. A recent call for projects in France in 2020 puts forward the spatial mobility issue, to ensure a better distribution of refugees across regions and fight territorial segregation.

Civic integration is increasingly used as a tool for integration

Civic integration aims to enhance social cohesion, from early on. Several OECD countries implemented new civic integration programmes, such as France, Sweden and the Netherlands. A new civic integration system will be implemented in the Netherlands in 2021. This legal change implies that municipalities will again be assigned a central management role in the implementation of the integration policy and that tailor-made contracts will be realised for newcomers. The civic integration courses would include Dutch language courses and knowledge about the Dutch labour market and society.

The Dutch government has proposed requiring Turkish newcomers to complete civic integration courses abroad, prior to arrival – as already required for third-country nationals coming from many other countries. Given that immigrants with a Turkish background are not systematically well integrated in the Netherlands, the Dutch authorities argue that civic integration is an important way for these newcomers to learn the language and participate in society. This new requirement is expected to come into effect on 1 January 2021, the same time as the new integration system goes into force. Besides taking the basic exam abroad, Turkish citizens would need to follow a tailored integration programme once in the Netherlands. The integration obligation has financial consequences for Turkish immigrants, since they would have to pay in part for the programme and exams themselves.

Some countries that have already implemented civic courses increased the resources dedicated for civic orientation for newly arrived immigrants or upgraded these courses. The Swedish government has for instance allocated funds for an increase of the civic orientation for newly arrived immigrants, from 60 to 100 hours. These courses provide information on the Swedish society, its basic principles and its legal system, such as gender equality and individuals' rights and obligations. France recently renovated its civic integration training, by taking advantage of new technologies. In particular, the courses are now more participative and interactive, involve an increasing use of tablets and smartphones, and in the form of quizzes. The idea is to make new immigrants involved in their own classes and to associate their presence and the potential of new technologies.

Countries have followed divergent trends regarding the support and social protection available to newcomers

Access to social protection is part of the basic rights to any individual in a given country. Granting newcomers access to benefits contributes to strengthening the integration process. Recent policy changes in a number of OECD countries have extended access to such social protection programmes to groups previously ineligible. In Greece for example, some refugees – that have been recognised at most before 2017 – are now also supported to access the Social Security Income. In Denmark, following a paradigm shift, as of July 2019, the former 'integration program' changed name to 'self-support and return program'. Refugees and foreigners reunited with refugees are now offered a self-support and return programme whereas foreigners reunited with other than refugees, for example a Danish citizen, are offered an introduction programme. Despite these new restrictions for some foreign-born, immigrant families will now receive "special child benefit given temporarily to the poorest families with children".

Fostering immigrants' access to social protection and more largely to public services can be facilitated by eliminating the language barrier. In New Zealand, new advancements were made in the Language Assistance Services Programme. This cross-government programme aims at providing equitable access to public services and information for people with limited English language proficiency. New language assistance services were recently implemented, with for example a new telephone interpreting service for the government, introduced in October 2019, and the new 24 hour service in over 180 languages. In addition, an online training module for frontline government staff working with non-English speakers will be launched in 2020.

Naturalisation requirements continue to emphasise integration outcomes rather than years of residency

Naturalisation can be an important step towards integration. It encourages investment in host-country specific skills on the part of the immigrant, and reduces the uncertainty facing potential employers when making hiring or training decisions. Yet, while the vast majority of countries have legal provisions that allow immigrants to become naturalised citizens, the criteria for acquisition of citizenship, and the procedural measures necessary, vary from country to country.

For several years, the trend of emphasising integration results rather than years of residency as the main precondition for accessing host-country citizenship has spread in OECD countries. In 2019, Sweden has included a test in the Swedish language, as well as basic knowledge of the Swedish society, as a condition for the acquisition of Swedish citizenship. In Denmark, a new law took effect in January 2019 that integrates a mandatory handshake into the procedure of acquiring Danish citizenship. In practice, the certificate of naturalisation is now bestowed only after a handshake during the ceremony.

Some other OECD countries count on perfect behaviours to grant citizenship. In May 2019 a proposal of a new amendment on the acquisition of the Czech citizenship was submitted to the government, with the aim of tightening its conditions. Any applicant for the Czech citizenship will now have to prove offence impeccability, not only his/her income but also all the financial means for securing his/her living costs in the Czech Republic and provide information on his/her study of the Czech language (that can enable an exception to the Czech language exam). At the same time, it has been also proposed that persons who have been residing in the Czech Republic from age of ten can acquire the citizenship, under easier conditions. Some countries also include specific provisions related to criminal activities in their naturalisation laws. The Finnish Nationality Act was for instance amended in June 2019 so that a person found guilty of certain serious offences, such as an offence against the vital interest of Finland, may lose their Finnish citizenship. Similarly, an amendment to the Dutch Nationality Act increased the term to apply for Dutch citizenship after being convicted for a serious offence from four to five years. Applications will also be rejected of third country nationals who at the time of the application are under serious suspicion of a crime subjected to punishment. Finally, a new procedure to establish statelessness has been introduced. Since January 2019, the Norwegian Nationality Act contains new rules to combat radicalisation and violent extremism. Dual citizens convicted of an offence seriously prejudicial to the vital interests of the state can now lose their Norwegian citizenship.

Integration policies increasingly take into account the heterogeneity of the immigrant population, with women being a key target group

Migrant women are at the top of the integration policy agenda

Poor integration outcomes among immigrant women can have long-lasting consequences on their own outcomes, as well as on their children's outcomes. Many countries developed specific measures for immigrant women or had a particular focus on supporting women among integration programmes. Most of the actions put in place aim at activating foreign-born women.

To tackle the barriers created by the difficulties involved in juggling employment and integration activities with childcare duties, Norway included mandatory courses in empowerment and parental guidance for participants with children in the new Integration Act. While these courses are intended for both immigrant men and women, women are disproportionately taking care of children and thus the beneficiaries of this measure. In France, the ateliers “*Ouvrir l’École aux parents pour la réussite des enfants*” (OEPRE) is an initiative which opens schools to parents for the success of children. At the crossroads of civic and linguistic training, this initiative is particularly efficient in reaching immigrant women, who can be little socialised but care about the success of their children. These workshops also represent a good opportunity to discuss about their employment or rights, and involve courses on the French institutions, on school (its functioning and how to help their children). France continues to focus on immigrant women, with a recent call for projects promoting actions for their inclusion.

In 2019, the Danish government has invested in different initiatives to foster the integration of immigrant women on the labour market and more broadly in the Danish society. One project for example focuses on supporting immigrant women who are getting divorced. The initiative involves advice on the divorce process, as well as for seeking and obtaining employment. Another project focuses on improving the job prospects of immigrant women on maternity leave. Recent mothers enter a community of like-minded persons with whom they share experiences, receive language training and participate in company visits. Both projects are carried out by civil society groups and focus on the challenges that prevent immigrant women from entering the labour market. Moreover, the Danish Ministry for Immigration and Integration announced in October 2018 important investments to increase employment of immigrant women in the next four years, including for settled immigrants. The funds are intended to support municipalities in providing eligible women with training, contact persons and mentors. Sweden also devotes a close attention to the inclusion of women in the labour market, for instance by granting all children access to childcare, whether their parents work or not. This allows immigrant women to be able to attend language and civic training, and to look for work. By dedicating some language classes to non-working immigrants with children, usually women, Sweden also contributes to increase the employability of immigrant women. Moreover, part of the recent organisational changes in Sweden regarding the overall settlement and integration institutional and governance framework reflects the growing attention to immigrant women. The overall responsibility for integration of newly arrived immigrants is now shared between the Minister of Employment and the new Minister for Gender Equality. The latter will in particular be in charge of anti-discrimination and anti-segregation measures.

In Poland, since 2019, immigrant women (and in exceptional situations also men) who brought up at least four children are given the right for the maternal pension in the “Mum 4+” programme. The financial support amounts to around the minimum old-age pension. To be eligible, immigrants should justify personal or economic activity for at least 10 years, after the age of 16, but there is no need to have the right for a permanence residence.

The European Commission also devotes efforts for the social and economic integration of immigrant women, notably through the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund. In the end of 2019, a funding call was looking for projects promoting immigrant women’s interaction, feeling at ease and participation in social and political life and/or supporting their sustainable labour market integration.

Box 2.5. The integration of the recent Venezuelan migrants in OECD countries

Amid unprecedented outflows of Venezuelans since early 2018, Latin American countries and the Caribbean are facing a transformed migration landscape. Approximately 5 million Venezuelans have migrated to other Latin American and Caribbean countries since 2018. As the crisis extends with no prospect of a massive return to Venezuela in the short term, the issue of integration is becoming

pertinent – a new issue for many countries in the region. As a result, reception countries put increasing efforts into building up and adapting integration policies. Countries have been working notably on measures regarding education, health care and access to the labour market. Since April 2018, Colombia, which hosts the largest number of Venezuelan immigrants, provides universal access to education, regardless of nationality, immigration status or documentation. To facilitate access to education, Chile and Colombia both provide a unique identification number for children who lack identity documentation.

Access to health care is another challenge. In October 2019, several countries in the Americas – among which Argentina, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and the United States – announced that they would ensure that all Venezuelan immigrants were vaccinated. In a notable cooperation move between these countries, Venezuelan residing in the region now get a unified vaccination card. Colombia also established through court rulings in 2018 and 2019 that emergency care should intend to fully resolve a patient's health issue. Costa Rica also signed an agreement with UNHCR to insure 6 000 refugees and asylum seekers using UNHCR funding for one year, beginning January 2020, have access to the social security system. A large share of Venezuelan migrants in the region are working in the informal sector, especially those who are undocumented. Colombia has continued its efforts to regularise Venezuelan nationals. In prolongation of the Special Stay Permit first introduced in 2017 to provide full access to education, health care, and employment, Colombia created two new Special Stay Permits in early 2020 (Special Permits to Stay and Special Stay Permits for the Promotion of Formalization). These two new permits are expected to benefit Venezuelans who entered Colombia before November 2019 with stamped passports, and those in an irregular situation but holding a job offer (of at least two months up to a maximum of two years). In addition, Colombia continues to promote the validation of degrees and work experience, which represents a major hurdle for the labour market integration of refugees and migrants.

Despite significant barriers to Venezuelan migrants to unfold their skills potential in their host country, the recognition of foreign qualifications is not widespread in the region. Yet, the decision in June 2019 of the Venezuelan government to issue electronic apostilles for education degrees is expected to ease the labour market integration of Venezuelans in host countries. In Colombia, in order to have their foreign qualifications recognised, Venezuelan students need either provide a certificate of past studies or take an exam to determine their grade level if they cannot provide their certificate.

Venezuelan migrants are also going to OECD countries outside Latin America, notably to Spain and the United States. In the United States, more than 100 000 asylum applications were registered as of December 2019. Spain, due to its cultural ties with Venezuela, registered the largest number of Venezuelans immigrants in the European Union, with more than 76 000 asylum applications as of early 2020. Spain shorten the application process for Venezuelans and allocated 6 million euros to humanitarian aid to Venezuela. In addition, in March 2019, the Spanish Inter-Ministerial Commission of Asylum (CIAR) introduced a measure granting one-year renewable residence permits “on humanitarian grounds of international protection” to Venezuelan nationals whose asylum applications have been rejected between January 2014 and February 2019.

Several multilateral initiatives and platforms were developed to foster cooperation in the response to the crisis, such as the Regional Inter-Agency Coordination Platform and the Quito Process. The Regional Inter-Agency Coordination Platform was established in 2018, to lead and coordinate this response. The Regional Platform aims at addressing the protection, assistance and integration needs of Venezuelan refugees and migrants in Latin American and Caribbean countries, strengthening both national and regional governmental response. It focuses on information management, communication, and resource mobilisation. With 41 stakeholders, including UN agencies, NGOs, donors, international financial institutions and the Red Cross Movement, members collaborate through working groups on support spaces, gender based-violence, communication with communities and integration, as well as other coordination matters.

Equally initiated in 2018, the Quito Process promotes coordination between countries receiving Venezuelan refugees and migrants in Latin America and the Caribbean, by exchanging information and good practices as well as articulating a regional coordinated and harmonised humanitarian response to the crisis. The Declaration of Quito on Human Mobility of Venezuelan Citizens in the Region was the first step for a more coordinated response between participating countries (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay). These countries later adopted a Plan of Action, in which they committed to facilitate the social and economic integration of Venezuelans. The Plan also significantly improved the process of granting legal status to Venezuelans in their respective countries. In November 2019, during the fifth meeting of the Quito Process, countries adopted the Regional Refugee and Migrant Response Plan (RMRP), which addresses new challenges to deliver basic support and protection to Venezuelan refugees and migrants. The international community also supported a regional and coordinated response to this crisis. In Europe, in October 2019, the European Commission organised an International Solidarity Conference on the Venezuelan Refugee and Migrant Crisis to support and raise awareness notably with respect to integration.

Youth may face difficulties integrating early enough to reach an adequate education level

Over the course of 2019, investments into the successful integration of immigrant children have continued in a number of OECD countries. Denmark, France and Greece for instance introduced measures to improve the integration of immigrants' children at school.

After the Greek Secretary General on Immigration Policy recently stated that access to education is a basic human right and must be ensured for refugees, the government is about to include children aged 15-18 and adults. These groups are not currently required to complete compulsory education. Integration efforts aimed at young children are reinforced in Denmark as well, with a focus on learning Danish. Measures include mandatory early childhood day care, language classes before entering school, and strengthening incentives for parents through facilitated parental leave as well as a potential withdrawal of child allowances. Since 2019, students in schools where more than 30% of students are from residential areas identified as "ghettos" must take language tests. In Norway, one-year old children in asylum centres can now benefit from free kindergarten since August 2019.

A number of OECD countries have made efforts to assist schools in more effectively meeting the needs of immigrant students. Poland for instance not only provided remedial and Polish language classes for foreign children in schools but also since 2019, trainings for teachers working with foreign children on intercultural competences and on teaching Polish as a foreign language.

Engaging the whole of society and improving coordination of integration policy

With the diversity in the composition of the immigrant population, more actors are now involved in integration policy. Integration has consequently become a multi-level and multi-stakeholder process.

Local authorities play a stronger role

In response to the recent increase of new arrivals in the past five years, an increasing number of countries are adopting a local approach to integration, in particular to social integration. Municipalities are becoming a central actor, as it is already the case in Portugal and in the Netherlands for instance. From 2008 onwards, the social integration policy in the Netherlands has been progressively devolved to local governments with only broad orientation rules and less coordination from the national government. Municipalities are considered as the main actor to define their local needs regarding integration and to solve integration issues. Municipalities are already responsible for allocating financial resources for social guidance and for implementing the integration law. The new civic integration system that is going to be

implemented from January 2021 onwards will continue that decentralisation trend and reinforce municipalities' central management role. Municipalities, with the support of national funding, will fund the civic integration courses (including language courses) themselves, and will monitor themselves the local NGOs involved. Every new immigrant will have a personal integration plan, but this plan will be drafted with the municipality in consultation with the candidate. In Denmark, the municipalities are responsible for the integration of new arrivals while the State sets out the legal framework and funds the policy. The last changes to the Integration Act passed in February 2019 confirmed the role of municipalities, notably in the housing allocation for newcomers. In 2020, 13 Greek municipalities created a new refugee integration network called Cities for Integration Network to take stock of the successful initiatives and lessons learnt by the different cities. This network aims at exchanging knowledge, building capacity and develop actions and policy for refugee integration.

Given the growing importance of local actors stemmed a growing need to improve the coordination between actors. In France, the policy orientation for 2020 regarding the integration of newcomers includes a better coordination of the arrangements between the regional and local levels. A shift of responsibilities was also made in Australia to improve the efficiency of introduction programmes. In July 2019, the Australian Humanitarian Settlement Programme (HSP), which provides support to humanitarian immigrants, has become the responsibility of the Department of Home Affairs.

Engaging civil society into the implementation of the integration policy

Civil society play a strong role in carrying out measures of integration in several OECD countries. Spain heavily relies on civil society organisations for asylum and refugees integration issues. While reception and integration are designed and financed by the Ministry of Labour, Migrations and Social Security, both the reception and integration of asylum seekers and refugees are carried out by NGOs. In Poland as well, foundations support the integration of immigrants. In the end of 2019, the Polish Foundation “Okno na Wschód” started to run a Centre for Supporting Foreigners. The foundation helps the integration and adaptation of immigrants by creating space for education, giving them support, knowledge and possibilities, helping to find their place in the Polish environment faster. It also includes consultations (related to legalisation of stay, work, education, etc.) and Polish language courses. The Australian government launched a new programme in 2018, Fostering Integration Grants, focusing on improving social cohesion and the integration of immigrants, administered by non-profit organisations. The programme has a particular focus on supporting women, young people and integration in rural Australia and supports initiatives that assist immigrants to develop skills and cultural competencies to participate in Australian social, economic and civil life, and build community resilience.

In the first semester of 2020 in Romania, a legal education programme for refugees – as part of the Know Your Rights Project – is ran by a business law firm, in partnership with UNHCR Romania and the Romanian National Council for Refugees. The nine-week programme focused on housing, health care, employment and entrepreneurship. This training programme has the particularity to approach integration in Romania from a rights-based perspective and targets only adult refugees who live in or around Bucharest and speak Romanian or English.

Better communicating on migration issues contributes to better accepted immigrants

Although the actual outcomes of immigrants matter, the public perception of these are also important. As public perception may indeed differ from the reality, OECD countries have recently included a communication dimension in their integration policy. Providing accessible information allows to better reach the public. In Lithuania, the Platform for Migration Information and Cooperation is an online platform that makes information about migration easily accessible to integration stakeholders. It also encourages the public to adopt a more informed point of view on migration, and provides immigrants and potential immigrants with practical information on work, accommodation, education or social life in the country. In

Belgium, in response to the 2015 refugee crisis, experts developed discussion facilitation tools for young people. The project “Migration – Beyond Prejudices” opens conversations among young members of the host society about sharing responsibility in integration, along with schools and institutions. The project aims at deconstructing the prejudices conveyed in the media and society about asylum and migration. Following the successful outcomes of the latest nationwide consultation with recent immigrants for future/further development and implementation of the New Zealand immigrant Settlement and Integration Strategy in New Zealand, a national consultation with immigrant youth is ongoing (2019-20) to improve information and services available to immigrant youth.

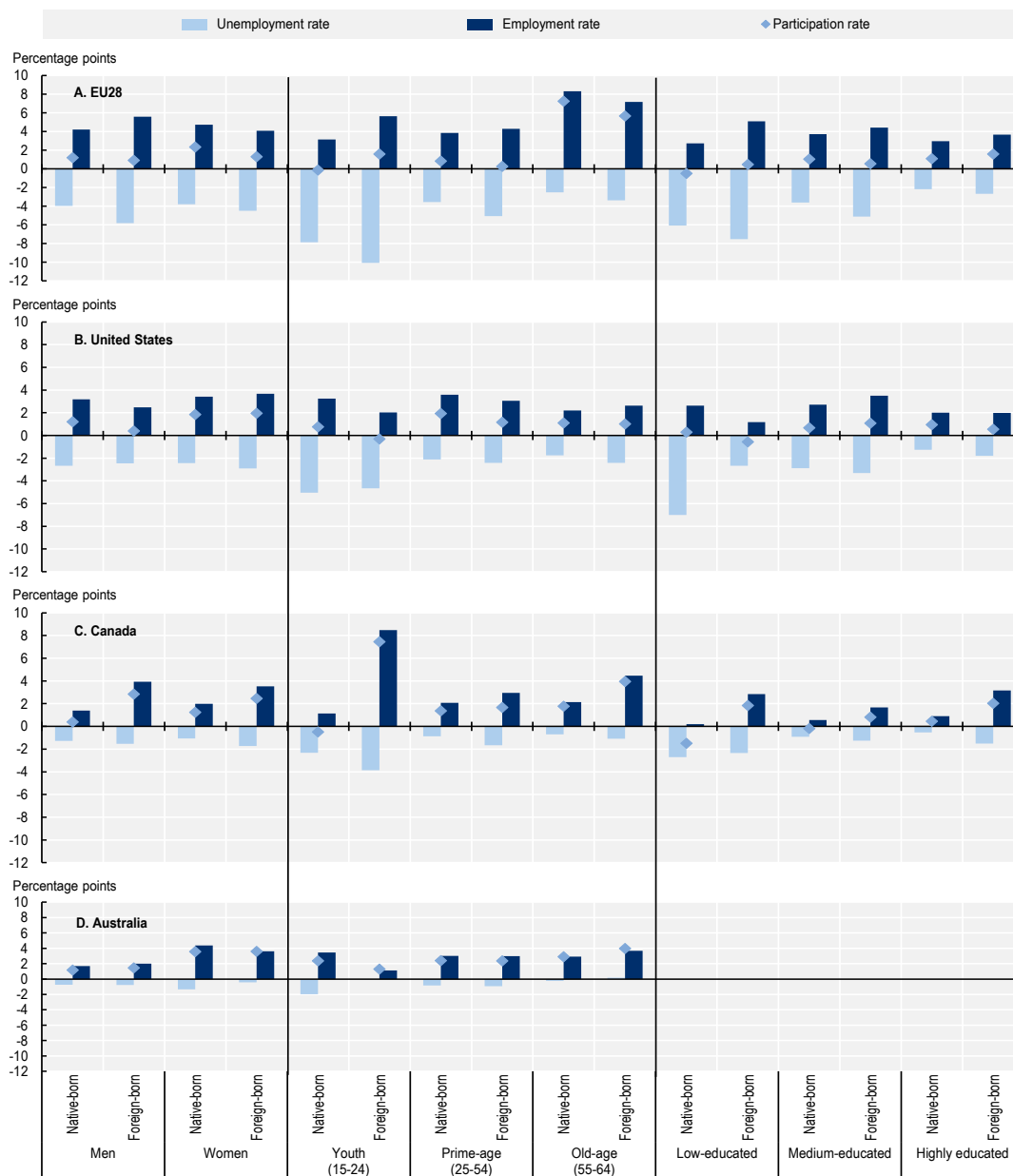
The media also have a role to play to promote diversity. For example, in early 2020, some Portuguese newspaper created a training programme to hire journalists whose work can contribute to the more open and cosmopolitan society and represent its increasing diversity. In the beginning of 2020, in Estonia, a call for applications in the field of integration was issued by the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Culture. By intending to find a partner to create a cross-media programme, the project aims at introducing Estonians to immigrants living in the country, the reasons for their arrival into the country and their experience of living in Estonia. The goal is to improve public knowledge of Estonia’s cultural diversity and of immigrants. Canada has also developed a series of economic profiles that support community conversations about immigration across the country. Under the Immigration Matters initiative, the conversations emphasize the importance of listening, bringing people together to discuss immigration and address the related challenges. Local leaders from social, economic and cultural spheres are encouraged to participate, by explaining how communities can come together to welcome newcomers, and how they can in turn benefit from immigrants.

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Annex 2.A. Supplementary tables and figures

Annex Figure 2.A.1. Changes in labour market outcomes by demographic group and country of birth in selected OECD countries, 2019 compared to 2014

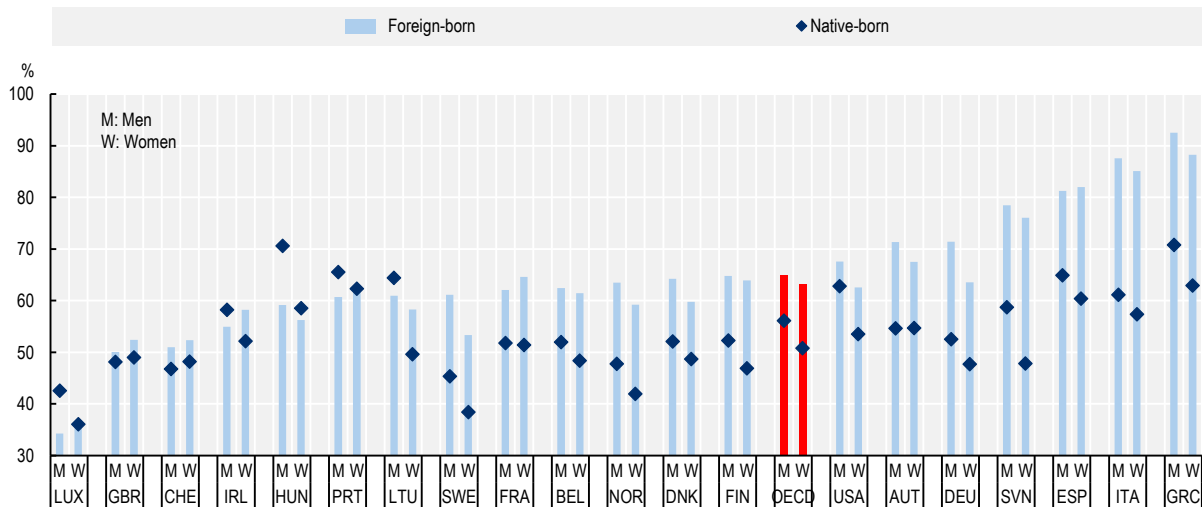


Note: The reference population is the working-age population (15-64). "Low-educated" here refers to less than upper secondary attainment, "Medium-educated" to upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary, "Highly educated" to tertiary. The data for European countries refer to the first three quarters only.

Source: Panel A: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat). Panel B: Current Population Surveys. Panel C: Labour Force Surveys. Panel D: Labour Force Surveys.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/3p0bua>

Annex Figure 2.A.2. Low- and medium-skilled employment as a percentage of total employment in OECD countries, 2019



Note: Low- and medium-skilled employment refers to ISCO 4 to 9. Data for Denmark, Ireland and Portugal refers to the year 2018.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/hpe7vr>

Annex Table 2.A.1. Determinants of women's employment likelihood of being employed, 25-64 year-olds, European OECD countries, 2017-18

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Foreign-born	-0.12***	-0.11***	-0.11***
Foreign-born from an EU-28 country	0.1***	0.1***	0.1***
High level of education	0.31***	0.31***	0.30***
Medium level of education	0.18***	0.18***	0.18***
Lives with a partner or spouse	0.003***	0.003***	0.003***
Has one or more child under 6	-0.09***	-0.08***	-0.09***
High level of education*Has one or more child under 6			0.03***
Medium level of education*Has one or more child under 6			-0.001
Has one or more child under 6*Foreign-born		-0.06***	-0.05***
N	2 164 237	2 164 237	2 164 237

Note: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001. The ordinary least square (OLS) regressions control for age and country fixed effects. The reference group has a low level of education.

Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/3mvi7h>

Annex Table 2.A.2. Quarterly employment rates by place of birth in OECD countries, 2014-19

Total	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	72.7	72.0	63.6	71.5	82.4	..	69.4	74.8	74.5	57.0	70.3	67.8	64.5	73.0	49.3	62.2	62.7	83.7	65.2	55.2	66.2	63.3	67.1	60.2	75.5	75.5	75.3	61.9	62.5	61.9	64.3	77.0	48.5	66.4
2015 Q2	73.5	72.3	63.7	73.6	81.6	..	70.1	74.7	75.3	58.3	72.1	70.0	65.2	72.8	50.7	63.6	63.4	85.8	66.2	55.9	67.0	65.4	68.4	60.6	76.1	76.4	74.6	62.6	63.7	62.6	65.8	78.6	51.3	67.5
2015 Q3	73.4	73.8	63.6	74.1	81.5	..	70.5	75.3	75.3	58.8	74.0	70.6	65.5	73.3	51.4	64.6	63.8	86.4	66.3	56.4	67.9	62.4	69.3	60.7	76.5	76.4	73.7	63.5	63.9	63.0	66.9	80.0	51.3	67.4
2015 Q4	74.3	73.0	63.7	72.7	82.5	..	70.8	75.8	75.2	59.1	71.9	68.3	65.1	73.8	51.2	64.7	63.9	84.7	65.8	56.3	67.7	61.0	69.4	61.6	76.4	75.3	74.8	63.7	63.9	63.5	65.6	78.5	50.2	67.3
2015	73.5	72.8	63.6	73.0	82.0	59.3	70.2	75.2	75.1	58.3	72.1	69.2	65.1	73.2	50.6	63.8	63.4	85.2	65.9	55.9	67.2	62.6	68.5	60.8	76.1	75.9	74.6	62.9	63.5	62.8	65.7	78.5	50.3	67.2
2016 Q1	73.6	72.4	63.5	71.2	82.8	..	71.0	75.5	75.7	59.1	70.7	68.2	65.1	73.6	50.8	64.9	63.6	84.7	65.5	56.0	68.4	60.1	68.5	60.5	76.1	75.1	75.0	63.7	63.6	64.2	64.6	78.1	49.7	67.3
2016 Q2	74.0	73.2	63.7	73.4	82.5	..	71.6	75.7	76.7	59.8	73.1	70.7	65.7	73.8	52.1	66.2	64.5	87.4	66.1	57.4	69.7	62.0	69.3	61.0	76.8	75.4	75.7	64.4	64.6	64.9	66.7	79.9	52.1	68.0
2016 Q3	73.4	74.5	64.1	73.6	82.6	..	72.2	76.7	76.8	60.4	73.5	71.2	65.9	74.0	52.7	67.0	65.3	88.2	66.1	57.2	69.9	61.7	69.6	61.5	77.3	75.6	75.8	64.9	65.5	65.1	66.9	80.4	51.3	68.1
2016 Q4	73.8	73.8	65.1	73.1	83.5	..	72.8	77.0	75.8	60.4	71.9	69.2	65.5	74.2	51.9	67.3	65.6	86.1	66.0	57.1	69.7	63.2	69.5	61.4	77.3	74.9	76.7	65.1	65.3	65.3	66.7	78.9	50.2	68.0
2016	73.7	73.4	64.1	72.8	82.9	..	71.6	76.2	76.3	59.9	72.3	70.0	65.6	73.9	51.9	66.4	64.8	86.6	65.9	56.9	69.4	61.8	69.2	61.1	76.9	75.2	75.8	64.5	64.7	64.9	66.2	79.3	50.8	67.9
2017 Q1	73.5	73.0	64.1	71.9	81.5	..	72.7	76.2	74.6	60.2	73.4	68.7	65.3	74.3	52.2	66.9	66.6	85.4	66.1	56.9	69.2	60.9	69.2	61.0	77.1	74.6	77.2	65.4	65.6	65.8	67.8	78.8	49.6	67.7
2017 Q2	74.5	74.1	64.4	74.0	81.8	..	73.1	76.6	76.0	61.4	73.2	71.2	66.3	74.5	53.9	67.9	67.0	87.8	66.6	57.8	70.6	59.2	70.1	61.1	77.9	75.4	75.9	66.2	66.8	66.1	69.4	80.2	52.3	68.6
2017 Q3	74.3	74.6	64.9	74.6	81.7	..	74.0	77.4	76.3	62.0	75.1	71.6	66.3	74.5	54.5	68.6	67.5	86.2	66.7	57.9	70.9	63.2	71.2	61.2	78.3	75.4	77.3	66.5	68.0	66.4	70.7	81.1	52.8	69.0
2017 Q4	75.1	74.4	65.5	74.1	82.2	..	74.2	77.8	76.3	61.8	76.0	71.0	66.3	74.8	53.6	68.8	67.9	84.4	66.5	58.0	71.0	61.3	71.4	61.4	78.4	75.0	78.1	66.3	68.3	66.4	70.5	79.8	52.0	68.7
2017	74.3	74.0	64.7	73.7	81.8	60.2	73.5	77.0	75.8	61.4	74.4	70.6	66.0	74.5	53.6	68.1	67.2	85.9	66.5	57.6	70.4	61.2	70.5	61.2	78.0	75.1	77.1	66.1	67.2	66.2	69.6	79.9	51.7	68.5
2018 Q1	74.5	73.5	65.5	73.2	81.6	..	74.0	77.1	76.2	61.5	74.4	70.8	65.9	74.8	53.6	68.7	67.3	83.9	66.5	57.4	70.8	61.0	71.5	61.0	78.3	75.9	77.7	66.5	68.4	67.0	70.1	79.5	51.1	68.5
2018 Q2	75.0	74.3	65.2	74.8	81.7	..	74.5	77.0	77.3	62.6	75.4	73.8	66.6	74.8	55.4	69.2	67.8	85.9	66.7	58.6	72.2	61.8	72.0	61.7	79.0	76.7	77.5	67.7	69.3	67.1	71.6	81.1	52.8	69.4
2018 Q3	74.9	75.2	66.4	75.1	82.1	..	74.8	77.9	77.2	63.1	75.2	73.9	68.8	74.9	55.9	69.4	68.5	86.8	67.0	58.4	74.1	61.6	72.9	61.8	79.6	76.8	77.8	67.9	69.5	67.9	72.5	81.9	53.2	69.5
2018 Q4	75.3	74.8	66.8	74.4	82.1	..	75.2	78.2	77.2	63.0	76.2	72.8	66.5	75.2	55.5	69.4	68.4	84.8	66.3	58.3	72.9	62.8	71.9	61.9	80.0	76.4	77.6	67.3	69.3	68.1	72.4	80.8	51.3	69.5
2018	74.9	74.5	66.0	74.4	81.9	..	74.6	77.5	77.0	62.6	75.3	72.8	66.5	74.9	55.1	69.2	68.0	85.4	66.6	58.1	72.5	61.8	72.1	61.6	79.2	76.5	77.6	67.3	69.1	67.5	71.7	80.8	52.1	69.2
2019 Q1	75.2	74.2	66.2	73.2	81.9	..	74.8	77.8	75.5	62.7	74.2	71.9	66.2	75.2	55.5	69.7	68.6	84.2	66.8	57.9	72.5	62.3	71.3	61.7	79.7	76.1	77.3	67.2	69.3	68.5	72.0	79.9	49.4	69.1
2019 Q2	76.0	74.7	67.0	75.5	82.1	..	74.8	78.0	76.5	63.5	74.5	74.4	66.7	75.2	57.4	69.9	68.4	85.5	66.8	59.0	73.1	63.2	72.1	62.3	80.3	76.6	77.2	68.2	69.7	68.0	73.0	80.9	50.9	69.7
2019 Q3	75.9	75.6	67.6	76.1	82.1	..	75.0	78.4	76.8	63.6	76.4	74.8	66.6	75.1	57.5	70.0	68.9	84.3	66.6	58.8	73.3	63.2	72.2	62.4	80.5	77.5	77.2	68.8	70.2	68.3	72.5	81.7	51.1	70.3
2019 Q4	75.8	75.2	66.8	74.9	82.8	..	75.1	78.6	76.4	63.9	76.4	73.4	67.0	75.6	56.8	70.1	69.7	83.2	65.9	58.9	73.2	62.2	73.2	62.7	80.5	76.9	77.3	68.4	69.9	68.5	71.7	80.5	50.4	70.2
2019	75.7	74.9	66.9	74.9	82.2	..	75.0	78.2	76.3	63.4	75.4	73.6	66.6	75.3	56.8	69.9	68.9	84.3	66.5	58.7	73.0	62.9	72.5	62.3	80.2	76.8	77.3	68.2	69.8	68.3	72.3	80.7	50.5	69.8
2015 Q1	69.9	63.3	54.0	69.8	76.2	..	70.2	68.3	62.8	52.9	66.3	58.2	55.3	69.5	48.1	70.5	60.4	75.9	78.2	57.0	62.0	68.8	64.8	49.2	60.8	67.7	74.0	64.6	65.7	65.8	56.8	62.6	43.6	68.5
2015 Q2	70.1	64.9	50.8	71.0	77.0	..	71.1	68.3	62.1	55.3	68.6	58.9	56.6	70.1	53.4	72.5	62.1	84.0	77.1	59.0	65.1	72.3	65.8	50.7	61.9	68.4	73.4	55.8	69.3	60.5	62.7	63.9	44.8	69.3
2015 Q3	69.4	65.6	55.0	71.5	76.1	..	71.1	68.8	64.2	56.4	74.4	59.3	56.2	71.5	54.7	72.0	63.8	82.8	78.0	59.2	70.8	68.3	62.6	53.7	61.0	69.0	72.4	57.8	68.7	56.3	64.3	65.0	44.2	69.2
2015 Q4	70.3	64.9	53.3	71.4	76.8	..	72.1	68.1	65.3	56.4	71.9	60.6	54.8	71.0	53.0	69.1	64.0	80.4	78.6	59.2	75.2	69.9	62.9	53.5	60.6	69.5	74.2	65.4	68.3	51.2	61.6	44.7	68.8	69.9
2015	69.9	64.7	53.3	70.9	76.5	73.9	71.1	68.4	63.6	55.2	70.2	59.3	55.5	70.5	52.2	71.1	62.6	80.7	78.0	58.6	68.1	69.5	64.0	51.8	61.1	68.6	73.5	60.7	68.0	58.4	61.3	64.1	44.4	69.2
2016 Q1	70.1	63.2	52.8	70.8	76.2	..	72.6	68.0	67.0	55.6	67.8	57.4	54.6	70.9	52.1	70.3	63.5	83.7	77.5	58.2	67.4	70.2	60.5	55.9	61.1	69.7	74.2	63.5	67.7	58.0	60.4	63.1	41.2	69.3
2016 Q2	70.2	64.9	54.4	71.8	76.9	..	74.4	67.8	66.9	57.4	75.4	58.7	55.7	71.9	55.6	74.2	65.1	88.3	78.8	59.4	66.8	68.2	66.6	53.4	62.2	68.7	74.5	57.7	70.8	63.8	61.8	64.8	44.6	70.2
2016 Q3	70.2	65.5	53.5	72.2	76.4	..	73.5	67.8	65.8	58.8	70.8	60.9	56.0	72.3	55.8	74.8	66.0	87.1	79.3	60.0	71.7	68.2	63.1	55.8	62.2	70.1	74.6	62.2	71.4	70.1	62.4	66.0	44.3	70.4
2016 Q4	70.6	64.6	55.9	71.9	76.8	..	75.4	68.2	67.4	58.4	69.3	57.8	54.8	72.4	51.2	76.0	65.8	87.0	78.8	59.2	69.8	69.6	62.8											

Annex Table 2.A.3. Quarterly employment rates by place of birth and gender in OECD countries, 2015-19

Men	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	77.0	75.0	66.5	72.6	85.0	..	76.7	77.8	76.4	62.0	72.8	68.0	67.2	76.9	57.7	68.0	67.6	86.1	69.5	63.7	66.9	66.6	69.1	78.0	79.7	77.0	79.9	68.1	65.6	68.4	68.0	77.8	67.9	69.8
2015 Q2	77.6	75.6	66.9	75.4	84.5	..	77.6	77.6	77.6	63.3	75.6	70.3	67.9	76.7	59.1	69.8	68.6	88.7	70.9	64.7	67.5	70.6	69.7	78.3	80.2	77.5	79.4	68.7	66.3	69.4	69.1	79.3	70.8	71.4
2015 Q3	77.5	77.0	66.5	76.9	84.3	..	78.0	78.6	78.1	64.3	78.1	71.4	68.2	77.5	60.0	71.0	69.1	89.7	70.8	65.9	68.6	67.4	70.1	78.4	80.6	77.5	78.0	70.1	66.9	69.8	71.0	80.5	71.5	71.6
2015 Q4	78.0	76.3	66.3	74.4	85.0	..	78.4	79.0	77.8	64.0	74.7	68.7	67.6	78.2	59.6	71.1	68.4	85.0	70.2	65.2	68.5	64.5	71.1	78.9	80.5	76.6	79.4	70.2	67.0	68.2	70.4	69.6	70.7	
2015	77.5	76.0	66.5	74.8	84.7	71.1	77.7	78.2	77.5	63.4	75.3	69.6	67.7	77.3	59.1	70.0	68.4	87.4	70.4	64.9	67.9	66.7	70.0	78.4	80.3	77.1	79.2	69.2	66.5	69.5	69.2	79.3	69.9	70.9
2016 Q1	77.5	75.1	66.6	72.1	85.3	..	78.4	78.5	77.6	64.1	73.1	68.6	67.6	77.7	59.5	71.2	68.0	86.8	69.3	64.6	68.6	65.4	69.6	77.9	80.4	75.9	79.5	69.9	66.2	70.5	67.3	78.6	68.7	70.7
2016 Q2	77.8	76.3	67.6	74.9	85.4	..	78.8	78.8	78.9	64.8	76.0	72.1	68.3	77.7	60.8	72.7	69.0	90.7	70.1	66.2	70.1	66.6	70.0	78.4	81.0	76.3	80.1	70.6	67.8	71.6	69.4	80.3	71.4	71.9
2016 Q3	77.1	77.8	67.7	76.2	85.7	..	79.5	79.7	79.4	65.6	78.2	72.3	68.7	77.8	61.6	73.4	70.2	91.6	70.6	66.3	70.4	64.8	70.6	79.0	81.4	76.4	80.2	71.6	68.8	71.6	70.0	80.9	70.9	72.4
2016 Q4	77.6	77.2	67.7	74.7	86.1	..	79.9	79.8	78.2	65.3	74.9	70.1	68.2	77.7	60.6	73.8	70.4	88.8	70.1	65.8	70.1	66.8	69.8	79.1	81.5	75.5	80.9	71.8	68.4	71.7	68.6	79.4	69.5	71.6
2016	77.5	76.6	67.4	74.5	85.6	..	79.1	79.2	78.5	65.0	75.5	70.8	68.2	77.7	60.6	72.8	69.4	89.5	70.0	65.7	69.8	65.9	70.0	78.6	81.1	76.0	80.2	71.0	67.8	71.4	68.8	79.8	70.1	71.6
2017 Q1	77.3	75.7	67.6	72.9	84.2	..	79.8	78.9	76.5	65.3	75.8	69.1	68.0	77.5	60.9	73.7	71.2	87.6	69.8	65.5	69.2	62.8	70.5	78.8	81.3	75.5	82.0	71.8	68.8	71.5	70.2	79.0	68.1	71.1
2017 Q2	78.0	77.4	67.8	75.8	85.1	..	80.4	79.5	78.1	66.6	76.4	72.1	69.1	77.9	62.7	75.0	71.7	90.9	70.8	66.4	70.4	60.9	71.0	79.0	81.9	76.4	79.9	72.5	70.1	72.0	72.9	80.7	71.3	72.3
2017 Q3	77.5	78.1	68.0	77.2	84.7	..	81.2	80.5	78.4	67.7	78.6	73.3	69.4	77.9	63.8	75.8	72.6	89.2	70.9	66.9	71.2	65.6	73.0	79.2	82.1	76.6	81.3	73.5	71.3	72.1	73.7	81.6	72.7	73.0
2017 Q4	78.0	77.8	68.6	75.8	84.8	..	81.3	80.6	78.6	66.9	78.9	71.8	69.1	78.1	62.9	76.1	72.5	86.8	70.2	66.5	71.5	64.4	73.1	79.1	82.2	76.0	82.1	73.3	71.5	72.2	73.1	80.3	70.9	72.2
2017	77.7	77.2	68.0	75.4	84.7	71.4	80.7	79.9	77.9	66.6	77.4	71.5	68.9	77.8	62.6	75.1	72.0	88.6	70.4	66.3	70.6	63.4	71.9	79.0	81.9	76.1	81.3	72.8	70.4	72.0	72.5	80.4	70.8	72.2
2018 Q1	77.8	76.3	68.7	74.2	84.2	..	81.0	80.0	78.0	66.7	76.9	71.1	68.6	78.2	63.0	75.9	72.4	86.0	69.6	65.9	71.2	63.2	72.6	78.8	82.1	77.1	81.6	73.1	71.4	72.9	72.4	80.1	69.8	72.3
2018 Q2	78.1	78.2	68.5	76.4	84.9	..	81.5	80.0	79.0	67.9	78.6	74.4	69.1	78.3	64.5	76.0	72.4	88.2	69.6	67.0	73.4	65.5	73.1	79.0	82.5	77.9	81.3	74.0	72.0	73.5	74.7	81.6	71.7	73.2
2018 Q3	78.1	78.9	68.9	77.6	84.9	..	81.6	81.0	79.4	68.6	78.5	75.6	69.6	78.5	65.4	76.6	73.5	83.9	69.9	67.3	74.9	63.7	75.2	79.5	83.2	78.4	80.8	74.5	72.5	74.3	75.7	82.8	72.7	73.4
2018 Q4	78.5	78.8	69.2	76.0	85.1	..	81.9	80.8	79.6	68.2	80.3	73.8	69.0	78.7	65.1	76.5	73.0	86.7	69.3	66.8	73.7	66.8	72.7	79.1	83.5	77.6	81.2	74.3	72.3	74.2	74.8	81.5	69.6	72.9
2018	78.1	78.0	68.8	76.0	84.8	..	81.5	80.4	79.0	67.8	78.6	73.7	69.1	78.4	64.5	76.2	72.8	87.6	69.6	66.7	73.3	64.8	73.4	79.1	82.8	77.8	81.2	74.0	72.1	73.7	74.4	81.5	71.0	72.9
2019 Q1	78.5	77.6	68.8	74.3	85.1	..	81.4	80.8	78.2	67.6	77.2	72.5	68.5	78.4	64.5	77.1	73.1	85.7	69.4	65.9	73.0	66.6	73.2	78.9	83.3	77.2	80.9	74.1	72.3	74.4	74.8	80.3	66.7	72.7
2019 Q2	79.3	78.8	69.7	77.3	84.8	..	81.7	81.0	78.7	68.4	77.9	75.2	69.0	78.1	66.3	77.0	73.2	87.9	69.8	67.1	73.8	66.0	73.3	78.8	83.8	78.0	80.6	75.0	72.2	74.0	75.6	81.4	68.5	73.3
2019 Q3	78.9	79.5	70.4	78.5	84.6	..	81.7	81.1	79.0	68.8	80.5	75.9	69.2	78.5	66.5	77.3	74.0	86.9	69.9	67.6	73.6	67.6	74.7	79.1	83.8	79.2	80.5	76.0	73.5	74.2	74.8	82.4	69.6	74.2
2019 Q4	78.5	79.0	69.0	76.2	85.4	..	81.8	81.2	79.0	68.5	79.0	73.8	69.2	78.8	65.6	77.4	74.5	84.5	68.6	67.2	73.3	65.1	74.6	78.9	83.8	78.7	80.5	76.0	72.7	74.4	72.9	80.7	68.7	73.3
2019	78.8	78.7	69.5	76.6	85.0	..	81.7	81.0	78.7	68.3	78.6	74.3	69.0	78.4	65.7	77.2	73.7	86.2	69.4	67.0	73.4	66.3	73.9	78.9	83.7	78.3	80.6	75.3	72.7	74.3	74.5	81.2	68.4	73.4
2015 Q1	79.1	69.9	61.8	76.4	83.4	..	81.9	76.5	69.4	56.6	72.2	62.7	62.3	78.5	56.2	79.5	67.9	75.2	79.8	67.7	66.6	75.7	69.1	64.4	69.9	71.9	81.7	74.6	68.5	73.4	64.0	66.4	64.9	80.2
2015 Q2	78.8	72.3	56.3	78.2	84.5	..	82.5	75.9	69.5	60.3	72.7	66.1	62.7	78.7	61.4	83.3	69.3	85.4	79.0	70.2	64.9	75.7	71.9	66.8	70.8	72.9	80.7	67.7	72.1	66.6	70.9	67.7	65.1	81.6
2015 Q3	78.1	73.3	64.0	79.6	83.3	..	83.5	77.2	71.1	61.3	80.0	65.1	63.7	79.7	63.8	84.4	71.2	89.3	80.6	71.3	74.4	74.9	69.6	66.9	70.9	73.4	79.4	70.0	73.1	63.5	71.5	68.8	63.9	82.1
2015 Q4	79.3	71.3	60.1	78.6	83.6	..	83.7	77.4	72.3	61.9	77.4	66.7	63.1	79.7	63.1	82.1	71.4	87.1	81.0	71.0	80.5	75.6	66.2	68.2	70.4	74.6	80.8	81.3	72.4	56.5	69.7	68.0	64.3	81.4
2015	78.8	71.7	60.5	78.2	83.7	83.9	82.9	76.8	70.6	60.0	75.7	65.2	62.9	79.1	61.0	82.4	69.9	84.5	80.1	70.0	71.5	75.4	69.1	66.6	70.5	73.2	80.6	73.1	71.5	65.0	69.0	67.7	64.6	81.3
2016 Q1	79.0	68.4	60.0	77.2	81.6	..	83.3	75.5	72.2	61.6	73.3	64.7	61.9	80.2	62.9	80.9	71.5	89.5	79.4	70.7	67.6	75.5	71.2	71.3	70.4	74.2	81.1	79.0	71.8	65.6	65.7	66.1	61.5	80.9
2016 Q2	78.7	71.5	62.3	78.3	84.0	..	85.3	75.2	71.5	63.1	81.8	65.4	64.1	81.0	66.9	84.6	73.2	87.7	80.9	72.2	70.3	74.9	74.3	67.4	69.8	72.7	81.4	68.4	74.2	74.6	66.7	68.6	67.9	82.3
2016 Q3	78.5	72.9	61.1	79.4	83.5	..	85.8	75.0	72.5	65.0	76.8	68.8	64.4	81.5	66.4	83.3	74.7	90.1	80.9	72.3	80.5	74.6	66.8	72.1	70.0	75.7	81.3	72.1	74.6	76.4	70.7	66.6	82.6	
2016 Q4	78.9	70.2	64.8	79.4	84.2	..	85.3	75.5	73.8	64.7	75.1	66.8	63.9	82.0	62.9	81.6	74.2	89.8	80.2	71.6	72.2	74.9	65.9	69.3	69									

	Women	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2015 Q1	68.3	68.9	60.6	70.4	79.7	...	61.8	71.7	72.6	51.9	67.8	67.5	61.9	69.1	41.0	56.6	57.8	81.2	60.8	46.6	65.5	59.8	65.2	44.0	71.2	73.9	71.0	55.8	59.5	55.3	60.5	76.1	29.0	63.1
	2015 Q2	69.2	69.0	60.3	71.8	78.6	...	62.4	71.9	72.9	53.1	68.5	69.6	62.6	68.9	42.4	57.5	58.2	82.8	61.3	47.0	66.6	60.2	67.3	44.5	71.9	75.2	69.9	56.5	61.2	55.6	62.3	77.8	31.6	63.7
	2015 Q3	69.3	70.5	60.7	71.2	78.6	...	62.7	72.0	72.4	53.2	70.0	69.9	62.8	69.1	42.8	58.4	58.6	83.1	61.5	46.7	67.2	57.3	68.4	44.6	72.4	75.2	69.5	57.0	61.1	56.2	62.6	79.4	31.0	63.4
	2015 Q4	70.6	69.7	60.9	71.0	79.9	...	62.9	72.6	72.5	54.0	69.1	67.9	62.6	69.5	42.8	58.5	59.5	84.4	61.3	47.2	66.9	57.4	67.8	45.7	72.1	74.0	70.5	57.3	60.9	56.8	62.2	77.5	30.6	64.1
	2015	69.4	69.5	60.7	71.1	79.2	48.8	62.5	72.1	72.6	53.0	68.9	68.7	62.5	69.2	42.3	57.7	58.5	82.9	61.2	46.9	66.5	58.4	67.2	44.7	71.9	74.6	70.2	56.7	60.7	56.0	61.9	77.7	30.5	63.6
	2016 Q1	69.7	69.6	60.4	70.4	80.4	...	63.4	72.4	73.6	53.9	68.2	67.9	62.7	69.6	42.3	58.7	59.3	82.6	61.6	47.3	68.1	54.7	67.5	44.5	71.7	74.2	70.7	57.4	61.1	57.7	61.8	77.5	30.4	64.0
	2016 Q2	70.3	69.9	59.7	71.8	79.6	...	64.2	72.6	74.5	54.6	70.2	69.2	63.2	70.0	43.5	59.9	60.1	83.8	62.0	48.5	69.2	57.2	68.6	45.0	72.5	74.5	71.5	58.1	61.6	58.1	63.9	79.4	32.7	64.3
	2016 Q3	69.6	71.0	60.4	71.0	79.5	...	64.6	73.7	74.1	55.1	68.8	70.0	63.1	70.2	44.0	60.7	60.4	84.5	61.3	47.9	69.5	58.6	68.6	45.5	73.2	74.7	71.6	58.3	62.3	58.5	63.6	79.9	31.4	64.0
	2016 Q4	70.1	70.2	62.4	71.5	80.7	...	65.6	74.2	73.3	55.4	69.0	68.2	62.9	70.7	43.3	61.0	60.7	83.2	61.9	48.2	69.3	59.6	69.2	45.3	72.9	74.2	72.6	58.4	62.4	58.9	64.7	78.3	30.8	64.6
	2016	69.9	70.2	60.7	71.2	80.0	...	64.5	73.2	73.9	54.7	69.1	68.8	63.0	70.1	43.3	60.1	60.1	83.5	61.7	48.0	69.0	57.5	68.5	45.1	72.6	74.4	71.6	58.1	61.9	58.3	63.5	78.8	31.3	64.2
	2017 Q1	69.7	70.3	60.6	70.9	78.9	...	65.3	73.4	72.7	55.0	71.1	68.3	62.6	71.2	43.6	60.3	62.0	83.0	62.4	48.1	69.1	59.1	68.0	44.8	72.9	73.5	72.4	58.9	62.6	59.9	65.3	78.6	30.9	64.4
	2017 Q2	70.9	70.7	60.9	72.2	78.4	...	65.6	73.6	73.7	56.1	70.1	70.3	63.6	71.1	45.3	61.0	62.2	84.5	62.3	49.1	70.8	57.5	69.2	44.9	73.8	74.3	72.0	59.9	63.7	60.1	65.8	79.6	33.1	65.0
	2017 Q3	71.1	71.2	61.8	71.8	78.5	...	66.6	74.3	74.1	56.3	71.7	70.0	63.4	71.0	45.1	61.6	62.5	82.9	62.3	48.8	70.6	60.9	69.5	44.8	74.4	74.2	73.4	59.5	64.8	60.6	67.4	80.5	32.6	65.1
	2017 Q4	72.1	71.0	62.3	72.4	79.6	...	66.9	74.9	74.0	56.4	73.1	70.2	63.5	71.5	44.4	61.6	63.3	81.9	62.7	49.3	70.6	58.2	69.9	45.3	74.5	73.9	74.1	59.4	65.2	60.5	67.9	79.2	32.9	65.2
	2017	70.9	70.8	61.4	71.8	78.9	50.2	66.1	74.1	73.7	55.9	71.5	69.7	63.3	71.2	44.6	61.1	62.5	83.1	62.4	48.8	70.3	58.9	69.1	45.0	73.9	74.0	73.0	59.4	64.1	60.3	66.6	79.4	32.4	64.9
	2018 Q1	71.2	70.6	62.3	72.1	78.9	...	66.8	74.2	74.5	56.1	71.9	70.4	63.3	71.4	44.2	61.6	62.3	81.7	63.3	48.7	70.4	58.9	70.4	44.8	74.4	74.7	73.8	60.0	65.6	61.1	67.6	78.9	32.3	64.9
	2018 Q2	71.9	70.4	61.9	73.2	78.4	...	67.3	74.0	75.5	57.3	72.2	73.2	64.1	71.3	46.4	62.5	63.3	83.4	63.6	50.0	71.0	58.0	70.9	45.9	75.4	75.4	73.8	61.4	66.7	60.6	68.4	80.6	33.8	65.7
	2018 Q3	71.7	71.4	63.9	72.6	79.1	...	67.8	74.8	74.9	57.4	71.9	72.1	64.1	71.2	46.4	62.4	63.5	84.1	63.9	49.2	73.2	59.4	70.6	45.6	76.0	75.2	74.8	61.4	66.8	61.4	69.2	81.0	33.4	65.7
	2018 Q4	72.2	70.8	64.3	72.8	79.1	...	68.3	75.5	74.7	57.8	72.2	71.8	64.1	71.7	46.0	62.4	63.9	82.7	63.3	49.6	72.1	58.4	71.2	46.2	76.3	75.1	74.0	60.3	66.5	62.0	69.8	80.0	32.8	66.2
	2018	71.8	70.8	63.1	72.7	78.9	...	67.5	74.6	74.9	57.1	72.0	71.9	63.9	71.4	46.5	62.3	63.0	83.0	63.5	49.5	71.7	58.7	70.8	45.6	75.5	75.1	74.1	60.8	66.4	61.3	68.7	80.1	33.0	65.6
2019 Q1	71.8	70.7	63.6	72.1	78.6	...	68.1	74.7	72.6	57.6	71.2	71.3	64.0	72.0	46.6	62.4	64.1	82.6	64.1	49.6	72.1	57.7	69.5	45.9	76.1	74.8	73.9	60.3	66.5	62.5	69.1	79.4	32.0	65.6	
2019 Q2	72.7	70.4	64.2	73.8	79.3	...	67.2	75.0	74.2	58.5	71.1	73.7	64.6	72.3	48.6	62.8	63.6	82.9	63.6	50.8	73.3	60.2	71.1	47.2	76.6	75.2	73.9	61.5	67.4	61.9	70.3	80.4	33.1	66.2	
2019 Q3	72.9	71.7	64.7	73.6	79.5	...	68.1	75.7	74.5	58.3	72.1	73.7	64.1	71.7	48.5	62.8	63.8	81.6	63.2	49.9	73.1	59.6	71.7	47.2	77.0	75.8	74.1	61.6	67.1	62.4	70.1	81.0	32.5	66.5	
2019 Q4	73.1	71.4	64.6	73.7	80.1	...	68.1	75.8	73.8	59.1	73.8	73.0	64.8	72.4	48.0	62.8	65.0	81.7	63.1	50.3	73.2	59.2	71.9	47.7	77.0	75.0	74.1	60.9	67.2	62.4	70.4	80.2	31.9	67.2	
2019	72.6	71.1	64.3	73.3	79.4	...	68.0	75.3	73.8	58.4	72.0	72.9	64.4	72.1	47.9	62.7	64.1	82.2	63.5	50.2	72.7	59.2	71.0	47.1	76.7	75.2	74.0	61.1	67.1	62.3	70.3	80.3	32.4	66.4	
Foreign-born	2015 Q1	61.2	57.2	46.9	63.7	69.0	...	58.3	60.1	57.1	49.6	61.7	54.1	49.1	61.1	41.1	63.0	53.5	76.6	76.8	48.0	58.4	61.7	61.3	35.6	52.9	63.3	66.8	56.0	63.3	59.7	49.0	59.1	24.5	57.2
	2015 Q2	61.7	58.1	45.9	64.4	69.3	...	60.2	60.9	55.9	50.9	65.5	52.3	49.2	62.2	46.4	62.9	55.5	82.6	75.4	49.7	65.3	68.7	61.5	35.5	54.4	63.6	66.5	46.1	67.0	55.3	53.8	60.4	27.2	57.3
	2015 Q3	61.0	58.5	46.7	64.0	68.9	...	58.6	60.5	57.7	51.9	68.8	54.2	49.6	63.7	46.5	60.6	57.0	75.8	75.9	49.1	67.4	61.5	58.0	40.1	52.4	64.3	65.7	43.4	65.3	50.6	56.1	61.6	26.9	56.4
	2015 Q4	61.6	59.0	47.0	64.8	70.0	...	60.2	59.0	58.6	51.3	66.4	54.9	47.5	63.0	43.9	57.5	57.3	72.3	76.8	49.2	70.7	63.9	60.5	38.5	52.0	64.1	67.8	51.4	65.0	46.9	53.0	61.7	27.4	58.5
	2015	61.4	58.2	46.6	64.2	69.3	65.1	59.3	60.1	57.3	50.9	65.4	53.9	48.8	62.5	44.4	61.0	55.8	76.8	76.2	49.0	65.2	63.3	60.3	37.4	52.9	63.8	66.7	49.3	65.2	53.1	53.0	60.7	26.5	57.4
	2016 Q1	61.5	58.6	45.9	64.7	70.7	...	61.8	60.7	62.6	50.1	64.4	51.3	48.3	62.3	42.1	61.0	56.2	77.8	75.7	47.7	67.2	64.8	60.9	40.3	53.2	65.2	67.5	51.1	64.4	54.4	54.9	60.3	24.3	57.9
	2016 Q2	61.9	58.8	46.8	65.7	69.7	...	63.4	60.7	62.8	52.4	70.2	52.7	48.3	63.2	45.4	65.9	57.5																	

Annex Table 2.A.4. Quarterly unemployment rates by place of birth in OECD countries, 2015-19

Total	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	6.9	4.6	6.9	7.3	2.9	..	6.0	4.5	5.9	22.2	6.5	9.3	9.9	5.4	25.8	7.8	9.5	3.6	5.6	12.5	10.1	4.6	10.7	4.4	6.7	3.1	6.3	8.7	13.9	12.5	9.5	6.4	11.4	6.1
2015 Q2	6.1	4.6	6.5	6.9	2.8	..	4.9	4.2	5.2	20.9	6.5	10.5	9.1	5.4	24.1	6.9	9.6	5.3	5.1	11.8	9.5	-	9.9	4.5	6.2	3.6	5.9	7.5	12.2	11.3	9.1	6.4	9.5	5.5
2015 Q3	6.1	4.7	6.9	6.9	3.7	..	4.9	3.9	5.5	19.9	5.2	8.0	9.1	5.4	23.6	6.5	9.0	3.3	5.9	10.2	8.5	5.3	9.5	4.8	6.0	3.6	6.3	7.1	12.2	11.3	8.5	4.7	10.2	5.5
2015 Q4	5.8	4.6	7.1	6.4	3.3	..	4.5	3.9	5.2	19.7	6.2	8.5	9.8	4.8	23.9	6.2	8.4	3.1	5.5	11.4	9.1	4.3	9.8	4.3	6.0	3.2	5.5	7.0	12.6	11.0	8.2	4.6	10.6	5.1
2015	6.2	4.6	6.8	6.9	3.2	7.9	5.1	4.1	5.4	20.7	6.1	9.1	9.5	5.2	24.4	6.8	9.1	3.9	5.5	11.5	9.3	4.4	9.9	4.5	6.2	3.4	6.0	7.6	12.7	11.5	8.8	5.5	10.4	5.6
2016 Q1	6.4	5.0	6.4	7.6	3.2	..	4.4	4.1	5.6	19.5	6.4	9.3	9.8	4.9	24.2	6.0	8.1	3.2	5.3	11.7	8.5	3.8	10.4	4.2	6.2	4.1	5.9	7.1	12.4	10.4	8.3	5.6	11.0	5.5
2016 Q2	5.8	4.9	6.6	6.8	3.0	..	3.9	3.7	5.4	18.8	6.5	9.7	8.8	4.8	22.6	5.1	8.4	3.8	4.9	11.3	8.1	3.1	9.8	4.1	5.7	4.0	5.2	6.2	11.2	9.7	7.6	5.6	9.5	5.1
2016 Q3	5.7	4.7	6.3	7.0	3.7	..	4.0	3.5	5.7	17.9	7.2	7.2	8.8	5.0	22.1	4.9	7.7	2.3	5.5	10.7	7.6	5.1	9.6	4.2	5.0	4.1	5.2	6.0	10.9	9.6	7.1	4.2	11.4	5.3
2016 Q4	5.5	4.3	5.6	6.3	2.9	..	3.6	3.3	5.4	17.6	6.5	7.7	9.5	4.6	22.8	4.4	6.7	2.6	5.0	11.9	7.8	3.6	9.5	3.7	4.9	3.5	5.7	5.6	10.7	9.2	8.0	4.3	12.2	4.8
2016	5.8	4.7	6.3	6.9	3.2	..	4.1	3.6	5.5	18.5	6.7	8.7	9.2	4.8	23.0	5.1	7.7	3.0	5.2	11.4	8.0	3.9	9.8	4.0	5.4	3.9	5.5	6.2	11.3	9.7	7.7	4.9	11.0	5.2
2017 Q1	6.3	4.4	6.2	7.2	3.5	..	3.5	3.6	5.7	17.6	6.0	9.2	9.2	4.4	22.6	4.5	6.9	3.2	4.5	11.9	8.4	4.8	9.5	3.5	4.9	3.6	5.7	5.4	10.3	8.8	7.5	5.0	12.8	5.0
2017 Q2	5.6	4.0	5.6	6.4	3.1	..	3.0	3.3	4.9	16.1	7.3	9.8	8.4	4.2	20.6	4.3	6.9	3.6	4.4	10.6	7.3	4.9	9.3	3.6	4.5	3.4	5.0	5.0	9.2	8.2	6.5	5.2	10.3	4.5
2017 Q3	5.4	4.4	5.9	6.2	3.9	..	2.8	3.1	5.5	15.3	5.2	7.2	8.5	4.4	19.6	4.1	6.6	2.2	4.6	10.4	6.6	3.9	9.0	3.7	4.0	3.2	4.8	4.8	8.6	8.0	6.2	4.0	10.6	4.7
2017 Q4	5.4	4.0	5.4	5.3	3.4	..	2.4	3.0	4.4	15.4	5.1	7.2	8.5	4.1	20.4	3.8	5.6	2.3	4.4	10.9	6.8	3.5	8.3	3.5	3.8	3.0	4.9	4.5	8.3	7.8	5.6	3.8	10.4	4.1
2017	5.7	4.2	5.7	6.3	3.5	8.3	2.9	3.3	5.1	16.1	5.9	8.4	8.6	4.3	20.8	4.2	6.5	2.8	4.5	11.0	7.3	4.3	9.0	3.6	4.3	3.3	5.1	4.9	9.1	8.2	6.5	4.5	11.0	4.6
2018 Q1	6.2	3.9	4.8	6.2	3.6	..	2.4	3.1	4.5	15.5	6.5	8.5	8.8	4.1	20.4	3.9	5.2	2.9	3.7	11.3	7.3	3.9	8.4	3.3	3.9	2.8	4.9	4.2	7.9	7.2	5.8	4.3	10.7	4.5
2018 Q2	5.5	3.4	4.9	5.9	3.1	..	2.2	3.0	4.0	14.2	4.7	8.0	8.0	3.9	18.4	3.6	5.7	3.2	4.1	10.5	6.1	3.8	7.8	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.6	3.6	6.9	6.7	5.2	4.4	9.8	4.1
2018 Q3	5.2	3.8	5.0	5.9	3.5	..	2.4	2.8	4.3	13.7	5.5	6.1	8.2	4.1	17.7	3.8	5.7	1.7	4.6	9.1	5.7	5.5	7.1	3.6	3.2	4.0	4.2	3.9	6.9	6.4	4.9	3.6	11.3	4.1
2018 Q4	4.9	3.5	4.3	5.0	3.3	..	2.1	2.7	4.4	13.5	4.0	5.7	8.4	3.8	17.8	3.6	5.1	2.2	4.6	10.4	6.0	4.6	7.1	3.4	3.0	2.8	4.8	3.9	6.7	6.1	4.3	3.2	12.5	3.8
2018	5.4	3.7	4.7	5.7	3.4	..	2.3	2.9	4.3	14.2	5.2	7.1	8.3	4.0	18.6	3.7	5.4	2.5	4.3	10.3	6.3	4.5	7.6	3.4	3.4	2.9	4.6	3.9	7.1	6.6	5.1	3.9	11.1	4.1
2019 Q1	5.5	3.7	4.4	6.1	3.4	..	2.1	2.8	5.2	13.7	4.5	7.0	8.4	3.7	18.0	3.6	4.6	2.9	4.0	10.7	6.7	3.7	7.1	3.5	3.2	2.9	5.1	4.0	6.6	5.9	4.6	5.0	15.0	4.3
2019 Q2	5.2	3.4	4.2	5.4	3.0	..	1.9	2.6	4.3	13.0	5.2	7.4	7.5	3.6	15.8	3.4	5.3	4.5	3.9	9.4	6.5	3.2	6.5	3.7	2.9	2.9	4.2	3.3	6.2	5.8	4.0	4.9	13.0	3.8
2019 Q3	5.2	3.5	4.2	5.6	3.4	..	2.1	2.6	4.8	13.0	3.9	5.8	7.7	4.0	15.6	3.5	5.2	3.3	4.2	8.9	6.3	4.3	6.2	3.9	2.9	4.4	3.2	6.3	6.0	4.7	4.2	14.3	4.0	
2019 Q4	5.0	3.4	4.3	5.0	2.8	..	2.0	2.6	4.7	12.7	3.9	5.7	7.7	3.6	15.9	3.4	4.2	3.3	4.0	9.6	6.6	4.9	6.0	3.5	2.9	2.8	4.6	2.9	6.8	5.8	4.1	3.8	13.5	3.6
2019	5.2	3.5	4.3	5.5	3.2	..	2.0	2.6	4.7	13.1	4.4	6.5	7.8	3.7	16.3	3.5	4.8	3.5	4.0	9.6	6.5	4.1	6.5	3.6	3.0	2.9	4.6	3.3	6.5	5.9	4.3	4.5	13.9	3.9
2015 Q1	6.6	11.4	18.2	7.4	7.8	..	7.8	8.0	12.7	32.7	8.3	18.9	18.0	6.5	36.1	7.2	12.7	11.4	4.1	17.1	11.6	9.6	8.3	4.6	13.2	11.4	6.5	10.7	17.7	-	13.9	17.3	12.3	5.7
2015 Q2	6.1	11.1	18.2	7.4	7.5	..	6.9	7.7	13.0	30.4	7.8	18.0	17.6	6.7	30.9	6.0	11.5	-	4.1	15.6	11.5	6.3	10.5	5.3	12.3	9.7	6.1	15.2	13.8	-	11.6	17.3	10.5	4.9
2015 Q3	6.6	9.7	14.9	7.8	8.0	..	6.3	7.4	12.3	28.3	6.5	17.2	16.6	6.6	29.8	6.6	11.3	6.6	4.2	13.8	10.0	9.8	14.4	6.1	11.1	10.0	6.1	8.8	13.7	-	10.6	14.8	15.2	4.7
2015 Q4	5.6	10.6	16.8	7.2	8.1	..	6.3	7.8	10.9	27.9	8.5	15.9	17.2	6.1	31.2	7.5	10.3	-	4.6	16.1	-	7.8	12.1	5.4	11.9	10.5	5.4	-	13.8	-	11.8	15.5	13.3	4.5
2015	6.2	10.7	17.0	7.5	7.9	5.8	6.8	7.7	12.2	29.8	7.8	17.5	17.3	6.4	32.0	6.8	11.4	7.0	4.3	15.7	9.8	8.7	11.3	5.4	12.1	10.4	6.0	10.6	14.8	13.6	11.9	16.2	12.8	5.0
2016 Q1	6.3	11.6	17.7	8.1	9.5	..	6.7	7.2	12.0	28.9	8.9	18.6	18.1	6.1	33.3	7.3	10.0	-	4.6	15.9	9.2	7.5	11.3	3.3	11.9	9.8	5.4	12.7	16.7	-	14.2	16.9	13.0	4.8
2016 Q2	5.8	11.2	14.4	7.7	7.5	..	5.9	6.7	10.9	26.8	6.7	18.8	16.0	5.5	29.0	5.3	10.0	-	3.6	14.6	10.4	8.4	8.9	4.6	10.5	10.0	5.0	13.6	12.0	-	9.8	16.5	10.2	4.0
2016 Q3	5.8	11.9	15.9	7.6	7.9	..	5.7	7.0	11.5	24.5	12.0	15.4	15.6	5.5	28.6	4.8	9.6	5.0	3.9	13.7	8.4	8.6	11.5	5.9	10.3	9.5	4.9	10.9	12.0	-	11.0	15.1	14.2	4.3
2016 Q4	5.9	11.1	15.0	6.9	7.9	..	5.2	6.5	11.3	24.4	8.1	16.4	17.1	5.1	32.0	5.6	7.7	-	3.9	15.4	7.4	7.8	10.2	4.3	9.6	9.6	4.7	-	12.5	-	9.5	1		

Annex Table 2.A.5. Quarterly unemployment rates by place of birth and gender in OECD countries, 2015-19

Men	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	7.0	5.1	7.6	8.7	3.2	..	5.2	5.0	6.2	20.9	7.8	10.3	10.4	5.9	22.3	7.8	11.4	3.0	5.6	12.2	11.2	4.4	11.6	4.4	6.4	3.5	5.7	8.6	13.2	11.8	8.6	6.6	10.5	6.7
2015 Q2	6.2	5.0	7.1	7.9	2.8	..	4.1	4.5	5.2	19.5	6.6	11.1	9.5	5.8	20.7	6.8	10.9	4.7	5.0	11.5	10.7	-	11.5	4.4	5.9	4.2	5.2	7.4	12.3	10.1	8.3	6.6	8.5	5.8
2015 Q3	6.4	5.1	7.1	7.2	3.6	..	4.0	4.2	5.1	18.4	4.7	8.3	9.4	5.7	20.0	6.2	10.3	3.1	5.6	9.8	9.1	4.8	11.2	4.6	5.7	3.9	5.9	6.8	12.0	10.1	7.2	5.0	8.8	5.4
2015 Q4	6.1	4.8	7.7	7.4	3.1	..	3.7	4.2	5.1	18.3	6.1	9.1	10.2	5.0	20.4	6.0	10.3	4.1	4.9	11.0	9.8	5.0	11.1	4.2	5.7	3.4	5.2	6.9	12.7	9.6	7.9	4.7	9.5	5.5
2015	6.4	5.0	7.4	7.8	3.2	7.2	4.3	4.5	5.4	19.3	6.3	9.7	9.9	5.6	20.9	6.7	10.7	3.7	5.3	11.1	10.2	4.4	11.3	4.4	5.9	3.7	5.5	7.4	12.6	10.4	8.0	5.7	9.3	5.8
2016 Q1	6.7	5.4	6.7	9.2	3.4	..	3.8	4.3	5.7	18.1	7.1	10.1	10.4	5.2	20.4	6.0	9.9	4.0	5.1	11.4	9.8	3.1	11.5	4.2	5.9	4.9	5.4	7.1	12.8	9.4	7.8	6.1	10.1	5.9
2016 Q2	5.7	5.4	6.7	8.0	2.9	..	3.5	4.0	5.2	17.2	7.8	9.9	9.2	5.1	18.8	5.3	9.8	3.2	4.9	10.6	9.6	-	10.9	4.1	5.4	5.2	4.8	6.4	11.3	8.6	7.0	5.9	8.7	5.3
2016 Q3	5.9	4.9	6.2	7.4	3.5	..	3.4	3.8	5.2	16.4	7.1	7.3	8.6	5.3	18.2	4.9	9.2	2.1	5.1	10.1	8.9	5.8	11.3	4.1	4.6	4.6	5.1	5.8	10.7	8.7	6.6	4.5	9.5	5.3
2016 Q4	5.8	4.6	6.1	7.1	2.8	..	3.0	3.6	5.3	16.3	7.3	8.2	9.7	5.0	19.0	4.4	7.8	2.4	4.6	11.2	9.2	3.7	11.1	3.6	4.5	4.2	5.4	5.5	10.7	8.6	8.0	4.6	10.3	5.1
2016	6.0	5.1	6.5	7.9	3.2	..	3.4	3.9	5.3	17.0	7.3	8.9	9.5	5.2	19.1	5.2	9.2	2.9	4.9	10.8	9.4	3.9	11.2	4.0	5.1	4.7	5.2	6.2	11.4	8.8	7.4	5.3	9.7	5.4
2017 Q1	6.4	5.1	6.0	8.7	3.8	..	2.8	4.0	5.8	16.0	6.2	9.9	9.2	5.0	19.0	4.4	7.4	3.5	4.4	11.1	10.5	5.9	10.6	3.4	4.5	4.4	4.9	5.5	10.0	8.8	7.6	5.5	11.8	5.5
2017 Q2	5.8	4.7	5.5	7.4	3.1	..	2.4	3.7	4.8	14.5	7.9	10.1	8.6	4.7	17.1	4.0	7.6	3.7	4.3	10.0	8.9	6.1	10.8	3.5	4.0	3.9	5.0	5.2	8.8	8.0	5.7	5.6	9.0	4.7
2017 Q3	5.9	4.6	6.1	6.3	3.9	..	2.2	3.3	5.4	13.7	5.8	7.2	8.5	4.8	15.9	3.7	7.2	2.0	4.4	9.6	7.8	3.6	9.6	3.5	3.7	3.5	4.3	4.7	7.9	7.8	5.3	4.2	8.4	4.6
2017 Q4	5.8	4.3	5.5	5.8	3.5	..	2.0	3.2	4.1	13.9	5.3	7.9	8.5	4.4	16.6	3.3	6.3	2.3	4.2	10.3	7.9	3.4	8.8	3.4	3.6	3.6	4.5	4.4	8.1	7.3	5.2	4.0	8.9	4.4
2017	5.9	4.7	5.8	7.0	3.6	7.6	2.4	3.5	5.0	14.5	6.3	8.8	8.7	4.7	17.1	3.9	7.1	2.9	4.3	10.3	8.8	4.7	10.0	3.5	4.0	3.8	4.7	4.9	8.7	8.0	5.9	4.8	9.5	4.8
2018 Q1	6.4	4.4	5.1	7.3	3.5	..	2.0	3.5	4.4	14.0	7.1	8.8	8.8	4.4	16.5	3.5	5.8	3.3	3.7	10.4	8.9	4.4	9.3	3.2	3.8	3.2	4.5	4.1	7.8	7.0	5.5	4.6	9.4	5.0
2018 Q2	5.9	3.6	4.6	6.6	3.0	..	1.8	3.4	4.2	12.8	4.9	8.4	8.1	4.1	14.8	3.5	6.2	3.7	4.1	9.9	6.8	3.9	9.5	3.5	3.4	3.6	4.5	3.8	6.8	6.3	4.9	4.7	8.5	4.4
2018 Q3	5.6	3.8	5.3	5.8	3.5	..	1.9	3.0	4.2	12.2	5.1	5.9	8.3	4.3	13.8	3.4	6.0	1.5	4.6	8.5	6.1	5.3	8.1	3.4	3.2	3.4	4.5	4.0	6.5	6.1	4.4	3.7	9.4	3.9
2018 Q4	5.4	3.6	4.6	5.5	3.0	..	1.6	2.9	4.4	12.0	3.4	6.2	8.4	4.1	13.9	3.6	5.4	2.4	4.6	9.8	6.4	5.0	7.8	3.3	3.1	2.9	5.0	3.7	6.3	5.6	4.0	3.2	11.4	4.0
2018	5.8	3.8	4.9	6.3	3.3	..	1.8	3.2	4.3	12.7	5.1	7.3	8.4	4.2	14.8	3.5	5.8	2.7	4.2	9.7	7.0	4.7	8.7	3.3	3.4	3.3	4.6	3.9	6.9	6.2	4.7	4.0	9.7	4.3
2019 Q1	5.8	3.9	4.9	7.2	3.0	..	1.9	3.0	4.8	12.1	4.5	7.9	8.5	4.1	14.3	3.6	5.0	3.6	4.1	10.3	7.3	4.3	7.8	3.4	3.2	3.1	4.8	3.5	6.2	5.8	4.0	5.0	13.9	4.8
2019 Q2	5.4	3.5	4.5	6.2	3.2	..	1.7	2.8	4.3	11.6	4.6	8.1	7.8	4.1	12.8	3.5	5.8	5.0	3.8	9.0	7.2	4.0	8.2	3.7	3.0	3.1	4.0	3.2	6.0	5.8	3.6	4.9	12.0	4.1
2019 Q3	5.7	3.7	4.4	5.7	3.5	..	1.8	3.0	4.7	11.4	3.3	6.0	7.9	4.3	12.3	3.3	5.6	3.3	3.8	8.3	7.2	4.3	6.7	3.9	3.0	3.1	4.3	2.9	5.8	5.8	4.5	4.0	12.5	4.0
2019 Q4	5.5	3.7	5.2	5.8	2.7	..	1.8	3.0	4.5	11.4	3.4	6.4	7.9	3.9	13.0	3.2	4.7	3.5	3.7	8.7	7.7	4.7	6.2	3.5	3.1	3.1	4.6	2.6	6.2	5.4	3.7	4.1	11.9	3.8
2019	5.6	3.7	4.7	6.2	3.1	..	1.8	2.9	4.6	11.6	4.0	7.1	8.0	4.1	13.1	3.4	5.3	3.9	3.8	9.0	7.4	4.3	7.3	3.6	3.1	3.1	4.4	3.1	6.1	5.7	4.0	4.5	12.6	4.1
2015 Q1	6.2	11.7	18.2	7.2	7.8	..	7.1	8.5	11.0	33.2	-	19.1	18.3	5.5	35.9	6.2	13.5	17.0	4.7	15.8	-	8.0	-	6.1	12.0	10.8	5.9	-	18.5	-	13.8	17.5	10.7	5.6
2015 Q2	5.7	11.7	21.0	6.8	6.9	..	6.2	8.3	11.9	29.8	-	17.3	18.9	5.8	31.2	-	13.1	-	4.4	14.5	17.3	6.6	13.4	6.3	12.1	9.6	5.1	-	15.5	-	9.1	17.3	9.5	4.5
2015 Q3	6.2	10.0	15.7	6.7	7.6	..	4.2	7.9	11.1	28.5	-	16.1	16.8	6.0	28.9	4.7	13.1	-	3.9	13.1	13.8	8.6	13.7	6.2	10.1	10.6	5.8	-	12.7	-	8.7	15.4	15.3	3.8
2015 Q4	5.0	11.3	16.8	6.8	8.0	..	3.8	7.5	9.2	26.6	-	15.6	17.3	5.6	29.5	5.5	11.8	-	4.6	14.7	-	7.6	12.9	4.7	10.3	9.6	5.0	-	12.4	-	8.3	16.1	12.6	4.0
2015	5.8	11.1	17.9	6.9	7.6	4.9	5.3	8.1	10.8	29.5	7.0	17.0	17.8	5.7	31.4	5.2	12.9	7.8	4.4	14.5	12.4	7.8	11.7	5.8	11.1	10.2	5.5	8.1	14.9	-	10.0	16.5	12.1	4.4
2016 Q1	5.5	13.0	18.8	8.7	9.5	..	5.4	7.7	9.7	27.4	-	16.3	18.3	5.3	29.5	5.7	11.5	-	5.1	14.3	-	6.9	-	3.3	10.6	9.9	5.2	-	14.8	-	14.1	18.2	14.3	4.4
2016 Q2	5.3	12.0	13.5	7.4	6.3	..	4.6	7.1	10.9	25.7	-	17.2	16.1	4.6	26.1	4.7	10.7	-	3.2	12.5	-	7.3	10.2	6.0	9.6	11.0	4.5	-	11.5	-	9.1	17.3	9.8	3.3
2016 Q3	5.4	12.8	16.1	6.9	7.2	..	2.7	7.4	9.8	23.1	11.6	12.8	15.2	4.7	26.2	-	9.4	-	4.2	12.5	-	7.7	12.6	5.0	9.8	8.6	4.8	-	12.7	-	7.7	15.3	14.1	3.5
2016 Q4	5.3	11.7	15.2	6.6	7.2	..	5.0	7.0	9.3	22.8	-	14.0	16.0	4.1	28.8	6.1	7.5	-	4.3	13.7	-	7.5	-	5.4	8.1	9.3	4.2	-	13.5	-	6.8	15.9	10.4	3.8
2016	5.4	12.4	15.9																															

	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA	
Women	2015 Q1	6.7	4.0	6.1	5.7	2.6	6.9	4.0	5.6	23.6	5.1	8.4	9.3	4.9	30.3	7.9	7.2	4.3	5.6	13.0	9.0	4.7	9.7	4.3	7.0	2.8	6.9	8.8	14.6	13.4	10.5	6.1	13.4	5.4	
	2015 Q2	5.9	4.2	5.8	5.7	2.8	6.0	3.8	5.2	22.7	6.4	9.8	8.7	4.9	28.3	7.1	7.9	5.9	5.2	12.2	8.3	-	8.2	4.7	6.6	2.9	6.7	7.5	12.1	12.8	9.9	6.2	11.7	5.3	
	2015 Q3	5.8	4.2	6.7	6.5	3.9	6.0	3.5	5.9	21.7	5.8	7.7	8.9	5.1	28.1	6.7	7.5	3.6	6.2	10.9	7.9	5.8	7.8	5.0	6.2	3.4	6.7	7.5	12.5	12.8	10.0	4.5	13.3	5.6	
	2015 Q4	5.4	4.4	6.4	5.4	3.4	5.5	3.6	5.2	21.3	6.3	7.8	9.4	4.5	28.2	6.4	6.2	2.2	6.2	12.0	8.5	-	8.4	4.5	6.3	3.0	5.8	7.2	12.5	12.6	8.5	4.4	13.1	4.7	
	2015	6.0	4.2	6.2	5.8	3.2	6.1	3.7	5.5	22.3	5.9	8.4	9.0	4.8	28.7	7.0	7.2	4.0	5.8	12.0	8.4	4.4	8.5	4.6	6.5	3.0	6.5	7.8	12.9	12.9	9.7	5.3	12.8	5.2	
	2016 Q1	6.1	4.5	6.1	5.9	2.9	5.0	3.8	5.5	21.3	5.7	8.3	9.2	4.5	28.8	6.0	6.0	2.4	5.6	12.2	7.3	4.7	9.3	4.2	6.6	3.1	6.4	7.0	12.0	11.6	9.0	5.1	12.9	5.0	
	2016 Q2	5.8	4.4	6.5	5.6	3.1	4.6	3.4	5.6	20.7	5.2	9.4	8.4	4.4	27.3	4.9	6.6	4.5	4.8	12.1	6.7	-	8.7	4.1	6.0	2.8	5.6	6.0	11.1	11.0	8.3	5.2	11.3	4.9	
	2016 Q3	5.5	4.6	6.4	6.6	3.9	4.8	3.2	6.3	19.6	7.3	7.1	9.1	4.6	27.0	4.9	6.0	2.6	6.0	11.5	6.4	4.4	7.9	4.4	5.4	3.7	5.4	6.2	11.0	10.7	7.6	3.9	15.3	5.2	
	2016 Q4	5.1	4.0	5.1	5.4	3.0	4.3	2.9	5.6	19.1	5.6	7.1	9.2	4.0	27.6	4.5	5.3	2.9	5.4	12.8	6.5	-	7.8	3.7	5.3	2.6	6.0	5.8	10.7	10.0	7.9	4.0	16.1	4.4	
	2016	5.6	4.4	6.0	5.9	3.2	4.7	3.3	5.7	20.2	5.9	8.0	9.0	4.4	27.7	5.1	6.0	3.1	5.4	12.2	6.7	4.0	8.4	4.1	5.8	3.0	5.9	6.3	11.2	10.8	8.2	4.5	13.9	4.9	
	2017 Q1	6.2	3.7	6.4	5.6	3.2	4.3	3.2	5.5	19.4	5.9	8.5	9.1	3.7	27.1	4.7	6.2	2.8	4.5	12.8	6.3	3.5	8.4	3.7	5.4	2.8	6.5	5.4	10.7	8.8	7.4	4.4	14.8	4.5	
	2017 Q2	5.5	3.3	5.7	5.4	3.1	3.8	2.8	5.0	17.9	6.5	9.4	8.1	3.7	25.0	4.7	6.0	3.5	4.6	11.5	5.6	3.5	7.7	3.8	4.9	2.9	4.9	4.8	9.6	8.3	7.4	4.9	13.2	4.3	
	2017 Q3	5.0	4.0	5.6	6.1	3.9	3.5	2.9	5.7	17.2	4.5	7.3	8.5	4.1	24.4	4.7	5.9	2.3	4.9	11.4	5.5	4.3	8.3	3.9	4.4	3.0	5.4	5.0	9.3	8.3	7.2	3.9	15.1	4.7	
	2017 Q4	4.9	3.7	5.2	4.7	3.3	2.9	2.8	4.6	17.1	4.9	6.5	8.4	3.8	25.3	4.5	4.9	2.3	4.7	11.8	5.8	3.6	7.7	3.7	4.0	2.3	5.3	4.6	8.4	8.5	6.2	3.5	13.6	3.7	
	2017	5.4	3.7	5.7	5.4	3.4	9.2	3.6	2.9	5.2	17.9	5.4	8.0	8.5	3.8	25.4	4.6	5.8	2.8	4.7	11.9	5.8	3.7	8.0	3.7	4.7	2.7	5.5	4.9	9.5	8.5	7.1	4.2	14.2	4.3
	2018 Q1	5.9	3.3	4.5	5.0	3.6	2.9	2.7	4.6	17.2	5.8	8.1	8.8	3.8	25.3	4.3	4.6	2.4	3.7	12.4	5.8	-	7.4	3.3	3.9	2.3	5.4	4.3	8.1	7.4	6.2	4.0	13.6	4.0	
	2018 Q2	5.0	3.2	5.2	5.1	3.2	2.8	2.5	3.9	15.9	4.5	7.5	7.8	3.6	22.9	3.6	5.2	2.7	4.1	11.3	5.4	3.7	5.9	3.4	3.5	2.4	4.8	3.5	7.0	7.2	5.5	4.1	12.6	3.8	
	2018 Q3	4.7	3.9	4.6	6.0	3.5	3.0	2.5	4.5	15.4	5.8	6.4	8.1	3.9	22.6	4.4	5.4	1.9	4.6	10.0	5.2	5.8	6.1	3.9	3.2	2.5	3.9	7.2	6.8	5.5	3.5	15.1	4.3		
	2018 Q4	4.4	3.4	3.9	4.4	3.6	2.6	2.4	4.4	15.2	4.6	5.2	8.4	3.5	22.6	3.7	4.7	2.0	4.6	11.2	5.6	4.0	6.5	3.5	2.9	2.6	4.6	4.1	7.1	6.8	4.5	3.2	14.8	3.6	
	2018	5.0	3.5	4.5	5.1	3.5	2.8	2.5	4.3	15.9	5.2	6.8	8.3	3.7	23.3	4.0	5.0	2.3	4.3	11.2	5.5	4.2	6.5	3.6	3.4	2.5	4.7	3.9	7.3	7.0	5.4	3.7	14.0	3.9	
2019 Q1	5.2	3.4	3.9	4.8	3.9	2.2	2.5	5.7	15.6	4.6	6.0	8.4	3.2	22.5	3.6	4.0	2.1	4.0	11.4	6.2	-	6.4	3.6	3.2	2.8	5.4	4.6	7.0	6.0	5.2	5.0	17.1	3.8		
2019 Q2	4.9	3.3	3.8	4.5	2.8	2.3	2.3	4.3	14.7	5.8	6.6	7.3	3.1	19.6	3.3	4.7	3.8	4.0	9.9	5.7	-	4.7	3.6	2.7	2.7	4.3	3.3	6.4	5.8	4.4	4.9	15.1	3.6		
2019 Q3	4.7	3.3	4.1	5.5	3.4	2.5	2.2	4.8	14.8	4.6	5.5	7.6	3.6	19.6	3.8	4.8	3.4	4.7	9.7	5.4	4.3	5.6	3.9	2.8	2.7	4.5	3.4	6.8	6.2	4.9	4.5	18.0	4.1		
2019 Q4	4.4	3.1	3.3	4.3	2.9	2.3	2.2	4.9	14.2	4.3	5.1	7.4	3.4	19.4	3.6	3.5	3.0	4.3	10.8	5.4	5.2	5.8	3.5	2.7	2.4	4.6	3.2	7.3	6.2	4.5	3.5	16.8	3.4		
2019	4.8	3.3	3.8	4.8	3.3	2.3	2.3	4.9	14.8	4.8	5.8	7.7	3.3	20.3	3.6	4.3	3.1	4.3	10.5	5.7	3.8	5.6	3.7	2.8	2.6	4.7	3.6	6.9	6.0	4.8	4.5	16.7	3.7		
Native-born	2015 Q1	7.2	11.1	18.2	7.5	7.9	8.8	7.4	14.4	32.1	-	18.7	17.7	7.6	36.3	8.2	11.6	-	3.6	18.6	-	11.7	9.4	2.0	14.6	12.1	7.1	-	17.0	-	14.0	17.2	15.8	5.9	
	2015 Q2	6.7	10.5	14.8	8.1	8.2	7.7	6.8	14.2	31.1	-	18.7	15.9	7.7	30.7	7.7	9.6	-	3.8	17.0	-	6.0	8.0	3.3	12.6	9.8	7.3	-	12.3	-	15.0	17.4	12.4	5.6	
	2015 Q3	7.2	9.4	13.9	9.0	8.5	9.2	6.8	13.7	28.1	-	18.3	16.2	7.3	30.8	9.0	9.0	-	4.4	14.8	-	11.3	14.9	5.9	12.3	9.3	6.5	-	14.5	-	13.1	14.3	14.9	6.0	
	2015 Q4	6.3	9.8	16.8	7.7	8.3	9.5	8.1	12.8	29.3	-	16.3	17.2	6.7	33.3	9.9	8.6	-	4.7	17.8	-	8.1	11.5	6.7	13.7	11.5	5.7	-	15.0	-	16.2	14.9	14.5	5.1	
	2015	6.8	10.2	16.0	8.1	8.2	6.7	8.8	7.3	13.8	30.1	8.6	18.0	16.8	7.3	32.8	8.7	9.7	6.1	4.1	17.0	7.3	9.7	11.0	4.5	13.3	10.7	6.7	13.7	14.7	18.1	14.6	15.9	14.4	5.7
	2016 Q1	7.3	10.0	16.2	7.5	9.5	8.4	6.5	14.2	30.5	-	20.9	17.8	7.1	37.8	9.2	8.1	-	4.1	17.7	-	8.3	12.9	3.5	13.3	9.3	5.6	-	18.3	-	14.3	15.7	10.2	5.5	
	2016 Q2	6.5	10.2	15.5	8.1	8.7	7.5	6.1	11.0	27.9	-	20.4	15.8	6.5	32.5	5.9	9.1	-	3.9	17.1	-	9.8	7.7	2.1	11.4	8.9	5.5	-	12.4	-	10.6	15.5	11.1	4.8	
	2016 Q3	6.4	10.8	15.6	8.5	8.8	9.3	6.5	13.4	25.9	12.5	18.2	16.1	6.4	31.4	6.2	9.9	-	3.7	15.1	-	9.7	10.5	7.8	10.8	10.4	5.0	-	11.5	-	15.1	14.8	14.4	5.4	
	2016 Q4	6.7	10.4	14.7	7.4	8.6	5.5	5.9	13.7	26.0	-	19.2	18.1	6.4	35.7	5.0	7.9	-	3.5	17.5	-	7.1	10.5	2.4	11.0	9.2	5.3	-	11.7	-	13.1	14.3	16.4	4.9	
	2016	6.7	10.4	15.5	7.9	8.9	7.6	6.2	13.0	27.6	8.3	19.7	17.0	6.6	34.4	6.6	8.8	-	3.8	16.9	9.5	8.7	10.4	3.9	11.6	9									

Annex Table 2.A.6. Quarterly participation rates by place of birth in OECD countries, 2015-19

Total	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	78.1	75.5	68.3	77.2	84.8	...	73.8	78.3	79.2	73.3	75.2	74.8	71.6	77.2	66.5	67.5	69.3	86.8	69.1	63.2	66.3	73.6	75.1	63.0	80.9	78.0	80.4	67.9	72.6	70.7	71.1	82.2	54.7	70.7
2015 Q2	78.2	75.8	68.1	79.0	83.9	...	73.8	78.0	79.4	73.7	77.1	78.2	71.7	76.9	66.8	68.3	70.1	90.6	69.7	63.3	67.1	74.1	75.9	63.5	81.1	79.2	79.3	67.6	72.6	70.5	72.4	84.0	56.6	71.5
2015 Q3	78.2	77.4	68.3	79.5	84.6	...	74.1	78.4	79.6	73.4	78.1	76.8	72.1	77.5	67.3	69.1	70.1	89.4	70.4	62.8	65.9	74.1	76.5	63.8	81.4	79.2	78.6	68.4	72.8	71.1	73.1	84.0	57.1	71.4
2015 Q4	78.9	76.5	68.5	77.7	85.3	...	74.1	78.9	79.3	73.5	76.6	74.6	72.1	77.5	67.2	69.0	69.8	87.5	69.7	63.5	63.8	74.5	76.9	64.3	81.3	77.8	79.2	68.5	73.0	71.4	71.4	82.3	56.1	71.0
2015	78.3	76.3	68.3	78.4	84.7	64.4	73.9	78.4	79.4	73.5	76.7	76.1	71.9	77.3	66.9	68.5	69.8	88.6	69.7	63.2	65.5	74.1	76.1	63.7	81.2	78.6	79.4	68.1	72.8	70.9	72.0	83.1	56.1	71.1
2016 Q1	78.6	76.2	67.9	77.1	85.6	...	74.2	78.7	80.2	73.4	75.5	75.2	72.2	77.4	67.1	69.1	69.3	87.6	69.2	63.4	62.4	74.7	76.5	63.1	81.1	78.2	79.7	68.5	72.6	71.6	70.5	82.7	55.8	71.2
2016 Q2	78.6	76.9	68.2	78.8	85.1	...	74.6	78.7	81.1	73.6	78.2	78.2	72.1	77.5	67.3	69.8	70.4	90.8	69.5	64.7	64.0	75.8	76.8	63.6	81.4	78.6	79.8	68.6	72.7	71.9	72.3	84.6	57.6	71.7
2016 Q3	77.8	78.2	68.4	79.2	85.8	...	75.2	79.5	81.5	73.6	79.1	76.7	72.3	77.9	67.7	70.5	70.8	90.3	69.9	64.0	65.0	75.7	77.0	64.2	81.4	78.9	80.0	69.1	73.5	72.1	71.9	84.0	57.8	71.9
2016 Q4	78.1	77.1	69.0	78.0	86.0	...	75.5	79.6	80.1	73.3	76.9	74.9	72.4	77.7	67.2	70.5	70.3	88.4	69.5	64.7	65.5	75.6	76.7	63.7	81.3	77.6	81.3	69.0	73.1	72.0	72.5	82.5	57.2	71.4
2016	78.3	77.1	68.4	78.3	85.6	...	74.7	79.1	80.7	73.5	77.4	76.7	72.2	77.6	67.3	70.0	70.2	89.3	69.5	64.2	64.3	75.6	76.8	63.6	81.3	78.3	80.2	68.8	73.0	71.9	71.8	83.4	57.1	71.5
2017 Q1	78.4	76.4	68.4	77.5	84.5	...	75.3	79.1	79.1	73.1	78.1	75.7	71.9	77.7	67.4	70.1	69.9	88.0	69.2	64.5	64.0	75.5	76.5	63.2	81.1	77.4	81.8	69.1	73.2	72.1	73.4	82.9	56.9	71.3
2017 Q2	78.9	77.2	68.2	79.1	84.4	...	75.4	79.2	79.9	73.2	78.9	78.9	72.4	77.8	67.9	71.0	69.9	91.0	69.7	64.7	62.2	76.2	77.2	63.4	81.6	78.1	79.9	69.7	73.5	72.0	74.2	84.6	58.3	71.9
2017 Q3	78.5	78.0	68.9	79.4	85.0	...	76.1	79.9	80.8	73.3	79.2	77.2	72.5	78.0	67.8	71.6	72.3	88.1	69.9	64.6	65.8	76.0	78.2	63.5	81.6	77.9	81.2	69.9	74.3	72.2	75.3	84.5	59.1	72.4
2017 Q4	79.3	77.5	69.2	78.2	85.1	...	76.0	80.2	79.8	73.0	80.1	76.6	72.4	78.0	67.4	71.5	71.9	86.4	69.6	65.1	63.6	76.2	77.9	63.6	81.5	77.3	82.1	69.5	74.4	72.0	74.8	82.9	58.1	71.6
2017	78.8	77.3	68.7	78.6	84.8	65.7	75.7	79.6	79.9	73.1	79.1	77.1	72.3	77.9	67.6	71.1	71.9	88.4	69.6	64.7	63.9	76.0	77.5	63.4	81.5	77.7	81.2	69.5	73.9	72.1	74.4	83.7	58.1	71.8
2018 Q1	79.4	76.5	68.8	78.0	84.6	...	75.8	79.6	79.8	72.7	79.6	77.3	72.3	78.0	67.3	71.5	71.1	86.4	69.1	64.7	76.4	63.5	78.0	63.1	81.5	78.1	81.7	69.4	74.3	72.2	74.4	83.1	57.3	71.8
2018 Q2	79.3	77.0	68.6	79.4	84.4	...	76.2	79.4	80.5	73.0	79.1	80.2	72.3	77.8	67.9	71.8	72.0	88.7	69.5	65.5	76.9	64.2	78.1	63.9	81.8	79.1	81.3	70.2	74.4	71.9	75.6	84.9	58.6	72.3
2018 Q3	79.0	78.2	69.9	79.8	85.1	...	76.7	80.1	80.7	73.1	79.5	78.7	72.8	78.1	67.9	72.2	72.6	88.3	70.2	64.2	78.5	65.2	78.4	64.1	82.3	79.2	81.2	70.7	74.7	72.5	76.3	85.0	59.9	72.4
2018 Q4	79.2	77.6	69.8	78.3	84.9	...	76.8	80.3	80.7	72.9	79.4	77.2	72.6	78.2	67.5	72.0	86.1	86.6	69.6	65.0	77.6	65.7	77.5	64.0	82.5	78.6	81.4	70.0	74.3	72.6	75.6	83.4	58.6	72.2
2018	79.2	77.3	69.3	78.9	84.7	...	76.4	79.9	80.5	72.9	79.4	78.3	72.5	78.0	67.7	71.9	71.9	87.6	69.6	64.8	77.3	64.7	78.0	63.8	82.0	78.7	81.4	70.1	74.4	72.3	75.5	84.1	58.6	72.2
2019 Q1	79.5	77.0	69.3	78.0	84.7	...	76.4	80.0	79.6	72.6	77.7	77.3	72.3	78.1	67.7	72.3	71.8	86.8	69.6	64.8	77.8	64.7	76.7	63.9	82.3	78.4	81.5	70.0	74.2	72.8	75.5	84.1	58.1	72.2
2019 Q2	80.2	77.3	69.9	79.9	84.7	...	76.3	80.1	79.9	73.0	78.6	80.4	72.2	78.0	68.2	72.3	72.2	89.5	69.5	65.1	78.1	65.3	77.2	64.7	82.6	78.9	80.6	70.5	74.4	72.2	76.1	85.1	58.5	72.5
2019 Q3	80.1	78.4	70.6	80.6	85.0	...	76.7	80.5	80.6	73.1	79.5	79.3	72.2	78.2	68.1	72.6	72.7	87.2	69.5	64.6	78.3	66.6	78.0	64.9	82.9	79.9	80.8	71.1	75.0	72.7	76.1	85.3	59.7	73.3
2019 Q4	79.8	77.9	69.8	78.9	85.2	...	76.7	80.7	80.2	73.2	79.5	77.9	72.6	78.5	67.5	72.6	72.8	86.0	68.7	65.1	78.4	65.4	77.9	64.9	82.8	79.1	81.0	70.5	74.9	72.6	74.7	83.6	58.3	72.8
2019	79.9	77.6	69.9	79.3	84.9	...	76.5	80.3	80.1	73.0	78.8	78.7	72.3	78.2	67.9	72.4	72.4	87.4	69.3	64.9	78.1	65.5	77.5	64.6	82.7	79.1	81.0	70.5	74.6	72.6	75.6	84.5	58.6	72.7
2015 Q1	74.9	71.4	66.1	75.4	82.7	...	76.2	74.2	72.0	78.6	72.3	71.8	67.5	74.3	75.3	76.0	69.2	85.7	68.8	68.8	76.2	70.1	70.6	51.6	70.1	76.4	79.2	72.3	79.8	71.4	65.9	75.7	49.8	72.7
2015 Q2	74.7	73.0	62.1	76.7	83.2	...	76.4	74.0	71.4	79.5	74.5	71.8	67.4	75.1	77.4	77.1	70.2	88.5	80.3	70.0	77.2	73.6	73.5	53.5	70.6	75.7	78.2	65.8	80.5	67.5	70.9	77.3	50.0	72.9
2015 Q3	74.3	72.6	64.7	77.5	82.7	...	75.9	74.3	73.2	78.6	79.6	71.6	67.3	76.5	77.8	77.1	72.0	88.7	81.4	68.7	75.7	78.7	73.1	57.2	68.6	76.6	77.1	63.4	79.6	67.1	71.9	76.3	52.1	72.6
2015 Q4	74.4	72.6	64.1	77.0	83.6	...	76.9	73.8	73.3	78.2	78.6	72.0	66.2	75.6	77.0	74.7	71.4	84.4	82.5	70.5	75.8	80.2	71.5	56.6	68.7	77.6	78.4	70.5	79.3	64.5	69.9	76.6	51.6	73.2
2015	74.6	72.4	64.2	76.7	83.1	78.4	76.3	74.1	72.5	78.7	76.2	71.8	67.1	75.4	76.9	76.3	70.7	86.8	81.4	69.5	76.1	75.5	72.2	54.7	69.5	76.6	78.2	67.9	79.8	67.6	69.6	76.5	50.9	72.9
2016 Q1	74.8	71.5	64.1	77.0	84.2	...	77.8	73.3	76.1	78.1	74.4	70.5	66.6	75.5	78.0	75.8	70.6	88.2	81.2	69.2	75.9	74.2	73.3	57.9	69.3	77.3	78.4	72.7	81.3	68.0	70.4	76.0	47.3	72.9
2016 Q2	74.5	73.1	63.5	77.8	83.1	...	79.1	72.7	75.1	78.5	80.8	72.2	66.3	76.0																				

Annex Table 2.A.7. Quarterly participation rates by place of birth and gender in OECD countries, 2015-19

Men	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA		
2015 Q1	82.8	79.1	72.0	79.5	87.8	..	81.0	81.9	81.5	78.5	78.9	75.8	75.0	81.7	74.3	73.8	66.3	88.8	73.6	72.6	69.7	75.3	78.1	81.7	85.2	79.8	84.8	74.5	75.6	77.6	74.3	83.4	75.9	74.8	
2015 Q2	82.8	79.6	72.0	81.9	86.9	..	80.9	81.2	81.9	78.6	80.9	79.1	75.1	81.4	74.5	74.9	77.0	93.0	74.6	73.1	72.4	75.6	78.7	81.9	85.2	80.8	83.8	74.2	75.6	77.2	75.4	85.0	77.3	75.8	
2015 Q3	82.8	81.2	71.5	82.8	87.4	..	81.3	82.0	82.3	78.8	82.0	77.8	75.3	82.2	75.0	75.7	92.6	75.1	73.0	70.7	75.4	78.9	82.2	85.5	80.6	82.9	75.2	76.1	77.7	76.5	84.7	78.4	75.7	75.8	
2015 Q4	83.1	80.1	71.8	80.4	87.8	..	81.4	82.4	82.1	78.3	79.5	75.5	75.3	82.3	74.9	75.7	88.6	73.9	73.3	67.9	75.9	79.9	82.4	85.4	79.3	83.8	75.3	76.7	77.7	74.7	83.4	76.8	74.8		
2015	82.9	80.0	71.8	81.1	87.5	76.6	81.1	81.9	81.9	78.6	80.3	77.1	75.2	81.9	74.7	75.0	76.6	90.8	74.3	73.0	69.8	75.6	78.9	82.0	85.3	80.1	83.8	74.8	76.0	77.5	75.2	84.1	77.1	75.3	
2016 Q1	83.1	79.4	71.4	79.4	88.3	..	81.5	82.0	82.3	78.3	78.7	76.4	75.4	82.0	74.7	75.8	75.4	90.4	73.0	72.9	67.5	76.1	78.7	81.3	85.4	79.9	84.1	75.2	75.9	77.9	72.9	83.6	76.5	75.2	
2016 Q2	82.5	80.7	72.5	81.4	87.9	..	81.6	82.1	83.1	78.2	82.4	80.1	75.2	81.9	74.9	76.7	93.7	73.7	74.1	68.6	77.6	78.6	81.7	85.6	80.4	84.1	75.4	76.4	78.3	74.6	85.3	78.2	75.9	75.9	
2016 Q3	82.0	81.8	72.2	82.2	88.8	..	82.3	82.8	83.8	78.5	84.2	78.0	75.2	82.1	75.3	77.2	77.3	93.6	74.5	73.7	68.8	77.2	79.7	82.4	85.4	80.1	84.5	76.0	77.1	78.5	74.9	84.8	78.3	76.5	
2016 Q4	82.4	80.9	72.1	80.4	88.6	..	82.3	82.8	82.6	78.1	80.8	76.4	75.5	81.8	74.9	77.2	91.0	73.4	74.1	69.4	77.2	78.5	82.1	85.4	78.9	85.6	76.0	76.6	78.4	74.6	83.3	77.5	75.4	75.4	
2016	82.5	80.7	72.0	80.9	88.4	..	81.9	82.4	83.0	78.3	81.5	77.7	75.3	82.0	74.9	76.7	76.4	92.2	73.7	73.7	68.6	77.0	78.9	81.9	85.5	79.8	84.6	75.7	76.5	78.3	74.3	84.2	77.6	75.7	
2017 Q1	82.6	79.7	71.9	79.9	87.5	..	82.1	82.2	81.3	77.7	80.8	76.7	74.9	81.5	75.1	77.1	90.8	73.0	73.7	66.7	77.3	78.9	81.6	85.1	79.0	86.3	76.0	76.5	78.4	76.0	83.6	77.3	75.3	75.3	
2017 Q2	82.8	81.2	71.7	81.9	87.8	..	82.4	82.6	82.1	77.9	82.9	80.2	75.6	81.7	75.6	78.2	77.6	94.4	73.9	73.8	64.8	77.3	79.6	81.9	85.4	79.4	84.1	76.5	76.8	78.3	77.3	85.5	78.3	75.9	75.9
2017 Q3	82.3	81.9	72.4	82.4	88.2	..	83.0	83.2	82.9	78.4	83.4	78.9	75.8	81.8	75.8	78.7	91.0	74.2	74.1	68.0	77.2	80.7	82.1	85.3	79.3	84.9	77.1	77.5	78.3	77.8	85.2	79.4	76.5	75.4	
2017 Q4	82.8	81.3	72.6	80.5	87.9	..	83.0	83.3	82.0	77.7	83.3	78.0	75.6	81.7	75.9	78.7	88.8	73.2	74.1	66.7	77.6	80.2	81.8	85.3	78.9	86.0	76.7	77.9	77.9	77.1	83.7	79.9	75.5	75.5	
2017	82.6	81.0	72.2	81.1	87.8	77.4	82.6	82.8	82.1	77.9	82.6	78.4	75.5	81.7	75.5	78.2	77.5	91.3	73.6	73.9	66.5	77.4	79.9	81.8	85.3	79.2	85.3	76.6	77.1	78.2	77.0	84.5	78.2	75.8	
2018 Q1	83.0	79.8	72.4	80.0	87.2	..	82.7	82.9	81.5	77.5	82.8	78.0	75.2	81.8	75.4	78.6	88.9	72.5	73.5	78.2	66.1	80.0	81.5	85.4	79.7	85.5	76.2	77.5	78.3	76.6	84.0	77.1	76.1	76.1	
2018 Q2	83.0	81.1	71.8	81.7	87.6	..	82.9	82.7	82.4	77.8	82.7	81.2	75.3	81.6	75.7	78.8	77.1	91.6	72.6	74.3	78.7	68.1	80.8	81.8	85.4	80.8	85.1	76.9	77.3	78.5	78.6	85.7	78.4	76.5	76.5
2018 Q3	82.7	82.0	72.7	82.4	88.0	..	83.2	83.5	82.9	78.1	82.8	80.3	75.8	82.1	75.9	79.2	78.1	90.7	73.1	73.6	79.8	67.3	81.8	82.3	85.9	81.2	84.6	77.6	77.6	79.1	79.2	86.0	80.3	76.4	76.4
2018 Q4	83.0	81.7	72.6	80.4	87.8	..	83.3	83.2	83.3	77.5	83.1	78.6	75.3	82.1	75.6	79.3	77.2	88.9	72.5	74.1	78.7	70.4	78.9	81.8	86.2	80.0	85.4	77.2	77.2	78.7	78.0	84.1	78.5	75.9	75.9
2018	82.9	81.1	72.4	81.1	87.7	..	83.0	83.1	82.5	77.7	82.8	79.5	75.4	81.9	75.6	79.0	77.3	90.0	72.7	73.9	78.8	68.0	80.4	81.8	85.7	80.4	85.2	77.0	77.4	78.6	78.1	84.9	78.6	76.2	
2019 Q1	83.3	80.7	72.4	80.1	87.7	..	83.3	83.3	82.1	76.9	80.9	78.7	74.8	81.7	75.3	80.0	76.9	88.9	72.4	73.9	78.7	69.5	79.4	81.7	86.0	79.7	77.1	79.7	79.9	77.9	84.5	77.4	76.3	76.3	
2019 Q2	83.8	81.7	73.0	82.4	87.7	..	83.1	83.3	82.2	77.4	81.7	81.8	74.8	81.4	76.0	79.8	77.7	92.6	72.6	73.7	79.6	68.8	79.8	81.8	86.4	80.5	84.0	77.4	76.9	78.6	78.4	85.6	77.9	76.4	76.4
2019 Q3	83.7	82.5	73.6	83.2	87.7	..	83.2	83.6	82.8	77.6	83.3	80.7	75.1	82.0	75.9	80.4	89.8	78.2	73.7	79.3	70.7	80.1	82.3	86.4	81.7	84.1	78.3	78.1	78.8	78.3	85.9	79.5	77.2	77.2	
2019 Q4	83.1	82.0	72.8	80.9	87.7	..	83.3	83.7	82.7	77.3	81.7	78.8	75.2	82.0	75.5	80.0	78.2	87.6	71.3	73.6	79.4	68.3	79.5	81.8	86.5	81.2	84.4	78.1	77.5	78.7	75.7	84.1	77.9	76.2	76.2
2019	83.5	81.7	72.9	81.6	87.7	..	83.2	83.5	82.5	77.3	81.9	80.0	75.0	81.8	75.7	79.9	77.8	89.7	72.2	73.6	79.2	69.3	79.7	81.9	86.3	80.8	84.4	77.6	77.4	78.8	77.6	85.0	78.2	76.5	
2015 Q1	84.3	79.1	75.6	82.4	90.5	..	88.1	83.6	78.0	84.7	77.8	77.5	76.2	83.1	87.7	84.7	78.5	90.5	83.7	80.4	82.2	76.7	74.4	68.5	79.4	80.6	86.8	81.0	84.1	75.6	74.3	80.4	72.7	84.9	
2015 Q2	83.5	81.9	71.3	83.9	90.7	..	88.0	82.8	78.8	85.8	79.0	80.0	77.3	83.5	89.1	87.2	79.8	90.5	82.6	82.0	81.0	78.4	83.0	71.3	80.5	80.6	85.1	78.5	85.4	72.1	78.0	81.9	72.0	85.4	
2015 Q3	83.2	81.4	76.0	85.3	90.1	..	87.1	83.8	80.0	85.7	84.3	77.6	76.6	84.7	89.8	88.5	81.9	94.1	83.9	82.0	81.9	86.3	80.6	71.4	78.9	82.1	84.3	74.3	83.7	69.0	78.3	81.3	75.5	85.4	
2015 Q4	83.4	80.3	72.2	84.3	90.9	..	87.1	83.7	79.7	84.4	83.8	79.0	76.2	84.5	89.4	86.8	80.9	91.0	84.8	83.2	81.8	85.0	76.0	71.6	78.4	82.5	82.0	86.0	82.7	67.1	76.0	81.0	73.6	84.7	
2015	83.6	80.7	73.7	84.0	90.5	88.2	87.6	83.5	79.2	85.2	81.4	78.5	76.6	83.9	89.0	86.9	80.3	91.6	83.7	81.9	81.8	81.7	78.3	70.8	79.3	81.5	85.3	82.0	79.5	84.0	71.0	76.7	81.1	73.5	85.1
2016 Q1	83.6	78.6	73.9	84.6	90.2	..	88.1	81.9	80.0	84.9	83.1	77.3	75.8	84.7	89.2	85.8	80.8	94.5	83.7	82.5	81.1	75.9	78.3	73.7	78.7	82.4	85.6	79.0	84.3	65.6	76.4	80.8	71.7	84.6	
2016 Q2	83.1	81.3	72.1	84.6																															

Women	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
2015 Q1	73.2	71.8	64.6	74.7	81.8	...	66.4	74.7	76.9	67.9	71.5	73.7	68.2	72.7	58.7	61.4	62.3	84.8	64.4	53.6	62.8	71.9	72.2	46.0	76.6	76.1	76.2	61.2	69.7	63.9	67.6	81.0	33.4	66.7
2015 Q2	73.6	72.0	64.0	76.1	80.9	...	66.4	74.7	76.8	68.6	73.2	77.2	68.5	72.5	59.2	61.9	63.2	88.1	64.7	53.5	61.8	72.6	73.2	46.7	76.9	77.5	74.9	61.1	69.7	63.7	69.2	83.0	35.7	67.3
2015 Q3	73.5	73.6	65.0	76.2	81.7	...	66.7	74.7	76.9	67.9	74.3	75.7	68.9	72.8	59.6	62.6	63.3	86.2	65.6	52.4	60.8	72.9	74.2	47.0	77.2	77.8	74.5	61.7	69.8	64.5	69.6	83.2	35.7	67.2
2015 Q4	74.7	72.8	65.1	75.0	82.7	...	66.6	75.4	76.5	68.5	73.8	73.7	69.1	72.8	59.6	62.5	63.4	86.3	65.3	53.6	59.5	73.1	74.0	47.9	77.0	76.2	74.8	61.7	69.5	65.0	68.0	81.1	35.2	67.3
2015	73.7	72.6	64.7	75.5	81.8	53.5	66.5	74.9	76.8	68.3	73.2	75.1	68.7	72.7	59.3	62.1	63.0	86.3	65.3	53.3	61.1	72.6	73.4	46.9	76.9	75.1	61.4	69.7	64.3	68.6	82.1	35.0	67.1	
2016 Q1	74.2	72.9	64.3	74.8	82.8	...	66.8	75.3	77.9	68.4	72.3	74.0	69.0	72.9	59.5	62.5	63.2	84.7	65.3	53.8	57.4	73.4	74.4	46.5	76.8	76.6	75.5	61.8	69.5	65.3	67.9	81.6	34.9	67.3
2016 Q2	74.6	73.1	63.9	76.1	82.1	...	67.3	75.1	78.9	68.8	74.1	76.4	69.1	73.2	59.9	63.0	64.4	87.7	65.1	55.1	59.2	74.2	75.1	47.0	77.1	76.7	75.7	61.9	69.3	65.8	69.8	83.8	36.8	67.6
2016 Q3	73.6	74.5	64.5	76.0	82.7	...	67.8	76.1	79.1	68.6	74.2	75.4	69.4	73.6	60.3	63.9	64.3	86.8	65.2	54.2	61.2	74.2	74.5	47.6	77.3	77.6	75.6	62.2	70.0	65.5	68.8	83.2	37.1	67.5
2016 Q4	73.8	73.2	65.7	75.6	83.2	...	68.5	76.3	77.6	68.5	73.1	73.4	69.3	73.7	59.7	63.9	64.2	85.7	65.4	55.3	61.7	74.1	75.0	47.0	77.0	76.2	77.2	62.0	69.9	65.4	70.3	81.6	36.6	67.5
2016	74.1	73.4	64.6	75.6	82.7	...	67.6	75.7	78.4	68.6	73.4	74.8	69.2	73.3	59.9	63.3	64.0	86.2	65.3	54.6	59.9	74.0	74.8	47.0	77.1	76.8	76.0	62.0	69.7	65.4	70.2	82.5	36.4	67.5
2017 Q1	74.2	73.0	64.7	75.0	81.5	...	68.3	75.8	76.9	68.3	75.5	74.7	68.9	73.9	59.8	63.3	66.1	85.4	65.3	55.2	61.2	73.7	74.3	46.5	77.0	75.6	77.4	62.3	70.1	65.7	70.6	82.2	36.3	67.5
2017 Q2	75.0	73.1	64.5	76.3	80.9	...	68.2	75.8	77.6	68.3	75.0	77.6	69.2	73.8	60.4	64.0	66.2	87.6	65.3	55.4	59.6	75.1	74.9	46.7	77.6	76.6	75.8	62.9	70.5	65.6	71.0	83.7	38.1	68.0
2017 Q3	74.8	74.2	65.4	76.4	81.7	...	69.0	76.5	78.6	67.9	75.1	75.5	69.3	74.1	59.7	64.6	66.4	84.9	65.5	55.0	63.6	74.8	75.7	46.6	77.9	76.5	77.6	62.6	71.4	66.1	72.7	83.7	38.5	68.3
2017 Q4	75.8	73.7	65.7	76.0	82.3	...	68.9	77.0	77.6	68.1	76.9	75.1	69.3	74.3	59.5	64.5	66.5	83.8	65.8	55.9	60.4	74.9	75.7	47.0	77.6	75.7	78.2	62.3	71.2	66.1	72.3	82.0	38.1	67.8
2017	75.0	73.5	65.1	75.9	81.6	55.2	68.6	76.3	77.7	68.2	75.6	75.7	69.1	74.0	59.8	64.1	65.3	85.4	65.5	55.4	61.2	74.6	75.2	46.7	77.5	76.1	77.3	62.5	70.8	65.9	71.7	82.9	37.7	67.9
2018 Q1	75.7	73.1	65.2	75.9	81.9	...	68.8	76.2	78.1	67.7	76.4	76.6	69.4	74.2	59.2	64.4	65.3	83.8	65.6	55.6	74.7	61.0	76.1	46.4	77.5	76.4	78.0	62.7	71.3	65.9	72.1	82.2	37.3	67.6
2018 Q2	75.7	72.7	65.3	77.1	81.0	...	69.3	75.9	78.6	68.1	75.6	79.1	69.5	73.9	60.1	64.9	66.8	85.7	66.3	56.4	75.1	60.3	75.4	47.5	78.1	77.3	77.5	63.6	71.8	65.3	73.2	84.0	38.6	68.2
2018 Q3	75.2	74.3	67.0	77.2	82.0	...	69.9	76.7	78.4	67.9	76.3	77.0	69.7	74.2	60.0	65.3	67.1	85.7	67.2	54.6	77.3	63.1	75.2	47.5	78.5	77.1	77.9	63.8	71.9	65.9	73.8	83.9	39.3	68.6
2018 Q4	75.5	73.3	66.9	76.1	82.0	...	70.1	77.3	78.1	68.1	75.7	75.7	70.0	74.3	59.5	64.8	67.0	84.4	66.6	55.8	76.5	60.9	76.1	47.9	78.6	77.1	77.6	62.8	71.5	66.5	73.1	82.7	38.5	68.7
2018	75.5	73.4	66.1	76.6	81.7	...	69.5	76.5	78.3	67.9	76.0	77.1	69.7	74.2	59.7	64.9	66.6	84.9	66.4	55.6	75.9	61.3	75.7	47.3	78.2	77.0	77.7	63.2	71.6	65.9	72.7	83.2	38.4	68.3
2019 Q1	75.8	73.2	66.1	75.8	81.8	...	69.6	76.6	77.0	68.2	74.6	75.9	69.8	74.4	60.1	64.7	66.8	84.4	66.8	56.0	76.9	59.5	74.2	47.7	78.6	77.0	78.1	63.2	71.5	66.5	72.9	83.6	38.6	68.2
2019 Q2	76.5	72.8	66.8	77.3	81.6	...	69.3	76.8	77.5	68.5	75.5	78.9	69.6	74.6	60.5	64.9	66.8	86.2	66.3	56.4	76.6	61.6	74.6	49.0	78.8	77.3	77.3	63.6	72.1	65.7	73.5	84.6	39.0	68.7
2019 Q3	76.5	74.2	67.4	77.8	82.3	...	69.8	77.4	78.3	68.5	75.5	78.0	69.4	74.4	60.3	65.2	67.0	84.4	66.3	55.2	77.3	62.3	76.0	49.1	79.2	77.9	77.5	63.8	72.1	66.5	73.7	84.8	39.6	69.4
2019 Q4	76.5	73.7	66.8	76.9	82.6	...	69.7	77.5	77.6	68.9	77.2	76.9	70.0	74.9	59.6	65.2	67.4	84.2	66.0	56.4	77.4	62.4	76.2	49.7	79.1	76.8	77.7	62.8	72.5	66.5	73.8	83.1	38.4	69.6
2019	76.3	73.5	66.8	76.9	82.1	...	69.6	77.1	77.6	68.5	75.7	77.4	69.7	74.6	60.1	65.0	67.0	84.8	66.4	56.0	77.1	61.5	75.3	48.8	78.9	77.2	77.7	63.4	72.0	66.3	73.5	84.0	38.9	69.0
2015 Q1	66.0	64.4	57.3	68.9	74.9	...	63.9	64.9	66.7	73.1	68.0	66.5	59.6	66.1	64.5	68.7	60.5	81.6	79.7	58.9	69.9	65.0	67.7	36.3	61.9	71.9	71.9	64.9	76.3	68.0	57.3	71.4	29.1	60.8
2015 Q2	66.1	64.8	53.9	70.1	75.5	...	65.2	65.3	65.2	73.8	70.9	64.4	58.5	67.4	66.9	68.1	61.4	86.4	78.4	59.8	73.1	69.8	66.9	36.7	62.2	70.5	71.7	55.5	76.4	63.6	63.3	73.1	31.1	60.7
2015 Q3	65.8	64.5	54.2	70.4	75.3	...	64.5	64.9	66.8	72.3	74.9	66.3	59.2	68.7	67.3	66.6	62.6	82.8	79.4	57.6	69.3	71.4	68.2	42.6	59.7	70.8	70.3	50.6	76.4	65.6	64.6	71.8	31.6	60.0
2015 Q4	65.8	65.5	56.5	70.2	76.3	...	66.5	64.1	67.3	72.5	73.3	65.5	57.3	67.5	65.9	63.9	62.6	76.4	80.5	59.8	69.5	76.1	68.3	41.3	60.3	72.4	71.9	56.8	76.5	62.4	63.3	72.5	32.0	61.7
2015	65.9	64.8	55.5	69.9	75.5	69.8	65.0	64.8	66.5	72.9	71.6	65.7	58.7	67.4	66.1	66.8	61.8	81.8	79.5	59.0	70.1	70.4	67.8	39.2	61.0	71.4	71.4	57.1	76.4	64.9	62.0	72.2	31.0	60.8
2016 Q1	66.4	65.1	54.8	70.0	78.1	...	67.5	64.9	73.0	72.1	69.0	64.8	58.8	67.0	67.7	67.2	61.1	81.8	78.9	58.0	70.6	72.9	69.9	41.8	61.4	72.0	71.5	66.2	78.8	68.3	64.1	71.6	27.1	61.3
2016 Q2	66.2	65.4	55.4	71.5	76.4	...	68.5	64.6	70.5	72.7	73.7	66.2	57.4	67.6	67.3	70.0	63.3	91.4	80.2	58.6														

Notes

¹ The over-qualification rate is the share of the highly educated, i.e. educated to ISCED Levels 5-8, who work in a job that is ISCO-classified as low- or medium-skilled, i.e. ISCO Levels 4-9.

² The long-term unemployment rate is the share of job seekers who have been without a job for at least 12 months among all the unemployed.

3

How does migration shape industry structure?

Migrants are not equally distributed across the economy. They are strongly concentrated in a number of sectors, especially in low-skilled services but also in information technology and manufacturing. This raises the question of the impact of migration on sectoral development. With the asymmetric employment impact of the COVID-19 crisis across sectors, and the essential role of migrants in certain key sectors, there is a renewed interest in the links between sectors and migration. This chapter provides a first comprehensive comparative overview of the presence of migrants across sectors in OECD countries. It also assesses how migration policy instruments are associated with specific sectors, with a focus on agriculture, hospitality, and IT. Migration has sectoral implications, whether these are intentional or not. Being aware of the sectoral dimension of migration is a precondition for reaping potential benefits for specific sectors where intended, as well as for avoiding unintended adverse impact.

In Brief

Key findings

- Migrants are not equally distributed across the economy. There are large differences in the sectoral presence of migrants, with a strong overrepresentation in services sectors with high shares of lower-skilled workers. In OECD Europe, Israel and the United States, while the overall share of migrants in the workforce is 16%, 24% and 18%, respectively, the share of migrants across sectors varies from 53% (United States: 50%, Israel: 66%) in domestic services and 27% (United States: 24%) in accommodation and food services, to 6% (United States: 9%) in electricity, gas and air conditioning supply and 6% (United States: 9%, Israel: 11%) in public administration and defence.
- In the settlement countries, such as Canada, Australia and New Zealand, the overall share of migrants is respectively 25%, 30% and 32%. While migrants are also over-represented in hospitality and support service activities in these countries, sectors with higher shares of workers with highly skilled occupations also concentrate many migrants. These include in particular information and communication (33%) and real estate (32%) in Canada, finance in Australia (almost 37%) and health and social care in New Zealand. Migrants are under-represented in public service sectors, although to a lesser extent than in Europe or the United States, and not in New Zealand.
- Between 2005 and 2018, migrants have contributed to more than half of the overall increase of the employment in five sectors in the United States (finance, transport and storage, agriculture, information and communication, and other services). In Europe, this is also true for the hospitality sector. Migrants were also the only contributors to the employment growth in domestic services in Europe, Israel and the United States.
- Concentration across sectors differs between countries. While in most longstanding European destination countries, Australia, and the United States, migrants are overrepresented in services sectors with a large percentage of low-skilled employment, this is not the case in Canada, Central and Eastern European countries, where migrants tend to be more concentrated in some higher-skilled manufacturing sectors and Information Technology (IT). Foreign nationals in Japan and migrants in the United States and Israel also tend to be concentrated in many manufacturing industries.
- Concentration has increased over time. In Europe, sectors in which migrants were already strongly overrepresented in 2005 have also seen the strongest growth in migrant employment by 2018, while the reverse was the case in sectors where migrants were under-represented. The picture was more uneven in Canada, Australia, Israel and the United States, however.
- Concentration declines with duration of stay. Recent arrivals are a lot more concentrated in certain sectors than longstanding migrants. Recent migrants are disproportionately often found in accommodation and food services. They are also over-represented in the information technology sector, which has become an important entry sector for newcomers since the early 2000s. In contrast, they are much less likely to be employed in the health and social services sector, compared with their settled peers, because they must satisfy certain employment requirements – notably for foreign credential recognition – that may take years to complete.

- In most European OECD countries, migrants from EU countries tend to be concentrated in similar sectors as migrants from non-EU countries, but usually in a higher position. Indeed, in European countries, the share of EU migrants in low-skilled occupations is significantly lower than that of their non-EU peers in all sectors (bar real estate). There are significant differences in the sectoral concentration between the EU and non-EU migrants only in Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.
- While migrants are most often found in the sectors with a large share of workers in low-skilled occupations, they are also overrepresented among the highly skilled occupations in these sectors, with agriculture being a notable exception.
- Relative to their native-born peers, migrant men and women are both over-represented in domestic services, hospitality and services to buildings. This pattern is the same in the United States and Europe. The one notable exception is construction, where migrant men are concentrated but migrant women are not.
- The strong differences of migrants' presence across sectors and the observed differences across countries and migrant groups raise the question to what degree migration policies may affect employment distribution by sector.
- Migration policy instruments that favour specific sectors are quite limited notably in OECD settlement countries and Europe. Australia has however implemented since 2019 a programme targeting very highly skilled workers in seven top sectors. From 2021 onwards, New Zealand will also implement sector agreements to facilitate the recruitment of temporary migrant workers. Italy is one example that has had a sector-based approach for some of its regularisation programmes implemented over the last decades. To the contrary, Japan, Korea and Israel have traditionally given more weight to sector-based migration policies.
- The agriculture sector appears as one exception. Almost half of all OECD countries have a specific programme for this sector, which is often viewed as essential not only in ensuring food supply, but also with respect to regional and rural development. Most programmes support seasonal peaks in labour demand. It is not uncommon in OECD countries that the majority of seasonal agricultural workers are migrants. They account for 90% of such workers in Germany, for example. All migration programmes for this sector are temporary, often of the circular kind with the same migrants coming back every year. In Europe, the importance of managed seasonal work programmes has declined strongly since the EU enlargements of 2004 and 2007, as most seasonal agricultural workers came from these previous accession countries and now benefit from free mobility.
- Working Holiday Maker (WHM) and similar youth mobility schemes are important non-economic temporary migration categories, in which the visa holders are able to take a job without undergoing the usual requirements for admission as a labour migrant. While the hospitality sector tends to be the largest employer of WHM, in some countries many of them are also working in agriculture. In Australia, for example, an estimated 81 000 WHM worked in agriculture in 2018, almost ten times the number of migrants admitted as foreign seasonal workers.
- While no OECD country has specific migration policy instruments in place to support the hospitality sector, still about one fourth of total employment in Europe, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States in this sector are migrants. The non-standard working times and working opportunities concentrated during the holiday season may explain this result.
- While migrants are dramatically over-represented in domestic work virtually everywhere, few OECD countries have specific migration policies for this sector. One of the exceptions are Israel and Canada. The latter has a large and longstanding programme for domestic caregivers. In Canada in 2016, 60% of the domestic personnel were migrants, most of whom were recent arrivals.

- While there are no specific programmes directly targeted at the IT sector with the exception of Japan, it strongly benefits from a broad range of policies favouring migration of IT professionals. This profession is regularly included in shortage occupation lists where they exist, and some countries such as Germany have specific waivers for qualification or skills requirements that otherwise apply. In the United States, half of all foreign-born workers in the IT sector were from India in 2018. In Europe, the region of origin of foreign-born workers in the sector is much more diverse.
- Consideration of sectoral elements in migration policy can support specific sectors where intended. Being aware of this dimension is also necessary to avoid unintended adverse impact. This is particularly important in a context where OECD countries are facing a strong economic crisis, which tends to have an uneven economic impact across sectors.

Introduction

There is extensive literature on the economic impact of migration in OECD countries, notably on the labour market, with a wealth of studies on how migration affects employment and wages of native-born. For instance, extensive research focused on how migration affects the job polarisation (i.e. the growth at the bottom and at the top of the skills distribution). Migrants tend to specialise in manual intensive tasks and push local low-skilled workers towards non-manual jobs, and highly skilled ones to better wages (Murphy and Oesch, 2018^[1]; Foged and Peri, 2015^[2]). Trade economists have also long shown the importance of factor mobility on the distribution of employment by sectors notably according to comparative advantages. However, migration and labour economists have paid little attention so far to the importance of migration on sectoral development and to the extent to which easier access to foreign labour force may influence the localisation choice of firm and economic growth in specific sectors.

Many factors affect industry structure, including technology, labour and capital – both regarding their nature and regarding intensity. Though migration can affect all factors, its predominant effects are on the price, composition and availability of labour. To what degree the sectoral¹ structure of an economy is shaped by the supply of labour – whether migrant² or native-born – in turn depends on a range of factors. These include sector competitiveness, its labour intensity, the tradability of the goods and services it produces³, and whether the good or service is a final or intermediate product. These factors can change over time and are interlinked. Technological change, may also change the composition of labour demand as it tends to be skills biased (Acemoglu, 2002^[3]). Skill-biased technological change has actually affected the job polarisation, which has led to a growth of some sectors and shrinking of others. However, investment in technologies, saving labour – notably of the low-skilled kind – depends on the price and scarcity of labour. For example, after the “Bracero” agreement termination in 1964 in the United States, employers appear to have adjusted to a more stringent access to foreign-worker by changing production techniques where that was possible (Clemens, Lewis and Postel, 2018^[4]). Some countries with high entry wage and limited low skilled workforce (e.g. Nordic countries and Japan) have experienced higher automation of low skilled services. In other contexts, some authors (Basso, Peri and Rahman, 2017^[5]) have indeed shown for the United States that unskilled immigration may attenuate the drop in routine employment proceeding from technological change.

The question of the impact of migration on sectoral structure is complex because it is associated with a plethora of different factors, including behaviours of economic actors (such as domestic and foreign investors, employers regarding technological choices, education and training decisions for young people, etc.). It is also linked with country endowment (potential for tourism and agriculture, etc.).

Isolating the impact of labour migration policy rather than migration is even more challenging as in virtually all OECD countries, only a minority of migrant workers are admitted specifically for purposes of

employment, although settlement countries (Australia, Canada and New Zealand), put an emphasis on high human capital in their migration policy, through Expression of Interest or Point-Based systems. What is more, labour migrants who have been admitted for a specific job can change sectors thereafter – at least once they have obtained permanent residence or after some years of stay. Nevertheless, there is the important question to what degree labour migration policies may affect offshoring (Ottaviano, Peri and Wright, 2010^[6]), foreign and domestic investment in specific sectors, as well as employment and productivity growth.

This chapter tries to shed some light on the links between migration and industry structure by first assessing the presence of migrants across sectors and countries, and then taking a closer look at the immigration policy parameters that affect sectoral distribution of employment. This issue is particularly pertinent now as with the strongly asymmetric impact of the COVID-19 crisis across sectors, and the essential role of migrants in key sectors, there is a renewed interest in the links between sectors and migration.

The first section provides a general overview of the presence of the foreign-born across sectors, and how their composition has evolved over the past two decades. This is followed by an analysis of the concentration of migrants in relation to sector growth and an assessment of how migrant characteristics are associated with sectoral distribution. The next section takes a closer look at the links between migration policy and sectors, starting with an overview of sectoral impact of migration policy design, followed by a closer look at the examples of seasonal agriculture, the hospitality industry (often also referred as Hotels, Restaurants and Catering – Horeca), and the Information and Technology (IT) sector. The final section concludes with the implications of the analysis for the links between migration policy and industrial policy-making, including in the context of the COVID-19 crisis.

Overview of the presence of migrants across sectors in OECD countries

The presence of migrant workers in the labour markets of OECD countries has increased over the last 15 years virtually everywhere. While 9% of the population in employment were foreign-born in European OECD countries in 2005, that share reached 14% in 2018 (Figure 3.2). The corresponding shares were 16% and 18%, respectively, in the United States, 26% and 30% in Australia, 22% and 32% in New Zealand. In 2016, the share of foreign-born among the employed in Canada was 25% and 1% in Japan in 2015. In 2019, it was 24% in Israel, a notable exception among OECD countries, since that share was 33% in 2005. However, migrants are not equally distributed across sectors. This section provides an overview of the presence of migrants across sectors and how it has evolved over time. Data by sector used two sets of industry classification – one aggregated and one disaggregated – to avoid sample size issues as much as possible (see Annex 3.A). The disaggregation level has obvious impact on the analysis, as breakdowns that are more detailed tend to reveal larger differences between migrants and the native-born. The most detailed classification has been used wherever possible, to strengthen the conclusions drawn.

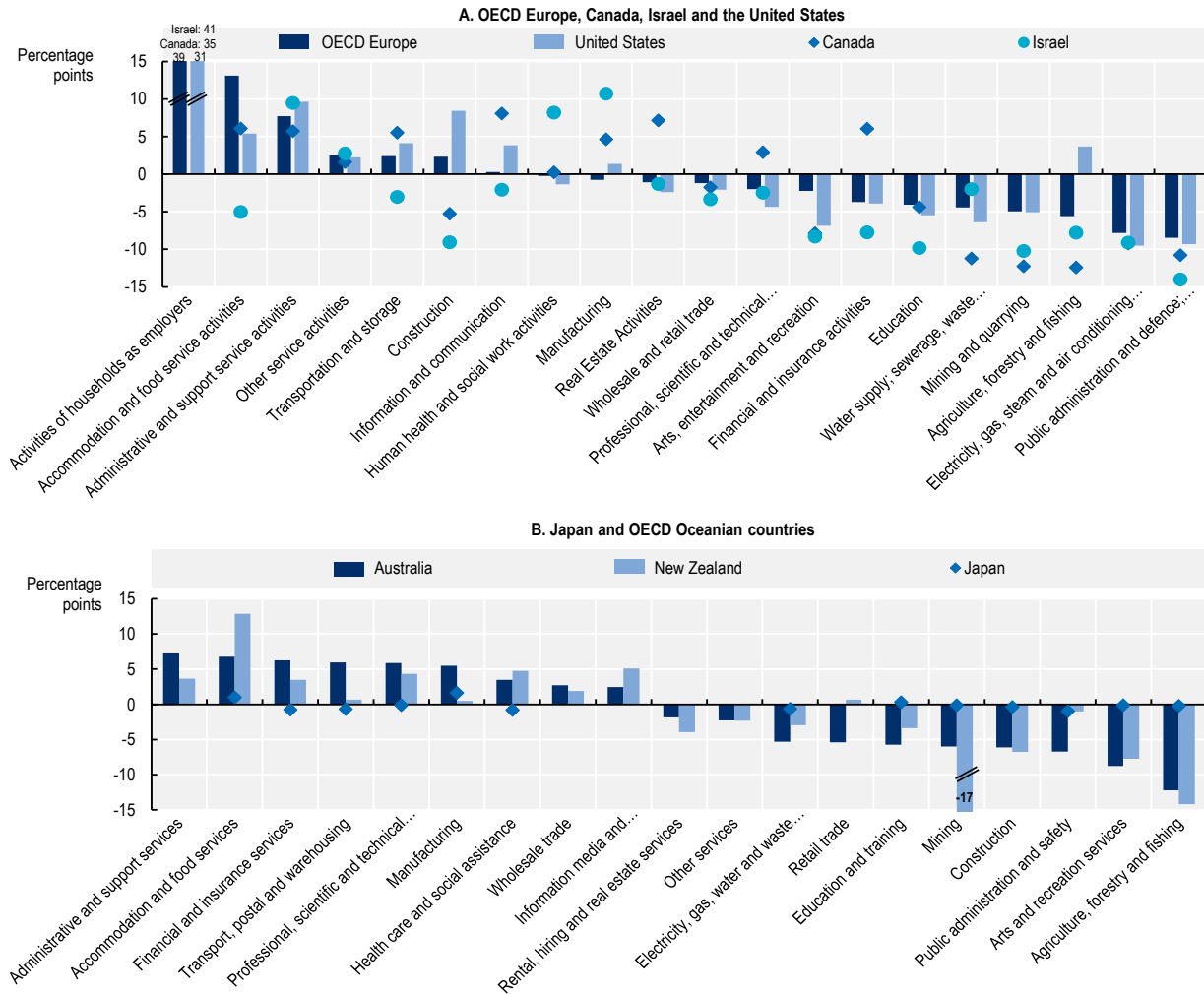
The presence of migrants across sectors and their evolution

The contribution of migrants to the population in employment varies widely across sectors in all OECD countries. Services sectors with the highest shares of workers in lower-skilled occupations are also the sectors in which the share of migrant workers is the highest. In contrast, migrants are under-represented⁴ in public administration and in sectors with high shares of highly skilled employment, with the notable exception of Information Technology (IT). This holds in Europe, Israel and in the United States (Figure 3.1). The sector in which migrants are most strongly present are the so-called “activities of households as employers”, which includes domestic personnel employed by households. A large and growing number of migrants provides services to households in virtually all European countries, Israel, Canada (see Box 3.2),

and the United States. In the latter, the share of migrants in employment by private households has increased from 39% in 2005 to almost 50% in 2018 (Figure 3.2). The trend was even stronger in European countries, where the share increased from 36% to 53%. In three quarters of OECD countries, the share of migrants in domestic personnel is at least twice as high than in the economy overall. While both the number and the share of migrants employed in this sector has grown, not only the share but also the number of native-born providing these services has dropped virtually everywhere.

Figure 3.1. Share of migrants in OECD countries, by sector, 2018

Difference in percentage points with the overall share of migrants in employment



Note: Data for Japan refer to foreign nationals, not foreign-born. Panel A.: ISIC, Panel B: ANZSIC. Australian data refer to the population in employment aged 15-64 only. The overall share of foreign-born is 14% in OECD Europe, 18% in the United States, 24% in Israel, 25% in Canada, 30% in Australia, 32% in New Zealand and 1% in Japan.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2018, Current Population Survey (CPS) 2018, Canadian Census 2016. Japanese Census 2015⁵, Australian LFS 2017, New Zealand LFS 2019, Israel LFS 2019.

In Europe, the sector with the second-largest shares of migrants is hospitality with 27%, followed by administrative and support service activities (22%), which include security and cleaning services to buildings. In the United States, and Oceanian OECD countries (Figure 3.1), these two sectors are also in the top five (with 24% and 28%, respectively in the United States, 37% for both sectors in Australia, and 44% and 35% in New Zealand), though construction in the United States (27%) and Finance in Australia (almost 37%) actually comes third. In New Zealand, behind hospitality, the highest shares of migrants are in information, media and telecommunication and health care and social assistance, with 36% each. In Israel, while migrants are actually under-represented in hospitality (20%), they are over-represented in administrative and support services (35%) and in manufacturing (36%). In Canada, by contrast, while migrants are also over-represented in hospitality and support service activities, the sectors with the largest shares of migrants are those with higher shares of workers with highly skilled occupations. These include in particular information and communication (33%) as well as real estate (32%). Concentration of foreign-born in sectors with a large share of highly skilled employment is linked with the country's focus on higher capital economic migration (see OECD (2019^[7]) for a discussion of the key features of the Canadian migration system). In Japan, given the overall small number of migrants, the share of migrants remain low in all sectors, but it is almost three times the average in manufacturing (3%) and twice in hospitality.

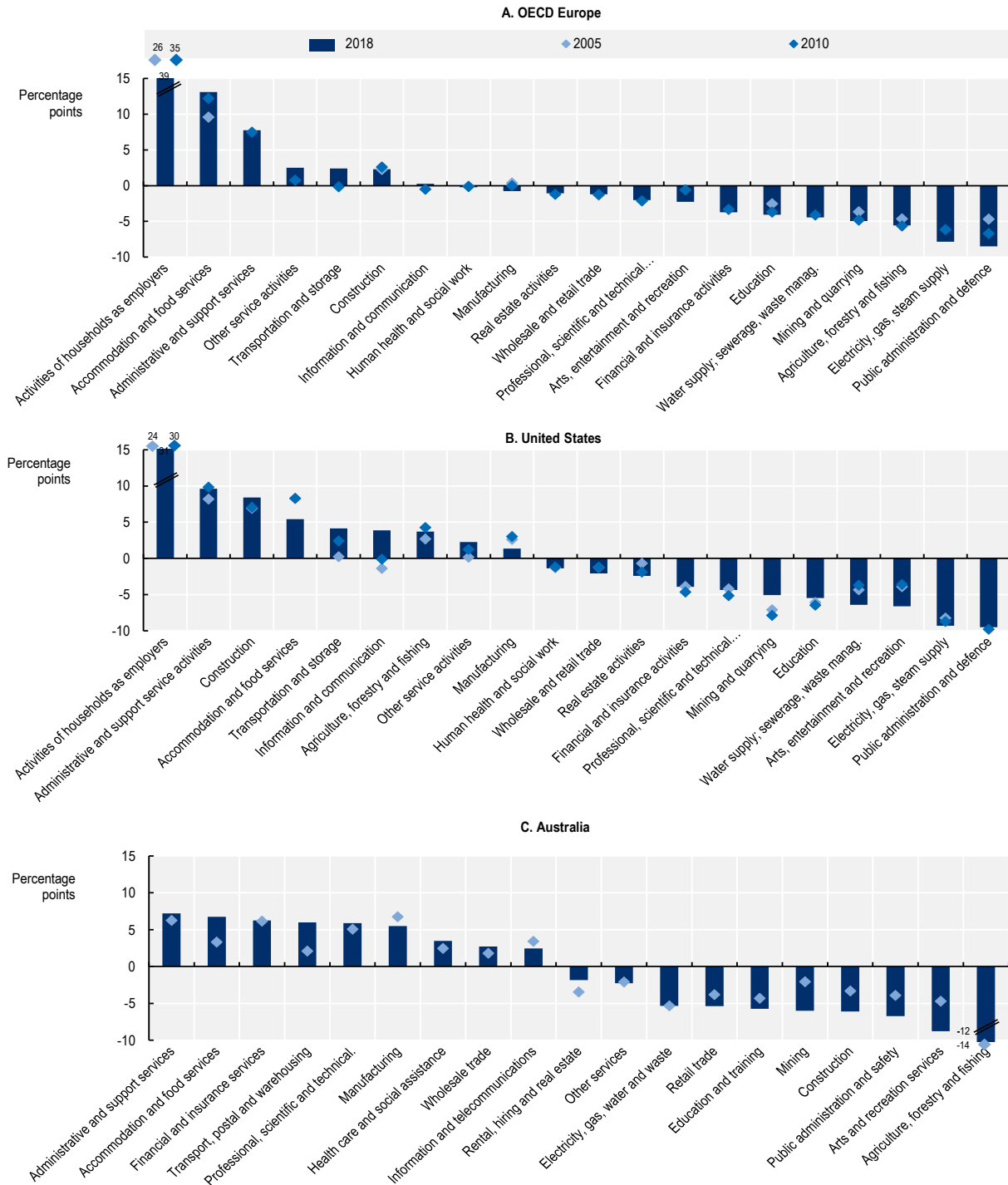
In contrast, migrants account for only a small share of the employed in energy supply (6% in Europe, 9% in the United States and 16% in Canada), mining and quarrying (9% in Europe, 13% in Canada, 15% in Israel and New Zealand, and 24% in Australia), arts and entertainment in the United States, Australia and New Zealand (12%, 21% and 24%) and water supply and sewerage in Canada (14%). In all OECD countries, however, with the exception of New Zealand, migrants are under-represented in public service sectors⁶, although to a lesser extent in Australia and Canada. In public administration, the share of migrants is only 0.3% in Japan, 6% in Europe, 9% in the United States and 11% in Israel (Figure 3.1). In the human health and social work sector, which includes both public and private services, 14% of the population in employment was foreign-born in 2018 in Europe, 17% in the United States, 25% in Canada, 33% in Israel, 34% in Australia and 36% in New Zealand.

Beyond these general trends, there are a few country specificities. In the Baltic countries, Canada, Iceland, Japan, Israel, the Netherlands and the United States, migrants are concentrated in manufacturing, especially in textile industry (see Annex Table 3.B.1). In Central European countries, there is no clear pattern, and foreign-born tend to be present in quite heterogeneous sectors. In the Southern European countries, migrants are particularly under-represented in both public services and in the sectors where shares of highly skilled workers are the highest, such as finance, information-communication, and professional, scientific and technical activities⁷. Compared to the average of OECD-Europe, the importance of migrants in domestic services is more limited in Sweden and Finland. A number of countries also have a high share of migrants in IT, such as the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, France, Ireland, Finland and Luxembourg.

Looking at the evolution since 2005, sectoral disparities in the presence of migrants have grown. The share of migrants in the sectors, which already had a high share of migrants in 2005, has also grown disproportionately since, while the reverse was the case in sectors where migrants were under-represented.

Figure 3.2. Share of foreign-born in OECD countries, by sector, 2005 to 2018

Difference in percentage points with the overall share of foreign-born in employment



Note: Panel A. As data for 2005 are not consistently available for all sectors, 2010 data were added for comparison. Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies have been excluded. The overall share of foreign born in employment was 9% in 2005, 11% in 2010 and 14% in 2018. Panel B. The overall share of foreign born in employment was 16% in 2005, 17% in 2010 and 18% in 2018. Panel C. The classification used is ANZSIC. The figure refers to 2007 instead of 2005 and 2017 instead of 2018. The overall share of foreign born in employment was 26% in 2007 and 30% in 2017. Australian data refer to the population in employment aged 15 64 only. Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) with data from Current Population Surveys (CPS 2005, 2010, 2018), European Union (EU-LFS 2005, 2010, 2018) and Australian Labour Force Surveys (2007, 2017).

While this picture is rather clear-cut in Europe, there are many exceptions in Israel, where the disparities between migrants and natives have dropped in half of the sectors, although neither in domestic work, where the presence of migrants has increased, nor in the public administration, where they were even more under-represented than in 2019. There are also some notable exceptions in Australia and the United States (Figure 3.2) – notably a decline in manufacturing and, in the United States, in the Horeca sector. Most European countries and Australia, in contrast, experienced an increase in migrants' presence in this sector. It was particularly pronounced in Austria, Germany, Ireland, Spain and Nordic countries.

Other services sectors involving many low-skilled workers have also seen migrants becoming a larger part of their labour force. In the transportation and storage sector, the share of migrants has increased by almost 6 percentage points over the last ten years⁸, in both Europe and the United States (Figure 3.2), with even higher increases in the German-speaking countries, Australia and the Nordic countries.

The share of migrants has not only increased in sectors with large shares of low-skilled jobs. Both in European countries and the United States, migrant workers are playing an increasing role in high-value-added sectors such as finance, real estate or information and communication. In the latter, the share of migrants reaches almost 17% in European countries and 29% in the United States, where the share of migrants was already 21% in 2005.

Concentration of foreign-born across sectors and their evolution

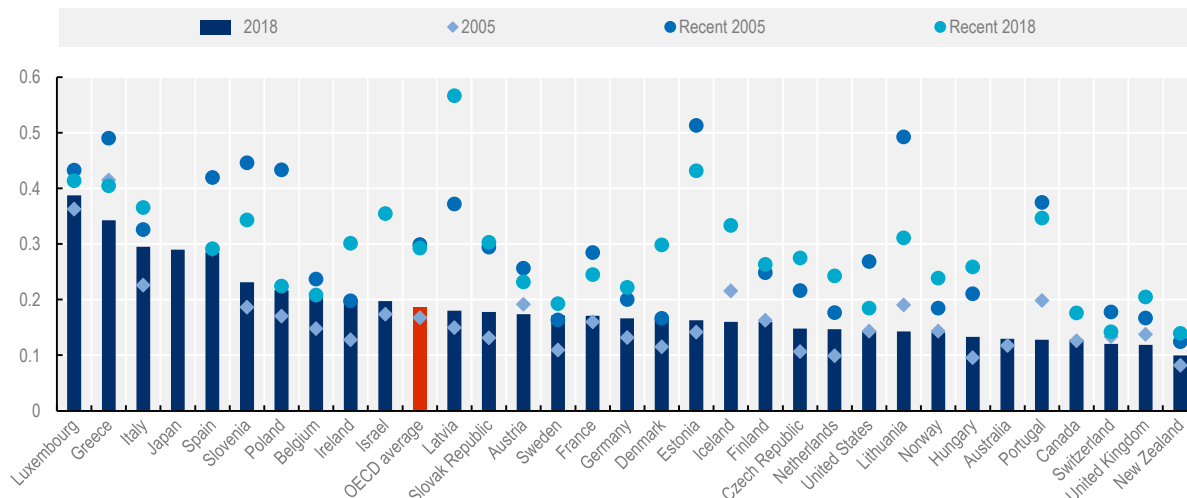
On average in the OECD, one fifth of migrants would need to change sectors to reach the same sectoral distribution as their native peers (Figure 3.3). Sectoral polarisation is particularly high in Luxembourg, Japan and the Southern European countries (bar Portugal). In these countries, more than a quarter of migrants would need to change sectors to reach the same distribution as the native-born. By contrast, it is relatively low in non-European settlement countries, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, Portugal, Baltic countries (bar Estonia), Hungary and the United States where less than 15% of migrants would need to change sector to equal native distribution. Although differences in sectors between foreign- and native-born are important, they are, however, only half of those observed between men and women, both in Europe and in the United States.

Compared with 2005, the concentration of migrants in certain sectors has grown virtually everywhere. There are only a few exceptions such as the Southern European countries (bar Italy) and Switzerland, where migrants are less sectoral-concentrated than before.

Recent migrants tend to be even more concentrated in specific sectors. Newcomers tend to have fewer choices at arrival, because either their work options are constrained by their permit, or because access to certain jobs takes more time (learning the host-country language, recognition of skills, etc.). Many new arrivals initially take a job below their formal qualifications and rely on their networks. In contrast with the overall increase in the concentration of migrants, the evolution for recent migrants is more mixed. It has actually decreased since 2005 in about half of the countries, especially in countries with previous high levels of dissimilarity such as in Central and Eastern Europe (Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia).

Figure 3.3. Sectoral concentration of migrants has increased in most countries

Dissimilarity index, 2005 and 2018, migrants and recent migrants (less than five years of stay)



Note: The dissimilarity index is defined as half the sum of the absolute values of the differences between the distribution of the foreign-born across industries (ISIC) and the distribution of the native-born across industries. The index is calculated on 21 industries, except for Australia and New Zealand (19 industries). Data for Japan refer to foreign nationals, not foreign-born.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS 2005 and 2018), Current Population Survey (CPS 2005 and 2018), Canada: Census 2016 and LFS 2008. Japanese Census 2015, Australian LFS 2007 and 2017, New Zealand LFS 2005 and 2019, Israel LFS 2005 and 2019.

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Differences by migrant characteristics

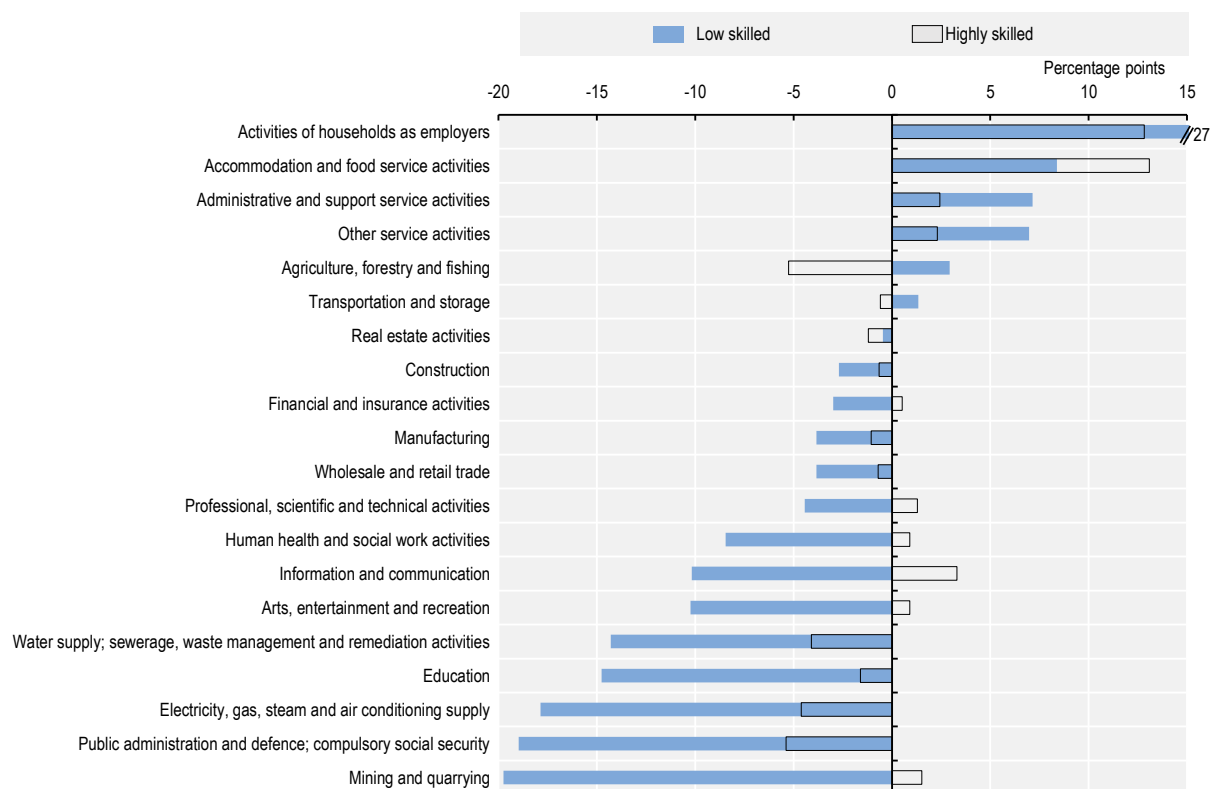
Migrant presence across sectors by occupational skills levels

As seen above, migrants are disproportionately present in sectors with high shares of lower-skilled employment⁹. This raises the question whether this could be due to the fact that migrant workers are in general concentrated in low-skilled jobs. Figure 3.4 sheds some light on this issue by looking at the share of migrants by sector and skills level for European countries. In sectors where migrants are overrepresented, this overrepresentation generally holds for both high- and low-skilled employment. In other words, migrant workers, in both Europe and Israel, are concentrated regardless of their skills level.

There are a number of exceptions to this pattern, however. In hospitality, migrants in Europe are even more over-represented among highly skilled workers (mainly managers) than among the low skilled. In agriculture, migrants in both Europe and Israel are strongly overrepresented among the low-skilled workers, but under-represented among those in high-skilled occupations (mainly farmers and other specialised workers). In a number of services sectors with high shares of highly skilled workers, especially in the information and communication sector, the reverse is the case – migrants being overrepresented in highly skilled occupations but not in low-skilled ones.

Figure 3.4. Share of migrants in OECD European countries among low- and highly skilled workers, by sector, 2016-18

Difference in percentage points with the respective share of foreign-born in low- or highly skilled occupations



Source: European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2016-18.

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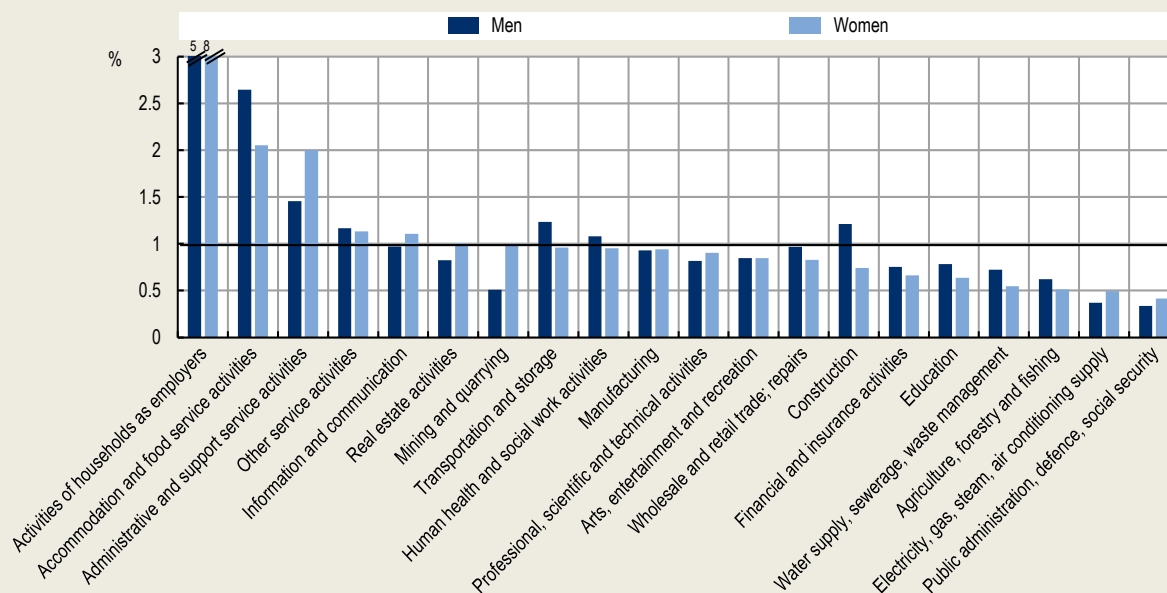
Box 3.1. Gender differences in the sectoral distribution of migrants

Migrant men and women tend to be overrepresented in the same sectors. At the same time, sectors where migrant men or women are over-represented are the same where native-born men or women are also present. There is one notable exception, however. In accommodation and food services, migrant men are over-represented compared with migrant women, while there is a higher share of women than men in that sector among the native-born (Figure 3.5).

Unskilled female migrants tend to work in less-regulated and less visible sectors than male migrants (O'neil, Fleury and Foresti, 2016^[8]). In both the United States and Europe (according to national sources described in Annex Table 3.B.1), around one fifth of migrant women work in the health and social care sector, one tenth in hospitality and one tenth in retail trade. In Israel, one migrant woman in four work in health and social care and one tenth in education. Compared with native-born women, foreign-born women are especially over-represented in domestic work and in services to buildings, such as security and cleaning. They are also dramatically over-represented in hospitality in both Europe and the United States, and in manufacturing and health and social care in Israel. Foreign-born men are over-represented in the same sectors as women, although to a lesser extent in services to buildings and in domestic work. In both the United States and Europe, transportation-storage and construction are the only sectors where foreign-born men are concentrated but foreign-born women are not (i.e. they are relatively more native women in these sectors than foreign-born women).

Figure 3.5. Presence of migrants across sectors in Europe, by gender

Concentration of foreign-born (2016-18) by gender, European OECD countries



Note: Concentration of the foreign-born in a specific sector is measured as the percentage of the foreign-born in that sector (out of total foreign-born employment) over the percentage of native-born in that sector (out of total native-born employment).

Source: EU-LFS 2016-18.

Differences between EU and non-EU migrants in Europe

Given the different channels through which EU and non-EU migrants enter European OECD countries, it is of particular interest to see to what degree the sectoral presence of these two groups varies. In most European countries, there are few differences between these two groups. In OECD Europe as a whole, the sectors with the largest overrepresentation of migrants are essentially the same for both groups (Annex Table 3.B.2 and Annex Table 3.B.3). EU migrants, however, usually have higher skilled occupations. Indeed, in OECD European countries, the share of EU migrants who are in low-skilled occupations is significantly lower than that of their non-EU peers in all sectors (bar real estate).

There are sectors, however, in which EU migrants are much more concentrated than their non-EU peers are. The first is construction, where posted workers within Europe account for a significant proportion (about 1 million intra EU/EFTA postings in the sector per year). The other exception is textile, where non-EU migrants are overrepresented in some countries, such as Germany and Italy, while EU migrants are overrepresented in this sector in the Netherlands and Sweden.

Only in few countries, there are strong differences between the two groups, including Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In most OECD European countries, domestic services is the sector with the strongest concentration of both EU and non-EU migrants. In Luxembourg, this is only the case for migrants from other EU countries. The reverse is true in the Netherlands. In that country, indeed only non-EU migrants follow the global pattern observed for migrants across Europe – that is, a strong concentration in domestic services, hospitality, and services to buildings (security, cleaning) – while EU migrants are concentrated in manufacturing industries.

The United Kingdom is the country where the sectoral presence of EU migrants differs most from that of their non-EU peers. While EU migrants tend to be in similar sectors as elsewhere, non-EU migrants – unlike most other European OECD countries – are largely under-represented in accommodation and warehousing but strongly concentrated in IT, human health and land transport.

Differences between recent arrivals and settled migrants

Recent migrants (with less than five years of residence) enter the EU and the United States labour market through basically the same main sectors in which their settled peers (with more than ten years of residence) are already strongly represented: domestic services, hospitality, warehousing, security/cleaning (mainly industries with a high share of lower skilled workers, see Annex Table 3.B.4 and Annex Table 3.B.5).

By contrast, the sectoral presence of recent migrants in Canada and Israel differs most from that of their settled peers. In Canada, recent migrant shares are the highest in domestic services, hospitality and food manufacturing, while settled migrants are especially over-represented in real estate, and other manufacturing industries (textile, electrical equipment and electronics). IT is the only sector where both recent and settled migrants are largely concentrated. In Israel, migrants are the most over-represented in domestic services and accommodation, while settled migrants are more concentrated in various manufacturing sectors. Only in electrical equipment manufacturing are both recent and settled migrants concentrated.

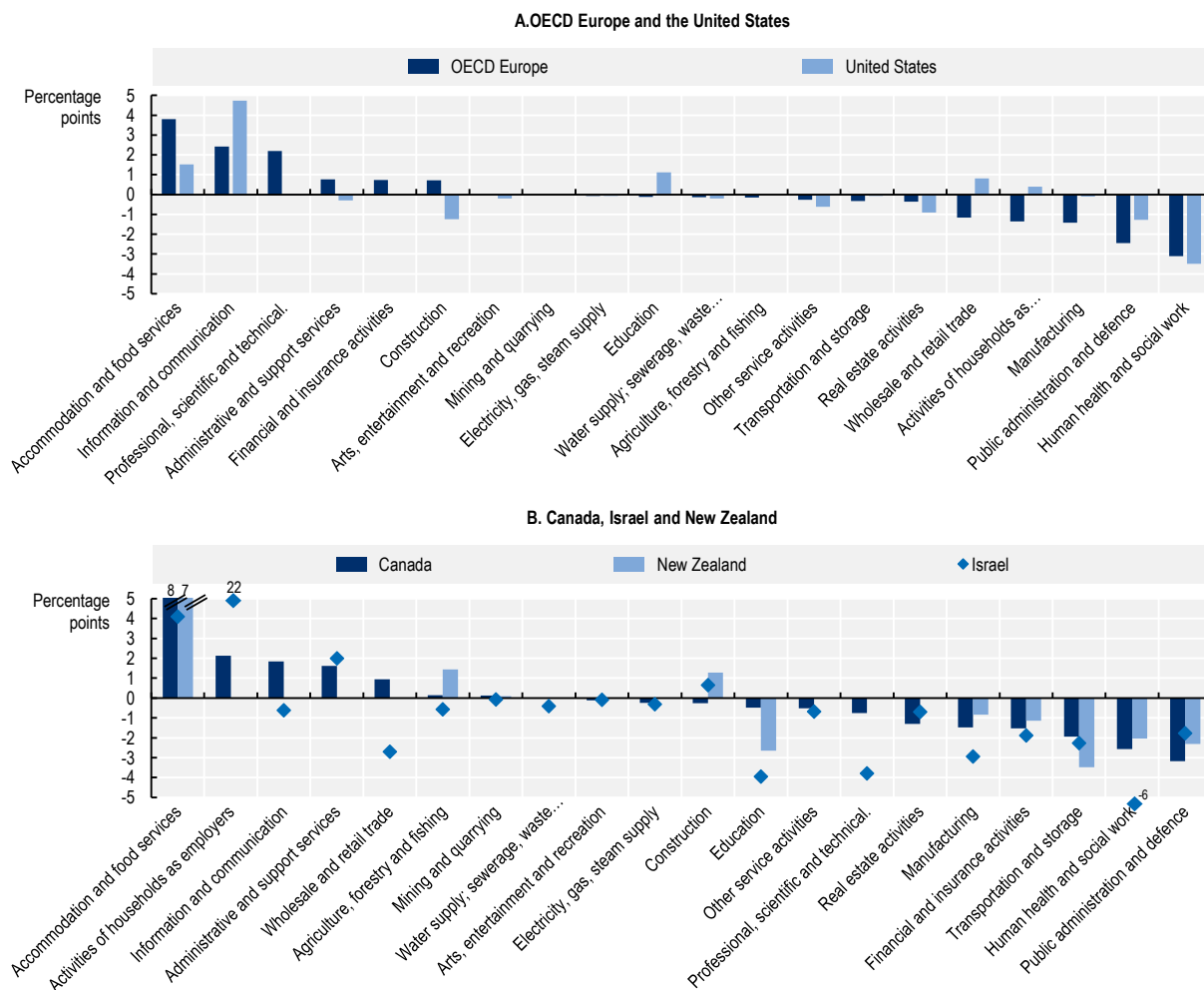
In Europe, if food services are one of the top sectors for both recent and settled migrants virtually everywhere, this is not true for accommodation. Indeed, in the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, accommodation is one of the top entry sectors for recent migrants, but settled migrants are somewhat less represented in that sector.

IT sector has been an important entry sector for highly skilled migrants since 2005. In the United States, for instance, the share of recent migrants working in that sector was only 2% of the total recent migrant workforce (arrived after 1999) in 2005, while 7% of recent migrants arrived after 2013 worked there in 2018.

In European countries, almost 4% of recent migrants work in IT, compared with only 1.6% of their settled peers (Annex Table 3.B.5).


Figure 3.6. Recent migrants by sector in OECD countries, 2016-19

Difference in percentage points with the sectoral share of settled migrants



Note: Recent migrants are those with at most five years of residence, settled migrants have been residing in the host-country for at least ten years. Sectors for New Zealand are not consistently comparable with other OECD countries. Therefore, only those comparable are shown in this figure.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS 2016-18), US Current Population Survey (CPS 2016-18), 2016 Canadian Census, New Zealand LFS 2019, Israel LFS 2019.

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Settled migrants are much more likely than recent arrivals to work in manufacturing virtually everywhere, with the exception of the United States (Figure 3.6). This sector is less likely to be an entry sector for recent migrants than 13 years ago. This is also true for domestic services in Europe. Unlike Canada and Israel, where recent migrants are respectively 7 times and 15 times more likely than settled migrants to be employed in domestic work, settled migrants in Europe are much more concentrated than recent arrivals in that sector. This is partly due to changes in the labour market conditions in Southern Europe. Due to

high demand for domestic workers in Southern European countries before the global financial crisis, a quarter of all recent migrants worked in that sector in 2005, compared with only 7% in 2018.

Recent migrants are more likely to enter the European labour markets through finance or scientific and professional activities than migrants living in their host-country for at least ten years (Figure 3.6). This is not true in the United States, New Zealand and Canada. In the former two, recent migrants are as represented as settled migrants and in the latter, settled migrants are even more represented. Recent migrants are also significantly overrepresented in the education sector in the United States (Figure 3.6). However, this high share is linked with the large number of enrolled international students that have a teaching occupation during their studies. Excluding migrants currently in education, the share of recent migrants in the education sector is only 11%, below the one for settled migrants.

Although at least 9% of recent migrants in the United States, Canada, New Zealand, Israel and Europe are working in health and social work (a relatively high share), it is the sector in which recent migrants are most under-represented compared with their settled peers (Figure 3.6). While it is a growing sector with labour needs, there are strict eligibility requirements – especially for the highly skilled. As a result, it is a sector where professional entry may be delayed due to foreign credential recognition requirements.

While the health/social sector has become a larger entry sector for new comers over the last 13 years, a closer look by occupational skills show different patterns. The sector is actually less an entry sector now than in the past. In 2005, according to the Current Population Survey, 15% of migrant workers in a highly skilled occupation entered the United States labour market through the health sector, while that share was only 9% in 2018. A decline was also observed in European countries. In contrast to the highly skilled, health has become a growing entry sector for migrants in low- and medium-skilled occupations in both the United States and Europe. The share of that group entered through the health sector has doubled over the last 13 years in the United States. Medium skilled health workers include health care support occupations (health care aides and assistants).

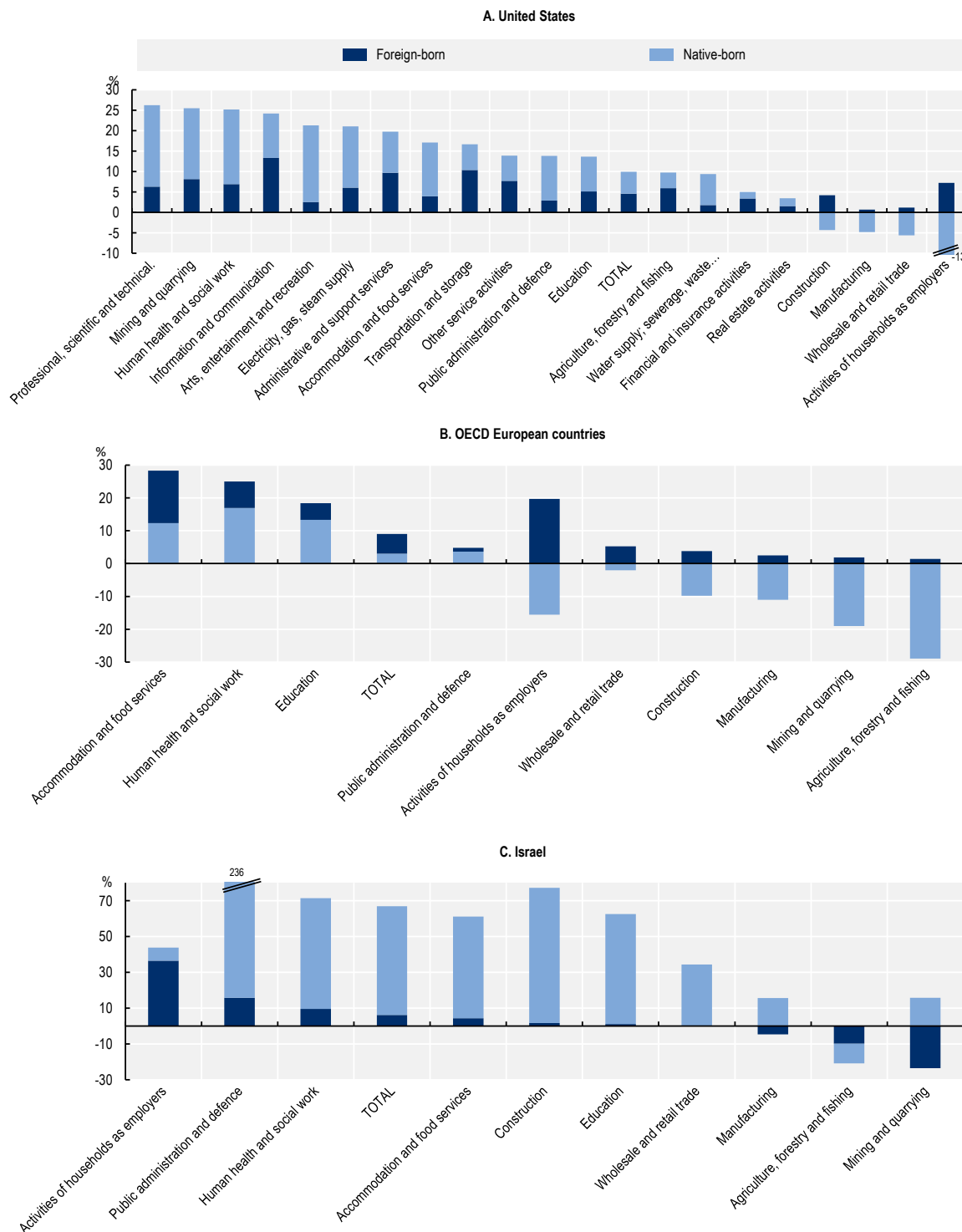
The association between the presence of migrants and sectoral growth

Contribution of foreign-born to sectoral employment growth

Between 2005 and 2018, migrants have made up almost half of the 10% employment growth in the United States and two-thirds of the 9% growth in European countries (Figure 3.7). This contribution was more than half in five sectors where the employment has increased in the United States: finance, transport and storage, agriculture, information and communication, and other services. This is also true in hospitality in Europe. In both areas, the number of migrants in employment has increased in all sectors over the last 13 years, even in sectors where native-born employment has declined, such as in construction, activities of households as employers (domestic work), trade and manufacturing. However, with the exception of domestic work and trade in Europe, the increase in the foreign-born workforce did not compensate for the drop in the labour force in these sectors.

In Israel, which population in employment has increased by two thirds between 2005 and 2019, the contribution of foreign-born was very small, in contrast. Migrants contribute to less than 10% of this increase in total employment and it was even lower in many sectors. One notable exception is activities of households as employers, where migrants have made up four-fifths of the increase (Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7. Contribution of the foreign-born to the employment growth in OECD countries, by sectors, 2005-18
 Percentages



Note: Data for 2005 are not consistently available for all sectors in Europe in Israel (see Annex 3.A), so there are fewer sectors shown in Panels B and C.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of Current Population Survey (CPS), European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), 2005 and 2018; Israel LFS 2005 and 2019.


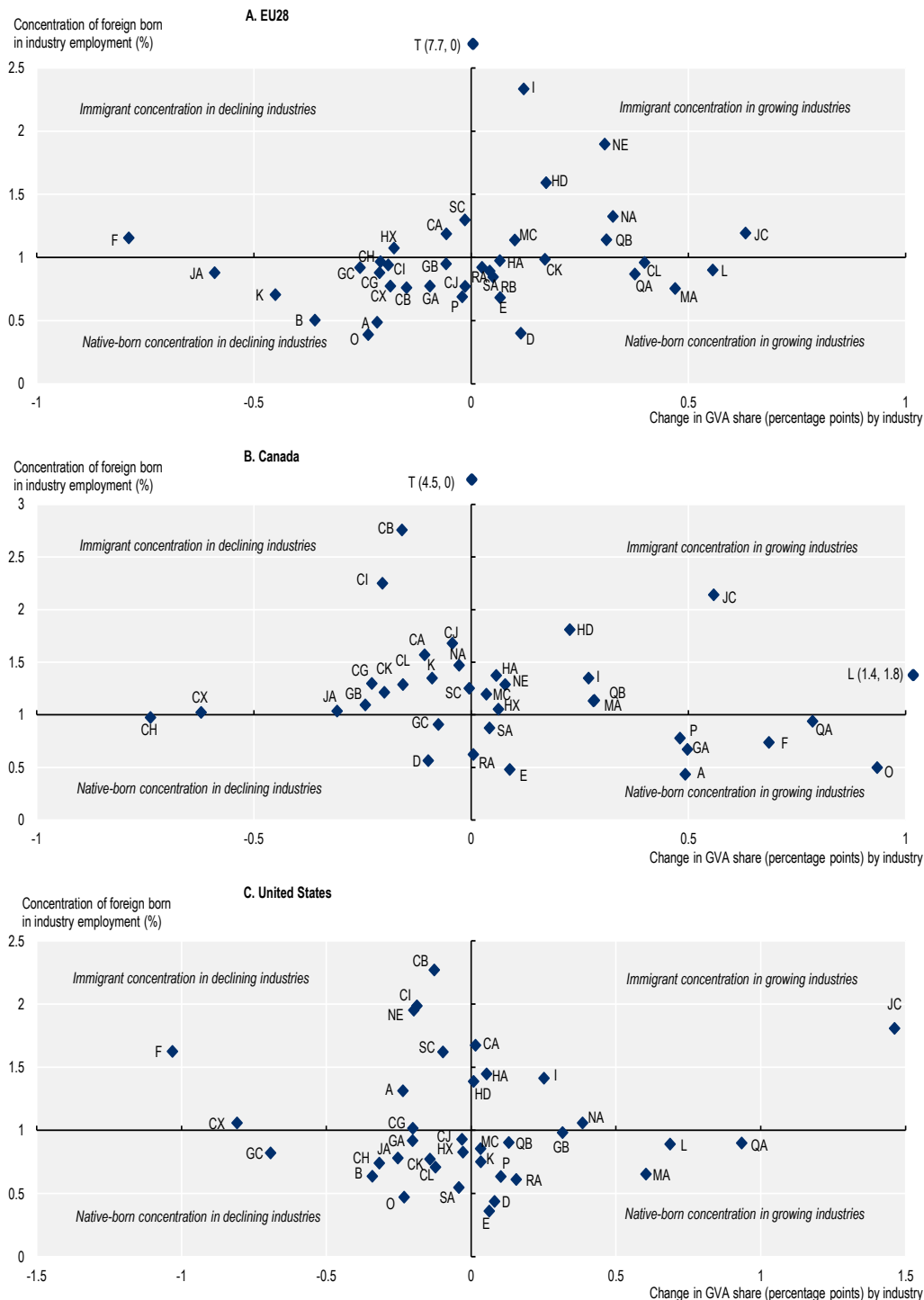
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Figure 3.8. Migrant presence and sectoral growth

Concentration of foreign-born (2016-18) and change in the GVA share by ISIC (between 2005 and 2018, in percentage points)



Note: Concentration of the foreign-born in a specific sector is measured as the percentage of the foreign-born in that sector (out of total foreign-born employment) over the percentage of native-born in that sector (out of total native-born employment). The change in the GVA is the difference between the share of GVA in a specific sector (out of total GVA) in 2018 with that in 2005. See Annex 3.A for sectors' labels.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of EU-LFS 2016-18, US CPS 2016-18, 2016 Canadian Census; GVA: OECD national accounts database.

Migrants and sectoral economic growth

Given the multiple factors influencing sectoral growth, one would not expect a clear association between the presence of migrants and growth. As expected, a first glance at the association between the presence of migrants and sectoral economic growth (measured by Gross Value Added (GVA), see Annex 3.A) reveals no clear pattern (Figure 3.8). Indeed, migrants tend to be overrepresented in the same sectors across countries, even though the growth pattern differs widely. For example, while migrants are overrepresented in Europe, Canada and the United States in security and cleaning, that sector is growing in Europe, stable in Canada and declining in the United States. However, with the notable exception of construction, some declining sectors in Europe and the United States in terms of the sector's share in the economy, such as communication, manufacturing and the public administration, tend to have a higher concentration of native-born virtually everywhere.

In contrast, migrants are overrepresented in a number of growing sectors (hospitality, warehousing, administrative support). Yet, while these sectors have been growing, their overall labour productivity is rather low. The pattern of migrants being concentrated in growing sectors with low productivity is particularly pronounced in Austria, Belgium, France and Italy. The same pattern holds in Norway and Sweden as well as in the Netherlands, although to a lesser extent.

In sectors with higher labour productivity such as health, real estate and professional-engineering activities (legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities), which GVA shares have grown in the vast majority of OECD countries, migrants tend to be under-represented in both Europe and the United States, but are over-represented in Canada. The only growing high value-added sector where they are over-represented everywhere is IT, with the highest concentrations in Luxembourg, Poland, Ireland, the United States, Canada and the Czech and Slovak Republics.

The links between migration policy and sectoral composition of the economy

Sectoral elements in migration policy

Just like in the study of the impact of migration, much less attention tends to be paid in migration policy to sectoral considerations than to occupational ones. Most OECD countries favour specific occupations in their migration policy, though the degree to which specific occupations are targeted varies. Virtually all countries favour highly skilled over low-skilled immigration, either by requiring minimum salary levels (e.g. Denmark and the Netherlands) or by favouring migrants with higher qualifications (such as the points systems in Australia, Canada and New Zealand). Many countries have specific lists for admission to occupations (OECD, 2014^[9]), which are either considered skilled or considered to be in shortage. Skilled occupation lists exist for example in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. Shortage occupation lists are found in Austria, Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as in Sweden for within-country status changes. The EU Blue Card combines salary, occupation and qualification requirements.

The implicit focus of migration policy on occupations rather than sectors has not always been the case. During the economic boom period after the Second World War, several large-scale temporary migration programmes were in force across the OECD. Many of these had a sectoral focus. These included the “Bracero” programme for seasonal farm workers in the United States and the “guest worker”-type programmes for Europe’s growing labour needs. Most of these programmes were based on bilateral agreements with origin countries, with select businesses being able to recruit directly from abroad. The sectoral focus varied across countries. Virtually all of these agreements were ended prior to or with the first oil shock of 1973. Since then, labour migration has been more restrictive in both the United States and

Europe. Since the early 2000s, with a renewed interest in labour migration, there has been a clear preference towards favouring highly skilled occupations, at least in European countries.

There are several reasons behind the preference of occupations rather than sectors in the migration policy in most countries. First, and perhaps most importantly, in many OECD countries, economic policy in general has shifted away from specific industrial policies. Second, and closely related, rather than supporting a specific industry, broader occupational profiles can support different sectors and allow for more adaptation if the economic landscape changes. Third, occupation-based migration regimes also allow better targeting of migrants with higher skills, whose integration prospects and longer-term employability tend to be better than those of low-skilled migrants are. What is more, occupation-based migration regimes are also often seen to be less prone to rent seeking or lobbying by business than industry-specific policies and thus generally less distortive, although this is not necessarily the case. In any case, occupation-based regimes tend to be more acceptable to the public. Finally, in Europe, a migration policy favouring specific sectors in which large companies are operating could also potentially be considered an illicit subsidy, thereby conflicting with EU competition law.

Sector-based approaches to migration

In contrast, apart perhaps from the agricultural sector that will be discussed further below, the list of countries favouring specific sectors is much shorter. Among OECD countries, Japan has a strong and explicit sectoral policy. Its Technical Intern Training Programme, the largest internship programme in the OECD with 144 000 new visas issued in 2017, is only available to certain occupations in specified sectors. Technical Intern Training visas are issued for a maximum of three years to foreigners from developing countries for work in the following sectors: agriculture, fishing, construction, food processing, textiles and metal manufacturing.

Moreover, Japan's Specified Skilled Worker visa, created in 2019, is available to foreigners who work in jobs that require considerable knowledge of, or experience in, specified industries. The programme covers different occupations at all skill levels. It is restricted to 14 designated approved industries: nursing care, building cleaning services, casting, industrial machine manufacturing, electric and electronic information, construction, shipbuilding and marine equipment, automobile repair, aviation, hotel, agriculture, fishery, food and drink manufacturing, and food service. The prospective number of foreign nationals by industry is capped, with the total cap applying over a period of five years. Applicants for the Specified Skilled Worker scheme must prove their skills on the listed job by passing an industry-specific evaluation test. They also need to pass a Japanese language proficiency test to prove at least conversational level. Foreign workers who have already completed a technical intern training are exempted from both tests.

A largely sector-based migration policy has also been in place in Korea since 2004 with the introduction of the Employment Permit System (EPS). The EPS is a large programme which allows SME employers in manufacturing, agriculture, livestock, fishery and construction sectors to request temporary foreign workers, who would be selected, trained and brought through a government-to-government bilateral programme (OECD, 2019^[10]).

The EPS matches employers in Korea with workers in origin countries. The Foreign Workforce Policy Committee, an inter-ministerial working group, determines the annual ceiling for inflows of low-skilled foreign workers, including by industry and country of origin. EPS especially supports the so-called "root industries", which provide basic manufacturing processes as part of the supply chain to larger firms. In Korea, larger firms rely on such subcontractors for important parts of the production process. Competition among SMEs for contracts is intense and margins are low. At the same time, wages are low and working conditions often unfavourable, making employment unattractive for the domestic workforce. The programme thus provides workers to companies that would otherwise not be competitive.

The admission of low-skilled foreign workers in Israel is also managed through a sector-based migration policy. Selected sectors can recruit migrant workers through the Foreign Workers permit (B-1): agriculture,

construction, care, tourism and manufacturing. Employers must pay a levy for each foreign worker recruited, fixed at 15% of the monthly pay since 2019. Employers in the care and agriculture sectors are exempted from the levy. B-1 permits are issued for up to one year, renewable for a maximum duration of 63 months. They are subject to quotas by sector (except care), which are generally fixed in consultation with representatives of the respective sectors.

While New Zealand does not have a specific sectoral policy, from 2021 onwards, sectors that hire large numbers of temporary migrant workers will be able to negotiate an agreement with the government to facilitate recruitment of migrant workers. Industries that have been identified as candidates for these agreements include residential care, meat processing, dairy, forestry, road freight transport, tourism and hospitality, construction, and horticulture and viticulture. Sector agreements will include special rules for the access to foreign temporary workers in the specified occupations over the duration of the agreement (e.g. exemptions of labour market test, more generous visa terms). Agreements will also include sector-specific plans to employ more New Zealanders and to reduce its reliance on foreign temporary workers (Immigration New Zealand, 2019^[11]). Sector agreements will have a duration of up to three years and will be compulsory (employers will not be allowed to opt out and use other schemes). The introduction of sector agreements in the New Zealand immigration policy is a further step towards sector-based policies for lower skilled migration in that country. These started with the “construction and infrastructure skill shortage list” introduced after the 2010 Canterbury earthquake.

Australia launched in November 2019 a Global Talent Independent programme (GTI), designed to attract highly skilled migrants for employment in one of the seven top “future-focused” sectors in the Australian’s economy. These include AGTech, Space and Advanced Manufacturing, FinTech, Energy and Mining Technology, MedTech, Cyber Security and Quantum Information, Advanced Digital, Data Science and IT. Applicants must receive to a salary of at least AUD 148 700 (around USD 100 000), either through an actual contract or job offer, or through a degree in the target sectors giving access to such a salary.

Labour migration in Italy is managed through quotas (with some exemptions for certain skilled occupations). If this system currently does not have a sector-based approach, a specific sector quota within the annual quotas was in place in the mid-2000s for domestic work (2005-10) fisheries (2006-07) and construction (2007). Also a specific quota for seasonal agricultural has been in place since 2000. In addition, its large-scale regularisation programmes attend to have a strong sectoral focus. The 2002 regularisation, by which around 650 000 migrants were regularised, was opened to every sectors, but the compensation sum for forgone fiscal and social welfare contributions were lower for domestic workers. In the end, half of regularised workers were domestic workers and caregivers (Baldwin-Edwards and Zampagni, 2014^[12]). The 2009 regularisation, by which around 250 000 migrants were regularised, was accessible only to foreign workers working illegally in the personal and homecare services sector. Although the 2012 regularisation programme was not dedicated to specific sectors, it also had a strong sectoral impact, as 86% of all applications were domestic workers. In 2020, in reaction to the COVID-19 crisis, the government introduced from June to August a specific regularisation programme for those working in agriculture, livestock, animal husbandry, fisheries and fish-farming, long-term care and domestic work. As of 15 July, around 125 000 applications have been received, of which 86% were in long-term care or domestic work.

Migration policy instruments with direct links to specific sectors

Even in the absence of specific sectoral policies, many migration policy parameters do favour some specific sectors. Indeed, in many occupations, there is an evident link with sectors (e.g. IT professionals – IT sector; medical doctors – health sector; cooks and chefs – hospitality sector)¹⁰, while this is less evident for others (e.g. clerks). For the former, schemes that favour specific occupations also have a strong impact on favouring the sectors in which they are employed.¹¹ What is more, in countries that rely on shortage occupation lists, determining which occupations are considered to be in shortage is often done in

consultation with representatives of specific sectors, which – depending on their bargaining power – can have a strong impact on the introduction of a specific occupation in the list. Indeed, lobbying takes place at the sectoral level, and not all sectors are on an equal footing in this respect.

Other migration policy instruments with indirect sectoral impact

It is also common that the design of a migration programme, though not necessarily intended to favour specific sectors, tends to disproportionately benefit some of these. Illustrative examples are travel and work programmes – or Working Holiday Maker Schemes – and work possibilities for international students. The flexible working times, high presence in cities and touristic places, and working possibilities during holidays that are the nature of these programmes favour the hospitality sectors.

At times, the impact is even more indirect. For example, the fact that Australia and New Zealand used to strongly favour domestic qualifications in their skilled migration programme has contributed to fuelling international students into their education sectors. Both countries have among the largest shares of international students in tertiary education in the OECD, accounting for a significant part of the countries' services exports. Indeed, a growing number of OECD countries target international students to help develop their tertiary education sector. As a result, the impact of migration policy changes on the education sector is increasingly debated, as witnessed for example in the United Kingdom in the discussions around its new migration system.

Where sectoral labour needs are strong but labour migration is highly restrictive, irregular migration may result (OECD, 2018^[13]). Some migration policy instruments that focus on sectors with a track record of illegal employment of foreign workers, for example in domestic services and in the construction sector thus do not necessarily intend to “favour” these. Instead, they rather intend to better channel and control employment of migrants. This is evident in cases where employers from certain sectors are barred from using the general schemes, such as under the planned sectoral agreements for temporary workers in New Zealand, where employers will not be allowed to opt out and use other schemes. Trusted employer schemes, which have been implemented in the OECD countries settled by migration and in the United Kingdom, can fulfil the dual role of favouring companies and sectors that follow the rules, thereby providing incentives to do so. Such schemes are particularly pertinent for employers strongly dependent on migrant labour (see below on the importance of such schemes for seasonal agriculture). More generally, as employers are operating in specific sectors, employer-based policy instruments are, by their very nature, also sector-based.

Overall policy restrictiveness and the implications of free mobility

A priori, the issue of sectoral elements in migration policy tends to be more pertinent in restrictive migration systems than in ones that are more liberal. Sweden, for example, has a very liberal labour migration system, with the sole basic requirement that the job must have been nominally advertised beforehand, and that wage and conditions in prevailing collective contracts are respected (OECD, 2011^[14]). In such a context, where all sectors have full access to migrant labour, there is no need for special sectoral schemes. Likewise, in Europe, as seen above, the access to foreign labour through the intra-EU free mobility covers a large part of needs, notably in sectors heavily reliant on lesser-skilled labour for which most countries have very limited labour migration pathways. Within the free mobility area in Europe, the posted worker scheme has a special status as the social security provisions are those of the origin country. In the EU/EFTA area, almost 3 million intra-EU/EFTA postings were recorded in 2018, and these have a strong sectoral bias. Among these, one third were posted in the construction sector, one fifth in manufacturing and one fifth in freight transport by road.

It is thus not surprising that the examples of strong sectoral components in migration policy are now all outside of the EU free mobility zone, with the exception of seasonal agriculture. In this context, it is also important to stress that managed labour migration is in many countries only a small part of all migration

flows, even leaving free mobility aside. The actual impact of labour migration policy on sectors is also limited by the fact that labour migrants are generally allowed to change employers and sectors, although those on temporary visas often require approval for such changes. However, this is an issue in which there are important differences across countries.

The example of Sweden, which went from a rather restrictive to a very open labour migration framework overnight with little increase in labour migration to most sectors, is also illustrative of a further issue: even sudden access to foreign labour does not automatically mean that there is a large impact on this sector. For example, employers may not be willing or capable to hire more people, especially in a situation where wages are sticky and where there is uncertainty about skills obtained abroad or required training – even when migrants' reservation wages are lower than those of the native-born. Indeed, in Sweden as in other Nordic countries, wages and employment conditions are generally set by collective agreements, and these are done at the sectoral – not occupational – level.

Even where wages are not the issue, and employers would be happy to hire migrants, other institutional obstacles may prevent labour migration. The health sector is an example. In spite of the fact that medical doctors and other health care professionals are in shortage virtually everywhere and actively sought by many OECD countries, actual migration into the sector is quite limited. Part of the reason is that it is a heavily regulated sector, and the recognition of foreign degrees and work experience for doctors and nurses is a burdensome process. As a result, and as seen above, the health sector is not as much an entry sector for migrants as the labour shortages in that sector seem to indicate.

In summary, sectors are not a focus of migration policies. However, many elements of migration policy directly or indirectly affect employment in sectors. The remainder of this section therefore assesses more in depth the role that labour migration has played in shaping three key sectors with high migrant presence across the OECD: i) seasonal agriculture; ii) hotels, restaurants and catering; and iii) information technology.

Seasonal agriculture

Why is migration particularly important for this sector?

Migration is particularly important in seasonal agriculture because of the nature of the work. Strong labour needs arise only for a few weeks or months, often in rural areas with low population density. In these areas, there are often few job opportunities outside the peak season.

Seasonal agriculture is thus a highly labour-intensive activity with peak season involving large number of workers for a short period. For example, 95% of agriculture labourers in Sweden (mostly recruited for berry picking) have permits for a duration of fewer than three months (OECD, 2011_[14]). At the same time, work in seasonal agriculture requires little training and little if any language skills. In European countries, for instance, more than three quarters of migrants working in agriculture in 2014 had only a beginner or intermediate proficiency in the host-country language, the lowest language proficiency of all sectors.

Seasonal work in agriculture is often low-paid and physically demanding. In Spain, for instance, the share of workplace accidents per worker (5%) in agriculture is the highest among all sectors (Bellés-Obrero, Martin Bassols and Castello, 2020_[15]). Therefore, seasonal agriculture jobs tend to be disregarded by the resident population – including by the unemployed – and face high turnover. For example, in Australia, more than 80% of employers in the sector stated in a survey that they found it to be 'very difficult' (49%) or 'somewhat difficult' (32%) to find Australian workers in the local labour market (OECD, 2018_[16]). The primary reason was that there are "not enough local workers" (38%), although many also stated that 'local workers do not have the right skills' (26%). In New Zealand, according to the Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Survey 2019, 98% rated migrant seasonal workers who arrived through the Pacific RSE scheme positively for their enthusiasm, 96% for their dependability and 94% for their productivity. These

compare with respectively 10%, 8% and 9% of new workers who were recruited through the intermediation of Work and Income, the agency in charge of bringing welfare recipients into employment (Research New Zealand, 2019^[17]).

The short-term nature of the seasonal agriculture work makes it particularly attractive for people from neighbouring countries, especially where wage disparities are high. Indeed, in Europe, the EU enlargements in 2004 and 2007 offered to employers in seasonal agriculture a quick and simple way to recruit seasonal workers. There are important measurement issues with respect to such short and often multiple stays, especially in the context of free mobility, which render the assessment of the contribution of migrants difficult (see Annex 3.A for a discussion).

How do general and specific migration policy tools (and parameters) influence migration to this sector?

Specific schemes supporting immigration in agriculture

a. Seasonal worker programmes through bilateral agreements

Agriculture is by far the sector that benefits most from specific migration policy instruments. At least 15 OECD countries currently have a seasonal worker programme. This seems to be due to the essential nature of agriculture on the one hand and on the other hand, to the nature of the work, which is often not popular among the native-born (see above). In many countries, supporting agriculture is also an important part of regional and rural policy making.

Seasonal worker programmes are often based on a co-operation agreement between Public Employment Services (PES) in origin and destination countries. Large programmes of this kind are in place for example in Canada (with Mexico and Caribbean countries), Greece (with Albania) and Spain (with Morocco). Germany does not have an intergovernmental bilateral agreement, though its PES maintains a small bilateral programme with PES in some non-EU eastern European countries.

The main advantage of such co-operation is ensure some selection and compliance – otherwise, the programme may be discontinued – with a limited administrative burden for host-country administration and employers. In the Canadian seasonal agricultural workers programme (SAWP), for example, Mexico's Department of Labour maintains lists of workers who would like to be selected to work in Canada, and employers can select from these lists if they do not have enough named workers. Farmers evaluate each SAWP worker at the end of the season. SAWP workers are required to present their employer's evaluation to a government agency at home to be selected for the next season (see Martin (2016^[18])).

In Spain, the Collective Management of Hiring in Origin ('GECCO') involves the posting of thousands of predominantly female workers from Morocco to Spain for the strawberries and red fruit harvest, with the cooperation of the Moroccan employment service (ANAPEC). The latter selects workers directly in Morocco, first from a list of previous participants who express the intention to return in the next harvest season, and then among a list of new applicants. The programme also includes explicit goals to promote development in the origin country upon return. The programme supports the harvest season (February to May) in Southern Spain. In Huelva, one of the provinces at the core of this programme, 45% of the seasonal work is done by nationals: 25% by EU mobile citizens, 10% by third-country nationals already in the country, and 20% by GECCO temporary migrant workers. Seasonal workers who have participated in GECCO more than twice are exempt from the labour market test, which gives them more chances to be employed in Spain under other migration schemes.

Some seasonal worker programmes are also subject to numerical limits, such as in Italy and Austria.

b. Trusted employer schemes

There are also seasonal worker programmes where the responsibility of the recruitment is directly on employers, through trusted employer schemes in agriculture. Under such schemes, countries allow certified employers who fulfil a number of criteria to hire workers under certain conditions. Depending on the scheme, recruitment can be either directly by the employer or with the obligation to use dedicated intermediaries. For instance, two thirds of certified agricultural employers in New Zealand under the Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme recruit Pacific Island workers directly (Research New Zealand, 2019^[17]). Lack of seasonal labour as well as compliance concerns led to the formation of the Horticulture and Viticulture Seasonal Working Group, in which the key stakeholders from industry, government, and unions are represented. That group developed a specific strategy, from which the RSE Policy eventually emerged. Likewise, under Australia's Seasonal Worker Programme, selected companies are pre-authorised to hire seasonal workers in agriculture.

In most programmes, seasonal foreign workers are assigned to one employer and one location exclusively and cannot change employers in the host-country. Likewise, while extension of visas are usually possible, they must often take place with the same employer.

c. Facilitations in the labour market test

In countries where labour market tests continue to apply for seasonal labour, there are often facilitations. In Canada, for example, the required advertising period of the job offer is shorter than usual in agriculture. In other cases, labour market tests are waived. For instance, nationalities from non-EU Eastern Europe (Armenia, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine) have been exempt from the labour market test in Poland since 2018. Likewise, in Italy, there is no labour market test for the sector. In the Nordic countries, there are specific facilitations within seasonal agriculture for berry pickers. In Sweden, foreign seasonal workers employed by foreign businesses hiring to a Swedish berry company are exempt from the advertisement requirement of the job that otherwise applies. In Finland, berry pickers do not need to apply for a residence permit, unlike other seasonal workers.

d. Other seasonal worker programmes

In other OECD countries that have seasonal work programmes, such as in Norway, Austria and France, the procedure is the same as for the general programme. Therefore, seasonal workers are subject to labour market tests. However, there are often other facilitations, such as the issuance of multi-year entry residence permits, to facilitate circular migration. For instance, France has implemented since 2007 a three-years residence permit for seasonal workers, which allows foreign workers to work up to six months per year and then come back every year.

e. Non-seasonal programmes for agriculture

Although most migration policy programmes targeting the agricultural sector are seasonal, some OECD countries have specific policies for non-seasonal agriculture, such as Japan, with its three-years programme and Korea (five to ten years programme). Migrant temporary workers in Israel can also get a residence permit for up to five years. Since 2019, employers in that sector have been exempted from recruitment fees, which are otherwise set at 15% of the salary for temporary migrant workers. All non-seasonal programmes are subject to quotas and caps, which are usually negotiated between responsible ministries and industry representatives and regularly updated (every two years in Japan, five years in Israel).

Canada launched an Agri-Food Pilot on 15 May 2020. The three-year pilot tests an industry-specific approach to help employers in the meat processing, mushroom and greenhouse crop production, and livestock-raising industries to fill ongoing labour needs for full-time, year-round employees. It provides a pathway to permanent residence for experienced temporary foreign workers. A total of 2 750 applications will be accepted annually, with caps allocated per eligible occupation within each sector.

General schemes supporting immigration in agriculture

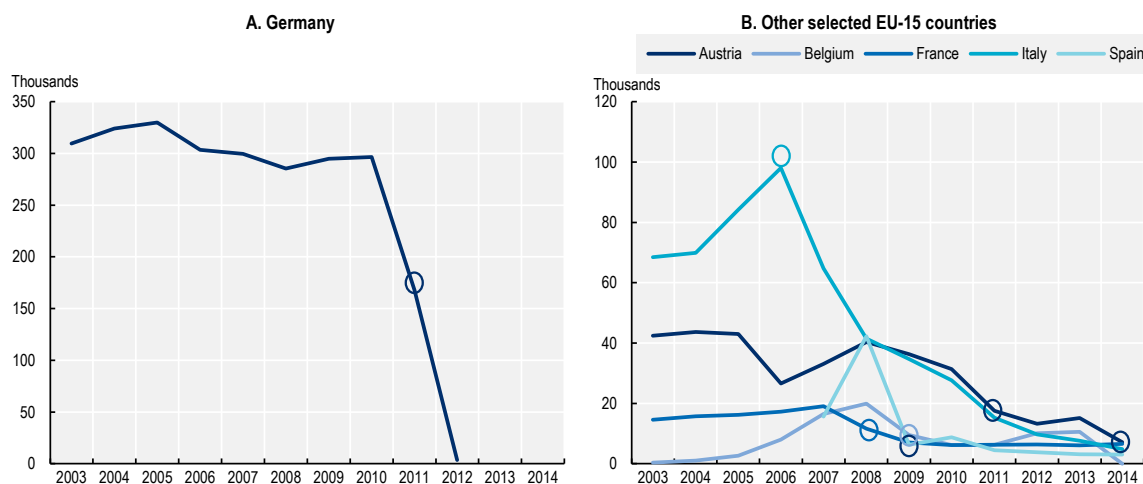
Temporary migration programmes that are not targeted at the agricultural sector can also help filling seasonal labour shortages. This is the case of Working Holiday Makers (WHM) schemes, which are intended to encourage travel and cultural exchange between citizens of signatory countries. They are thus considered a non-economic temporary migration category with work.

Such schemes are widespread in the settlement countries, with Australia having the largest such programme. Indeed, the most important policy tool supporting work in agriculture is a provision allowing working holiday visa holders who have performed specified work in an eligible regional Australian area for a minimum of 88 days to apply for a second working holiday visa. Specified work includes work in the agriculture, mining, and construction sectors. According to the Australian taxation office, a quarter of WHM on their first visa worked in agriculture between January 2017 and June 2018. In 2019, 82% of second WHM visa holders worked in agriculture. An estimated 81 000 WHM worked in agriculture in 2018, ten times the number of foreign seasonal workers (8 500).

In Europe, free mobility has helped filling labour shortages in seasonal agriculture. The number of migrant seasonal workers is difficult to assess in a free mobility context (see Annex 3.A for a discussion). However, data on seasonal migration flows before and after the introduction of free mobility for the countries that joined the EU in 2004 and 2007, respectively, provides a glance of the importance of EU free mobility for seasonal agriculture (Figure 3.9).

Figure 3.9. Impact of the EU free mobility agreements on registered seasonal worker inflows in Europe

Number of foreign seasonal worker permits issued, 2003-14, thousands



Note: EU countries could postpone full labour market access for accession countries for up to seven years. Therefore, the actual access to the previous EU-15 labour markets for the first round of enlargement occurred from 2004 to 2011 and for Bulgaria and Romania from 2007 to 2014. Circles show the year when transitional arrangements have been removed. After these years, no work authorisations or permits were needed anymore for the citizens concerned. Although most seasonal work permits are issued to seasonal agriculture workers, the numbers above might include some non-agriculture seasonal work permits.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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The most important destination of intra-EU movements to support seasonal agriculture is Germany. After the transitional arrangements have been lifted in 2011, the number of seasonal workers with a work authorisation (mainly Polish citizens) fell from almost 300 000 seasonal workers in 2010 to less than 4 000

in 2012. Other EU countries also witnessed a sharp drop in the number of seasonal worker permit issued at the end of the transitional arrangements. The number has been divided in half between 2006 and 2008 in Italy, between 2011 and 2013 in Austria, and again between 2013 and 2015 (when the transitional arrangements were lifted for Bulgaria and Romania), between 2007 and 2009 in France and between 2008 and 2010 in Belgium. In Spain, the number of seasonal worker permits issued (mainly to Romanians) fell by a factor of seven between 2008 and 2009. Following the EU enlargements, Belgium does not have a seasonal worker programme anymore, and Germany's programme (based on bilateral agreements of the PES with non-EU European origin countries) is marginal.

In most European OECD countries in which there is no seasonal worker programme, seasonal workers in agriculture are mainly EU mobile citizens. In Italy, there were in 2019 almost 370 000 foreign workers in the agriculture sector from 155 countries (see *Centro Studi e Ricerche IDOS (2019_[19])*), accounting for 25% of the workforce. Almost one third of the total came from Romania (108 000), followed by Morocco (35 000), India (34 000), and Albania (32 000).

In Germany, there are around 200 000 seasonal agriculture helpers in Germany at the seasonal peak (May/June), about 60% of whom are foreigners, of which 95% from EU. The vast majority are not subject to the standard social security regime, in contrast to the German helpers. In Austria, where almost half of seasonal agriculture is done by foreigners, about 80% coming from the EU.

However, some EU countries where seasonal agriculture is important still rely mostly on seasonal foreign workers under managed temporary labour migration programmes. This is the case notably in Poland, where inflows of agricultural workers are predominantly third-country nationals. In 2019, 127 000 work permits have been issued for nationals from third countries who applied for work in agriculture.

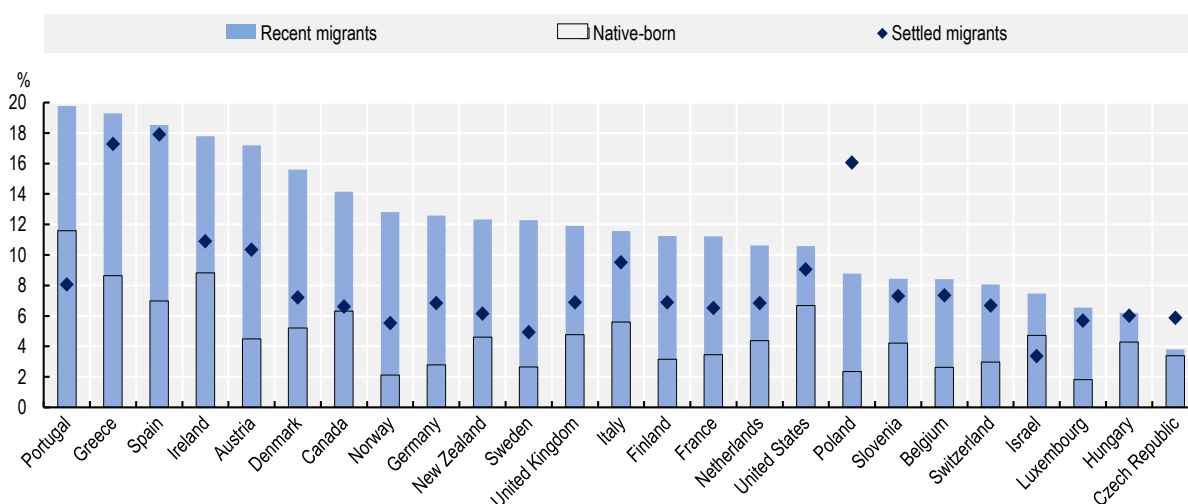
Hospitality

Why is migration particularly important for this sector?


The hospitality sector – accommodation and food services – is a services sector dominated by low-skilled and low-paid employment with atypical working hours. For example, in OECD European countries, the share of low-skilled employment in the sector is twice as high as in other sectors (18% vs. 9%). What is more, one quarter of hospitality workers was in the lowest income decile and three fifths were below the third decile in 2018. Hospitality workers had the lowest income across all sectors, with the exception of domestic workers. Almost three quarters of workers in the sector were affected by at least one of the following atypical working hours: shift work, evening work, night work, weekend work. These jobs are deemed unattractive for native-born workers and the share of foreign-born in hospitality is the highest among all sectors in Europe.

Indeed, migrants are overrepresented in this sector in all OECD countries where data are available, with the exception of Portugal where the sector is particularly large, and Israel. This is especially the case for recent arrivals, who in many countries are three to five times more likely to enter the sector than its share in overall employment would suggest (Figure 3.10). In more than two thirds of countries, hospitality is the entry sector for more than 10% of new entrants.

Figure 3.10. Share of employed migrants and native-born who work in the hospitality sector



Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of EU-LFS 2016-18, US Current Population Survey 2016-18, Canadian Census 2016, New Zealand LFS 2019 and Israel LFS 2019.

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How do general and specific migration policy tools (and parameters) influence migration to this sector?

Specific schemes for the hospitality sector are rare. As a result, the hospitality sector is a particularly important entry sector for non-labour migrants. Data for OECD Europe for 2014 by category of entry show, for example, that 56% of recent migrants working in that industry came for non-employment reasons, one of the highest share across industries. This is especially true for non-EU migrants: 78% of recent non-EU migrants working in hospitality were non-labour migrants (the highest share across industries), against 60% of all recent non-EU migrants in employment.

Although most seasonal worker programmes are predominantly used by agriculture, there are some exceptions. Among these is the H-2B programme in the United States, which is dedicated to fill non-agricultural positions. H-2B workers can stay for up to nine months before returning to their home country. Migrants with H-2B visas are tied to an employer who serves as a sponsor. The programme is capped to 66 000, with occasional decisions to lift the quotas exceptionally.

In May 2003, the United Kingdom Home Office introduced a specific Sector Based Scheme (SBS) for the hospitality and food processing (OECD/Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration, 2004^[20]). The scheme and quota allocations were monitored by employer and industry representatives in conjunction with the Home Office. This new scheme has been withdrawn after the 2004 EU enlargement.

Working Holiday Maker (WHM) schemes can also be a tool to fill labour shortages in tourism activities. This is again true in Australia, although to a lesser extent than agriculture. According to the Australian taxation office, 22% of WHM holders have worked in accommodation and food services between January 2017 and June 2018. Unlike agriculture, the tourism sector in the United States can benefit from three youth mobility programmes within the J-1 visa. Trainees and interns enrolled in hospitality schools have their own visa programme. The most important scheme, however, is the Summer Work Travel (SWT) programme, with 104 500 visas issued in 2018.

Some occupations in the hospitality sector are classified as skilled occupations (and thus found on skilled occupation lists, such as cooks and restaurant managers), although they do not necessarily require high formal qualification. As a result, the hospitality sector is a sector where under-education is an issue. “Skilled” migrants with no academic qualifications but with skills acquired through vocational trainings or past work experience are also of importance. In 2018, for instance, 59% of migrant workers in hospitality in the United States were undereducated (with a lower educational attainment than required by their job skills), the highest share among all sectors (with the exception of agriculture).

Another scheme that can indirectly affect the ability of the hospitality sector to fill its labour shortage is giving an access to OECD labour markets to international students who have not yet completed their degree in the host-country. With jobs with hours outside regular universities courses time, food service is one of the most important sector of employment of student in most OECD countries. In Europe, 15% of foreign-born aged 18 to 35 in tertiary education worked in hospitality in 2016-18, the highest share with the wholesale and retail trade sector. Hospitality is a more important sector of work for international students than for their native-born peers, whose share working in that sector is only 10%.

Free mobility is also a tool for many employers in Europe to fill shortages in hospitality, both seasonal and permanent. While the share of EU migrants in the hospitality sector was only 4% in 2005, compared with 14% for non-EU migrants, almost half of the foreign-born employment growth between 2005 and 2018 was the contribution of EU migrants. The contribution of EU migrants in the foreign-born employment growth has been particularly large in the German-speaking countries and the United Kingdom. In Austria, almost all the foreign-born employment growth between 2005 and 2018 was from the EU, compared with 76% across all sectors. EU countries used the 2004 EU enlargement to fill vacancies in some sectors. In half of OECD European countries though, the contribution of EU migrants to migrant employment growth in hospitality was less than a third.

As the general schemes for labour migration tend to have few pathways for low-skilled migrant workers, and given the high informality of employment in the sector (for both migrant and native-born), hospitality tends to be a sector where irregular situations are not uncommon. As a result, regularisation programmes have often involved a high share of workers in this sector (see OECD (2018^[13])), including both mass and case-by-case regularisation programmes. According to the French Elipa survey (OECD, 2017^[21]), the largest sector from which third-country nationals have been regularised in 2010 was “trade- accommodation- food services” (one third of the total). Restaurant business was also the third sector of regularisation during the 2005 regularisation in Spain, after activities of households as employers and construction (Baldwin-Edwards and Kraler, 2009^[22]). According to 2017 estimates, “accommodation and food service activities” was the second working sector of migrants in irregular situation in Spain, with 28% working there, just behind activities of households as employers (Gálvez-Iniesta, 2020^[23]).

Box 3.2. Specific migration policy targeting other service workers: the example of live-in care givers in Canada

While migrants are nowhere as over-represented as in domestic work, few countries have specific policy instruments for domestic or care workers. These include Japan (for institutional care under bilateral agreements with certain origin countries) and Israel, which has a large programme for caregivers. Almost 2% of employed persons in Israel are foreign live-in caregivers on temporary work permits.

The most prominent and longstanding example, however, is Canada, which has had specific programmes for caregivers since 1992. The first of these was the Live-in Caregiver Program (LCP), in place until 2014 (see OECD (2019^[7]) for a discussion). It allowed temporary labour migrants working in the caregiving sector to apply for permanent residency as economic class migrants within three (later four) years of arrival in Canada, once they had completed at least two years of full-time caregiving work. These employees usually lived and worked in private households caring for children, seniors or people with disabilities. Since its inception, the programme was replaced twice with pilot programmes aimed at testing new approaches to permanent residence for caregivers and which removed the live-in requirement of the LCP. The most recent iteration of the pilots was launched in 2019, with more restrictive criteria for admission and transition to permanent residence than the LCP, including annual application caps. In exchange to tighter access, caregivers now receive an occupation-restricted open work permit, which lets them work as a caregiver for almost any employer throughout Canada (excluding Quebec). It thus provides caregivers with the possibility to change jobs more easily, as they work to acquire the two years of work experience required to apply for permanent residency. Caregivers can also benefit from open work and/or study permits for their accompanying immediate family members. In addition, employers no longer need a labour market impact assessment before hiring a caregiver.

Since 2005, more than 90 000 caregivers and 97 000 spouses and dependants have obtained permanent residence. In 2016, 60% of workers in domestic services, the sector under which caregivers generally fall, were migrants. Compared with the overall share of migrants in employment, Canada has the fifth largest over-representation of migrants in the domestic work sector in the OECD (+35 percentage points compared with the overall share), after Israel (41), Spain (43), Italy (62) and Greece (66).

Among the workers in domestic services, the majority (56%) were living in the country for less than five years, half as non-permanent residents. This is a remarkable contrast to OECD Europe, where longstanding migrants are much more likely to be employed in the sector than recent arrivals. In the Southern European countries, which have particularly high shares of migrants in domestic services, at most 10% of all migrant domestic workers are recent. In Europe, the highest shares of recent migrants among foreign-born in domestic services are observed in Switzerland and the United Kingdom (29%). The corresponding share in the United States is 14%. Indeed, the vast majority of caregivers in Canada who entered through the various programmes have left the sector shortly after obtaining residence.

Information Technology

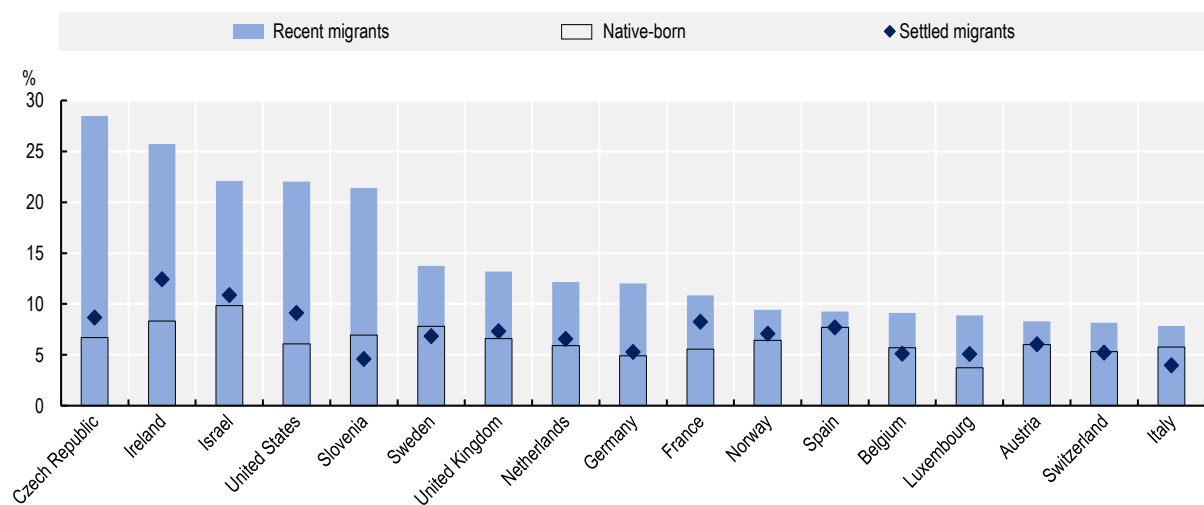
Why is migration particularly important for this sector?

In terms of GDP, Information Technology (IT) was among the most three fastest-growing sectors between 2005 and 2018 in half of all OECD countries. Over that period, the number of employed in the IT sector has grown by 42% in European countries and by 69% in the United States. In many countries, the number of new jobs created in the sector is growing faster than the number of graduates with specialised IT skills,

even if computer occupations do not necessarily require a bachelor's degree. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics projected that there would be about 116 000 job openings per year in computer-related occupations in the United States during the period 2014-24 (Wolf, 2016^[24]). According to the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey, 48% of the population in employment aged 25-44 residing in the Silicon Valley¹² was foreign-born in 2016, compared with 20% of the total US population in employment in that age group. Among workers in IT in this area, foreign-born even accounted for two in three. The IT sector builds increasingly on highly specialised knowledge, which are not always easy to find in national labour markets, i.e. big data analytics, cyber-security, coding/programming and cloud computing. The European Commission expects the market for big data to grow by 40% each year in the coming years. In the United Kingdom, the number of big data analysts working in larger firms is expected to increase by more than 240% over the next five years (ICF, 2018^[25]). In contrast to other highly skilled professions, IT specialists operate in a predominantly English-speaking environment.

Against this backdrop, it is not surprising that recent highly skilled migrants are disproportionately often employed in this sector virtually everywhere in the OECD (Figure 3.11). The shares are particularly large in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Israel and the United States.

Figure 3.11. Share of employed highly skilled migrants and native-born who work in the information and communication sector



Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of EU-LFS 2016-18, US Current Population Survey 2016-18, Israel LFS 2019.

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One striking observation is that a large share of IT specialists in many countries are Indians. In the United States, almost half of the foreign-born labour force in IT comes from India. Overall, Indian-born workers made up 14% of the population employed in IT in the United States in 2018. This is not the case, however, in Europe, where the origin of foreign-born IT workers is much more diverse, with the bulk coming from other EU countries in most European countries, with the notable exception of the United Kingdom, as well as France and the Netherlands.

The origin of the IT specialisation of India lies in local conglomerates, which began the software export industry by sending programmers to clients' sites overseas, starting as early as the mid-1970s (Dossani, 2005^[26]). As foreign ownership was restricted to 40% of the company's shares in India at the time, many

foreign firms closed their Indian operations. Since software development could not come to India, local firms decided to go to developed countries to supply programmers for installing software, thereby starting an Indian IT diaspora network (Docquier and Rapoport, 2011^[27]).

How do general and specific migration policy tools (and parameters) affect this sector?

Specific sector preferences, occupation lists and other preferential schemes

The fast-growing and high value-added IT sector is one of the sectors that is most often favoured by migration policy. In Japan, the electric and electronic information sector is included among industries in shortages, for which additional labour recruitment channels are available. The IT sector is also included in the Global Talent Independent programme in Australia. Elsewhere, where schemes giving residence to foreign workers are occupation-based, most include IT workers.

These include shortage occupations lists which waive the labour market test or provide additional points in the Point Based system (OECD, 2014^[9]). In the United Kingdom, for example, the skill shortage occupation list for Tier-2 visa includes many IT professions. This is also the case in the Danish positive list.

Germany has longstanding specific policy provisions for IT professionals. From 2000 to 2004, it had a special visa for IT specialists, the German Green Card. This was replaced by its 2004 immigration law, which facilitated high-skilled migration more generally, though admission of IT professionals remains to be facilitated through specific provisions such as a lower salary threshold and a qualification recognition waiver (see below).

In most OECD countries, IT workers are admitted through the general labour admission schemes, especially those focusing on highly skilled employment. However, several criteria in highly skilled worker schemes tend to disfavour IT foreign workers. As IT workers are often young, the wage threshold is more difficult for them to reach. For instance, as shown in OECD/European Union (2016^[28]), the EU Blue Card salary threshold is above the actual wage of half of the highly educated population in seven EU countries out of ten, and above the wage of three quarters of that population in half of the countries. As a response, eight EU countries apply a lower salary threshold for the admission of certain workers, including those in the IT sector. Qualification requirements may also hamper access to the sector, which tends to require highly specialised skills but not necessarily formal qualifications. In Germany, for example, there is a waiver of foreign qualification for IT workers if they can demonstrate three years work experience in the sector. In spite of such facilitations (lower salary threshold, qualification waiver), the majority of foreign-born workers in the IT sector in Germany has still been coming from other EU countries.

Start-up visas

In recent years, a growing number of OECD countries have implemented start-up visas. Currently, 13 OECD countries have such schemes. These visas, generally issued to a rather small number of migrants, come with many advantages, including financial support, accommodation and rights to come with dependents. While these schemes are not necessarily explicitly focused on the IT sector, by the nature of the scheme, they tend to be disproportionately used by IT start-ups.

In France, for example, start-up creators recognised as innovative business by public authorities through the “French Tech” label can obtain the “*Passeport Talent*”, the highly skilled French immigration programme. Selected start-ups (around 100 per year) – virtually all of which are either developing IT tools or IT applications – obtain in addition financial support of EUR 45K and benefit from a place of work within an incubator. In addition, their employees themselves can get a “*Passeport Talent*” if they earn at least twice the minimum wage.

Chile was the first OECD country that developed a start-up programme for migrant entrepreneurs. The scheme includes financial support ranging from USD 15K to 60K and a working space in an incubator. Other countries with start-up visas include Canada (with a permanent status), Estonia, Italy and Korea (with a financial support up to EUR 92K).

Other migration policy instruments

Intra-Company Transfer schemes, which have been implemented in virtually all OECD countries, allow multinational companies to reassign an employee with specialised expertise to work for a temporary period in another branch abroad. In some countries, there is a high proportion of IT workers among the beneficiaries. This is notably the case in the United States, where seven out of the ten top employers using intercorporate transfers are IT companies. In other countries, the use of intercorporate transfers for the IT sector is much more limited, however. For example, in Germany, only 3% of intercorporate transfers went to the IT sector. However, as seen above, Germany has particularly advantageous provisions for the admission of IT workers.

In the United States, the H-1B visa, which allows employers to recruit specialised workers for a temporary duration (up to three years, renewable once) in “specialty” occupations and sectors, is predominantly used by IT companies (USCIS, 2019^[29]). To recruit an H-1B temporary foreign worker, employers must provide proof that the job complies with the prevailing working conditions and wages of other domestic workers with the same job. New H-1B visas are currently capped at 85 000, though there is no cap for H-1B holders working at universities, non-profit and governmental research facilities. As the place of work is taken into account, and not the employer, start-ups located in such facilities are outside the cap. Many of these are in the IT sector. Employers may sponsor H-1B visa holders for permanent residence immediately and indeed, these visas are the main source for employment-based admission for permanent residency. Indeed, around 32 000 H-1B per year over the 2017-19 period have changed status, of whom at least 80% to employment categories (USCIS, 2020^[30]). In 2019, 66% of H-1B visas were issued to computer-related workers.

In most countries without specific parameters for the IT sector, specialised foreign workers in that area can usually get another permit. Indeed, IT workers are often overrepresented among these general schemes in countries where no specific provisions exist. For example, IT workers account for about 20% of issued work permits in Sweden.

Conclusion

The above analysis has revealed that migrants are concentrated in certain sectors, and this concentration has grown over time virtually everywhere. Is this sectoral dimension associated with migration policy?

It is not clear to which degree this is actually the case. Indeed, at first sight, the answer seems to be no. Even intra-European migration, where free mobility prevails, is strongly concentrated in certain sectors. Indeed, these tend to be the same sectors where other migrants are found. In addition, in most OECD countries, there are few explicit sectoral elements in migration policy.

Digging deeper, however, one does find that quite a few parameters in migration policy design have a sectoral dimension. In particular, the focus on specific occupations in many countries also implies a focus on specific sectors, as there are strong links between sectors and occupations. In addition, several general migration programmes – such as work and travel programmes – have a strong sectoral dimension. To be aware of this dimension is a first step not only in harnessing potential benefits, but also in avoiding adverse impact on specific sectors.

Like on many other policy fields, the COVID-19-related health and economic crisis is likely to have a profound impact on migration and migrant integration. The impact across sectors is not uniform, and some

sectors with large shares of migrants, such as the hospitality sector, have been disproportionately hard hit thus far. Indeed, first labour market trends suggest a disproportionate impact on migrant unemployment – not unlike the pattern observed in previous economic crises (OECD, 2009^[31]). The economic crisis may also put a break on demand-driven labour migration, and the higher unemployment will render the recourse to labour migration in general more difficult for policy makers even in those parts of the labour market where needs persist. However, the impact may be less pronounced in countries like Canada where immigration also responds to demographic objectives. Given the sectoral structure of the economy varies from one region to another; the crisis will also have an asymmetric impact on regions, highlighting the needs to better take into account the regionalisation dimension of migration policy, i.e. how migration can be used as a lever for supporting regional economic development.

At the same time, certain essential sectors which rely heavily on lower-skilled migrant labour such as meat processing – where, for example in Canada, foreign-born consist of 48% of total employment – have exposed specific health vulnerabilities, and lead to calls for tighter regulation of the sector, in particular with respect to employment conditions. Migrants have also been at the frontline in the health sector, though many foreign-trained health workers are not working in their profession due to the strong requirements for the recognition of foreign credentials in many health care professions. However, there will likely be a push for more facilitations, and to ease migrants' employment in this crucial sector where shortages were already apparent prior to the COVID crisis. The closure of borders, in contrast, has put pressure on the agricultural sector in many countries, highlighting the crucial role of temporary migration for seasonal agriculture. OECD countries responses to these seasonal needs varied and some implemented exemption measures allowing foreign seasonal workers to enter. In Greece, migrants in an irregular situation were authorised to work during the harvest peak season.

COVID-19 has also led to calls for de-globalisation of certain key sectors, such as pharmaceutical production. This may give rise to sector-specific labour needs, not all of which may be able to be filled with the domestic labour force – in spite of the likely much higher unemployment. At the same time, teleworking has expanded massively, including across borders. This may have a lasting impact on labour migration in sectors where teleworking is easily possible. In addition, there are some indications that COVID-19 may lead to an acceleration of automation in some sectors. This will impact on the demand for migrant labour.

In summary, migration has sectoral implications – whether these are intentional or not. To be aware of this dimension is a precondition for reaping intended sectoral benefits as well as for avoiding unintended adverse impact. The question is, however, whether countries will want to proactively use migration policy to favour certain sectors. This question is particularly topical in the context of an economic crisis that has a strong uneven sectoral impact (OECD, 2020^[32]). Moreover, as sectoral policies tend to be more important in a context where migration is otherwise limited, sectoral implications may become more pertinent if the overall conditions for labour migration were to become more restrictive.

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Annex 3.A. Technical annex

Industry classification

The industry classification is based on the sector for which the worker's company generates most of their revenue and profits. Two types of structures of the International Standard Industrial Classification of all economic activities (ISIC Rev4) have been used. The ISIC broad structure (classification into 21 sectors) is the basis for the analysis. In some section showing more detailed analysis, the following classification has been used:

- A Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing.
- B Mining and Quarrying.
- CA Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products.
- CB Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products.
- CG Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products.
- CH Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products, except mach. & equip.
- CI Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products.
- CJ Manufacture of electrical equipment.
- CK Manufacture of machinery and equipment not else classified.
- CL Manufacture of transport equipment.
- CX Other manufacturing.
- D Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply.
- E Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities.
- F Construction.
- GA Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles.
- GB Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles.
- GC Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles.
- HA Land transport and transport via pipelines.
- HD Warehousing and support activities for transportation.
- HX Other transport and storage.
- IA Accommodation.
- IB Food and Beverage Service Activities.
- JA Publishing, audio-visual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications.
- JC IT and other information services.
- K Financial and insurance activities.
- L Real estate activities.

- MA Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities.
- MC Scientific and technical activities.
- NA Other administrative and support service activities.
- NE Security, services to buildings and other business support activities.
- O Public administration and defence, compulsory social security.
- P Education.
- QA Human health activities.
- QB Residential care and social work activities.
- RA Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities.
- RB Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities.
- SA Activities of membership organisations.
- SC Other service activities.
- T Activities of households as employers, undifferentiated goods and services, producing activities of households for own use.
- U Activities of Extraterritorial Organisations and Bodies.

The category RB is not available in Canada, Japan and the United States and category T is not available in Japan. Given the international nature of the category U, the latter has not be taken into account in the analysis.

For Australia and New Zealand, the Australia and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC, in 19 divisions) has been used. Only sectors matching with ISIC are shown in the figures for these countries.

ISIC has been matched for both Canada and the United States with the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) as follows:

- A Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting (NAICS 111-115).
- B Mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction (211-123).
- CA Food, beverages and tobacco products manufacturing (311-312).
- CB Textile and textile product mills; Clothing, leather and allied product manufacturing (313-316).
- CG Plastics, rubber and Non-metallic mineral product manufacturing (326-327).
- CH Primary metal and fabricated metal product manufacturing (331-332).
- CI Computer and electronic product manufacturing (334).
- CJ Electrical equipment, appliance and component manufacturing (335).
- CK Machinery manufacturing (333).
- CL Transportation equipment manufacturing (336).
- CX Other manufacturing (321, 322-325, 337-339, 8 113).
- D Electric power generation, transmission and distribution; natural gas distribution (2211-2212).
- E Water, sewage and other systems (2 213).
- F Construction (236-238).

- GA Motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts and accessories merchant wholesalers and dealers, automotive repair and maintenance (4231, 441, 8 111).
- GB Durable and non-durable goods wholesale, except motor vehicle and motor vehicle parts (423-425, except 4 231).
- GC Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and parts (442-454).
- HA Land transport and transport via pipelines.
- HD Warehousing and support activities for transportation.
- HX Other transport and storage.
- IA Accommodation.
- IB Food and Beverage Service Activities.
- JA Publishing, audio-visual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications.
- JC IT and other information services.
- K Financial and insurance activities.
- L Real estate activities.
- MA Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities.
- MC Scientific and technical activities.
- NA Other administrative and support service activities.
- NE Security, services to buildings and other business support activities.
- O Public administration and defence, compulsory social security.
- P Education.
- QA Human health activities.
- QB Residential care and social work activities.
- RA Arts, entertainment, recreation, libraries and archives.
- SA Activities of membership organisations.
- SC Other service activities.
- T Activities of households as employers, undifferentiated goods and services, producing activities of households for own use.
- U Activities of Extraterritorial Organisations and Bodies.

Based on ISIC Rev.4, the statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community (NACE), which has been used to establish the classification explained above for European countries and Israel, has been revised in 2008, to better reflect the technological developments and the structural changes of the economy (Eurostat, 2008^[33]). Breaks in series occurred in some industries and data are not available for these industries before 2008. Industries with a significant break were the following: Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply; Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities; Transportation and Storage; Information and Communication; Financial and Insurance Activities; Real Estate Activities; Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities; Administrative and Support Service Activities; Arts, Entertainment and Recreation; Other Service Activities.

It is worth noting that the traditional classification of companies into sectors or industries is increasingly challenged by new business models, which combine IT platforms with other business activities. In general,

companies whose activities extend across several sectors are assigned to the sector that best reflects their principal business. Platform-based companies do not lend themselves easily into that scheme, as it is precisely the combination between different activities that is their business model (IT, trade and logistics in the case of Amazon, for example).

The Gross Value Added (GVA)

The gross value added is the value of output less the value of intermediate consumption. It is a measure of the contribution to the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) made by an individual sector. Value added is reported at basic prices, i.e. excluding taxes less subsidies on products, so it can be split among sectors, whereas the GDP cannot. Indeed, GDP is valued at market prices (as paid on the market by the purchaser) on the whole economy, therefore it includes taxes less subsidies on products (mainly VAT paid by the purchaser). Data quality on taxes are good with respect to the total economy but their detail across industries and institutional sectors is not.

GVA is therefore the best indicator to identify economically declining and growing industries. However, analysing the evolution of the GVA share by sector is limited by the fact that there is no internationally comparable data distinguishing the different components of productivity growth by industry (labour force composition, capital intensity and multifactorial productivity). Besides, labour force productivity cannot be broken down by country of birth.

The industry classification of GVA statistics is the same as the one used elsewhere in the chapter (see above), with the exception of accommodation and food service activities, which cannot be distinguished.

Measurement issues in the analysis of the industry structure of the migrant labour force

The standard source for comparable data on labour force are Labour Force Surveys, which include for all countries the same definition of the “population in employment” and provide details on job characteristics, including the occupation and the industry/sector.

However, a key problem when using household surveys to describe the foreign-born population is the coverage of migrants. In addition to the basic issues affecting the coverage of migrants (e.g. lower response rate because of a lack of host-country language, under-declaration of the number of residents), further issues relate to the sample size of interviewed migrants and the actual representativeness of migrant workers in surveys.

Sample size issues grow with the detail of the analysis. Therefore, looking at foreign-born working in a specific small sector or subsector is often not possible in countries with a small migrant population. In order to remain over the reliability threshold in as many sectors as possible, two types of structures of the International Standard Industrial Classification of all economic activities (ISIC Rev4) have been used in the chapter (see above). To obtain sufficient sample size for foreign-born, three years of survey were merged in the detailed structural breakdown.

Some categories of migrant workers are not well covered by standard population surveys. By definition, temporary migrant workers with a very short work contract may not be around at the time of the survey data collection. Even those available might not be included if they are not considered to be usual residents. These issues affect in particular temporary migration categories, such as seasonal foreign workers, intra-company transferees, posted workers and different categories of short-term contract foreign workers. Some of those categories contribute more or less significantly to certain sectors (e.g. seasonal workers in agriculture and tourism, posted workers in construction).

In addition, labour force surveys only cover people living in ordinary households. Therefore, seasonal workers living e.g. in housing structures directly within farms or in tourism resorts are not covered at all. This leads to a large underestimation of migrant workers in seasonal agriculture, where most seasonal workers live in non-ordinary households.

Data on seasonal workers is also difficult to obtain from administrative sources. While most countries with a seasonal worker programmes collect data on foreign seasonal workers, these data are hardly broken down by sector.

However, the biggest issue, as far as the estimate of seasonal workers is concerned, is the counting of migrants who benefit from free mobility, who can take any job available without the requirement of a residence permit or a work authorisation. This is a particular issue in Europe, where seasonal work is often done by migrants from other EU countries, who do not necessarily register in the host country when the stay is short.

What is more, individual seasonal workers may be counted multiple times over the same year, since most data collection counts contracts, rather than the number of persons. Yet, the same individual may have several contracts if he/she works for several employers. This may even be the case if he/she works only for one employer but has several separate working periods throughout the year.

In some sectors, especially agriculture, construction, domestic services, and hospitality, illegal employment of foreign workers is also an issue, which raises a separate set of coverage and measurement issues (see OECD (2018_[13]) for an in-depth discussion of this issue).

Annex 3.B. Statistical annex

Annex Table 3.B.1. Ranking of sectors by share of migrants, OECD countries, 2016-18

Share among the total population in employment

	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	ISL	ISR	ITA	JPN	LTU	LUX	LVA	NLD	NOR	POL	SVN	SWE	EU-28 ranking	USA ranking	EU-28 %	USA %
Act. of HH as employers, undif. G&S-producing activities of HH for own use	4	2	1	4	31	2	1	ns	10	1	1	1	ns	ns	1	na	ns	1	ns	2	ns	ns	ns	ns	1	1	52.5	45.5	
Food and Beverage Service Activities	2	4	13	3	9	1	2	28	1	4	4	5	10	6	33	3	6	22	4	24	7	3	2	5	1	2	12	25.6	22.5
Accommodation	3	1	7	1	3	4	3	24	2	3	5	6	8	2	6	2	9	5	12	ns	8	2	ns	4	4	3	23.7	32.1	
Security, services to buildings and other business support activities	1	3	15	5	8	3	7	7	3	2	9	3	27	10	12	8	26	11	3	16	1	4	18	1	2	4	5	21.4	30.2
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	15	13	11	11	4	5	13	5	13	18	3	13	16	20	17	7	22	14	26	7	6	11	ns	3	14	5	11	18.6	23.5
Other administrative and support service activities	21	10	8	6	1	20	5	ns	9	14	19	9	ns	8	15	11	11	13	9	ns	11	6	ns	18	8	6	15	16.0	19.0
Other service activities	14	15	17	20	12	11	9	23	4	9	22	14	22	ns	10	4	25	8	16	14	17	9	ns	17	3	7	9	15.7	26.4
IT and other information services	28	21	4	14	2	27	24	14	7	6	28	11	14	18	33	12	16	2	9	20	12	4	24	19	8	6	14.7	28.6	
Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	6	14	6	13	21	8	10	25	8	34	2	8	12	5	16	9	3	29	8	10	9	7	14	8	9	9	7	14.6	27.0
Construction	10	7	31	12	10	15	6	19	11	5	28	2	25	18	31	5	24	26	5	23	36	15	21	2	31	10	8	14.3	26.5
Residential care and social work activities	17	12	20	24	32	23	17	17	19	13	17	23	24	12	14	13	33	30	33	21	28	13	ns	13	6	11	20	14.1	16.7
Scientific and technical activities	18	9	19	16	7	24	14	27	5	8	12	22	6	11	21	29	16	37	13	25	19	10	5	21	10	12	23	14.1	15.9
Other transport and storage	9	11	23	31	30	7	20	12	17	31	10	30	28	15	25	28	35	3	21	12	13	17	ns	27	13	13	24	13.4	15.5
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	26	30	18	35	26	17	31	ns	24	38	23	ns	31	ns	9	21	10	ns	7	4	25	16	ns	16	22	14	30	12.4	13.6
Land transport and transport via pipelines	8	6	9	26	28	13	18	9	14	12	7	32	20	7	24	16	29	7	28	13	21	8	25	6	5	15	10	12.3	24.3
Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products	31	23	26	21	24	10	30	4	22	27	37	11	23	24	7	10	5	28	17	11	16	35	ns	14	21	16	29	12.2	14.1
Manufacture of transport equipment	20	16	16	10	6	12	34	ns	15	25	29	ns	30	ns	5	15	2	ns	ns	2	3	14	16	7	12	17	27	12.1	14.6
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	24	24	22	15	15	25	11	26	23	21	11	19	4	25	26	27	15	24	14	15	18	26	8	28	25	18	17	12.0	17.9
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	11	28	3	7	18	19	29	1	6	32	16	ns	26	ns	11	32	8	1	6	ns	12	ns	ns	29	23	19	4	11.9	30.6
Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities	7	17	33	30	17	14	21	ns	29	17	30	25	5	ns	28	25	18	17	23	32	24	18	ns	32	34	20	34	11.7	11.9
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	22	18	28	27	5	22	12	20	21	19	21	18	13	19	19	19	27	27	20	27	35	19	17	23	24	21	25	11.7	15.4
Real estate activities	13	26	10	22	16	33	8	2	30	7	32	ns	ns	ns	20	26	23	9	19	5	38	20	ns	9	32	22	22	11.5	16.5
Activities of membership organizations	32	5	29	28	27	34	23	21	31	20	27	29	ns	26	27	18	20	21	32	ns	26	31	ns	20	29	23	35	11.4	10.8
Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products	12	31	14	2	19	9	27	18	18	35	18	7	36	1	3	14	4	18	24	19	10	24	26	10	17	24	16	11.2	18.4
Publishing, audiovisual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications	25	25	24	33	13	29	19	34	32	22	20	24	2	34	34	37	28	15	27	30	23	29	ns	35	27	25	26	11.2	14.8
Human health activities	30	29	27	19	11	30	32	10	26	28	13	27	14	17	13	31	34	12	31	6	30	21	29	15	18	26	21	11.1	16.6
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	19	20	na	23	38	28	15	22	27	11	38	21	ns	9	37	17	na	25	29	29	37	22	ns	26	33	27	na	10.9	na
Other manufacturing	27	27	25	18	33	21	26	11	35	33	25	12	29	21	4	20	14	19	18	17	15	30	23	25	26	28	14	10.0	19.0
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	35	22	32	32	34	18	22	ns	20	30	33	16	35	35	38	30	31	36	25	34	31	28	ns	38	16	29	19	10.0	16.9
Manufacture of electrical equipment	16	34	5	8	23	16	35	13	12	29	26	10	21	ns	2	22	7	ns	ns	14	ns	ns	ns	12	20	30	18	10.0	17.1
Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	5	35	2	9	14	6	25	3	ns	10	8	4	7	ns	8	12	1	4	34	1	5	ns	ns	19	7	31	2	9.9	33.5
Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities	34	33	21	25	29	35	33	30	28	23	15	35	32	28	23	36	30	20	10	31	27	23	7	30	28	32	31	9.8	12.7
Financial and insurance activities	36	32	12	29	22	38	38	29	33	26	14	37	33	33	29	39	32	ns	11	36	33	34	13	36	35	33	28	9.2	14.3
Education	33	37	30	34	25	32	36	15	25	24	31	36	15	22	35	35	13	10	35	20	32	27	20	31	11	34	33	9.0	12.3
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	23	19	36	17	35	26	28	ns	ns	16	34	15	ns	ns	22	24	19	2	36	3	22	ns	ns	11	30	35	38	8.9	7.4
Mining and Quarrying	29	8	37	36	20	31	16	8	ns	ns	24	ns	ns	ns	36	23	17	ns	ns	ns	4	25	ns	ns	37	36	32	6.8	12.4
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	39	39	38	39	36	36	4	36	37	39	35	17	17	23	30	6	21	35	38	37	39	38	34	37	39	37	13	6.5	22.5
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	37	38	34	37	39	37	37	6	ns	37	39	39	ns	ns	32	34	37	23	37	33	29	ns	39	22	38	38	37	5.4	8.8
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	38	36	35	38	37	39	39	35	38	36	36	38	37	31	39	38	36	34	39	38	34	36	35	34	36	39	36	5.3	9.4

Note: 1: highest share among all sectors; 39: lowest share among all sectors. The table is sorted by the ranking for the EU-28. Data for Japan refer to foreign nationals, not foreign-born. Survey results based on a non-significant sample are marked "ns". Data not available are marked "na". Data for Japan have been calculated from micro-data of the Japanese population census 2015 in line with the statistics act, Article 33 (1), funded by JSPS Grant-in-aid for scientific research, 17H04785.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS 2016-18), Current Population Survey (CPS 2016-18), Canadian Census 2016, Israel LFS 2019, Japanese Census 2015.

Annex Table 3.B.2. Ranking of sectors by share of migrants born in EU countries, OECD countries, 2016-18

Share among the total population in employment

	EU-28 %	EU-28 ranking	AUT	BEL	CHE	CZE	DEU	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	ISL	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	NLD	NOR	SVN	SWE
Act. of HH as employers, undif. G&S-producing activities of HH for own use	24.9	1	6	1	3	28	1	1	ns	ns	1	2	1	ns	ns	1	ns	1	ns	17	ns	ns	ns
Accommodation	12.0	2	2	3	1	2	4	3	22	1	3	3	4	11	4	3	4	17	ns	18	2	4	5
Food Service Activities	10.2	3	3	6	5	16	2	6	29	5	11	5	5	14	9	6	27	9	24	22	6	6	6
Security, services to buildings and other business support activities	9.5	4	1	2	10	4	3	17	7	3	7	9	3	27	8	8	8	5	13	3	5	2	2
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	9.5	5	18	30	11	6	5	19	5	12	18	4	16	15	28	13	14	24	10	4	16	3	20
Construction	9.0	6	7	4	7	8	10	5	15	2	2	12	2	23	12	2	23	3	23	25	8	1	19
Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	8.1	7	4	28	16	19	6	16	24	9	35	1	7	9	5	7	32	4	11	7	7	9	12
Other administrative and support service activities	7.5	8	26	12	8	3	18	2	ns	11	26	29	9	ns	7	12	15	12	ns	8	4	17	9
Scientific and technical activities	7.3	9	19	8	13	7	26	10	26	6	4	11	25	10	13	25	35	10	26	14	13	20	7
Other service activities	7.1	10	14	13	25	13	15	15	25	4	13	26	13	ns	ns	5	20	16	18	13	9	19	8
IT and other information services	6.7	11	25	14	12	1	28	13	12	7	9	14	30	7	15	34	28	2	8	20	15	25	11
Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products	6.5	12	28	19	20	22	7	33	4	17	16	31	11	28	17	10	22	13	9	6	ns	15	15
Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products	6.3	13	8	33	2	15	9	14	17	10	28	6	8	ns	1	14	17	26	19	5	ns	11	4
Manufacture of transport equipment	6.3	14	15	16	15	5	12	27	ns	ns	24	17	ns	25	ns	17	ns	ns	2	2	12	8	10
Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities	6.3	15	9	10	35	12	14	12	ns	22	10	30	24	3	ns	18	13	22	33	15	10	33	29
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	6.2	16	24	26	32	24	19	30	ns	15	37	10	ns	29	ns	23	ns	14	6	21	14	13	22
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	6.1	17	22	21	14	20	22	11	27	19	14	8	20	6	25	26	16	11	14	12	27	28	25
Other transport and storage	6.1	18	13	29	30	29	8	25	21	24	36	13	34	22	14	30	2	21	12	23	26	23	14
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	6.0	19	10	11	4	18	20	20	2	8	19	18	ns	26	ns	32	1	20	ns	24	ns	26	26
Real estate activities	5.7	20	11	20	18	11	32	4	1	18	5	37	ns	ns	ns	22	11	18	4	37	18	7	33
Land transport and transport via pipelines	5.6	21	12	9	23	27	13	7	9	14	31	21	29	17	6	9	7	30	15	19	11	5	13
Residential care and social work activities	5.6	22	20	25	29	31	24	32	16	25	23	32	22	21	21	11	29	32	22	36	29	12	16
Other manufacturing	5.4	23	27	27	17	33	21	21	11	35	21	15	12	24	24	20	19	15	17	11	20	27	23
Manufacture of electrical equipment	5.3	24	16	35	6	23	16	35	13	ns	33	16	10	18	38	21	ns	ns	ns	16	ns	14	3
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	5.1	25	33	24	33	35	17	18	ns	23	12	28	19	ns	30	31	34	27	32	28	22	38	21
Publishing, audiovisual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications	5.0	26	29	18	31	10	30	22	33	31	17	25	28	2	ns	37	10	25	34	32	30	35	27
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	4.9	27	23	22	27	21	23	26	20	27	25	24	21	19	18	29	26	23	29	33	31	24	35
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	4.9	28	21	15	24	39	31	23	19	ns	27	35	17	ns	10	16	18	28	28	34	19	29	36
Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	4.9	29	5	32	9	14	11	31	3	ns	6	7	6	5	ns	19	5	33	1	1	ns	18	1
Human health activities	4.7	30	30	34	19	9	29	36	10	26	32	33	27	12	22	28	9	29	7	31	28	16	18
Activities of membership organizations	4.6	31	34	7	26	32	34	24	23	30	29	36	ns	ns	ns	27	25	31	ns	29	ns	22	30
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	4.6	32	17	17	22	34	25	38	ns	ns	38	20	15	ns	ns	24	3	ns	3	10	ns	10	28
Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities	4.6	33	32	23	21	30	35	29	28	29	22	22	36	33	29	36	21	7	30	27	23	31	31
Education	4.2	34	31	36	34	26	33	28	14	20	20	34	33	13	19	35	12	35	21	30	25	32	17
Financial and insurance activities	4.2	35	36	31	28	25	38	37	32	33	34	23	39	30	26	38	ns	8	35	35	34	36	32
Mining and Quarrying	3.6	36	ns	ns	36	17	27	9	6	ns	ns	27	ns	ns	ns	15	ns	ns	ns	9	24	ns	24
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	3.6	37	39	39	39	36	36	8	36	36	15	19	14	20	16	4	36	38	36	26	36	37	37
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	2.8	38	37	38	37	38	37	34	8	ns	30	38	38	ns	ns	33	24	36	31	39	ns	21	38
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	2.2	39	38	37	38	37	37	39	35	38	39	39	37	37	31	39	33	39	38	38	38	34	34

Note: 1: highest share among all sectors; 39: lowest share among all sectors. The table is sorted by the ranking for the EU-28. Survey results based on a non-significant sample are marked "ns". Data not available are marked "na". Source: EU-LFS 2016-18. See Annex 3.A for a detailed explanation of the classification used.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/wt9o71>

Annex Table 3.B.3. Ranking of sectors by share of migrants born in non-EU countries, OECD countries, 2016-18

Share among the total population in employment

	EU-28 %	EU-28 ranking																	
		AUT	BEL	CHE	CZE	DEU	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	SVN	SWE		
Act. of HH as employers, undif. G&S-producing activities of HH for own use	26.3	1 ns	ns		4 ns		2	1 ns		4	3	1	1	10	2 ns	ns	ns		
Food Service Activities	13.4	2	1	2	1	3	1	2	1	2	4	6	2	3	3	1	2	1	
Accommodation	10.0	3	5	1	2	6	5	3	3	3	21	17	6	6	5	2	3	6	
Security, services to buildings and other business support activities	9.6	4	2	3	3 ns		6	5	2	1	7	3	5	5	1	4	1	2	
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	6.5	9	17	8	14	7	7	13	19	16	19	8	3 ns		11	11 ns		13	
Other administrative and support service activities	7.7	5	9	11	5	2	26	12	11	12	12	9	8	7	13	9 ns		8	
Other service activities	7.4	6	10	15	15	4	4	6	4	10	20	18	7	14	16	7 ns		3	
IT and other information services	7.2	8	34	22	17	9	21	27	12	5	2 ns		33	11	18	15	17	19	
Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	5.2	18	12	10	7	22	12	10	10	30	18	7	11 ns		9	6	20	9	
Construction	4.1	26	25	30	35	19	31	8	28	11	36	11	20	26	37	37	9	36	
Residential care and social work activities	7.3	7	11	9	8 ns		22	9	15	13	9 ns		15	17	23	8	23	4	
Scientific and technical activities	5.6	14	18	20	23	12	18	21	6	17	15	15	30	16	21	16 ns		12	
Other transport and storage	5.9	11	6	5	26 ns		8	17	13	29	8	14	22	24	7	13 ns		15	
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	3.7	29	33	31	34 ns		19	31	24	34	30 ns		17	2	30 ns		28	21	
Land transport and transport via pipelines	6.0	10	4	6	30	26	9	25	14	6	1 ns		26	9	20	5	5	5	
Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products	4.0	27	31	18	29 ns		11	28	22	33	37	16	9 ns		27 ns		16	22	
Manufacture of transport equipment	3.6	30	27	13	16	23	14	36	8	24	31 ns		16 ns		10 ns		19	14	
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	4.8	20	23	17	22	5	25	14	20	21	23	19	24	20	22	18	18	24	
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	3.9	28	15 ns		9	11	16	37	5	32	17 ns		32 ns		6 ns	ns		20	
Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities	4.3	24	7	23	12 ns		13	24 ns		25	26 ns		27 ns		32 ns	ns		34	
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	5.8	12	19	12	20	1	17	7	18	14	16	13	13	13	31	10	21	17	
Real estate activities	5.3	17	16	26	32 ns		32	16 ns		9	25 ns		25 ns		38 ns	ns		27	
Activities of membership organizations	5.7	13	24	7	24 ns		33	18 ns		15	13	10	12 ns		25 ns	ns		32	
Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products	3.3	35	28	28	6	24	10	32	21	37	35	4	14	8	15 ns		10	25	
Publishing, audiovisual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications	5.1	19	21	27	31	10	27	15 ns		19	14	20	37	28	17	17 ns		29	
Human health activities	5.4	16	22	21	21	21	29	29	26	27	5	30	31	31	26	14	7	18	
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	5.4	15	14	19	19 ns		24	11 ns		7	34 ns		18 ns		36 ns	ns		23	
Other manufacturing	3.5	32	26	25	18	31	23	26	32	35	29	21	19 ns		12	32	15	28	
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	3.5	33	30	14	27	20	20	22	17	36	33	12	28	12	35	26 ns		16	
Manufacture of electrical equipment	3.3	34	20	24	10	15	15	30	9	26	28 ns		21 ns		8 ns		6	30	
Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	4.4	23	8	35	11	8	3	19 ns		22	10	2	4 ns		14 ns	ns		10	
Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities	4.5	21	32	36	33	25	34	34	25	18	11	29	35	21	29	22	8	26	
Financial and insurance activities	4.5	22	36	33	28	14	37	33 ns		23	6	24	39	18	28	30 ns		35	
Education	4.2	25	29	34	25	18	30	38	23	20	24	33	34	29	33	25	14	11	
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	3.6	31	35	16	13 ns		28	20 ns		8	38 ns		23 ns		34 ns	ns		33	
Mining and Quarrying	2.6	38 ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	23 ns	ns	ns	22 ns		29 ns		4	24 ns	ns	ns	
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	2.8	36 ns		39	38 ns		38	4	36	39	39	32	10 ns		39 ns	ns		39	
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	2.1	39 ns		37	36 ns		35	35 ns		38	32 ns		36 ns		19 ns	ns		37	
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	2.7	37	38	29	37 ns		39	39	38	31	27	35	38	34	24	28	26	31	

Note: 1: highest share among all sectors; 39: lowest share among all sectors. The table is sorted by the ranking for the EU-28. Survey results based on a non-significant sample are marked "ns". Data not available are marked "na".

Source: EU-LFS 2016-18. See Annex 3.A for a detailed explanation of the classification used.

Annex Table 3.B.4. Ranking of sectors by share of recent migrants, OECD countries, 2016-18

Share among the total population in employment

	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	ESP	FRA	GBR	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	SWE	EU-28 ranking	USA ranking	EU-28 %	USA %	
Act. of HH as employers, undef. G&S-producing activities of HH for own use	18 ns		1	2 ns		3	1	4	2	1	1	28 ns	ns		1	2	5.2	6.5	
Accommodation	3	1	4	1 ns		2	6	1	3	2	3	8	2	2	2	4	4.6	3.6	
Food and Beverage Service Activities	2	3	3	5	25	1	3	3	5	15	4	12	5	1	3	9	4.4	2.8	
IT and other information services	14	6	2	4	2	9	5	5	6	13	28	2	7	11	4	1	3.8	6.6	
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	23	12	10	27	8	6	23	14	4	19	11 ns		20	18	5	5	3.0	3.5	
Security, services to buildings and other business support activities	1	2	7	6	10	8	20	2	9	7	8	5	8	4	6	7	2.9	3.0	
Scientific and technical activities	9	9	12	8	22	11	4	6	7	23	15	4	10	7	7	17	2.8	2.1	
Other administrative and support service activities	17	14	6	3 ns		18	2	10	11	8	13	7	3	6	8	14	2.7	2.3	
Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	6	16	5	12	21	5	15	13	1	12	10	14	9	8	9	6	2.5	3.5	
Other transport and storage	5	17	33	15 ns		4	16 ns		13 ns		16	20	13	9	10	24	2.3	1.6	
Publishing, audiovisual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications	29	8	13	14	1	10	13	25	14 ns	ns		23	12	19	11	19	2.1	1.9	
Construction	13	7	27	22	13	7	14	9	22	18	12	25	25	15	12	10	2.0	2.6	
Other service activities	8	20	21	24 ns		13	10	22	25	9	9	19	16	5	13	11	1.9	2.6	
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	4	10	9	17	12	22	9 ns		18	17 ns	ns	ns	ns	36	14	3	1.8	4.1	
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	22	24	19	9	9	24	25	16	8	31	19	16	18	30	15	18	1.6	2.0	
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	7 ns	na		10 ns		21	12	11	37	20	7	15 ns		20	16 na		1.6 na		
Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities	19	18	23	7	26	34	26	20	17	25	34	6	24	24	17	32	1.6	1.1	
Manufacture of transport equipment	16	29	25	11	3	14	29	18	19	5	22 ns		4	21	18	22	1.6	1.7	
Financial and insurance activities	33	28	17	25	16	37	30	30	16	35 ns		11	30	26	19	27	1.5	1.5	
Residential care and social work activities	28	26	14	31 ns		30	33	27	29	10	17	34	37	13	20	23	1.5	1.7	
Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities	11	21	30	32 ns		15	17	8	36	22	24	13 ns		23	21	31	1.5	1.2	
Activities of membership organizations	35	5	20	19 ns		36	8	15	32 ns		5 ns		19	28	22	35	1.4	0.8	
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	24	25	15	34	11	29	18	24	23	16	14	21	29	22	23	20	1.4	1.9	
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	31	30	32	36	15	20	22	23	30	26	21	32	28	10	24	25	1.3	1.6	
Manufacture of electrical equipment	10 ns		11	28	5	17 ns	ns		20	3 ns	ns		1	16	25	13	1.3	2.4	
Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products	15	35	18	21	18	16	34 ns		10	4	25	27	11	29	26	16	1.2	2.2	
Real estate activities	26 ns		29	30 ns		35	7	17	38 ns		26	18 ns		35	27	33	1.2	1.0	
Other manufacturing	25	22	24	13	17	26	28	31	21	21	20	24	23	34	28	21	1.2	1.9	
Education	27	37	26	16	19	33	19	26	34	30	32	31	26	14	29	26	1.2	1.6	
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	30	11	16	29	24	32	37 ns		15	11	29	3 ns		33	30	28	1.2	1.4	
Human health activities	34	36	31	23	6	31	27	34	31	24	36	29	34	27	31	30	1.2	1.3	
Land transport and transport via pipelines	21	19	22	26	29	23	32	33	24	27	23	30	17	17	32	15	1.1	2.3	
Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	ns	ns		8	20	7	12	21 ns		12	6	6	39 ns		12	33	8	1.0	3.0
Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products, except mach. & equip.	36	31	28	37	27	19	36	32	35	14	18	17	21	31	34	34	1.0	0.9	
Mining and Quarrying	ns	ns	34 ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	27 ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	35	29	1.0	1.3	
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	ns	27	36	18 ns		28 ns		21	26 ns	ns	ns	ns		32	36	38	1.0	0.2	
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	38	15	35	38	30	27	11	29	28 ns		2 ns		22	25	37	12	0.8	2.5	
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	ns	ns	37	35 ns		38	31 ns		33 ns	ns		38 ns	ns		38	36	0.6	0.8	
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	37	39	38	39 ns		39	39	39	39	34 ns		37	39	38	39	37	0.3	0.6	

Note: 1: highest share among all sectors; 39: lowest share among all sectors. The table is sorted by the ranking for the EU-28. Recent migrants are those with at most five years of residence. Survey results based on a non-significant sample are marked "ns". Data not available are marked "na".

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS 2016-18), Current Population Survey (CPS 2016-18) 2018, Canadian Census 2016, Israel LFS 2019.

Annex Table 3.B.5. Ranking of sectors by share of settled migrants, OECD countries, 2016-18

Share among the total population in employment

	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	ISR	ITA	LTU	LUX	LVA	NLD	NOR	SWE	SVN	EU-28 ranking	USA ranking	EU-28 %	USA %
Act. of HH as employers, undif. G&S-producing activities of HH for own use	5	4	22	9	24	1	1	ns	ns	1	1	1	ns	22	1	ns	1	ns	2	ns	ns	ns	1	1	36.9	34.2
Food and Beverage Service Activities	2	2	27	3	10	2	3	26	1	4	6	5	7	38	4	23	5	26	6	1	3	5	2	12	15.6	16.6
Accommodation	6	1	17	4	4	13	2	22	2	3	13	6	10	14	2	5	15	ns	15	4	15	6	3	3	14.1	24.1
Security, services to buildings and other business support activities	1	3	20	6	7	3	7	8	6	2	7	3	30	11	7	11	11	15	1	2	6	2	4	4	13.5	23.5
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	13	21	11	8	5	9	13	6	15	23	10	14	16	15	5	13	21	6	4	13	13	3	5	11	10.5	16.8
Other service activities	18	9	10	17	14	8	9	21	3	10	23	13	28	7	6	12	13	21	17	6	5	16	6	7	10.3	20.4
Other administrative and support service activities	16	17	15	15	1	24	6	ns	14	16	22	10	ns	13	11	15	32	ns	16	10	8	23	7	17	10.2	14.0
Residential care and social work activities	14	13	24	14	26	19	11	19	16	13	11	20	17	12	13	28	20	19	25	12	4	9	8	21	9.9	12.8
Construction	11	19	31	11	6	25	5	20	19	5	29	2	24	35	3	22	2	23	36	29	36	1	9	6	9.4	20.8
Land transport and transport via pipelines	4	6	6	19	28	7	14	9	11	8	2	29	22	24	16	7	22	12	18	3	2	4	10	9	9.3	18.9
Real estate activities	9	20	3	13	8	29	8	1	28	6	25	ns	ns	18	25	8	7	4	37	9	28	17	11	16	8.9	14.0
Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	8	14	14	12	19	11	10	24	8	38	3	7	14	16	9	30	3	8	7	8	9	11	12	8	8.7	19.8
Manuf. of basic metals and fabricated metal products, except mach. & equip.	27	18	21	10	23	5	28	5	20	27	36	11	29	3	8	24	8	10	13	ns	16	14	13	25	8.4	11.7
Other transport and storage	19	10	13	32	33	16	24	13	23	28	8	33	ns	25	27	3	16	7	12	16	19	22	14	22	8.1	12.5
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	22	24	19	22	17	22	12	28	17	20	14	18	4	26	28	27	9	13	20	21	23	34	15	18	8.1	14.0
Scientific and technical activities	20	22	18	26	11	28	19	25	5	9	19	26	6	21	29	38	31	30	22	15	17	20	16	24	8.0	11.8
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	17	16	29	18	2	18	15	18	18	15	18	19	9	20	22	25	12	25	35	17	27	26	17	26	7.9	11.5
IT and other information services	35	26	5	27	3	30	29	32	9	7	9	32	15	17	34	31	29	14	21	14	26	32	18	13	7.9	16.4
Human health activities	21	25	25	16	13	26	34	10	26	25	5	25	8	9	30	9	27	5	26	11	14	12	19	19	7.9	13.6
Activities of membership organizations	30	7	28	31	20	32	25	ns	32	19	16	34	ns	27	17	21	25	ns	27	20	30	29	20	35	7.7	9.0
Arts, cultural activities, gambling and betting activities	7	15	34	25	16	15	18	ns	24	18	26	22	3	28	26	26	28	34	23	7	34	33	21	34	7.7	9.4
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	24	37	12	29	30	14	30	ns	22	36	30	ns	ns	5	19	ns	23	ns	24	19	18	19	22	29	7.6	11.0
Manufacture of rubber, plastics and other non-metallic mineral products	10	28	9	1	18	6	22	16	21	34	31	9	ns	8	12	17	18	18	8	ns	12	8	23	15	7.4	14.3
Sports activities and amusement and recreation activities	23	23	na	30	36	27	17	17	27	12	35	24	ns	37	23	18	37	ns	38	30	35	21	24	na	7.3	na
Manufacture of transport equipment	15	8	7	21	9	10	33	ns	26	34	ns	31	6	15	ns	ns	ns	3	22	10	15	25	27	7.2	11.1	
Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	3	36	1	7	15	4	23	3	ns	11	4	4	5	10	14	4	17	1	5	ns	1	13	26	2	7.1	26.9
Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	28	34	2	5	21	20	35	2	4	32	17	ns	21	4	32	1	ns	ns	11	ns	20	25	27	5	6.8	22.7
Other manufacturing	29	29	23	20	32	21	27	12	33	33	27	12	20	2	20	16	6	16	9	28	24	28	28	14	6.7	15.2
Publishing, audiovisual, broadcasting activities and telecommunications	25	32	26	35	31	34	21	29	29	17	21	27	1	33	37	14	30	36	28	31	33	35	29	30	6.7	10.8
Manufacture of electrical equipment	26	30	4	2	25	12	31	11	7	30	28	8	25	1	18	ns	ns	ns	10	ns	22	10	30	23	6.5	12.3
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	31	11	32	23	34	17	20	ns	12	31	33	16	ns	36	31	36	14	32	32	35	21	38	31	20	6.4	13.4
Legal, accounting, management, architecture, engineering activities	34	33	16	33	29	35	32	31	30	22	15	36	33	23	36	20	24	27	31	27	31	24	32	31	6.3	10.3
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	12	12	36	24	35	23	26	ns	ns	14	38	15	ns	19	24	2	ns	2	19	ns	29	7	33	38	6.3	6.4
Education	32	35	30	34	27	33	36	15	25	21	24	35	12	34	33	10	36	22	33	23	11	27	34	33	6.2	9.5
Financial and insurance activities	36	27	8	28	22	37	38	30	34	29	12	37	27	29	39	ns	10	33	34	24	32	36	35	28	6.0	11.0
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	39	39	37	39	38	39	4	37	38	39	39	17	19	31	10	34	39	37	39	ns	39	37	36	10	4.6	18.0
Mining and Quarrying	ns	5	38	36	12	31	16	7	ns	24	20	ns	ns	32	21	ns	ns	ns	14	18	38	ns	37	32	4.4	9.8
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	38	31	35	37	37	38	39	33	37	35	32	38	35	39	38	33	38	38	29	32	25	30	38	36	4.3	8.2
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	37	38	33	38	39	36	37	4	ns	37	37	39	ns	30	35	19	ns	28	30	ns	37	18	39	37	3.7	7.1

Note: 1: highest share among all sectors; 39: lowest share among all sectors. The table is sorted by the ranking for the EU-28. A settled migrant is a foreign-born living in the host country for ten years or more. Survey results based on a non-significant sample are marked "ns". Data not available are marked "na".

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations (see Annex 3.A) on the basis of European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS 2016-18), Current Population Survey (CPS 2016-18) 2018, Canadian Census 2016, Israel LFS 2019.

Notes

¹ In this chapter, “sector” generally refers to a larger, general part of the economy, while the term “industry” is more specific and refers to smaller sub-sectors. That notwithstanding, the terms “industry structure” and “sectoral structure” are used synonymously in this chapter.

² The terms “migrant” and “foreign-born” are used synonymously in this chapter.

³ See, for instance, the Norwegian example (Shin et al., 2019^[34]).

⁴ The terms “under-represented” and “overrepresented” refer to the share of migrants in the respective sector compared with their share in overall employment.

⁵ Data for Japan refer to foreign nationals and are tabulated from micro-data of the Japanese population census 2015 in line with the statistics act, Article 33 (1), funded by JSPS Grant-in-aid for scientific research, 17H04785.

⁶ Public service sectors include the sectors O, P and Q, according to the ISIC, i.e. Public administration and defence, compulsory social security; Education; Human health, residential care and social work activities.

⁷ The share of highly skilled workers exceeds 50% in most OECD countries in the following sectors: information and communication technology; finance; professional, scientific and technical activities; education; human health and social work.

⁸ There is a break in series in 2008 for some industries. See Annex 3.A for more details.

⁹ Sectors where the share of low- and medium skilled workers exceed two thirds in most OECD countries include water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities; construction; wholesale and retail trade; accommodation and food services; transport and storage; administrative and support service; activities of households as employers of domestic personnel.

¹⁰ In Ireland, there is a special programme for meat-deboners – an occupation exclusive to the meatpacking industry.

¹¹ The primary units to be classified in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) are jobs, and industries in the International Standard Industry Classification (ISIC). Jobs are classified in ISCO on the basis of the type of work performed, that is, the task and duties to be carried out. ISIC provides categories for the classification of units based on the activities carried out by these units. ISIC and ISCO have different functions and conceptions. However, when similarities and differences between certain groups in ISCO are based on the type of distinctions that are reflected in ISIC (i.e. between the type of products, namely, goods and services, that are being produced or sold), the ISCO groups are defined in a manner that is generally consistent with the definition of these goods and services in ISIC.

¹² According to the Silicon Valley Institute for Regional Studies, the Silicon Valley is made up by the Santa Clara and San Mateo Counties.

4 Country notes: Recent changes in migration movements and policies

Australia

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 7.5 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> United Kingdom (16%), China (9%), India (8%)
29.7% of the population	
Evolution since 2008: +34%	

In 2018, Australia received 193 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -11.6% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 7.3% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 27.1% labour migrants, 57% family members (including accompanying family) and 8.4% humanitarian migrants. Around 163 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 397 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

India, China and New Zealand were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, New Zealand registered the strongest increase (+2 700) and India the largest decrease (-6 000) in flows to Australia compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by 5%, to reach around 27 000. The majority of applicants came from Malaysia (7 100), China (5 100) and India (2 500). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of India (+700) and the largest decrease nationals of Malaysia (-2 700). Of the 26 000 decisions taken in 2019, 15.1% were positive.

The Australian Government announced a series of migration initiatives to support regional Australia, including three new skilled regional visas, effective in November 2019: the Skilled Work Regional (Provisional) visa (subclass 491); the Skilled Employer Sponsored Regional (Provisional) visa (subclass 494) and the Permanent Residence (Skilled Regional) visa (subclass 191). They replace the previous Skilled Regional (Provisional) visa (subclass 489) and the Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme visa (subclass 187).

Regional Australia was redefined as all of Australia except Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane. Once holders of the new visas have lived, worked or studied in regional Australia for at least three years, and have met income requirements, they will be able to apply for a Permanent Residence (Skilled Regional) visa commencing in November 2022.

Australia deploys Regional Outreach Officers to the regions to promote skilled migration initiatives and provide dedicated support to regional employers.

In November 2019, the Global Talent – Independent programme was officially launched. It provides for a streamlined, priority visa pathway for highly skilled individuals to work and live permanently in Australia. Candidates need to be highly skilled for work in one of the seven target sectors that have been identified as future-oriented and either obtain a salary above a certain income threshold (in 2019-20 AUD 148 700) or be a highly-graded recent PhD or Master's graduate. Candidates also need to be endorsed by a domestic nominator who has a national reputation in the same field.

On 1 July 2019, new Work and Holiday visa arrangements commenced with Greece (capped at 500 per year) and Ecuador (capped at 100). Since July 2019, there is the option of a third year visa for WHMs who complete six months of regional work in their second year.

On 1 July 2019, the Department of Home Affairs assumed responsibility for the settlement of refugees, humanitarian entrants and migrants, and programs to support adults to acquire English language. The role of the Commonwealth Coordinator-General for Migrant Services was established in December 2019 to provide national leadership and drive better results for refugees and migrants with a focus on employment, English language acquisition and community integration.

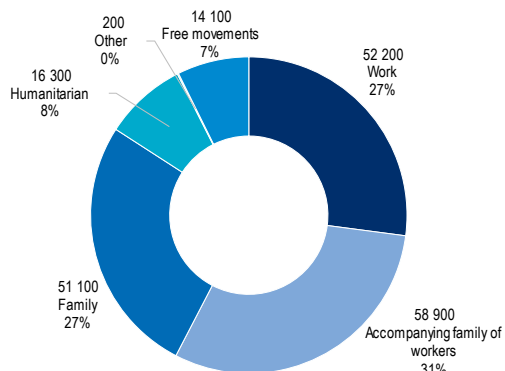
In January 2020, there have been changes in the support for newly arrived refugees, with the aim of providing them with additional time to settle in Australia and learn English before having to look for work, while also providing more support for those job seekers who are work-ready.

To respond to the COVID-19 crisis, the government allowed those within the Pacific Labour Scheme, Seasonal Worker Program and working holiday makers to continue to work in agriculture and food processing until the sanitary crisis has passed. In addition, Working Holiday Makers working in critical sectors are exempt from the six month work limitation with one employer and are eligible for a further visa to keep working in these sectors if their current visa is due to expire in the next six months. Finally, the 40-hour a fortnight work limit for student visa holders has been temporarily relaxed for those working in critical industries.

For further information:
<https://immi.homeaffairs.gov.au>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Australia

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	210 460	- 0%
Seasonal workers	8 460	+ 37%
Intra-company transfers	4 430	- 42%
Other temporary workers	170 490	+ 3%

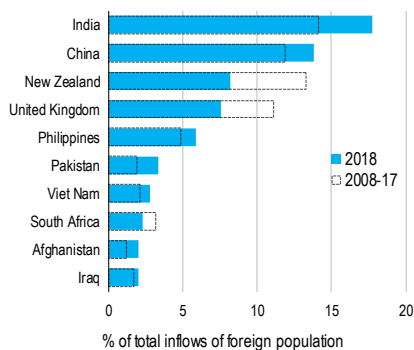
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	162 870	+ 4%
Trainees	2 900	- 36%

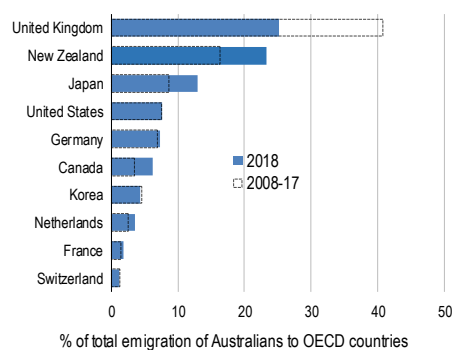
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	27 400	- 5%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Australians to OECD countries
(national definition)



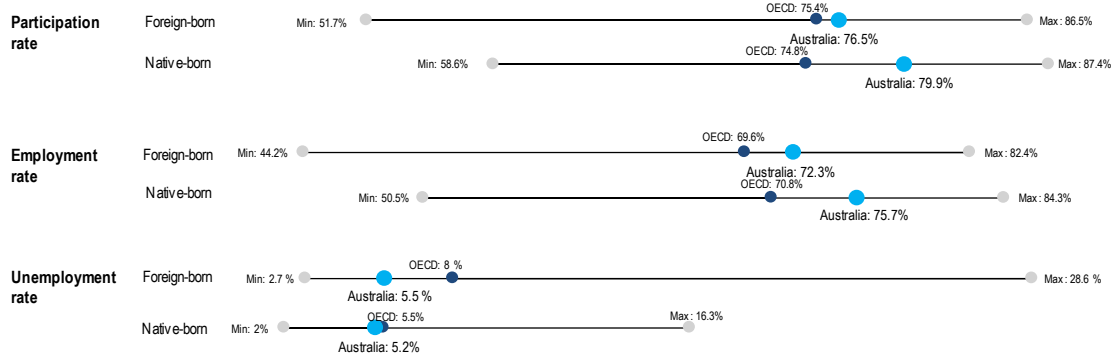
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	15.0	-0.5
Natural increase	5.6	-0.4
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	9.6	-0.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 727	-7.2	0.1
Outflows (2018)	7 195	+6.2	0.5

Labour market outcomes
2019



Austria

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 1.7 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Germany (13%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (10%), Turkey (9%)
19% of the population	
Evolution since 2009: +37%	

In 2018, Austria received 87 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -11.6% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 65.2% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 6.4% labour migrants, 10.7% family members (including accompanying family) and 17.2% humanitarian migrants. Around 3 800 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 8 700 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 120 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, a decrease of 15% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Romania, Germany and Hungary were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Romania registered the strongest increase (1 300) and Syria the largest decrease (-4 600) in flows to Austria compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by 7.1%, to reach around 11 000. The majority of applicants come from Syria (2 700), Afghanistan (2 500) and Iran (700). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (800) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-600). Of the 14 000 decisions taken in 2019, 53.5% were positive.

In 2020, Austria added 11 occupations to its shortage list for the Red-White-Red Card, including floor and bricklayers, train drivers and qualified nurses. The list now includes 56 occupations at the federal level and provinces have additional lists according to regional shortages. Residence permits for very highly qualified workers, such as graduate engineers and medical doctors, extend across nine professions. The quota for short-term and temporary employment of foreigners in the agricultural and tourism sectors for 2020 was 4 428. In 2019, Austria extended its working holiday programme to include Argentina. In light of Austria's clear separation of migration and asylum, unaccompanied minors who applied for asylum may no longer work or study as apprentices in the country. Since December 2019, rejected asylum seekers currently in vocational training may finish their apprenticeship, whereupon the period for voluntary departure or deportation starts.

In 2019, the means-tested minimum income scheme linking the amount of financial support to intermediate German or advanced English language knowledge was modified, along with declining support per additional child. In October 2019, Austria established new regulations on ensuring quality standards, certification, and cost-sharing of language courses. As of January 2020, state-supported German language courses for refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection over the age of 15 increased from level A2 (basic) to include level B1 (intermediate).

Acquisition of Austrian citizenship for descendants of individuals persecuted, threatened by persecution or those defending Austria, during the Third Reich, was facilitated from October 2019. Changes included an option for notification, allowing naturalisation by presenting proof, such as official documents, verifying direct descent. The facilitated notification procedure started in September 2020.

From December 2020, the newly established Federal Agency for Care and Support Services will be responsible for providing basic care to asylum seekers. From January 2021 onwards, the agency will also be tasked with: providing legal counselling to asylum seekers and foreigners; assistance for return; monitoring of deportations; translators for the asylum procedure.

In July 2020, Austria fully opened its labour market to Croatian nationals. Existing temporary border controls at the EU internal borders to Slovenia and Hungary to maintain law, order and public safety, were prolonged for another six-month period, at time of writing until November 2020.

Due to the spread of Coronavirus COVID-19, Austria introduced temporary EU internal land border controls and complemented existing controls by health checks in mid-March 2020. Persons entering Austria required a medical certificate proving a negative test result from within the last four days. Nationals, long-term residents and their immediate family, as well as foreign health workers, were exempted from the travel ban. Temporary agricultural workers were not, leading to labour shortages. Onshore application for permits as well as the processing of asylum applications continued under special safety rules.

For further information:

www.migration.gv.at

www.bmeia.gv.at

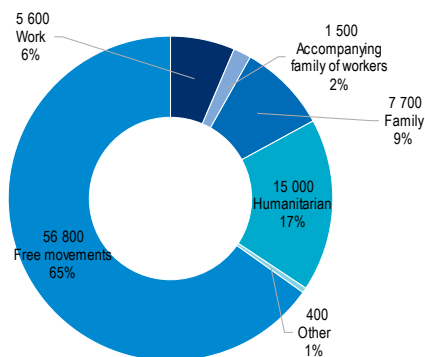
www.bmi.gv.at

www.sozialministerium.at

<http://statistik.gv.at>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Austria

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers	7 610	+ 11%
Intra-company transfers	140	+ 1%
Other temporary workers	980	+ 281%

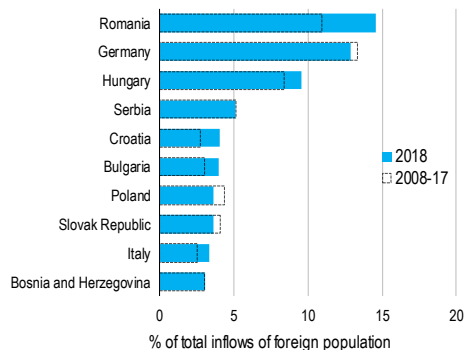
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	3 750	- 7%
Trainees

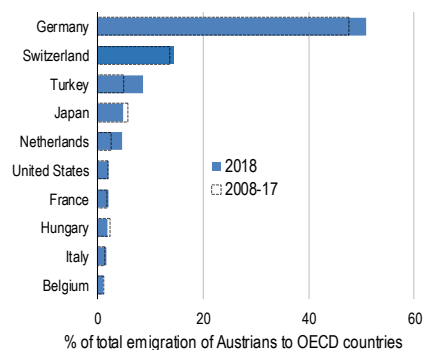
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	10 790	- 7%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Austrians to OECD countries
(national definition)



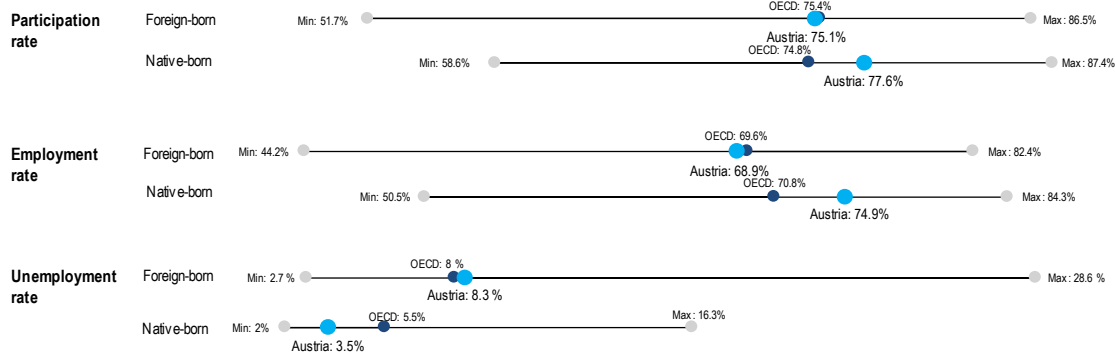
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	4.8	+0.7
Natural increase	0.2	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.6	+0.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	3 051	-2.8	0.7
Outflows (2018)	5 759	+10.5	1.3

Labour market outcomes
2019



Belgium

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 2 million, 51% women	Main countries of birth:
17% of the population	Morocco (11%), France (9%),
Evolution since 2009: +37%	Netherlands (7%)

In 2018, Belgium received 109 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 1.4% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 58.5% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 4.6% labour migrants, 27.1% family members (including accompanying family) and 9.6% humanitarian migrants. Around 6 200 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 157 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, a decrease of -6.4% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Romania, France and the Netherlands were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Palestinian administrative areas registered the strongest increase (1900) and Syria the largest decrease (-1 900) in flows to Belgium compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 27.4%, to reach around 23 000. The majority of applicants come from Syria (2 700), the West Bank and Gaza Strip (2 300) and Afghanistan (2 200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (1 200) and the largest decrease nationals of Guinea (-200). Of the 17 000 decisions taken in 2019, 38% were positive.

The single permit system was introduced in Belgium in January 2019 following transposition of the EU Directive. Applications must be submitted first to the regional authorities and then, if successful, transferred to the federal immigration authorities. The single permit system also introduced changes for dependents, given that they are now granted unlimited access to the labour market without the need to apply for a work permit.

Since the State Reform of 2014, Belgian regions can develop their own labour migration policies. In 2019, Flanders, Wallonia and Brussels introduced policy changes. In these three regions, work permits for the highly skilled are now valid for up to three years, instead of one year. Salary thresholds are adjusted annually. In Flanders, they are lower for young (under 30) highly skilled local hires and for health care nurses than nationwide.

Flanders and Wallonia took further measures to increase their attractiveness and retention of skilled migrants. In Flanders, a shortage occupation list was published for medium skilled occupations and which exempts listed jobs from labour market inquiry. Qualifying foreign nationals can also apply for work permits from within Belgium, are no longer restricted to specific employers and have an open-ended work authorisation after four years of employment.

In 2019, the Belgian federal and regional governments transposed the EU Directive on seasonal workers, who may now apply for a single permit at the level of the region, valid for up to 150 days in a period of 360 days. The federal and regional governments have also transposed the EU Directive on highly qualified workers. Highly qualified foreign workers may apply for a single permit to work and stay in Belgium for a period of more than 90 days at the level of the region. The permit granted is valid for a period of up to 3 years (EU Blue Card).

Commission Bossuyt started a two-year evaluation of the national return policies in 2018 and produced a first report in 2019. This evaluation was spurred by the case of Sudanese nationals who allegedly suffered maltreatment upon their forced return in late 2017. The Immigration Office has since adapted its practice when issuing an order to leave the territory. Foreign nationals' fear or risk of return may be considered as an "implicit" application for international protection, even when the person concerned did not express a wish to apply for asylum.

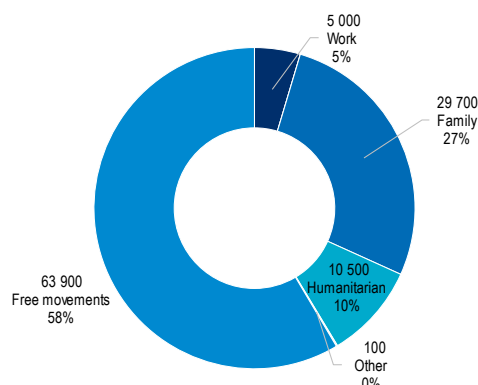
During the COVID-19 crisis, despite some organisational challenges, applications for visas and permits were still accepted. Single permit applications could be submitted via email in all regions and pending applications, including renewals, were still processed. Temporary migrants and business visitors who, due to the crisis, stayed longer than expected in Belgium were requested to apply for a work authorization extension or a work permit. Similarly, foreign visitors were required to extend their visas in the event of an overstay.

For further information:

www.dofi.ibz.be
www.emploi.belgique.be
www.fedasil.be
www.myria.be
www.statbel.fgov.be
<https://emnbelgium.be/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Belgium

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	190	+ 0%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	810	+ 45%

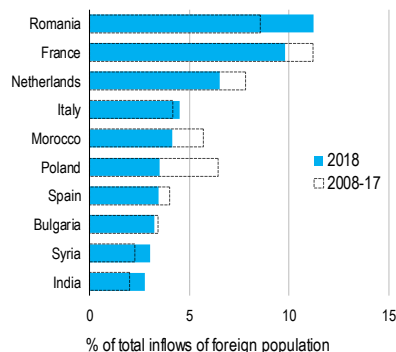
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	6 250	- 0%
Trainees	60	+ 17%

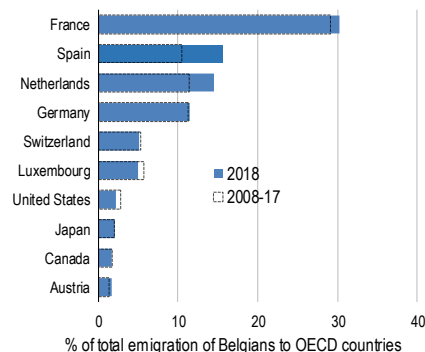
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	23 140	+ 27%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Belgians to OECD countries
(national definition)



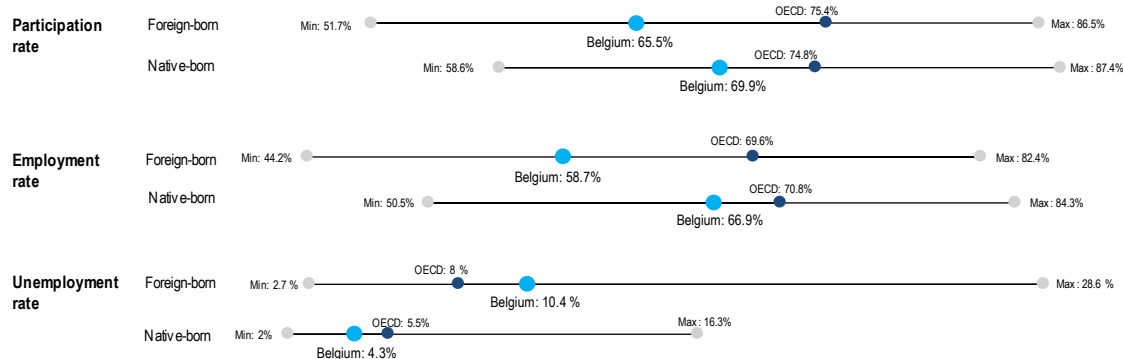
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	8.2	+3.2
Natural increase	0.6	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	7.6	+3.3

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	12 683	+3.0	2.5
Outflows (2018)	5 530	+16.5	1.0

Labour market outcomes
2019



Bulgaria

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.2 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Russia (18%), Syria (8%), Turkey (8%)
2% of the population	
Evolution since 2011: +122%	

In 2018, 6 600 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Bulgaria (excluding EU citizens), 15.9% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 9.4% labour migrants, 21.8% family members (including accompanying family), 6.4% who came for education reasons and 62.4% other migrants. Around 800 short-term permits were issued to international students and 1 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 4 700 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 33% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Turkey, Russia and Ukraine were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Turkey registered the strongest increase (700) and Syria the largest decrease (-1 000) in flows to Bulgaria compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by 15.8%, to reach around 2 100. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (1 000) and Syria (500). Of the 1 300 decisions taken in 2019, 32% were positive.

In May 2018, Bulgaria extended the scope of its Labour Migration and Labour Mobility Law to cover the employment of Bulgarians abroad and the free movement of people in the European Economic Area. The social partners, namely business and trade union organisations are more involved in migration policy and must now be consulted in the Council on Migration – the coordination body where the employers' organisations and trade unions are represented.

With a view to facilitating access to the Bulgarian labour market for non-EU citizens, legal amendments brought several changes. Applications for long-term residence permits in Bulgaria are reviewed within seven instead of 14 days. The procedure for obtaining a permanent residence status, particularly for applicants of Bulgarian origin, was facilitated and they no longer need to provide proof of available funds as one of the prerequisites for

receiving such status. The fees for residence permits were also reduced for third-country nationals with Bulgarian origin.

Regarding the recruitment of migrant workers from abroad, Bulgaria has reduced the burden on employers by changing procedures and reducing resident labour market test requirements. This was done in two ways through amendments to its Labour Migration and Labour Mobility Law in 2018, which aimed to extend the access of third-country workers to the Bulgarian labour market. First, it increased the quota of third-country nationals for an individual employer from 10% to 25% and for small and medium enterprises to 35%. Second, the administrative burden on companies employing foreign workers was eased by reducing the time to issue a work permit from 30 to 20 days, as well as allowing the share of foreign workers in a company to increase. As with the Blue Card, no preliminary labour market test is now required.

Following a 9.5 and 10.9% increase in foreign workers' minimum wage, the level increased again in 2019 by 9.8% to EUR 290. This does not apply to EU Blue card applicants subject to a threshold of 1.5 times the average salary in the relevant sector.

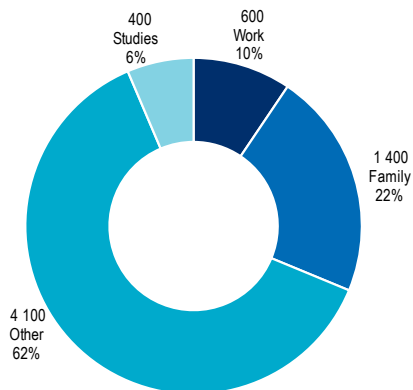
Bulgaria will no longer sign any international agreements for readmission of foreigners with an international protection status. Controls and restrictions on mobility have been imposed on foreign citizens who seek international protection and who reside outside the accommodation centres.

During the lockdown, long-term and permanent residence permits as well as documents issued to EU citizens and their families which expire from 13 March 2020 to 31 October 2020, were extended by six months. Return decisions, including voluntary return of third-country nationals have been suspended. All actions on applications for international protection, usually requiring the asylum seekers to attend physically, have been suspended.

For further information:
www.aref.government.bg/
www.nsi.bg/
www.mvr.bg

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Bulgaria

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

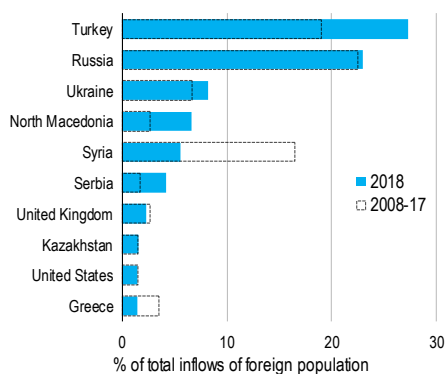
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	1 000	- 15%
Family reasons	2 350	+ 3%
Education reasons	840	- 1%
Other	1 060	+ 12%

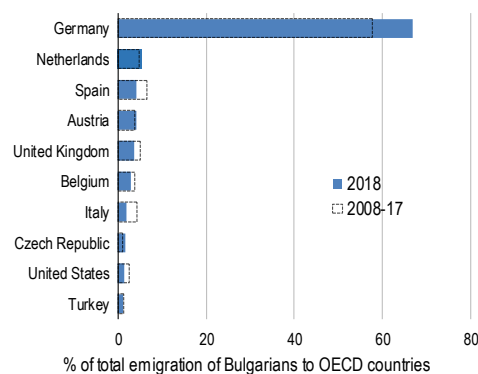
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	2 080	- 29%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Bulgarians to OECD countries
(national definition)



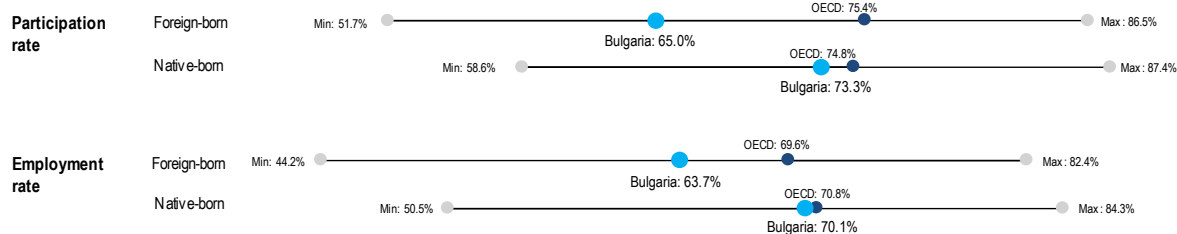
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-7.0	+0.1
Natural increase	-6.7	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-0.3	+0.2

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	2 316	-3.3	3.5
Outflows (2018)	221	+11.5	0.3

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/h9r31y>

Canada

Foreign-born population – 2016	
Size: 7.5 million, 52% women	Main countries of birth: India (9%), China (9%), Philippines (8%)
21% of the population	
Evolution since 2007: +22%	

In 2018, Canada received 320 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 11.9% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 29.9% labour migrants, 54.6% family members (including accompanying family) and 14.2% humanitarian migrants. Around 153 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 246 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

India, the Philippines and China were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (18 000) and the Philippines the largest decrease (-5 800) in flows to Canada compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 5.3%, to reach around 58 000. The majority of applicants came from India (5 200), Mexico (5 100) and Nigeria (3 000). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Mexico (1900) and the largest decrease nationals of Nigeria (-5 600). Of the 47 000 decisions taken in 2019, 52.7% were positive.

The *Rural and Northern Immigration Pilot* was launched in January 2019 in 11 rural and northern communities to help fill chronic labour shortages and enhance retention, combining jobs with career development potential and connections to settlement services. The pilot builds on existing economic initiatives to the regions, such as the *Atlantic Immigration Program*.

Canada launched the new *Agri-Food Pilot* in May 2020. This three-year economic pilot aims to help address persistent labour shortages in the agri-food sector, particularly in the meat processing, mushroom and greenhouse crop production, and livestock raising industries. This Pilot will attract and retain experienced workers by providing them with an opportunity to become permanent residents, and help employers fill full-time, year-round positions.

In June 2019, Canada launched two new Caregiver pilots to replace the expired caregiver pilots. These address vulnerabilities experienced by in-home foreign caregivers, including a clear and more direct pathway to permanent residence; an occupation-restricted open work permit; and immediate family members may also accompany them, reducing family separation.

The innovative *Economic Mobility Pathways* Project is advancing the goals of the 2019-2021 Strategy on Resettlement and Complementary Pathways, for skilled refugees to immigrate to Canada through existing economic pathways. In June 2020, a new commitment scaled up the Project to admit 500 individuals over the next two years and to further research building a sustainable complementary pathways model.

Until recently, asylum claim volumes in Canada had been trending upwards for years, creating a backlog of claims. The Canadian government made significant investments in 2019 to enhance the capacity and efficiency of the asylum system and to manage irregular migration at the Canada-US border.

To support successful newcomer settlement and integration, the Canada government has signed more than 750 agreements for projects to be delivered by more than 500 service provider organisations in 2020-25, including 20 new Francophone organisations. A specific focus of settlement supports is on visible minority newcomer women to address challenges in joining Canada's labour market.

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic measures, the 2020-22 Immigration Levels Plan was announced in March 2020. The Plan continued with modest growth in the planned number of new permanent residents: 341 000 admissions in 2020, to 351 000 in 2021, and 361 000 in 2022. In light of the pandemic, Canada continues to monitor the impacts on admissions throughout 2020 and in future years.

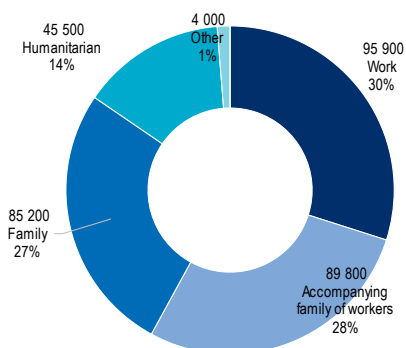
In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Canadian government implemented a number of migration-related measures to protect the health and safety of Canadians while facilitating essential services and non-discretionary or non-optional travel. Measures include: allowing asylum seekers in Canada to apply for asylum via e-mail; exemptions to travel restrictions for approved new permanent residents, workers and students; easing work limits for international students working in an essential service; enabling new temporary foreign workers to work in Canada while upholding mandatory quarantine measures; facilitating existing temporary foreign workers to change employers in Canada; extended timelines to restore temporary resident status; allowing foreign nationals already in Canada to initiate an asylum claim for protection via email rather than in person; continuing critical settlement and resettlement services; and conducting virtual citizenship ceremonies.

For further information:

www.canada.ca/en/services/immigration-citizenship.html

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Canada

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	48 580	+ 1%
Seasonal workers	35 870	+ 2%
Intra-company transfers	12 800	+ 16%
Other temporary workers	148 410	+ 24%

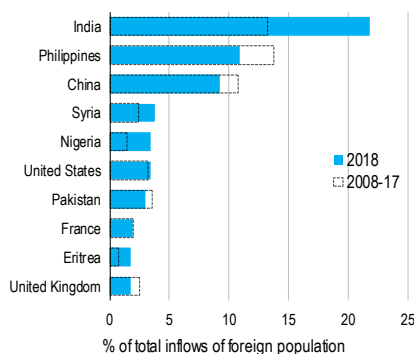
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	152 630	+ 13%
Trainees

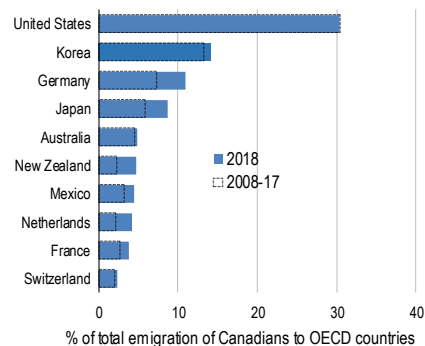
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	58 340	+ 5%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Canadians to OECD countries
(national definition)



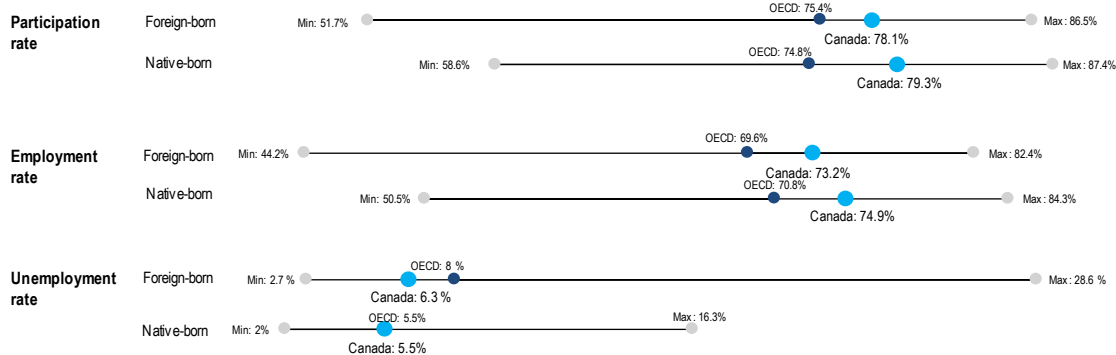
Components of population growth

	2018 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2018/17 % change
Total	14.1	+17.2
Natural increase	2.6	-5.9
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	11.5	+24.0

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 360	+0.6	0.1
Outflows (2018)	6 629	+2.3	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



Chile

Foreign-born population – 2017	
Size: 0.7 million, 53% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Peru (25%), Colombia (14%), Venezuela (11%)
4% of the population	
Evolution since 2007: +188%	

In 2019, 328 000 temporary visas were granted, of which about a quarter were renewals or visa changes. Temporary visa issuances in Chile decreased by 25% in 2019 compared with 2018, following a 66% increase in that year. Holders of temporary visas were mainly Venezuelan (49%), Haitian (11%) and Colombian and Peruvian nationals (10% each). Compared to 2018, the number of temporary visas was still on the increase in the case of Venezuelans (+11%) but decreased sharply in the case of Haitians (-70%) in line with the tightening of their conditions of entry. The number of first temporary visas granted to tertiary-level international students was on the decrease with 1 000 permits delivered in 2019, half of the levels observed in the previous years.

In Chile, most holders of a temporary visa can receive the right to apply for permanent residence after one or two years in the country. The number of persons granted permanent residence dropped by 5% between 2018 and 2019, reaching 88 500. The four main countries of origin of migrants receiving the right of permanent residence were Venezuela (38%), Haiti (23%), Colombia (12%), and Peru (11%). Compared with 2018, the number of permanent permits issued to Venezuelans and Haitians increased in 2019 by 19% and 39%.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by 87%, to reach around 800. The majority of applicants came from Cuba (300), Colombia (300) and Venezuela (200). The largest decrease concerned nationals of Cuba (-2 500) and nationals of Venezuela (-1 400). Of the 4 100 decisions taken in 2019, 0.4% were positive.

In June 2019, following Peru's recent decision to impose entry visa requirements on Venezuelan nationals, resulting in increasing flows to Chile as an alternative destination, the Chilean government published Decree No. 237. With immediate effect, it states that Venezuelan nationals must obtain a tourist visa at a Chilean consulate prior to entry for tourist purposes. This requires them to provide a valid passport (including expired passports issued after 2013), proof of economic solvency and an invitation letter from a Chilean company or person. Venezuelans can then apply for a 90-day work authorisation which may be requested at the airport and is usually granted in one day.

Foreign nationals submitting in-country immigration applications started to experience delays in 2018 – with

the implementation of the online appointment system and further immigration processing disruptions since late 2019. To reduce travel delays, in May 2019 the Immigration Department removed a rule requiring foreign nationals with pending new or renewed visa or temporary residence applications to obtain a visa-in-process or residence-in-process certificate to travel abroad. In October 2019, the Immigration Department retracted this decision. Eventually, in February 2020, the requirement for foreign nationals to obtain travel authorisation documents prior to leaving Chile was eliminated for both temporary and permanent migrants.

According to the current legislation, which dates back to 1975, a foreign national must have resided in Chile for two years under a work contract visa or for one year under a temporary resident visa prior to applying for permanent residence. In 2019, the number of applications for permanent residence increased following the 2018 regularisation. At the same time, applications for a temporary visa decreased. To speed up the process and in accordance with its commitment to reduce paperwork, since May 2018 applicants for permanent residence must submit their applications online instead of by mail (except for nationals of Brazil, China, Cuba, Haiti and Peru). One visit in person to one office remains necessary to obtain a *ClaveÚnica* before starting the online procedure. Applicants must also submit a criminal clearance certificate from their country of origin. Although all procedures are intended to be made in 90 minutes, the Immigration Department will have to complete the review of applications previously filed by mail before starting processing the digital ones.

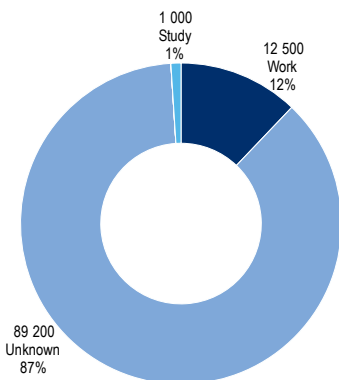
The second phase of the 2018 regularisation ended in July 2019. Around 90% of the 155 500 applications were accepted. They mainly concerned Haitians, Peruvians and Bolivians. On 1 April 2019, Chile waived visa requirements for Indian nationals who were holders of US visas and entering Chile for business or tourism.

From 15 March 2020, the government limited entries to Chilean nationals and foreigners with resident status or a visa-in-process receipt. Permanence residency applications were suspended for nationals from Brazil, China, Cuba, Haiti and Peru, as those countries need to present the applications in person at *ChileAtiende*. Other nationals could follow the online procedure. From 8 June, the job search period for foreigners under a contract visa who lost their job during the pandemic was extended from 30 to 180 days.

For further information:
www.extranjeria.gob.cl/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Chile

Long-term and temporary immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)

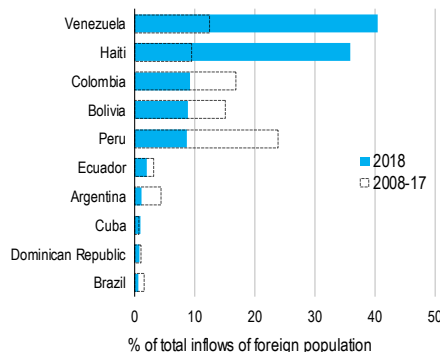


Temporary migration
(Source: UNHCR)

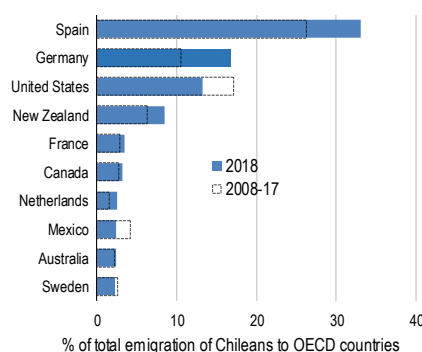
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	770	- 87%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Chileans to OECD countries
(national definition)



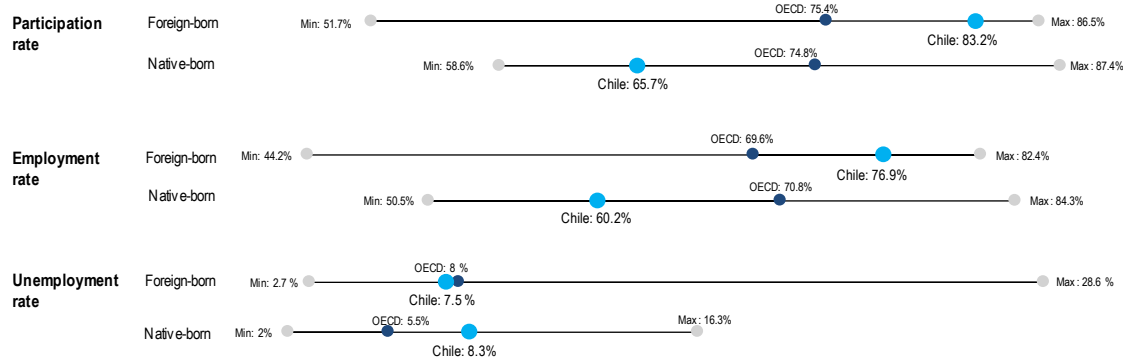
Components of population growth

	2018 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2018/17 difference
Total	28.2	+15.7
Natural increase	6.2	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	22.0	+15.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	66	-0.5	0.0
Outflows (2018)	572	+16.2	0.2

Labour market outcomes
2017



Colombia

In 2018, Colombia received 10 600 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis, a 6% increase compared to 2017. Most of them were admitted for family reasons (6 600 permits delivered). In 2018, 523 600 permits were issued to temporary migrants, an exceptional 340% increase compared to the previous year. The main categories of admission were humanitarian (92% in 2018, all these permits were delivered to Venezuelan nationals), work (5%), studies and free mobility under the Mercosur agreement (1% each).

Throughout 2019 and in early 2020, migration and integration policy in Colombia continued to focus on the management of large inflows of Venezuelans. In January 2020 three new initiatives were implemented. The first was the issue of a “special permanent-type residence permit” (*Permiso Especial de Permanencia, PEP*) for those who entered Colombia before 29 November 2019 (entry certified by a stamp on their passport). An estimated 200 000 Venezuelans are expected to benefit from this measure. The second measure concerns the renewal of PEP granted to migrants who have registered in the Administrative Register of Migrants from Venezuela (*Registro Administrativo de Migrantes Venezolanos – RAMV*), a tool implemented from April to June of 2018 to gather more information about Venezuelan migrants. The third measure is the issue of a “special permanent-type permit for promoting formalisation” (*Permiso Especial de Permanencia para el Fomento de la Formalización – PEPFF*) which is a work permit for those with a formal employment offer.

As the crisis in neighbouring Venezuela continued, the issue of integration of those who left the country became more acute and Colombia set up three main strategic objectives. First, to provide and improve effective access to critical goods and services. Second, to enhance integration opportunities for the migrant population, including access to employment. Third, to provide access to basic services and respond to protection needs. Colombia has promoted access to schools for

Venezuelan children and progressively increased access to higher education. Likewise, the health care system has continuously been extended to the Venezuelan population and emergency health care has continued to expand the provision of services to refugees and migrants from Venezuela.

In late 2019, the government adopted a strategy to support the migrant population from Venezuela building on five pillars: better registration and documentation; enhancing employability; supporting entrepreneurship; enhancing co-operation; and transversal issues including support for migrant groups with specific needs (women, indigenous, etc.) and support for receiving communities.

The Inter-Agency Mixed Migration Flows Group (GIFMM) continues to implement the international Refugees and Migrants Regional Plan (RMRP) in Colombia to refugees, migrants, returnees and receiving communities. This plan focuses on four key areas of intervention. The first two relate to the emergency response (direct assistance with appropriate referral mechanisms, along with prevention measures; access to documentation and international protection). The third concerns longer-term impact (better access to basic goods and services, employment and social cohesion within host communities). Finally, the plan foresees to strengthen the capacity of the Colombian government to respond to the needs of migrants and refugees at both national and local levels.

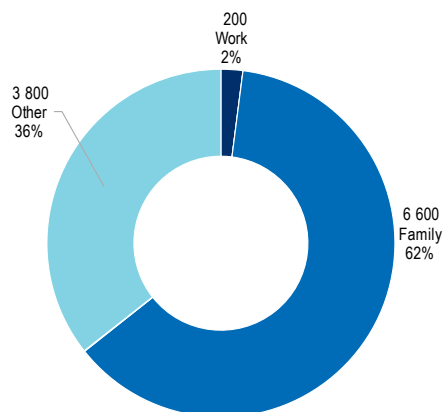
While borders were closed during the lockdown in reaction to the COVID-19 pandemic, a humanitarian corridor with Venezuela was established to allow those who wished to return to Venezuela to do so. As a result, the number of Venezuelan residents in Colombia declined for the first time since 2015.

For further information:

www.migracioncolombia.gov.co

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Colombia

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	200	+ 0%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	140	..
Other temporary workers	25 400	+ 20%

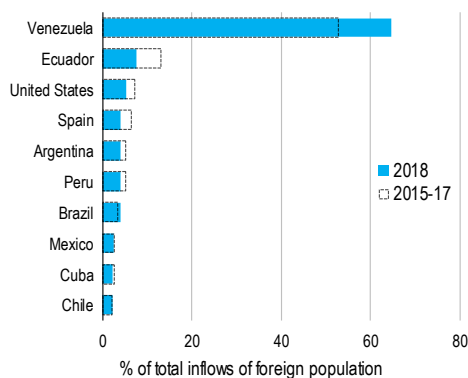
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	4 270	- 8%
Trainees

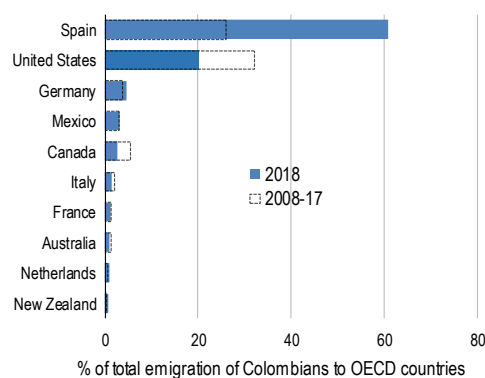
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	10 620	+ 292%
Other humanitarian	48 080	- 90%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Colombians to OECD countries
(national definition)



Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	23.6	+13.1
Natural increase	8.4	-0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	15.1	+13.4

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	6 784	+6.6	2.1
Outflows (2018)	313	+7.2	0.1

Czech Republic

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.9 million, 48% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Slovak Republic (36%), Ukraine (17%), Viet Nam (7%)
8% of the population	
Evolution since 2007: +41%	

In 2018, the Czech Republic received 56 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 28.4% more than in 2017. Around 3 500 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 2 600 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 31 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 26.1% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, the Slovak Republic and Russia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (6 400) in flows to the Czech Republic compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 15.8%, to reach around 1 600. The majority of applicants came from Armenia (300), Ukraine (200) and Georgia (200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Armenia (+200) and the largest decrease nationals of Cuba (-100). Of the 1 400 decisions taken in 2019, 9.6% were positive.

A new amendment to the Aliens Act, approved in July 2019, simplifies and expands government programmes for economic migration, notably with specific measures for three different categories of worker: “Highly Qualified Workers”; “Key and Research Staff”; and origin-country-specific “Qualified Workers”. Administrative procedures for these programmes are facilitated and conditions are more favourable for workers and their families (e.g. exemptions to the mandatory integration courses which apply to new arrivals). The programme for key and highly qualified workers will be open to more countries. It is currently limited to Ukraine, Serbia, Mongolia and the Philippines but will expand to include migrants from Belarus, Montenegro, Moldova, Kazakhstan and India.

The amendment also increases flexibility to respond to the labour market situation by temporarily allowing the issue of extraordinary work visas for workers from specific countries and economic sectors. In addition, the government will be able to set quotas for economic migration. The amendment also speeds up the termination of foreigners’ residence permits if they

commit a crime, from over two years to less than six months. Moreover, it simplifies the conditions for entry and residence of students and scientists and ensures that employee card holders are able to change their employer after six months residence in the Czech Republic.

Following Brexit, the Czech Government proposes reciprocal regulations to those relating to Czech citizens in the United Kingdom. After 2020, British citizens in the Czech Republic will be obliged to submit an application for a residence permit, as with other third-country nationals.

In 2019, the integration framework, called “In Mutual Respect”, was also updated. Starting in 2021, all newcomers will be required to complete an 8-hour adaptation-integration course within the first year of their stay in the country. In addition, this update includes some supporting measures for the integration of newcomers in a longer-term perspective, such as language and socio-cultural courses, as well as a focus on vulnerable migrants.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, Czech authorities enabled seasonal workers in agriculture to remain in the country to work and reinstated admission of seasonal workers on 11 May 2020. Other employment restrictions have been eased, as migrant workers who have lost their job may, for instance, be authorised to change employer and sector. Suspended during the pandemic, the Qualified Worker Programme, which enables employers operating in the Czech Republic to employ qualified foreign workers from specific countries, was partially restored on June 15th, 2020, but only for Ukrainian workers, as employers were looking for 1 000 of them, particularly in the construction and machinery manufacturing sectors.

On 1 April 2020, the government approved an “Antivirus Programme” that supports employment of both Czech and foreign employees. To avoid layoffs, the programme allows the state to compensate employees’ wages for companies that face economic risks due to COVID-19. New information for immigrants were also implemented in several languages. In addition, the legality of residence was ensured for those whose legal stay expires during the state of emergency and integration measures switched mostly to online and telephone services.

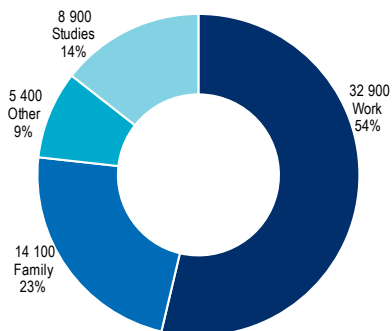
For further information:

www.mvcr.cz/mvcren

www.czso.cz

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Czech Republic

**Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)**



**Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)**

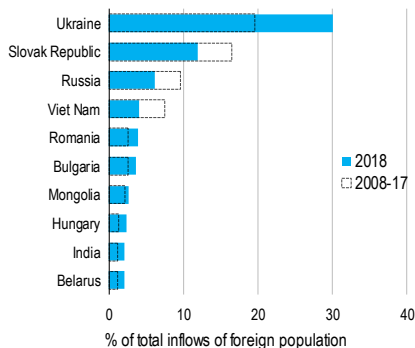
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	2 580	+ 42%
Family reasons	2 370	- 1%
Education reasons	3 280	+ 5%
Other	1 610	+ 21%

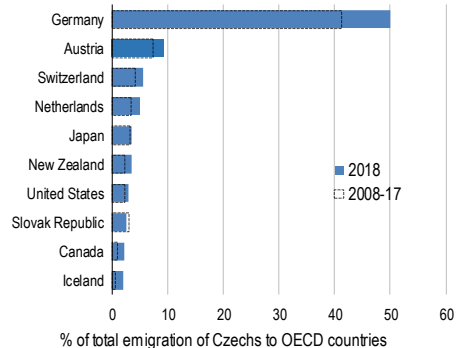
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	1 580	+ 16%

**Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)**



**Emigration of Czechs to OECD countries
(national definition)**



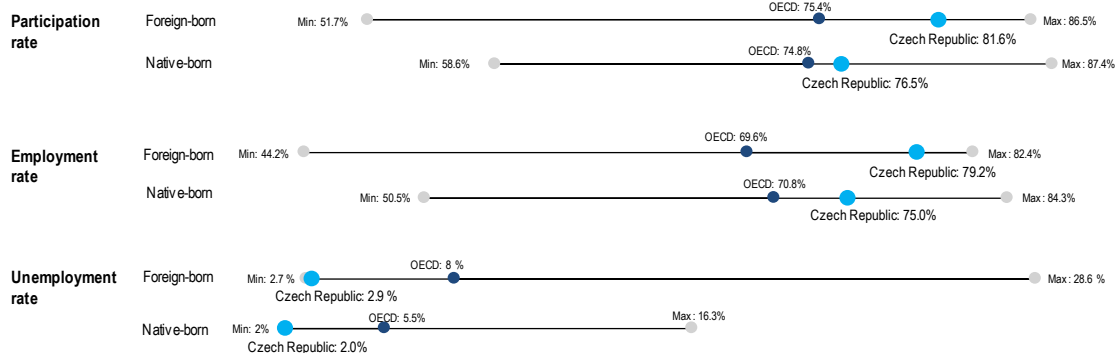
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	4.1	+0.4
Natural increase	0.0	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.1	+0.5

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	3 815	-2.5	1.5
Outflows (2018)	2 758	+34.2	1.1

**Labour market outcomes
2019**



Denmark

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.6 million, 50% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
10% of the population	Poland (7%), Syria (6%),
Evolution since 2009: +51%	Turkey (5%)

In 2018, Denmark received 56 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -1.6% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 54.9% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 14.8% labour migrants, 17.6% family members (including accompanying family) and 3% humanitarian migrants. Around 8 900 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 5 800 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 20 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 30.4% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Romania, Poland and Germany were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (300) and Poland the largest decrease (-400) in flows to Denmark compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by 24.3%, to reach around 2 600. The majority of applicants came from Syria (500), Eritrea (500) and Somalia (200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Somalia (+55) and the largest decrease nationals of Georgia (-300). Of the 3 100 decisions taken in 2019, 51.4% were positive.

A number of changes to the Danish Aliens Act entered into force in June 2019 to bring some flexibility to the recruitment of high-skilled labour migrants and other categories such as researchers and PhD students. To avoid companies being excluded from the fast-track scheme for two years in case of minor offences, it has been proposed to reduce the quarantine period to one year and to raise the fine. All labour migrants recruited under one of the fast-track schemes may now change positions within the same company without a new permit. Migrants in the short-term track may re-apply to stay as long as their total duration does not exceed 90 days. Migrants in the Pay Limit scheme can receive permits for a 30-hour workweek (previously 37 hours) as long as they earn the required salary.

Danish immigration authorities are obliged to inform employers when a foreign national loses their grounds for residence and thereby their right to work. Holders of an establishment card, as well as international students who

have applied for a renewal or first-time establishment card, may now access the labour market until they receive a decision on their application. Researchers may receive a job-seeking permit for six months after their work permit has expired.

From March 2019, municipalities are no longer obliged to assign housing to refugees on a permanent basis and may only provide temporary dwelling. As of July 2019, refugees can lose their residence permit or fail to renew it, if conditions in their home country improve. Since July 2019, refugees and persons reunited with them take part in a “self-support and return programme”, whereas other foreigners continue to participate in an “introduction programme”. In 2019, Denmark decided to resume the reception of quota refugees in 2020 and starting from 2019 to receive a smaller group of resettled refugees who – due to critical illnesses – requires immediate treatment.

In September 2019, Denmark decided to transfer the responsibility of registering asylum seekers from the National Police to the Danish Immigration Service in the Ministry of Immigration and Integration. From August 2020, a new return agency in the same ministry will handle rejected asylum seekers, including voluntary return previously also under the mandate of the National Police.

In October 2019, Denmark passed a law that introduces an access to administrative deprivation of Danish nationality for persons with dual nationality in case of serious prejudice to the vital interests of Denmark. In January 2020, automatic granting of Danish nationality to children born in conflict zones covered by an entry and stay prohibition was abolished.

Owing to the spread of COVID-19, Denmark closed its borders with the exception of Danish nationals and foreigners authorised to enter by the national police on a discretionary basis. Voluntary return stopped and forced returns were severely limited, but processing of asylum applications continued. After a halt to all naturalisation ceremonies in March 2020, Denmark suspended the rule that future citizens must shake hands of the opposite sex in order to become Danish citizens in April 2020.

For further information:

www.uim.dk (in Danish)

www.newtodenmark.dk

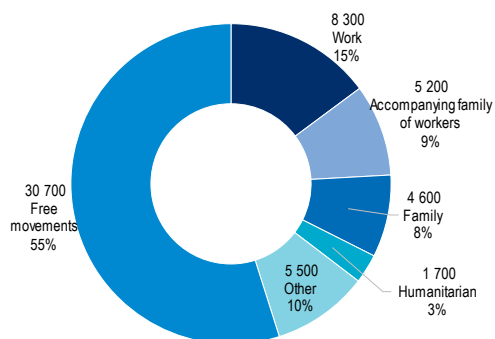
www.integrationsbarometer.dk (in Danish)

www.dst.dk/en

www.workindenmark.dk

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Denmark

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	1 800	+ 19%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	1 730	- 3%

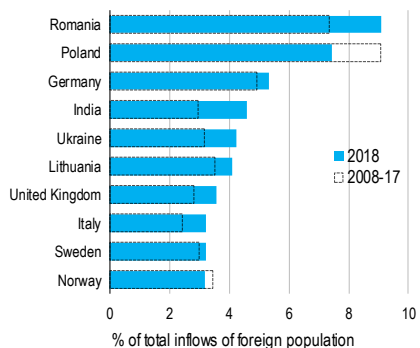
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	8 860	- 1%
Trainees	2 250	+ 19%

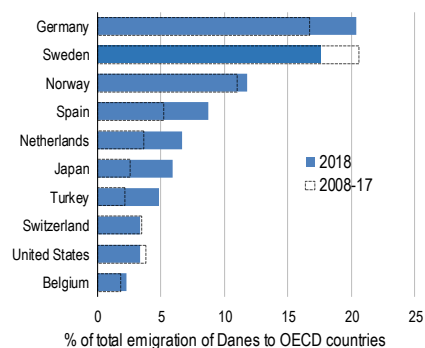
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	2 650	- 24%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Danes to OECD countries
(national definition)



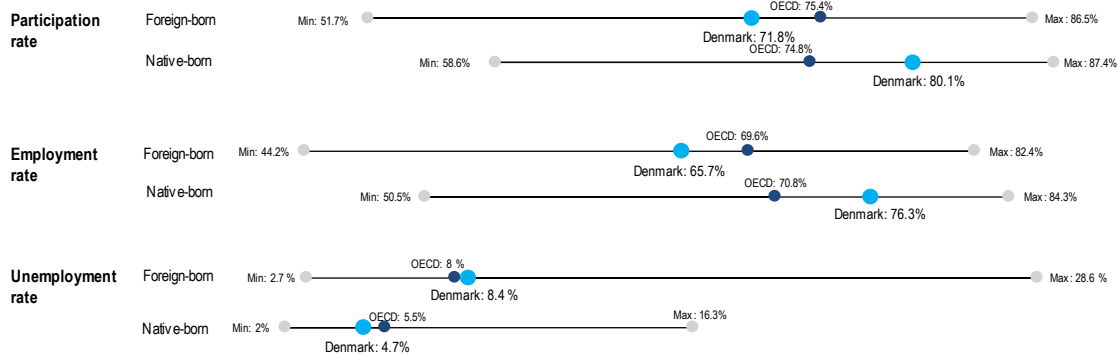
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	2.9	-1.4
Natural increase	1.2	+0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	1.6	-1.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 344	-2.3	0.4
Outflows (2018)	3 392	+8.0	1.0

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/0dn1be>

Estonia

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.2 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
15% of the population	Russia (35%), Ukraine (9%),
Evolution since 2009: -11%	Finland (4%)

In 2018, 4 900 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Estonia (excluding EU citizens), 22% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 35.1% labour migrants, 34.5% family members (including accompanying family), 25% who came for education reasons and 5.3% other migrants. Around 58 short-term permits were issued to international students and 87 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 3 200 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 5% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Russia and Finland were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (500) and Latvia the largest decrease (-100) in flows to Estonia compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 11.1%, to reach around 100. The majority of applicants came from Russia (30) and Turkey (20). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Russia (+20) and the largest decrease nationals of Pakistan (-10). Of the 90 decisions taken in 2019, 50% were positive.

In early 2020, the government proposed changes to the Alien's Act, Income Tax Act and Taxation Act to prevent the misuse of employment regulations, as well as to limit tax evasion from enterprises and to ensure that they pay foreign workers the required Estonian average monthly wage. Moreover, the Ministry of the Interior proposed changes to the Aliens Act and Study Support and Study Loans Act to regulate the conditions for study migration and family migration in Estonia. This will mostly aim at better meeting the needs of the Estonian labour market. In April 2018, the government adopted a national action plan to prevent and tackle illegal employment.

The Citizenship Act was amended in 2019 to enlarge access to Estonian citizenship. A minor whose parent or grandparent lived in Estonia prior to the restoration of the Republic of Estonia independence (20 August 1991) may now apply for citizenship under a simplified procedure. Another amendment to the Citizenship Act provides free Estonian language training classes to adult applicants for citizenship who have been legally residing in Estonia for

at least five years and are eligible for naturalisation. Language classes can involve paid study leave from work. The language examination does not apply to those who studied in Estonia and applicants aged 65 or older need to pass only the oral language examination.

A new national initiative, called the e-Residency 2.0 White Paper, was launched in December 2018 to continue to expand Estonia's global influence. Based on cooperation between the public and private sector, E-Residency 2.0 includes 49 recommendations to make e-Residency more beneficial for everyone in Estonia.

At the end of 2018, the one-stop-shop service centre called International House of Estonia opened in Tallinn. The aim of the centre is to provide consultation and public authority services for international newcomers in Estonia and for local employers. It mostly targets specialists who have come to Estonia to work or study, but also for their spouse, and for the company that hires foreign specialists.

In early 2020, to improve public knowledge of Estonia's cultural diversity and its immigrants, Estonia intends to create a cross-media programme. The project would allow Estonians to know immigrants living in the country, the reasons for their arrival into the country and their experience of living in Estonia.

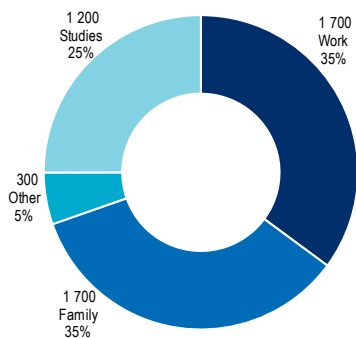
Estonia reacted to the COVID-19 crisis by providing multilingual information and medical care to immigrants, and by covering all costs of their diagnosis and treatment of COVID-19, even for those who are not insured in the public health system. In addition, all migration proceedings were temporarily suspended as of 16 March and for immigrants with temporary visas who were unable to return they were automatically extended. Estonia temporarily reintroduced border controls on 17 March. Migration services only processed applications for short-term employment for foreigners already living in the country. Streamlined procedures were introduced for foreign-born physicians and agriculture workers. Personal interviews for asylum seekers were suspended and the Dublin transfers (transfer of immigrants to their first country of entry to the EU) postponed.

For further information:

www.politsei.ee/en
www.stat.ee/en
www.siseministerium.ee/en
www.workinestonia.com/
www.tootukassa.ee/eng

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Estonia

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

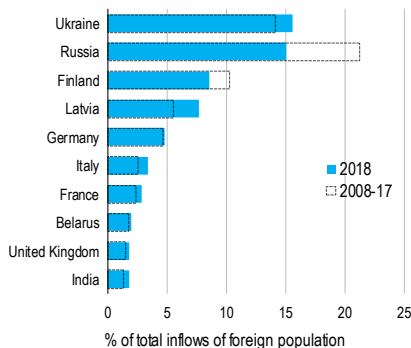
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	90	+ 26%
Family reasons	90	- 17%
Education reasons	60	- 67%
Other	60	+ 7%

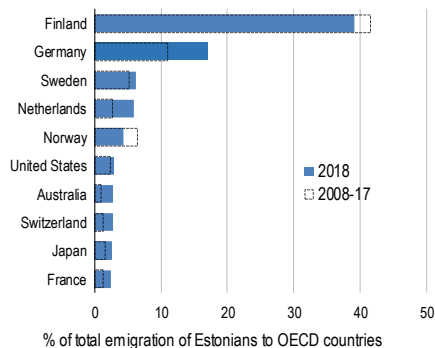
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	100	+ 11%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Estonians to OECD countries
(national definition)



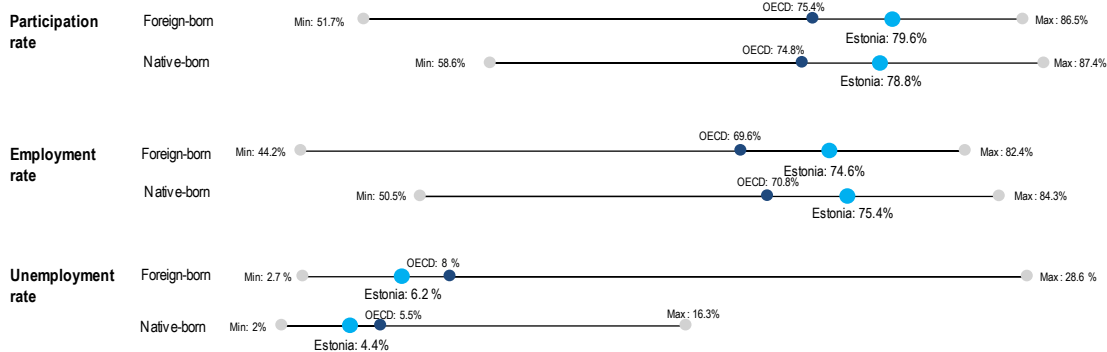
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	3.1	-1.2
Natural increase	-1.0	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.1	-1.2

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	575	+1.5	1.9
Outflows (2018)	234	+55.3	0.8

Labour market outcomes
2019



Finland

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.4 million, 48% women	Main countries of birth:
7% of the population	Former USSR (15%), Estonia (12%), Sweden (8%)
Evolution since 2009: +77%	

In 2018, Finland received 23 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -2.5% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 30.4% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 7.4% labour migrants, 45% family members (including accompanying family) and 17% humanitarian migrants. Around 5 200 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 17 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 20 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, a decrease of -12% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Estonia, Iraq and Russia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (300) and Syria the largest decrease (-1 300) in flows to Finland compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -16.9%, to reach around 2 500. The majority of applicants came from Turkey (400), Russia (300) and Iraq (300). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Turkey (+75) and the largest decrease nationals of Iraq (-300). Of the 4 900 decisions taken in 2019, 34.3% were positive.

Five new categories of residence permits were introduced in 2018: start-up entrepreneurs; seasonal workers; workers in seasonal employment requiring a separate preliminary decision; intra-corporate transferees; and participants in voluntary service.

In March 2020, a new Permit and Nationality Unit was created in the Finnish Immigration Service. The unit processes citizenship and residence permit applications for work, studies and family ties and registers EU citizens and their family members. The change should allow wider use of automation in permit processing and increase efficiency in a context of record high application numbers for a residence permit for employment prior to the COVID-19 crisis.

From 2020, the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment is responsible for the administration of labour migration matters. The transfer from the Ministry of the Interior aims to link labour migration more closely to employment, education and training policies. The government will allocate an increase of EUR 11.4 million

for immigrant integration and work permit procedures in 2020. The additional funds should support identifying the skills of immigrants and the role of municipal centres of expertise and other organisations in integrating immigrants.

Since May 2019, national citizens with dual nationality found guilty of serious offences may lose their Finnish citizenship. This can apply to individuals convicted of an offence against the vital interests of Finland and sentenced to at least five years of imprisonment.

The Finnish Immigration Service changed its reporting practices on country of origin information required for asylum decisions to make reporting more flexible on an increasing number of countries from which asylum seekers and quota refugees come to Finland. Introduction of the *Lets Talk about Children* method, a discussion and consultation programme, to support asylum-seeking families and children in reception centres was advanced to be in all reception centres in 2020.

Due to the spread of COVID-19, Finland closed its borders to inward passenger traffic except for returning Finnish citizens and long-term residents on 19 March 2020. Processing of visa and residence permit applications in missions abroad were suspended and procedures for inland permit applications changed. The processing of asylum applications continued otherwise but asylum interviews were suspended on 16 March 2020 and resumed gradually as of late April. Return operations were suspended, while preparatory work and support for voluntary return continued. Escorted returns were largely suspended until June 2020. Temporary permits allowed some of those unable to return home to stay and legal residents were enabled to change employer and field of employment. Some seasonal workers were allowed to enter. Finland also adopted temporary measures to reinforce the capacities of its border guards.

Due to travel restrictions, the entry of foreign labour has decreased significantly and employers faced shortages of seasonal workers. A new law entered into force on 29 June 2020 and will be effective until 31 October 2020 to overcome shortages in seasonal labour in agriculture, forestry, horticulture and fisheries. Asylum seekers' right to work was temporarily extended.

For further information:

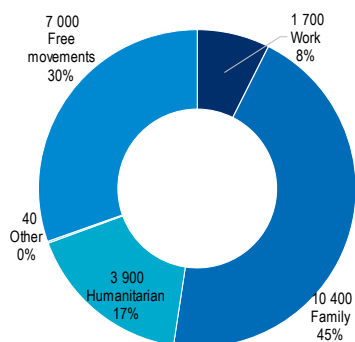
www.migri.fi

www.stat.fi

www.intermin.fi/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Finland

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers	15 500	+ 11%
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	1 700	- 19%

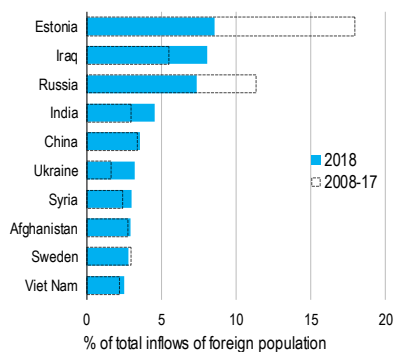
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	5 200	+ 0%
Trainees	250	- 13%

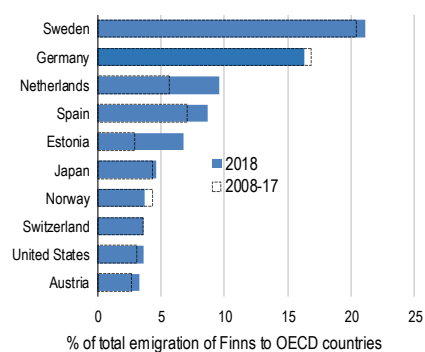
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	2 460	- 17%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Finns to OECD countries
(national definition)



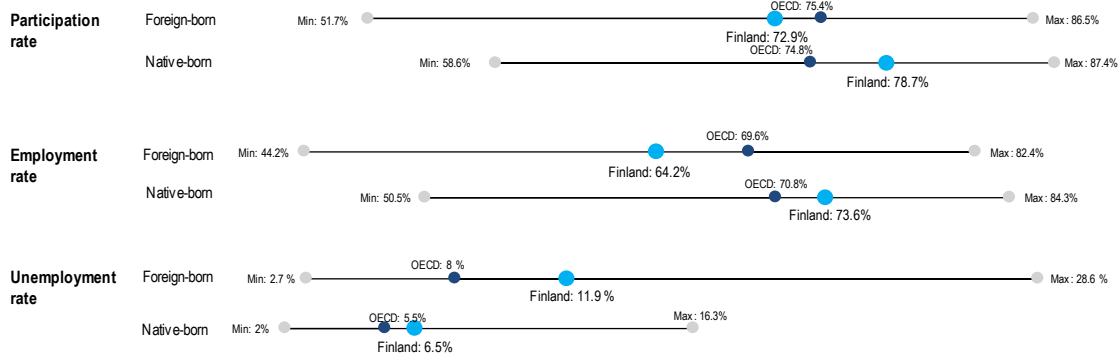
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	1.3	+0.4
Natural increase	-1.5	-0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	2.8	+0.7

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	894	-5.9	0.3
Outflows (2018)	1 011	+12.4	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



France

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 8.3 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
13% of the population	Algeria (18%), Morocco (12%), Portugal (8%)
Evolution since 2009: +16%	

In 2018, France received 277 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 6.7% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 30% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 14.5% labour migrants, 36.7% family members (including accompanying family) and 11% humanitarian migrants. Around 80 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 24 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 262 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 8.6% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Algeria, Morocco and Italy were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Tunisia registered the strongest increase (2 200) and the United Kingdom the largest decrease (-700) in flows to France compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 7.6%, to reach around 120 000. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (10 000), Albania (8 000) and Georgia (7 700). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Haiti (+2 400) and the largest decrease nationals of Sudan (-1 600). Of the 114 000 decisions taken in 2019, 24.7% were positive.

The 2018 law on immigration, asylum and integration fully entered into force in March 2019. To achieve the objective of reducing the average processing time for asylum applications from 11 to 6 months, some administrative procedures have been shortened. Foreigners have now 90 days instead of 120 to submit their asylum application. A national reception scheme now specifies the regional share of asylum seekers. Since 2019, asylum seekers are no longer free to move around without the authorisation of the French Office for Immigration and Integration (OFII). In the event of non-compliance, the material reception conditions are automatically interrupted and the processing of the asylum request can be stopped.

Securing the obligations to leave the French territory after the rejection of an asylum application and increasing control over undocumented foreigners are another key aspect of the new law. The detention period has been extended from 45 to 90 days to give more time to the administration to organise the expulsion. New detention centres were planned for 2020. At the same time, staff numbers engaged in treating asylum requests (OFPRA) were planned to increase from around 800 to

1 000 FTE employees and a 30% increase in financial resources was proposed.

The 2018 law extended the multi-year “talent passport” residence permit introduced by the 2016 law to four years. This permit can now be issued to family members (spouse and children) without going through the family reunification procedure. A circular was sent to prefectures on 17 December 2019 suggesting organisational improvements to application processing.

New temporary residence permits have been introduced in the 2018 law for certain categories of students and researchers (job search or business creation card, etc.), as well as for au pairs.

The government also announced that it would implement a professional immigration policy by sector of activity, based on revised regional shortage occupation lists (not updated since 2008).

A national strategy for the reception and integration of refugees was adopted to strengthen individual pathways and provide social and administrative support to refugees as soon as they obtain their status. In addition, the Republican Integration Contract (CIR) was largely renovated. From 2019, newcomers (including refugees) who sign this contract may benefit from up to 400 hours of language courses (against 200 previously) free of charge (600 hours for illiterate foreigners). The length of civic training doubled from 12 to 24 hours.

Following the lockdown that started on 16 March, the validity of several visas (long stay visas; stay permits with the exception of diplomats; provisional stay authorisations; applications for a residence permit or for asylum seekers) which were set to expire between 16 March and 15 May were extended by six months. The delay to introduce an asylum seeker request has been suspended. Consequently, requests expiring between 12 March and 23 June could be resubmitted until 15 July 2020. Appeals have been extended until 24 June.

On 17 March 2020, France decided to limit all (international) trips and establish controls at its external and internal borders. Thus, all non-EU and non-Schengen nationals were not allowed to enter France and the EU until 15 April 2020 unless they had a compelling reason to enter or legally reside in France and hold a valid French residence permit.

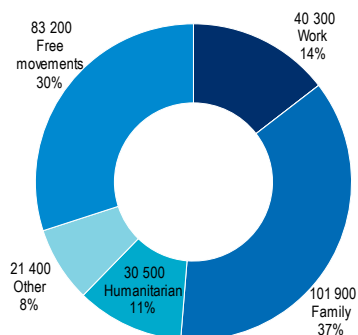
For further information:

<https://www.immigration.interieur.gouv.fr/Immigration>

<https://accueil-integration-refugies.fr/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – France

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	4 980	+ 17%
Seasonal workers	8 120	+ 13%
Intra-company transfers	3 450	+ 0%
Other temporary workers	4 580	+ 19%

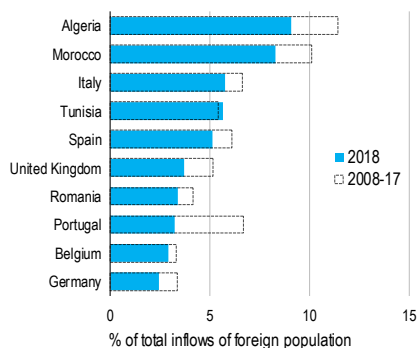
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	80 430	+ 3%
Trainees	2 650	+ 0%

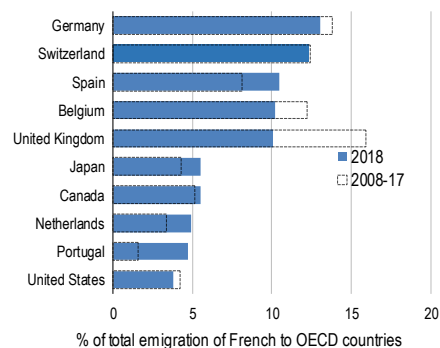
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	119 920	+ 8%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of French to OECD countries
(national definition)



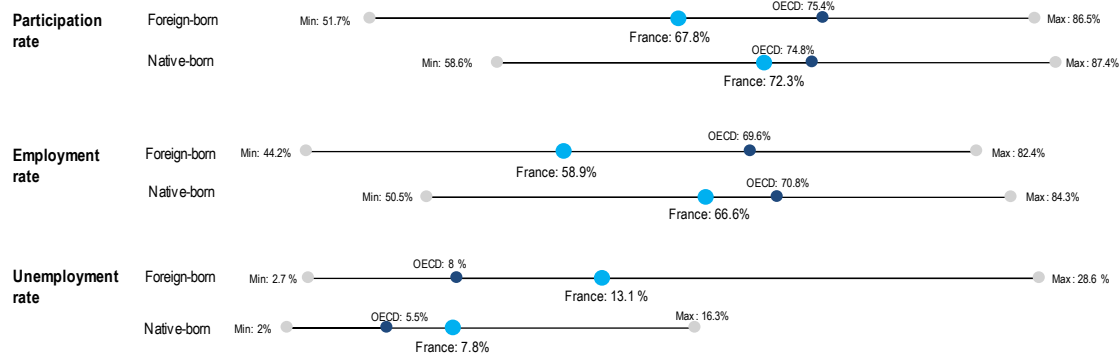
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	1.3	-0.1
Natural increase	2.1	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-0.8	+0.0

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	25 738	-4.7	1.0
Outflows (2018)	15 178	+10.4	0.5

Labour market outcomes
2019



Germany

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 13.5 million, 49% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
16% of the population	Poland (12%), Turkey (10%),
Evolution since 2009: +27%	Russia (8%)

In 2018, Germany received 631 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -26.7% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 60.7% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 10.3% labour migrants, 15.4% family members (including accompanying family) and 12.4% humanitarian migrants. Around 48 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 29 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 429 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 0.4% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts. Romania, Poland and Bulgaria were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Romania registered the strongest increase (21 000) and Syria the largest decrease (-27 000) in flows to Germany compared to the previous year. In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -12%, to reach around 143 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (39 000), Iraq (14 000) and Turkey (11 000). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Turkey (+600) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-4 900). Of the 154 000 decisions taken in 2019, 45.6% were positive.

In June 2019 Germany approved a package of migration-related laws. The 'Skilled Workers Immigration Act' opens the labour market to skilled non-EU migrants with vocational training. Labour migrants with an employment contract or job offer no longer need to undergo a labour market test to work in occupations with labour shortage. As already the case for university graduates, skilled labour migrants need to prove professional training qualifications equivalent to German standards. For skilled migrants with vocational qualifications from abroad, in practice this introduces an alternative benchmark, as the German dual education system is unique. As already possible for university graduates, skilled workers with recognised vocational qualifications will be able to come to Germany for up to six months to seek employment. They have to be able to finance their stay and provide proof of at least intermediate German language skills. Changes also allow those whose foreign qualifications are only partially recognised, under certain conditions to come to Germany to undertake further training. The law came into force in March 2020.

The package also introduced changes for non-EU workers residing in Germany. From January 2020,

individuals in employment can receive a 30-month toleration and the temporary suspension of deportation if they arrived before August 2018. Individuals and their family have to secure independently their livelihood and must have completed several successful integration steps, including knowledge of oral German. To support the rapid labour market integration of individuals with good staying prospects, further laws of the migration package improve access to integration and occupation-related language courses as well as training support. Changes also adjusted asylum seeker benefits and accelerated administrative procedures by pooling of responsibility and data sharing among relevant authorities.

Policy changes in asylum and return law allow for the detaining of rejected asylum seekers, the easier return of those found guilty of criminal offences and sanctioning of those who refuse to help clarify their identity. Germany reduced social welfare benefits for asylum seekers with protected status in other EU states and created a new tolerated status prohibiting employment and limiting movement across Germany for individuals whose identity remains unclear.

Two independent commissions composed of academics and policy makers were created in 2019. In March 2020, the report on the first of five phases of the new National Action Plan on Integration was presented. It discusses how integration may be supported before migration.

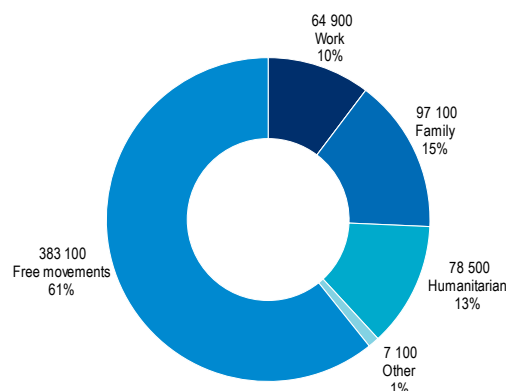
Due to the spread of COVID-19 and following the recommendations of the European Commission Germany restricted travel from outside the Schengen area and introduced temporary checks at its internal borders. Nationals, long-term residents and their immediate family were exempt. Others could enter Germany only for urgent and documented reasons, including for work purposes, while those with EU residency were allowed to pass through. Temporary flows were suspended but exceptions allowed 40 000 seasonal agricultural workers in April and again in May to enter, in order to meet urgent needs. Germany temporarily accepted asylum applications in writing for those who held a proof of arrival. The country temporarily suspended parts of asylum procedure counselling, transfers under Dublin Regulations and return programmes.

For further information:

www.bmas.de
www.bmi.bund.de
www.bamf.de
www.destatis.de

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Germany

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	7 970	+ 10%
Other temporary workers	16 860	+ 6%

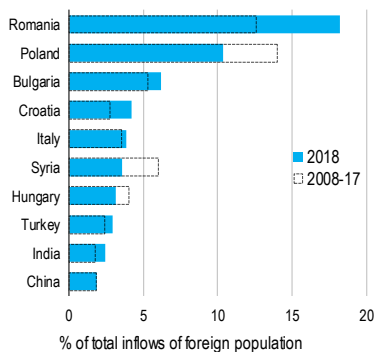
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	48 020	+ 21%
Trainees	4 590	+ 14%

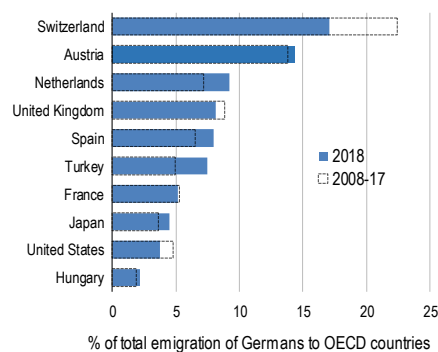
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	142 510	- 12%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Germans to OECD countries
(national definition)



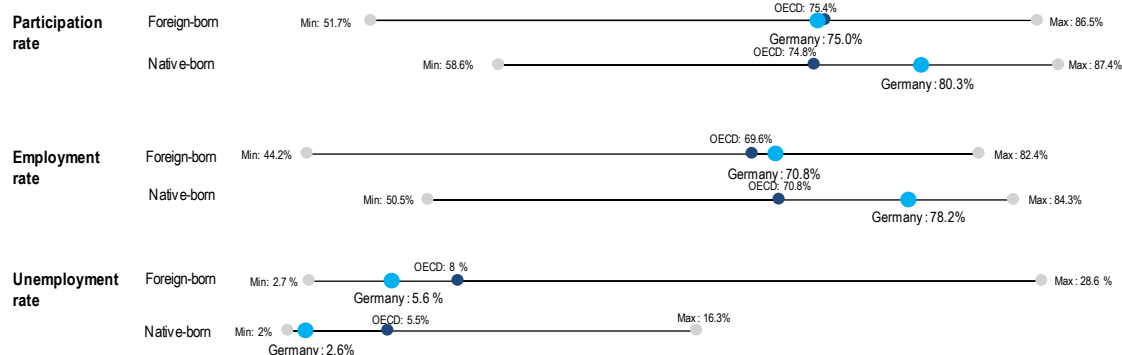
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	1.8	-0.9
Natural increase	-1.9	+0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	3.7	-1.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	17 040	-5.5	0.4
Outflows (2018)	25 402	+11.5	0.6

Labour market outcomes
2019



Greece

Foreign-born population – 2018	
Size: 1.3 million, 54% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Albania (48%), Georgia (7%), Russia (5%)
12.5% of the population	
Evolution since 2011: +1%	

In 2018, 36 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Greece (excluding EU citizens), 18.6% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 8% labour migrants, 48% family members (including accompanying family), 2.3% who came for education reasons and 41.7% other migrants. In addition, 11 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 38.3% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 15.3%, to reach around 75 000. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (24 000), Syria (11 000) and Pakistan (6 400). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (+12 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Iraq (-4 100). Of the 33 000 decisions taken in 2019, 53% were positive.

Since 2020, third-country citizens entering the country to study Greek can receive a one-year visa, possibly leading to a one-year residence permit, renewable twice. In addition, professionals with a business invitation can enter for short-term stays. Greece transposed the EU Directive on Students and Researchers in February 2020.

From July 2019, Greece has a new National Strategy for Integration. It includes a 'Greek integration model' allowing several institutions to coordinate action plans. The strategy stresses, not only the benefits of interculturalism, but also the need to respect national values, as well as the important role that local government can play in the field of social integration, in cooperation with national authorities.

In January 2020, new legislation regarding the asylum process came into force. Among other provisions, Greece may now detain asylum seekers for up to 18 months. Following massive attempts to illegally enter the Evros region in Greece through the Greek-Turkish borders, submission of asylum applications was suspended for one month in March 2020.

The National Strategy for Integrated Border Management was developed in 2019. In July 2019, Greece introduced changes to the legislation regarding trafficking in human beings. New forms of exploitation became punishable and sentences for accepting the services of a trafficked person were raised. Greece also activated the National Referral Mechanism to identify victims and coordinate action to combat human trafficking.

In 2019, Greece made additional steps to implement its new guardianship system for unaccompanied minors, who receive guardians to represent them in legal matters and ensure their best interest. In addition, a scheme for the relocation of a total of 1 600 unaccompanied minors from Greece to other EU Member States, organised by the EC and the Greek authorities, with the support of UNHCR, IOM and EASO and the receiving Member States, started being implemented on 15 April 2020.

In 2019, a law amending the Greek Nationality Code foresees the replacement of the citizenship interview with a standardised language and citizenship test. The relevant law provision though, has been suspended up to now and the procedural aspects, as well as the content of tests, have not been determined yet. The same law reduced the naturalisation fee from EUR 700 to EUR 550 and facilitated access to Greek nationality for several groups, such as minors with severe disabilities (>80%) and those not having the capacity to perform legal acts. Since March 2020, refugees may apply for naturalisation only after seven years of permanent stay, instead of previously three.

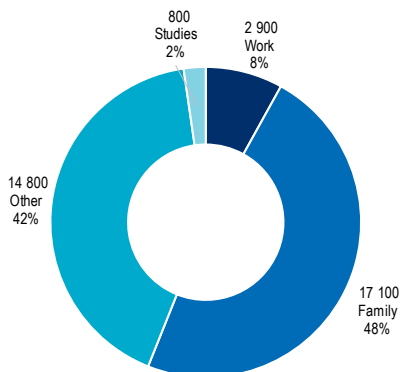
In July 2019, the responsibilities of the former Ministry for Migration Policy were transferred to the Ministry of Citizen Protection. However, following important developments, a separate Ministry of Migration and Asylum was established in January 2020.

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, Greece closed its borders but allowed holders of residence permit to enter, including foreign health personnel on condition of inclusion in the National Health System. Immigration and Asylum Services remained closed to the public from 12 March to 15 May 2020, while only pending applications for residence permit or asylum were being processed. Ministerial decisions ensured the legal status of third-country citizens until December 2020. Greece also extended the duration of stay of seasonal workers already present in the country and implemented an ad hoc fast-track procedure for additional agricultural workers. Return and readmission operations, suspended since mid-March due to COVID-19 related restrictions, resumed in July 2020.

Further information:
<https://migration.gov.gr/en/>
astynomia.gov.gr
<https://www.statistics.gr/en/home>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Greece

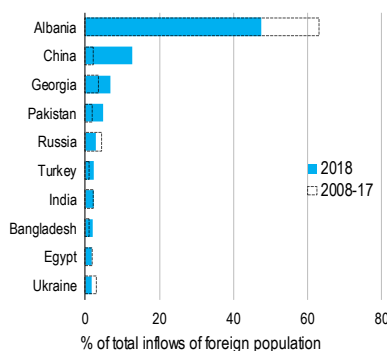
Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



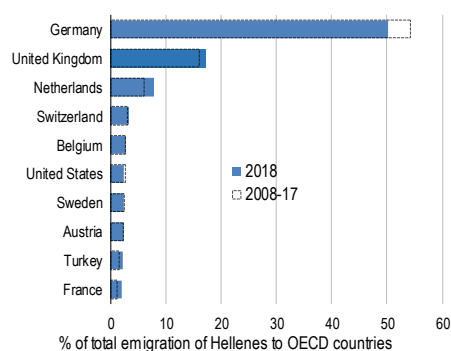
Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

Humanitarian	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	74 920	+ 15%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Hellenes to OECD countries
(national definition)



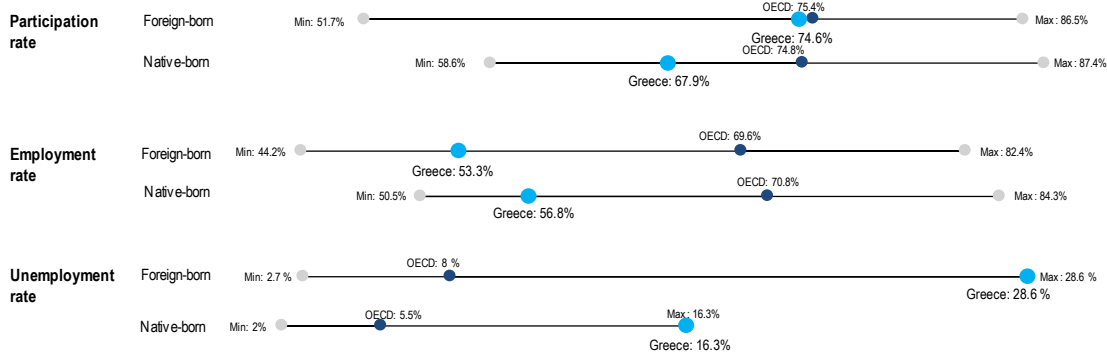
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-1.4	+0.1
Natural increase	-3.9	-0.7
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	2.5	+0.9

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	544	+11.1	0.3
Outflows (2018)	2 287	+9.8	1.0

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/ga2eqt>

Hungary

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.6 million, 49% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
6% of the population	Romania (37%), Ukraine (12%), Serbia (8%)
Evolution since 2009: +43%	

In 2018, 40 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Hungary (excluding EU citizens), 100% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 60.6% labour migrants, 12.6% family members (including accompanying family), 14% who came for education reasons and 12.7% other migrants. Around 5 200 short-term permits were issued to international students and 7 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 17 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 33.6% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Serbia and Romania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (10 000) and China the largest decrease (-300) in flows to Hungary compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -26%, to reach around 500. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (200), Iraq (200) and Pakistan (25). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Turkey (+5) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-85). Of the 700 decisions taken in 2019, 8.5% were positive.

Modifications to the legislation concerning third-country nationals in Hungarian families entered into force in January 2019. The changes require third-country national members of Hungarian families to apply for residence permits and eventually subsequent work authorization for the applicable purpose of their stay.

Since January 2019, administrative procedures that do not require coming in person are possible online. Via the website 'Enter Hungary', individuals or their authorised legal representatives may submit their applications for an initial or extension of their residence permit electronically. In January 2019, Hungary finalised the transposition of the Directive 2016/801/EU on trainees.

In August 2019, Hungary accepted its new Integrated Border Management Strategy for the period 2019-21. It focuses on safeguarding external EU borders and internal security and freedom of movement in the Schengen Area, through special border control

organisations, extensive coordination and collaboration as well as state-of-the-art technologies. It aims to ensure consistency between the national and EU border management objectives.

In May 2020, the European Court of Justice (ECJ) ruled the practice of retaining asylum seekers for excessively long periods in transit zones to be deprivation of liberty. The court found the existence of transit zones lawful, but limited the maximum time individuals may be held there to four weeks – thereafter they must be allowed to enter Hungary. Following this, Hungary closed the transit zones on its borders to Serbia. Affected asylum seekers were moved to reception centres. Hungary announced that in the future asylum applications must generally be submitted to foreign missions in bordering countries, with the exemption of family members of recognised persons and detainees who legally crossed the border.

Hungary has taken several steps to address trafficking in human beings in recent years. The Ministry of Interior has developed a manual to provide quick assistance and to enhance victim identification among third country nationals residing in Hungary. In February 2020, a new anti-trafficking strategy was adopted to improve the anti-trafficking legal environment.

In July 2019, Hungary transformed the Immigration and Asylum Office into the National Directorate-General for Aliens Policing. It is now operating as a law enforcement agency. Under the supervision of the Ministry of Interior, it continues to deal with matters relating to the entry, stay and settlement of foreign nationals.

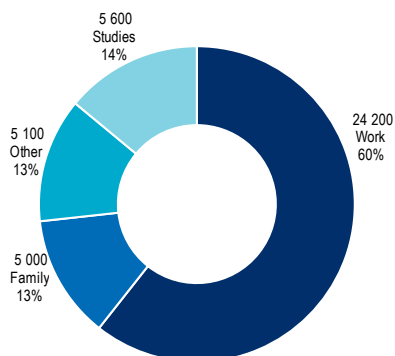
Due to the spread of COVID-19, Hungary classified sending countries into three groups depending on the current spread of the virus: green (low infection level), yellow (less serious infection level) and red (severe infection level). Hungarian citizens arriving from a country classified as green can enter Hungary without restrictions, if arriving from the territory of a country marked yellow or red they shall undergo a medical check. Same rules apply to foreign migrants who are permanent residents, family members of Hungarian citizens or of permanent residents, persons holding a residence permit exceeding 90 days. Different rules apply to border crossings of persons employed in the agricultural sector, in limited area (30 km) and to athletes and sports professionals coming for international sports events.

For further information:

<http://www.bmbah.hu/index.php?lang=en>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Hungary

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

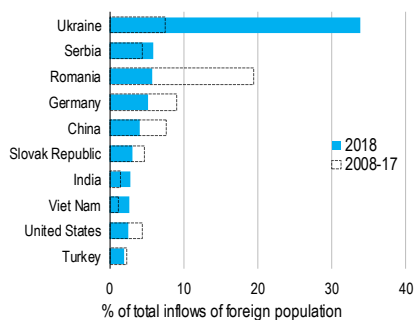
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	7 370	+ 51%
Family reasons	990	+ 46%
Education reasons	5 190	- 1%
Other	2 300	+ 2%

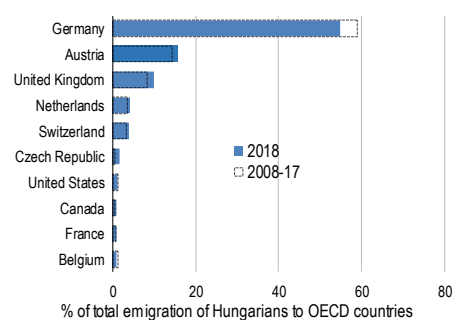
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	470	- 27%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Hungarians to OECD countries
(national definition)



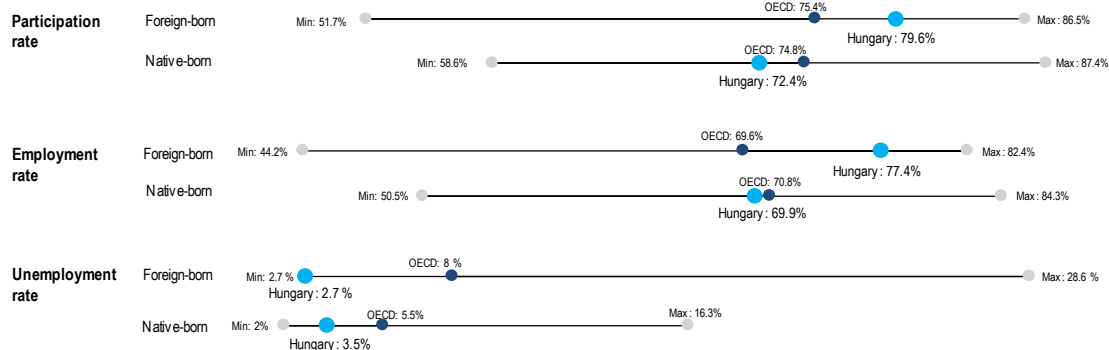
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-0.3	+0.3
Natural increase	-3.8	+0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	3.4	+0.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	4 353	+2.8	2.6
Outflows (2018)	1 150	+31.3	0.7

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/30ou8z>

Ireland

Foreign-born population – 2016	
Size: 0.8 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
17% of the population	United Kingdom (34%),
Evolution since 2007: +56%	Poland (14%), Lithuania (4%)

In 2018, Ireland received 45 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 12% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 69% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 21.7% labour migrants, 7.4% family members (including accompanying family) and 1.8% humanitarian migrants. Around 30 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 900 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 7 800 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 26.7% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 29.7%, to reach around 4 700. The majority of applicants came from Albania (1 000), Georgia (600) and Zimbabwe (400). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Albania (+500) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-200). Of the 1900 decisions taken in 2019, 52.1% were positive.

Ireland's employment permits system is managed through the operation of Occupations List (Critical skills and ineligible) for the purpose of granting employment permits, which are reviewed twice-yearly as part of an evidence-based process which involves a consultation process.

A 2018 Review of Economic Migration Policy recommended that the employment permit legislation be amended to ensure it is supportive of a changing labour market and economy into the future.

The new legislation, which is being drafted, includes amendments to the Labour Market Needs Test and introduces a Seasonal Employment Permit and Special Circumstances Employment Permit.

Since 2019, changes made to the Employment Permit system include an increase in the remuneration threshold for the Critical Skills Employment Permit (CSEP) and the streamlining of processes allowing immediate access to the labour market for spouses/partners of CSEP holders and Researchers under a Hosting Agreement. Spouses/Partners of other permit holders are still required to obtain their own employment permit and self employment is not allowed. The twice yearly review of the occupation lists introduced other changes in areas of construction, haulage, hospitality and the agri-food sector.

In June 2018, the Irish State opted into the EU Reception Conditions Directive (2013/33/EU) which lays down

standards for the reception of international protection applicants. These include access to the labour market, education, health care as well as reception conditions such as housing, food, clothing and expense allowances. Applicants for international protection have also been given the right to access the labour market where an applicant has not received a first instance decision on their application within 9 months of the application being lodged. Such a labour market access permission is granted for an initial period of 6 months, renewable if the applicant has not received a final decision on their application. From March 2019 the expenses allowances for residents in Direct Provision were increased to the levels recommended in the McMahon Report on Improvements to the Protection Process, published in 2015.

On 30th March, the Department of Business, Enterprise and Innovation (DBEI) implemented a COVID-19 contingency plan to ensure the Employment Permit system continues to operate. Since then, all staff have been working remotely and manual operations have been adjusted to provide for the acceptance of electronic/scanned documents. Since this crisis began, DBEI has been prioritising the processing of employment permit applications for medical personnel on a daily basis and these applications will continue to be prioritised.

The Department of Justice and Equality has allowed migrants on a student visa to apply for the Third Level Graduate Programme to remain in Ireland after graduating and work full-time. However, due to the public health crisis created by the COVID-19 pandemic, entry visa applications are currently being processed only in certain categories (e.g. health care professionals, transport personnel engaged in haulage of goods and other transport staff to the extent necessary and immediate family members of Irish nationals). Migrants with an approved employment permit outside of these categories are currently not able to travel to Ireland. Visas Permissions ending during the crisis are granted an automatic two-month extension.

For further information:

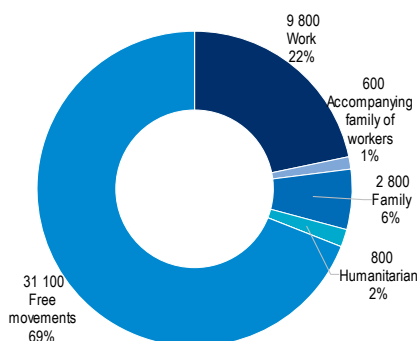
www.inis.gov.ie

www.ria.gov.ie/

<https://dbei.gov.ie>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Ireland

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	770	+ 15%
Other temporary workers	150	- 9%

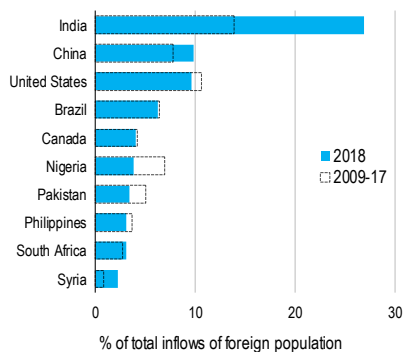
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	30 190	+ 9%
Trainees	20	- 21%

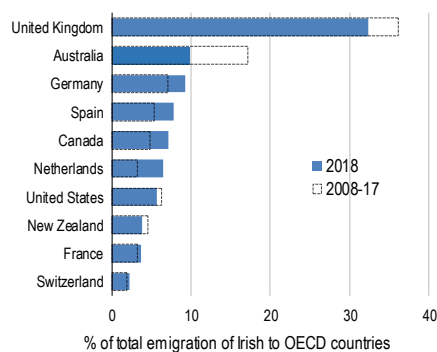
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	4 740	+ 30%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Irish to OECD countries
(national definition)



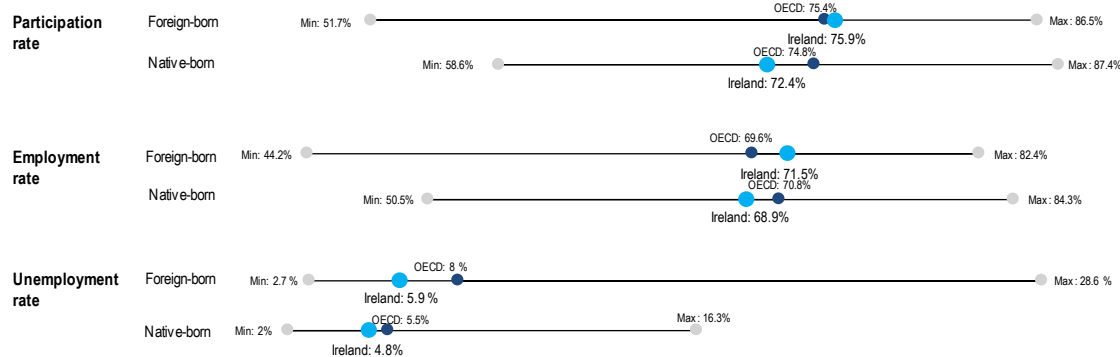
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	12.1	-3.1
Natural increase	5.8	-0.4
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	6.3	-2.7

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	581	-6.8	0.2
Outflows (2018)	1 659	+2.9	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



Israel

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 1.8 million, 55% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
21% of the population	Former USSR (49%), Morocco (7%), United States (5%)
Evolution since 2009: -5%	

In 2018, Israel received 28 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 6.6% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 22.4% family members. Around 66 000 permits were issued to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

The Former USSR, the United States and France were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Russia registered the strongest increase (3 500) and France the largest decrease (-700) in flows to Israel compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -41.9%, to reach around 9 400. The majority of applicants came from Russia (4 500), Belarus (700) and India (600). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Russia (+1 700) and the largest decrease nationals of Eritrea (-6 200). Of the 8 100 decisions taken in 2019, 1.6% were positive.

There were no major changes in immigration policy in Israel in 2018 and 2019. For the first time since 2009, the budget of the Ministry of Aliyah and Immigration Absorption decreased in 2019, but Israel continued to encourage immigration of Jews and the return of Israeli citizens who had emigrated. The government also continued its policy of helping Jewish immigrants integrate into the labour market. Integration efforts focused on two main targets: the integration of new immigrants from European countries such as France, Belgium, the Russian Federation, and Ukraine; and improving the integration of migrants and descendants of migrants from Ethiopia. Salary subsidies are provided to their employers. To facilitate access to employment, doctors with experience abroad in specialties in demand can be employed in hospitals and may obtain their license to practice in Israel without having to take an exam.

In May 2020, the high court cancelled part of the 2017 “Infiltrators law” which imposed a higher wage deduction on the salaries of illegally entering foreigners; this deposit is held by the state and returned upon departure. The withholding rate for this group is now 16%, the same as applies to all foreign workers in Israel. Additional withheld amounts were returned in 2020. Israel has made it less expensive to employ migrant workers by reducing the employer levy: from 2019 the agriculture sector is exempt and in all other sectors the levy was reduced to 15%. In February 2018, the Israeli government decided that

foreign workers in the construction sector would be allowed to work in infrastructure as well as in housing.

In September 2019, the Population Immigration and Border Authority (PIBA) notified employers that from the second quarter of 2020, temporary foreign workers (except for experts) may enter Israel only through a bilateral agreement mechanism. Implementation of this requirement has been delayed by COVID-19 suspensions of admission.

The ministerial committee on immigrant absorption decided in August 2018 to improve language accessibility to public government services relevant to permanent migrants. An inter-ministerial team will examine the need for language accessibility for migrants and the specific state services that will be available in the main languages spoken by migrants.

COVID-19 had a major effect on admissions and processing. As of July 2020, processing of work permit applications is minimal and new long-term permits are issued only in urgent cases. Extensions of temporary permits are still carried out under regular procedures or are automatically extended temporarily. B-1 work visas for foreign experts, Short-Term Employment Authorization (SEA), Short-Term Expedited Process (STEP) work visas and Hi-Tech B-1 Work Visas (HIT visa) are automatically extended for two months.

Entry is refused to non-citizens or non-residents of Israel, although in exceptional cases extraordinary permission may be given by PIBA (e.g. granted for staff in emergency services). Holders of valid permanent or long-term residence permits may re-enter Israel without restrictions but not those with temporary permits. A 14-day quarantine is imposed on all persons including Israel citizens.

The programmes providing assistance to specific groups of foreigners who wish to voluntarily leave Israel are still in force but are limited under the circumstances.

For further information:

www.cbs.gov.il

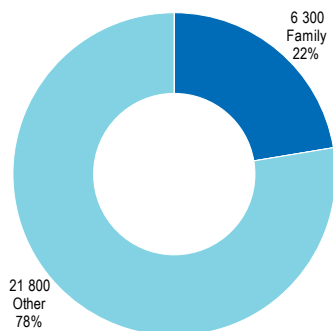
www.economy.gov.il

www.piba.gov.il

www.moia.gov.il

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Israel

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	120	+ 171%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	65 800	+ 15%

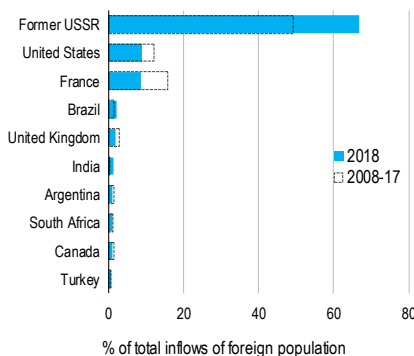
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students
Trainees

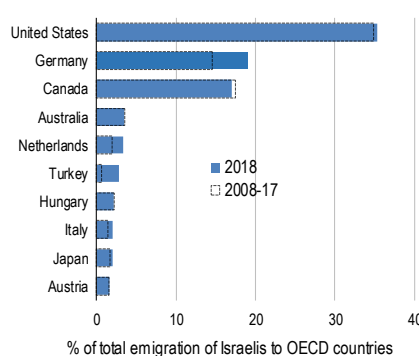
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	9 440	- 42%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Israelis to OECD countries
(national definition)



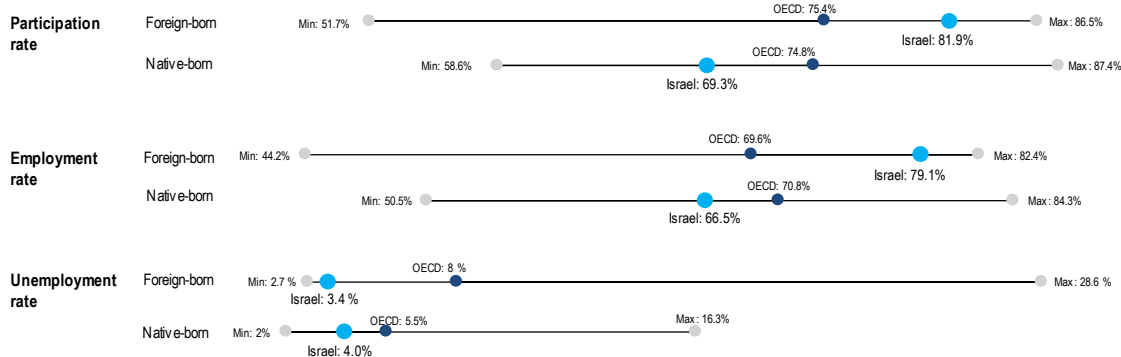
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	19.2	-0.1
Natural increase	15.2	-0.7
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.0	+0.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	6 051	+3.8	1.6
Outflows (2018)	5 991	+1.3	1.6

Labour market outcomes
2019



Italy

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 6.3 million, 54% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
10% of the population	Romania (16%), Albania (8%), Morocco (7%)
Evolution since 2009: +8%	

In 2018, Italy received 239 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 10.1% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 24.2% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 3.5% labour migrants, 57.4% family members (including accompanying family) and 12.8% humanitarian migrants. Around 3 200 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 6 900 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 74 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 14.3% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Romania, Brazil and Albania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (3 300) and Nigeria the largest decrease (- 5 500) in flows to Italy compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -34.5%, to reach around 35 000. The majority of applicants came from Pakistan (7 300), El Salvador (2 500) and Peru (2 400). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Peru (+1 700) and the largest decrease nationals of Nigeria (-4 300). Of the 93 000 decisions taken in 2019, 19.7% were positive.

The Annual Decree setting labour migration inflow was passed in April 2019, opening 18 000 entries for seasonal employment and 12 850 for contract and self-employment, identical to the previous year. Of these, 9 850 were permitted to change status from other permits, primarily for study, training and vocational education; 2 400 were authorised for self-employment, for categories ranging from artists and professionals to investors and start-up entrepreneurs. Admission of labour migrants outside these categories is authorised on the basis of exemptions.

In July 2019, Italy and Hong Kong, China signed a Working Holiday visa agreement, with a reciprocal cap set at 500 visas annually.

As a response to the influx of undocumented migrants shipping to Italian coasts, the Ministry of Interior was given the power to restrict or prohibit the entry into, transit through or parking in the territorial sea of ships, with the exception of military ships and ships engaged in non-commercial governmental service, for reasons of public order and security.

Italy was one of the first countries struck by the COVID-19 pandemic and imposed internal and international mobility restrictions in March 2020. In light of closure of offices and general confinement, expiring permits were extended. In June, these were prolonged through August. Permits for seasonal work expiring May 2020 were extended through to December. New and returning seasonal agricultural workers are unable to enter the country due to mobility restrictions.

In the context of the response to COVID-19, Italy is undertaking a targeted regularisation programme. It is only for foreigners who have been employed in the following sectors: agriculture and livestock, fisheries, long-term care (for persons with severe conditions or requiring assistance with daily living); and domestic work (cleaning, childcare etc.). Two separate streams were opened for applications, with filing running between 1 June and 15 August. The first stream is open to foreigners whose permit expired after 31 October 2019, if they prove they were in Italy at 8 March 2020 and worked previously in the sectors identified. Applicants will receive a temporary 6-month permit to look for a job with the possibility to change it into a residence permit on the ground of work. The second stream is foreigners who have new employment contracts or regularise current illegal employment in the above sectors and were present prior to 8 March 2020. Employers must pay EUR 500 and those who report prior undeclared employment will also be required to provide back-pay and social contributions, although the rules for such payments were not included in the initial regularisation regulations. The estimated number of applicants is about 200 000.

For further information:

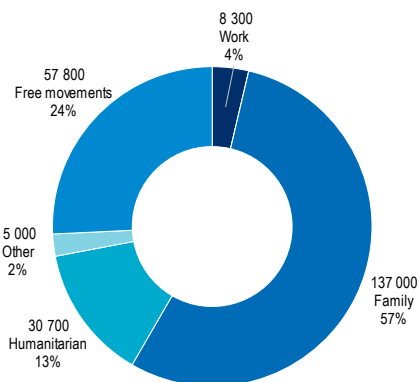
www.interno.gov.it

www.integrazionemigranti.gov.it

www.istat.it

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Italy

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	700	- 6%
Seasonal workers	5 620	+ 56%
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	630	+ 343%

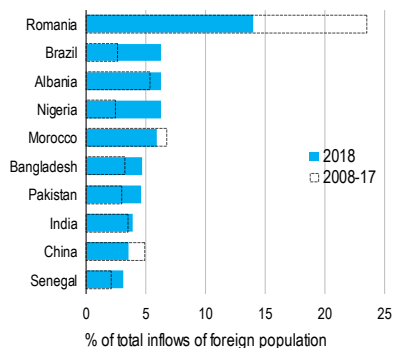
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	3 250	+ 12%
Trainees

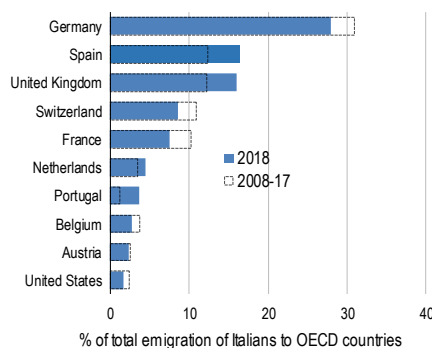
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	35 010	- 34%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Italians to OECD countries
(national definition)



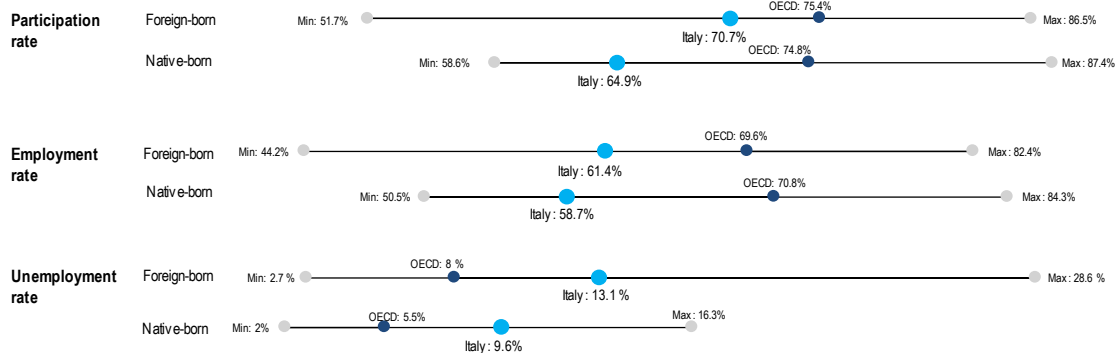
Components of population growth

	2019	
	Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-1.9	+0.2
Natural increase	-3.6	-0.4
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	1.6	+0.5

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	10 361	+4.1	0.5
Outflows (2018)	9 907	+12.0	0.5

Labour market outcomes
2019



Japan

Foreign population – 2019	
Size: 2.7 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of nationality:</i> China (36%), Korea (21%), Viet Nam (15%)
2% of the population	
Evolution since 2009: +23%	

In 2018, Japan received 115 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 15.8% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 57.4% labour migrants, 27.7% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.1% humanitarian migrants. Around 124 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 266 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Viet Nam, China and Korea were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Viet Nam registered the strongest increase (25 000) and Nepal the largest decrease (-1 500) in flows to Japan compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -1.1%, to reach around 10 000. The majority of applicants came from Sri Lanka (1 500), Turkey (1 300) and Cambodia (1 300). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Turkey (+800) and the largest decrease nationals of the Philippines (-800). Of the 10 000 decisions taken in 2019, 0.2% were positive.

Major policy changes in Japan in 2019 included the creation of an Immigration Services Agency, and the introduction of two new Status of Residence, “Specified Skilled Worker (i)” and “Specified Skilled Worker (ii)”, for semi-skilled workers in 14 industry fields identified as currently experiencing labour shortages despite national efforts to improve productivity and to secure domestic human resources.

The Act regarding the Promotion of Japanese Language Education was promulgated in June 2019. This law will contribute to the preparation of an environment for the promotion of Japanese language education that will enable foreign nationals residing in Japan to conduct their daily life and life in society together with Japanese citizens more smoothly. The law stresses the responsibility of the central and local governments for promoting Japanese language education.

In June 2019, Status of Residence “Designated Activities” was adopted for foreign workers who engage in remunerated activities related to the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games for 90 days or more. It will now be carried forward to the Games in 2021. Spouses and children are also allowed to stay as dependent.

In May 2019, Status of Residence “Designated Activities” was adopted for international students graduating from

Japanese universities who wish to stay and work in Japan. This Status of Residence provides them with more work options. It is one of the policy response of Japan to expand the working opportunities for international students after graduation.

In July in 2019, the government signed a Memorandum of Cooperation with 14 additional countries that wish to send Technical Intern Trainees to facilitate the implementation of technical intern training and strengthen relationships with the governments of these countries with the aim of securing proper sending organisations.

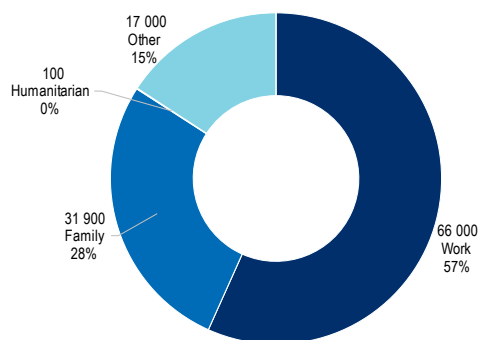
A Working Holiday Visa agreement with Sweden was signed in August 2019, with no maximum issuance limit. Agreements with Estonia and the Netherlands also took effect in 2020. There are now 26 countries or regions with which Japan has established a working holiday programme.

Japan was one of the earliest OECD country affected by the pandemic, with a first confirmed case in January 2020, but also one of the least severely affected with only about 20 000 confirmed cases and less than 1 000 deaths in mid-July 2020. Japan took strong measures such as the entry ban implemented in April, which is concerned with all foreign nationals, except for Special permanent residents and those who have special exceptional circumstances. Those who re-entered in Japan had to observe a 14-day quarantine and could not use public transportation. Most visas issued before 20 March were invalidated, the visa free regime was suspended.

For further information:
www.immi-moj.go.jp
<http://www.mhlw.go.jp/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Japan

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	15 880	+ 15%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	9 480	+ 9%
Other temporary workers	82 340	+ 12%

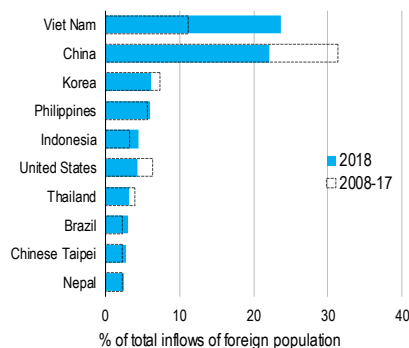
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	124 270	+ 1%
Trainees	157 840	+ 10%

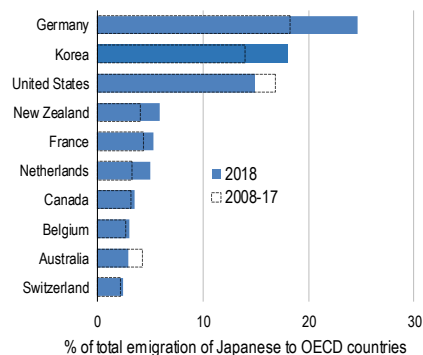
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	10 380	- 1%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Japanese to OECD countries
(national definition)



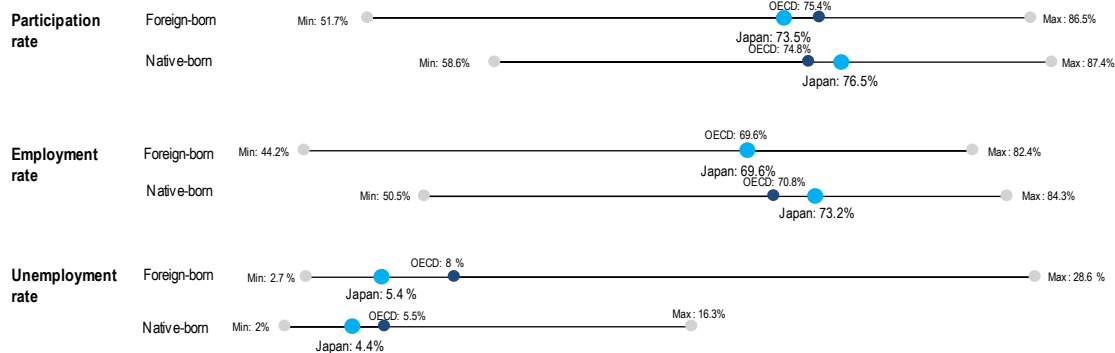
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-2.2	-0.1
Natural increase	-3.9	-0.5
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	1.7	+0.4

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	4 380	+0.3	0.1
Outflows (2018)	6 147	+16.4	0.1

Labour market outcomes
2015



Korea

Foreign population – 2019	
Size: 1.2 million, 43% women	<i>Main countries of nationality:</i>
2% of the population	China (44%), Viet Nam (13%), Uzbekistan (4%)
Evolution since 2009: +39%	

In 2018, Korea received 70 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 6.3% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 0.9% labour migrants, 20% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.9% humanitarian migrants. Around 35 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 125 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

China, Thailand and Viet Nam were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (12 000) and Mongolia the largest decrease (-1 600) in flows to Korea compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -4.4%, to reach around 15 000. The majority of applicants came from Russia (2 800), Kazakhstan (2 200) and China (2000). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Russia (+900) and the largest decrease nationals of Egypt (- 800). Of the 8 300 decisions taken in 2019, 2.6% were positive.

The visa rules for specialised workers (E-7) changed in March 2019 in order to attract international talent and to support small and medium enterprises struggling with labour shortages. The visa is mainly for professional and semi-professional jobs. The quota was increased and some of the criteria changed. In order to ensure the integrity of the programme, applicants for the E-7 Visa now need to annotate or legalize their work experience certificates and educational degree certificates.

The student visa scheme was also revised in March 2019. Stricter conditions will be applied to Korean language instructors. Students from over 20 countries will have to submit language test scores in English and in some cases in Korean. These changes are meant to address the recent increase in international students who overstay their visas, the number doubling from 2015 to 2018. Furthermore, to discourage international students from working illegally, they will be allowed to work for manufacturing businesses if they pass a Korean language test.

From July 2019, all foreign nationals living in Korea for six months and over have to subscribe to the National Health Insurance Service (NHIS). Foreign students were granted a waiver from mandatory registration until March 2021. However, immigrants who have defaulted on their payments to the NHIS will be able to renew their visas for reduced periods only.

The New Illegal Resident Reduction Plan was presented in December 2019. This programme is an extension to the Voluntary Departure Programme, which fights illegal employment and irregular immigration. Irregular immigrants who voluntarily leave Korea by end of June 2020 face reduced, or cancelled, fines for overstay and are able to apply again for a visa to Korea from the country of origin after a cooling period. The overstay fines and cooling periods depend on when the immigrant leaves Korea. Immigrants who leave before the end of March face no fines and may reapply for a visa sooner than those leaving between April and June.

The Plan applies also to immigrants illegally employed in small and medium enterprises or whose employment does not comply with their E-9 or H-2 visa rules. A similar incentive scheme for employers was also put in place. For example, if the immigrant is irregularly employed under a E-9 visa and both the employer and immigrant applied for voluntary return before end of March 2020, the employer faces a reduced fine.

A MoU was signed between Korea and Thailand in November 2019 to prevent illegal stay and employment. Irregular immigrants and employment brokers will be subject to legal consequences also in Thailand.

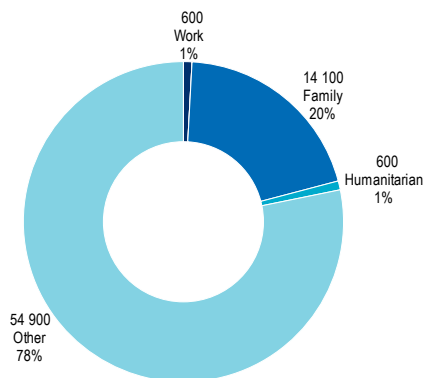
Exceptional measures were put in place during the COVID-19 crisis and are updated regularly. Immigration contact centres were available 24/7 to provide guidance on infection prevention and testing was made available to all foreign resident and irregular migrants at no cost. Visas for registered foreigners and overseas Koreans were automatically extended until end of April 2020 and immigrants who overstayed because of quarantine requirements were not penalised. All short-term visas already issued were suspended and new visas were issued only if the applicant could submit a medical diagnosis certificate and would commit to self-quarantine. Visa-waiver and visa free entry programmes were suspended on a reciprocal basis. Furthermore, from 1 June 2020, long-term stayers, with some exceptions, who wish to exit and re-enter Korea need to apply for a re-entry permit before leaving the country and submit a medical diagnosis certificate for re-entry.

For further information:

www.eps.go.kr
www.immigration.go.kr
www.kostat.go.kr

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Korea

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	2 410	+ 29%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	390	+ 25%
Other temporary workers	120 810	+ 3%

Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	35 480	+ 26%
Trainees	1 090	- 21%

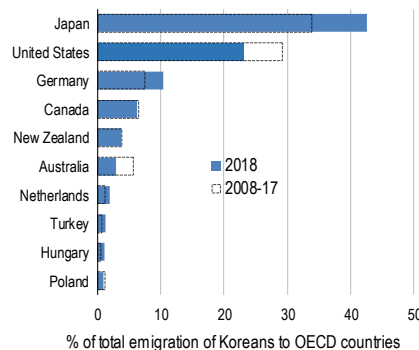
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	15 430	- 4%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Koreans to OECD countries
(national definition)



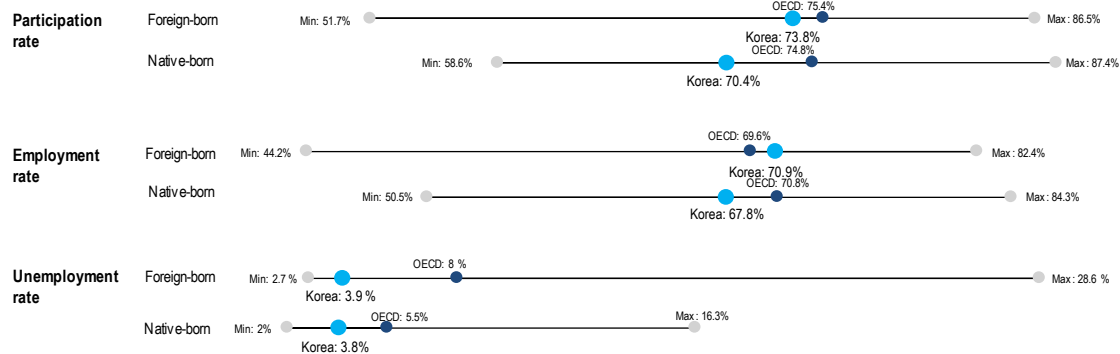
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	0.5	-0.5
Natural increase	0.1	-0.5
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	0.4	+0.0

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	7 374	+3.5	0.5
Outflows (2018)	13 531	+5.0	0.8

Labour market outcomes
2017



Latvia

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.2 million, 61% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
13% of the population	Russia (49%), Belarus (18%),
Evolution since 2009: -26%	Ukraine (13%)

In 2018, 6 200 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Latvia (excluding EU citizens), 42% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 44.3% labour migrants, 20.5% family members (including accompanying family), 28.4% who came for education reasons and 6.8% other migrants. Around 600 short-term permits were issued to international students and 800 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 2 200 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 62.2% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, India and Russia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (500) and Lithuania the largest decrease (-59) in flows to Latvia compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 2.9%, to reach around 200. The majority of applicants came from Azerbaijan (35), Russia (25) and India (15). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Azerbaijan (+20) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-25). Of the 200 decisions taken in 2019, 23.3% were positive.

Amendments to Immigration Law in Latvia allowed companies to employ third-country nationals on the basis of a long-term visa, the process being simpler, cheaper and faster than drawing up a residence permit, thus allowing employers to attract the necessary workforce more flexibly.

It has become easier for applicants for the EU Blue Card to be employed in Latvia. The wage rate offered is now more flexible and a decision on the application must be made within ten working days instead of 30, while the time limit for examining applications for residence permits for family members is now aligned with that of the Blue Card applicant. In addition the rule that only those third-country nationals who had completed higher education in the relevant sector/profession could receive the Blue Card was relaxed.

Latvia tightened up on companies employing people for whom a repeat residence permit was required: they must demonstrate that the company is operating efficiently and fulfils tax payment criteria.

In 2019, Latvia amended its procedures for issuing a temporary residence permit to start-up company founders from third countries, extending for up to

12 months after the issue of a temporary residence permit the period during which a third-country national has to submit information relating to company progress and innovation.

Following transposition of EU Directive 2016/801/EU, third-country nationals studying in another EU Member State may enter and stay in Latvia for one year without a Latvian residence permit and as well as receiving a permit to study in Latvia may be employed for up to 20 hours per week. In addition Masters and PhD students are entitled to work 40 hours per week during the summer break. Amendments to the Immigration Law provide for the possibility of revoking a temporary residence permit if the student has not made sufficient study progress and if this is not based on circumstances beyond the control of the third-country national. Upon successful completion of their studies, third-country nationals have the right to request a temporary residence permit for a period of nine months if they wish to seek employment or start a commercial activity in Latvia.

Mobility restrictions with other Baltic States have been lifted from 15 May 2020. During the lockdown, it was allowed to drive through Latvia, without stopping.

For further information:

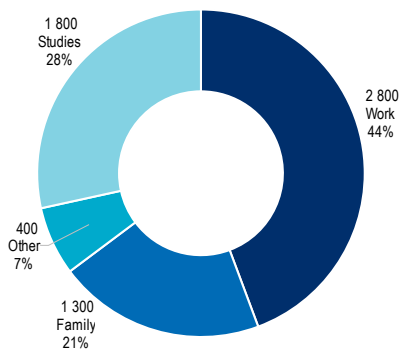
www.pmlp.gov.lv

www.csb.gov.lv

www.emn.lv

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Latvia

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

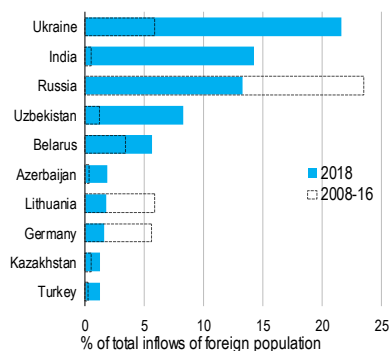
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	820	+ 47%
Family reasons	970	+ 8%
Education reasons	570	+ 6%
Other	280	+ 1%

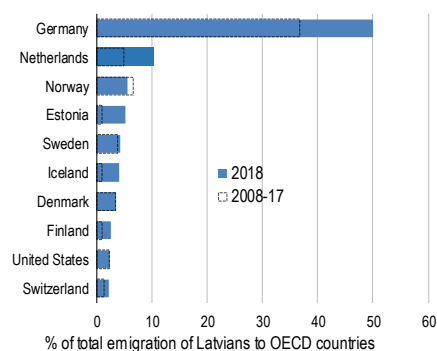
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	180	+ 0%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Latvians to OECD countries
(national definition)



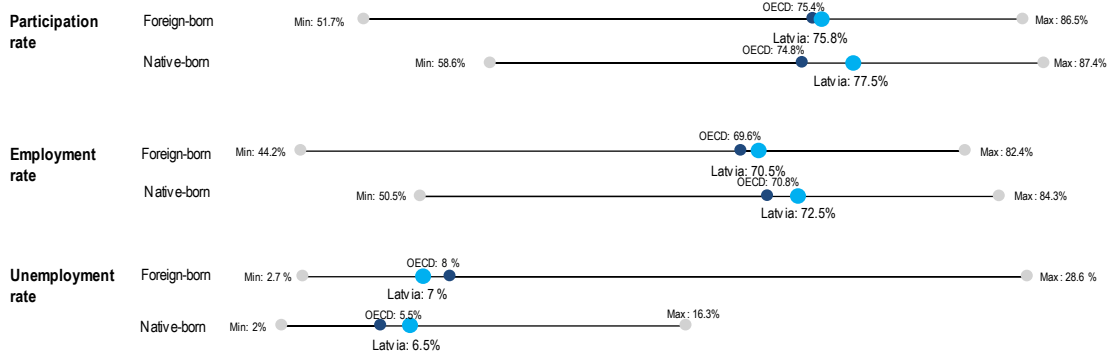
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-6.4	+1.1
Natural increase	-4.7	+0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-1.8	+0.7

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 223	-1.2	3.5
Outflows (2018)	495	+11.4	1.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



Lithuania

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.1 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Russia (36%), Belarus (23%), Ukraine (14%)
5% of the population	
Evolution since 2009: -37%	

In 2018, 12 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Lithuania (excluding EU citizens), 21.9% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 80.3% labour migrants, 8.2% family members (including accompanying family), 6.9% who came for education reasons and 4.6% other migrants. Around 400 short-term permits were issued to international students and 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 3 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 34.2% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Belarus and Russia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (1 400) and Syria the largest decrease (-100) in flows to Lithuania compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 62.3%, to reach around 600. The majority of applicants came from Russia (300), Tajikistan (200) and Syria (15). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Russia (+200) and the largest decrease nationals of Iraq (-25). Of the 300 decisions taken in 2019, 27.7% were positive.

Since July 2019, the Migration Department is responsible for legal migration, while border security and irregular migration are the duties of the State border guard service. Police is no longer responsible for these issues. Foreigners who entered Lithuania without the proper documentation, or overstayed after their visa expired, are given wider possibilities to leave the country voluntarily within a specific time limit. Expulsion decisions are no longer taken by the police but jointly by the Migration Department and the State Border Guard Service.

The government of Lithuania signed in December 2018 an Agreement on employment and cooperation in the field of labour migration with Ukraine. In January 2019 it also signed a readmission agreement with the government of Viet Nam, following the increase in the activities of organised criminal groups involved in the irregular migration of Vietnamese citizens.

In 2019, several measures came into force easing requirements and facilitating the entry and residence of different categories of workers. For workers originating from countries which have been granted visa-free travel, a list of approved employers was established (competent institutions may request proof of qualifications),

foreigners may work for multiple employers and change employer while in the country. At the same time, measures were introduced in order to prevent abuse of immigration system. Posted foreign workers need work permit and temporary employment agencies cannot recruit foreigners.

In spring 2019, the Ministry of the Interior, the Migration department and the Ministry of the Economy and Innovation signed a memorandum of understanding to establish the Start-up Employee Visa scheme. Since March 2019 highly skilled third-country workers may change employer or job function with the same employer without renewing their temporary residence permit. A change in the overall average gross monthly earnings should not impact on the validity of a Blue Card already issued. Regarding applications for highly qualified jobs subject to a labour market test, the Migration Department now serves as a 'one-stop shop' for both the application of a temporary residence permit and regarding the decision of the Employment Service.

At the same time, in July 2019 in response to the steep increase in inflow of labour migrants, amendments to the Law on the Legal Status of Foreigners were adopted in order to introduce quotas for third-country workers coming to work in shortage occupations. The first quota will be established for 2021. Moreover, the amendment of the Law on the Legal Status of Aliens, which regulates the access of asylum seekers to the labour market (six months after the asylum application was submitted) was adopted on 3 December 2019. The asylum seeker's right to work is confirmed by a registration certificate.

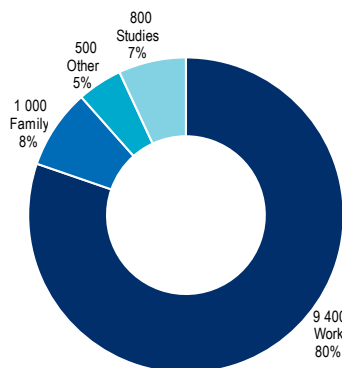
National borders were closed on 16 March 2020 as the country started a nationwide quarantine, with the exception of persons with valid long-term residence permits. The transit of people returning to their home country through Lithuania was allowed. During the confinement deportations were suspended and stay permits were tacitly extended.

For further information:

www.migracija.lt
www.stat.gov.lt/en
<http://emn.lt/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Lithuania

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

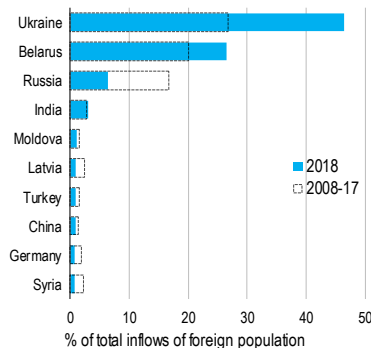
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	150	+ 24%
Family reasons	60	- 41%
Education reasons	390	- 5%
Other	20	+ 6%

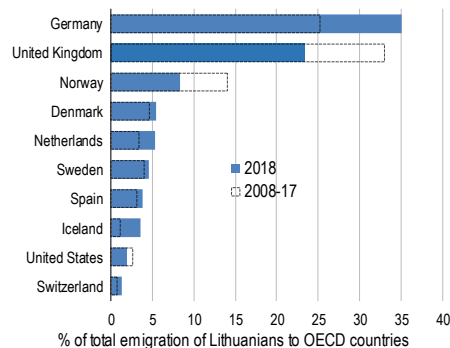
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers (2018)	630	+ 62%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Lithuanians to OECD countries
(national definition)



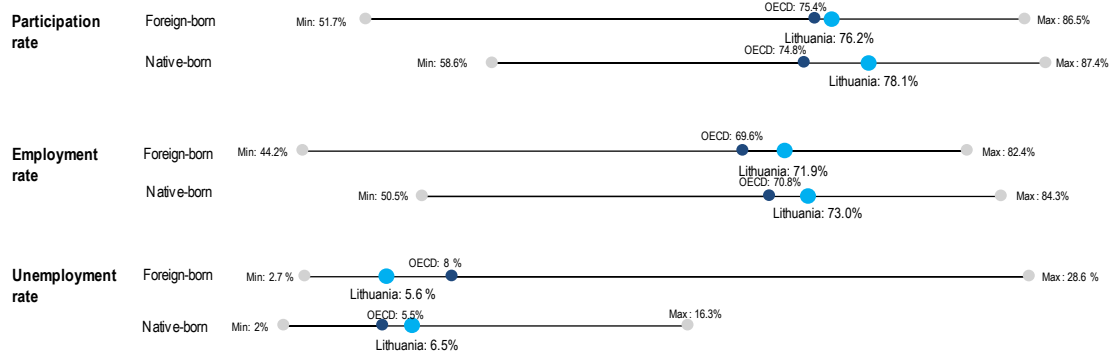
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	0.0	+5.3
Natural increase	-3.9	+0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	3.9	+5.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 304	-6.0	2.4
Outflows (2018)	617	+12.6	1.2

Labour market outcomes
2019



Luxembourg

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.3 million, 49% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
46% of the population	Portugal (25%), France (14%), Belgium (7%)
Evolution since 2009: +50%	

In 2018, Luxembourg received 22 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 0.6% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 76.5% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 8.2% labour migrants, 9.2% family members (including accompanying family) and 5.6% humanitarian migrants. Around 300 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 36 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 11.7% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

France, Portugal and Italy were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Portugal registered the strongest increase (200) and France the largest decrease (-200) in flows to Luxembourg compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -1.1%, to reach around 2 200. The majority of applicants came from Eritrea (600), Syria (400) and Afghanistan (200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Eritrea (+200) and the largest decrease nationals of Georgia (-100). Of the 1 200 decisions taken in 2019, 56.8% were positive.

Following parliamentary elections in October 2018, the government set new targets regarding immigration, international protection, integration and international cooperation. The objectives of the coalition agreement include shorter processing times for immigration applications through the simplification and digitalisation of administrative procedures, the preservation of free movement of people in the Schengen area, supported by improved external border management, the introduction of a new status for British citizens after Brexit, as well as continued measures against illegal immigration and the return of illegal residents to their countries of origin.

In January 2020, a new Reception Office (Office National de l'Accueil – ONA) was created under the authority of the Minister of Immigration and Asylum. The ONA replaces the Luxembourg Reception and Integration Agency. Simultaneously, a new Department of Integration was created within the Ministry of Family Affairs, Integration and the Greater Region.

Regarding international students, the number of hours they may work during their studies was increased from 10 to 15 hours per week. Additionally, they may stay nine months after completing their studies or research

activities in order to find a job or start a business. They are also allowed to move around the EU more easily during their stay and the category of trainee has been reviewed to broaden the scope in which a student or a young graduate may gain initial professional experience. Finally, processing times have been reduced from 90 to 60 days, or in some cases 30 days.

Agreements with Chile, Chinese Taipei and Canada were signed to introduce a working holiday visa for young adults between 18 and 30 years. This visa, which is valid for a period of 12 consecutive months, allows the holder to re-enter or leave the country several times. Visa holders cannot be granted permission to extend their stay beyond this period.

In terms of integration policy, the National Action Plan on Integration adopted in 2018 is based on the principles of shared responsibility of all actors, with a special emphasis on the local level. It stresses the importance of quality measures and their evaluation. Integration programmes, such as the Guided Integration Trail (Parcours d'Intégration Accompagné – PIA) and the Welcome and integration contract (Contrat d'Accueil et d'Intégration – CAI) remain prominent components.

In July 2018, an amendment to the 2017 law on Luxembourg nationality was passed. Descendants of Luxembourgers who lost their citizenship and who can claim a direct maternal or paternal ancestor of Luxembourgish nationality can now claim citizenship.

Luxembourg also strengthened its fight against the exploitation of prostitution and the procurement and trafficking of human beings for sexual purposes. Since February 2018, a new law prevents victims of sexual exploitation from being criminally responsible for a solicitation offence.

During the lockdown from mid-March to mid-May, the essential desks dealing with migration and asylum procedures managed to remain open. The validity of selected visas, which expired on 1st March 2020, has been extended. This concerns long- and short-stay visas, authorisations for temporary stay, as well as residence cards and permits.

For further information:

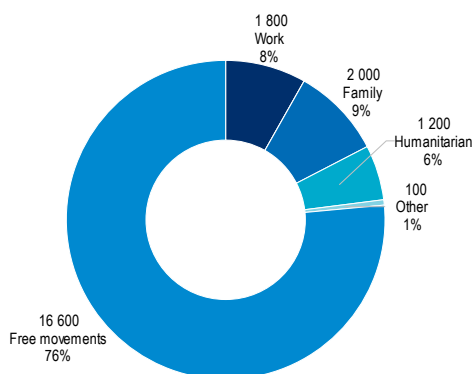
<https://guichet.public.lu/>

<https://ona.gouvernement.lu/>

<https://maee.gouvernement.lu>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Luxembourg

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	250	+ 39%
Other temporary workers	1 110	+ 7%

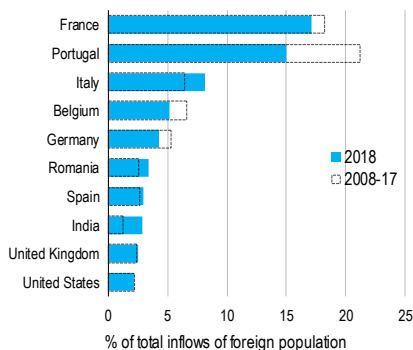
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	350	- 7%
Trainees	30	+ 3%

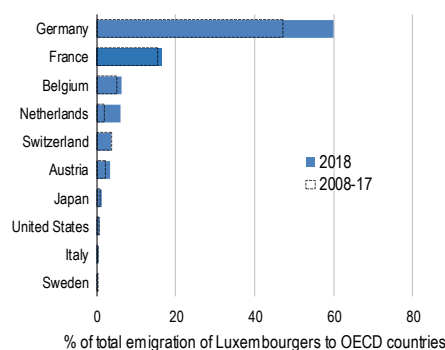
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	2 200	- 1%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Luxembourgers to OECD countries
(national definition)



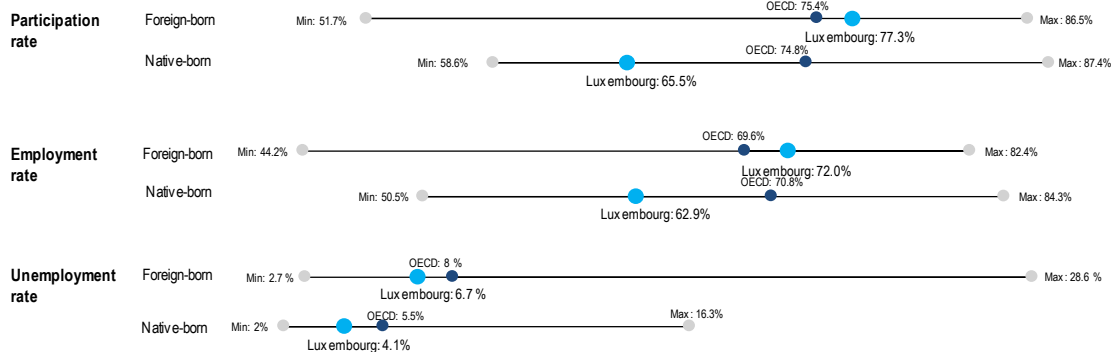
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	19.7	+0.1
Natural increase	3.1	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	16.6	+0.3

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	2 001	-3.0	2.9
Outflows (2018)	14 116	+11.4	20.3

Labour market outcomes
2019



Mexico

Foreign-born population – 2018	
Size: 1.1 million, 50% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
1% of the population	United States (74%), Guinea (3%), Colombia (3%)
Evolution since 2008: +49%	

In 2018, Mexico received 39 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 18.5% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 15.1% labour migrants, 50% family members (including accompanying family) and 14.9% humanitarian migrants. Around 2 900 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 36 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Venezuela, the United States and Honduras were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Venezuela registered the strongest increase (2 900) and the United States the largest decrease (-200) in flows to Mexico compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 140%, to reach around 70 000. The majority of applicants came from Honduras (30 000), El Salvador (9 000) and Cuba (8 700). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Honduras (+16 000). Of the 25 000 decisions taken in 2019, 49% were positive.

In 2019, Mexico hosted more than half a million legal foreigners, a 58% increase since 2015. The majority originated from the United States, Venezuela and Honduras. The Ministry of the Interior (*Secretaría de Gobernación*) estimated that around 300 000 migrants were in an irregular situation in 2017. Emigration and returning flows, mostly to and from the United States, remain significant as well as flows of refugees and asylum seekers, mostly from Central America.

While both migration policy and enforcement are subject areas of the Ministry of the Interior, which is in charge of the National Institute for Migration (INM) and the Mexican Commission for Refugee Assistance (COMAR), political coordination is now shared with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs who chairs the Intersecretarial Commission for Integral Attention in Migration Matters (*Comisión Intersecretarial de Atención Integral en Materia Migratoria*), established on 19 September 2019. This Commission is in charge of coordinating the implementation of the federal government's migration policies, programmes and actions. The Commission is also responsible for the containment of irregular transit migration from Central America through the Southern Border, while all regular migration flows remain under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior.

First, in order to improve the control of irregular transit migration, in June 2019 the government appointed the

newly created National Guard to reinforce the INM's migration control operations. The National Guard can detain undocumented migrants in coordination with the INM. As a countermeasure, those who wish to remain in Mexico, are offered assistance and pathways to a regular migratory status and a full integration to the Mexican society.

Second, the Mexican Government accepted the unilateral Migrant Protection Protocols (MPP) US policy, also known as Remain in Mexico. Refugees and asylum seekers to the United States are returned to Mexico to wait until their claims are processed by US courts. At the end of 2019, there was an estimated 70 000 asylum seekers in Mexican border cities awaiting US court dates. After being returned to Mexico, returnees under MPP were provided with a *forma migratoria multiple*, a 180-day visitor permit that does not give permission to work. Those who wish to remain in Mexico were offered pathways for regularisation, but this required them to waive their refugee claim in the United States.

The Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership (CPTPP) between Australia, Canada, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand and Singapore was implemented on 30 December 2018. This revised version of the original Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) offers business visitors, investors and skilled workers reciprocal access to labour markets; it did not change the immigration system prevailing in Mexico.

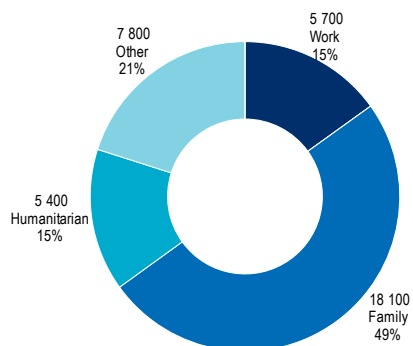
In March 2020, following the announcement by the US Government that all hearings under the Remain in Mexico programme were suspended and despite COVID-19 worldwide restrictions to travel, Mexico continued accepting refugee claims and provided assistance to secure the return of foreigners to their origin country.

For further information:

www.gob.mx/inm
www.inegi.org.mx
www.politicamigratoria.gob.mx

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Mexico

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers	10 710	- 14%
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	25 470	+ 1%

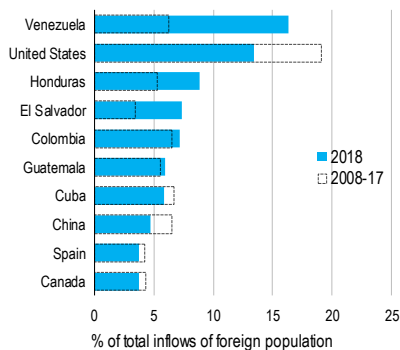
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	2 900	- 20%
Trainees

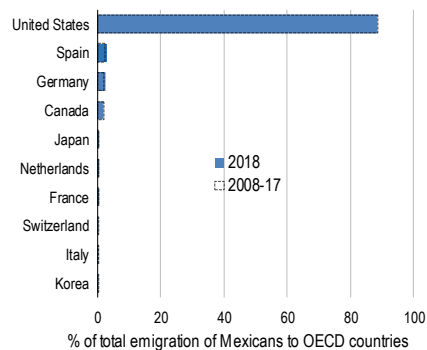
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	70 370	+ 138%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Mexicans to OECD countries
(national definition)



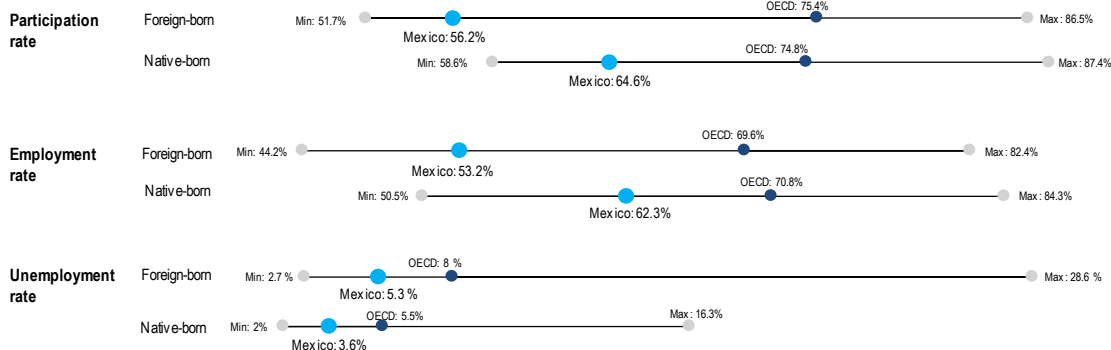
Components of population growth

	2018 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2018/17 difference
Total	11.3	-0.4
Natural increase	11.5	-0.9
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-0.2	+0.5

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	38 520	+7.7	3.0
Outflows (2018)	1 000	+24.0	0.1

Labour market outcomes
2019



Netherlands

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 2.3 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
13% of the population	Turkey (8%), Suriname (8%),
Evolution since 2009: +28%	Morocco (7%)

In 2018, the Netherlands received 136 100 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 6.2% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 59% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 15.4% labour migrants, 22.9% family members (including accompanying family) and 2.7% humanitarian migrants. Around 18 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 3 700 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 126 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 13.3% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Poland, Germany and India were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (1 000) and Syria the largest decrease (-10 000) in flows to the Netherlands compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 10.1%, to reach around 23 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (3 700), Nigeria (2 100) and Iran (1 500). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Nigeria (+1 500) and the largest decrease nationals of Eritrea (-900). Of the 13 000 decisions taken in 2019, 37.3% were positive.

In order to attract knowledge workers, those with a permit under the Highly Skilled Migrant Scheme qualify for a special expenses reimbursement scheme since January 2019. This allows an employer to provide an employee with 30% of his/her wage, including reimbursement, as an (untaxed) reimbursement of the extra costs of the temporary stay outside the country of origin.

To enhance client service, the Immigration and Naturalisation Service (IND) started a pilot in January 2019 to have permanent residence documents delivered by courier. The duration of the pilot is 3 months.

In January 2019, a new regularisation policy was introduced for children who have resided in the Netherlands for more than five years without receiving a residence permit. The government decided to abolish the previous Regulation for Long-term Resident Children as of 29 January 2019, to replace this with the so-called Closing Regulation for Long-term Resident Children (which applied more lenient criteria than the previous regulation), to reassess the eligibility of the remaining cases, and to abolish the State Secretary's discretionary

authority (i.e. the authority to make an exception for 'distressing cases').

The procedure for filing repeat asylum applications changed in July 2019. Previously, if an earlier asylum application was rejected an asylum seeker could fill a repeat application by post. Under the new rule, the asylum seeker must go to a dedicated application centre to fill the application in person.

On 1 July 2019, a new residence permit for essential personnel of start-ups was introduced, allowing start-ups to hire third country nationals that are essential to their success with a lowered salary criterion (in comparison to regular knowledge migrants), combined with a share in the company.

A new civic integration system will be implemented in the Netherlands. Originally foreseen for 1 January 2020, the starting date was pushed back to July 2021. Under the new system, municipalities will have the central role in the implementation of integration policy. Municipalities are expected to offer individualised contracts for most newcomers from non-EU countries (holders of an asylum permit, of a residence permit for family reunification and for religious labour migrants). The civic integration courses which are at the core of these include Dutch language courses, the level of which will increase from A2 to B1, and knowledge about the Dutch labour market and society.

Currently, immigrants from Turkey are exempt from the civic integration requirements that otherwise apply to most third-country nationals wishing to come to the Netherlands. In the new system, Turkish citizens would then be required to take both the civic integration abroad exam prior to arrival and to participate in an integration programme once in the Netherlands.

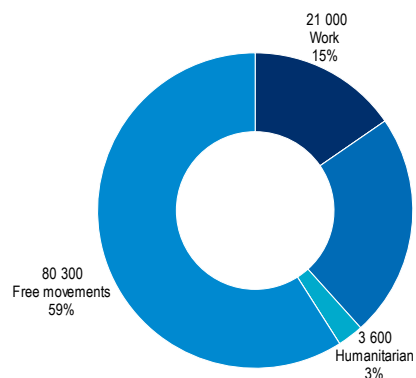
On 12 February 2020 the Council of State ruled that the Dutch central government must investigate the concrete consequences of loss of Dutch citizenship. If the central government decides that the consequences of the loss of citizenship are disproportionate, those concerned will retroactively become Dutch nationals again.

Since July 2020, highly skilled migrants (holders of a Highly Skilled Migrant long-term stay (MVV) visa or permit, including EU Blue Card holders, Intra Corporate Transferees under Directive 2014/66/EU and researchers under Directive 2016/801) and students are allowed to enter the Netherlands, regardless of their country of residence while most other categories of foreign workers remain banned from entry into the Netherlands owing to COVID-19.

For further information:
www.ind.nl / www.cbs.nl

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Netherlands

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	3 660	+ 14%

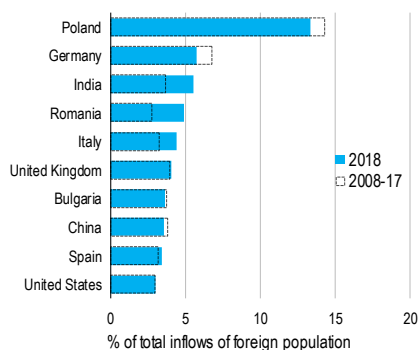
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	18 270	+ 8%
Trainees

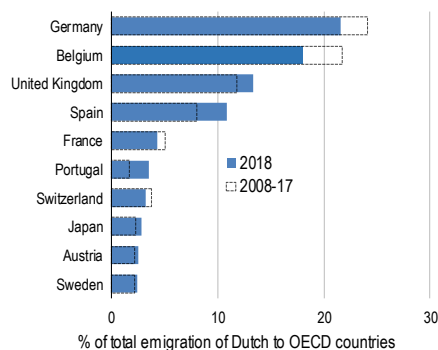
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	22 540	+ 10%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Dutch to OECD countries
(national definition)



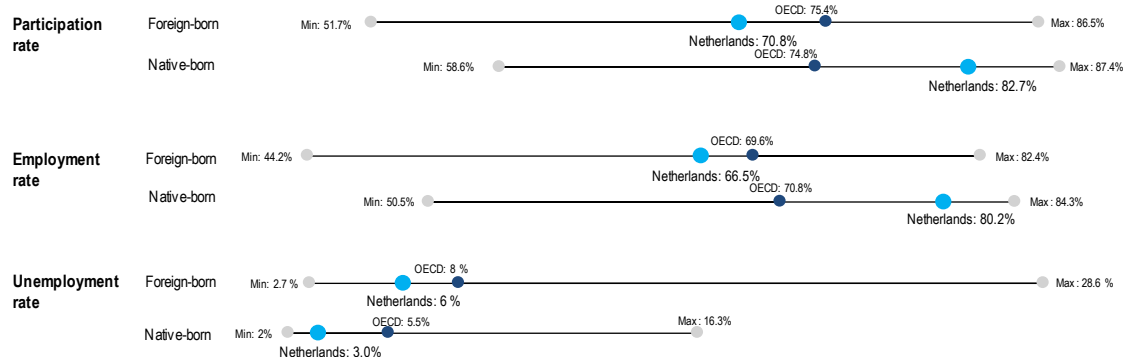
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	7.2	+1.3
Natural increase	1.0	+0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	6.2	+1.2

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	2 353	-5.6	0.3
Outflows (2018)	13 253	+17.3	1.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



New Zealand

Foreign-born population – 2018	
Size: 1.3 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
27% of the population	United Kingdom (21%), China (10%), India (9%)
Evolution since 2008: +39%	

In 2018, New Zealand received 45 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -4.6% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 12.6% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 20.4% labour migrants, 57.7% family members (including accompanying family) and 9.3% humanitarian migrants. Around 23 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 134 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

China, India and the Philippines were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, South Africa registered the strongest increase (1 200) and the United Kingdom the largest decrease (-500) in flows to New Zealand compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 18.2%, to reach around 500. The majority of applicants came from China (91), India (66) and Sri Lanka (50). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of India (+66) and the largest decrease nationals of China (-12).

Major changes will continue to be implemented until mid-2021 to the way employers recruit some migrants for temporary work in New Zealand. The new framework will replace six types of temporary work visas and will have three steps: an employer check, a job check and a migrant check. All employers will ultimately need to be accredited before they can recruit foreign workers, with high-volume users of the system being required to demonstrate how they are attracting and retaining New Zealanders. Under the changes, the Work-to-Residence visa pathway is being decoupled from the status of the employer and attached instead to the income of the worker (workers paid more than twice the national median income will become eligible to apply for residence).

Measures to strengthen the labour market test (LMT) include an obligation to state the salary when advertising a vacancy, and narrowing the reasons for which an employer can reject a suitable or trainable New Zealander referred by the Minister of Social Development and recruit a migrant worker instead. The LMT will be removed for high-paid jobs outside the five main cities. In parts of the country where fewer

New Zealanders are looking for work, visa conditions for migrants will be more generous. The national median income will become the unique criterion to classify jobs into skilled and lower-skilled (which have to pass the LMT), replacing a complicated skills classification system that does not reflect all occupations and can cause delays in visa processing. All lower-skilled employer-assisted workers will have the ability to support partners and dependent children for the length of their visa, with partners granted a visitor visa and subject to a labour market test should they seek paid employment. Sector agreements are intended to be introduced to facilitate access to lower-skill migrants to certain industries, in return for reducing reliance on their migrant workforce over time. Introduction of sector agreements is currently paused as a result of COVID-19. Industries with a high reliance on migrant workers have been identified for initial negotiations: aged residential care, red meat processing, dairy, forestry, road freight, transport, and tourism and hospitality.

Following the increase in the annual Refugee Quota Programme from 1 000 to 1 500 people per year, taking effect in July 2020, the government has announced new settlement locations and increased funding for settlement support and housing.

The government has piloted an innovative approach to improving social inclusion outcomes for recent migrants, former refugees and international students. It encourages local government to create welcoming and inclusive communities.

On 13 May 2020, a new law was passed to give the Minister of Immigration time-limited (12 months) powers. The Minister may amend existing visa conditions (including extending expiry dates), grant visas without applications, or waive application requirements. The legislation also enables the suspension of visa applications from abroad for up to three months at a time. Visa processing capacity in New Zealand progressively increased from May 2020, with priority being given to resident and temporary visa applications where the applicant is in New Zealand or in capacity to support the government response to COVID-19.

For further information:

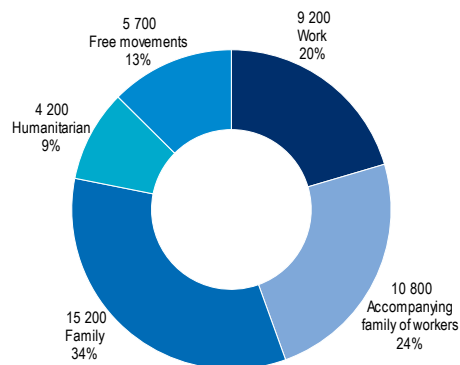
<https://www.immigration.govt.nz/about-us/what-we-do/welcoming-communities>

<https://www.immigration.govt.nz/about-us/what-we-do/our-strategies-and-projects/changes-to-temporary-work-visas>

<https://www.immigration.govt.nz/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – New Zealand

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	63 170	- 6%
Seasonal workers	13 110	+ 12%
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	56 990	+ 14%

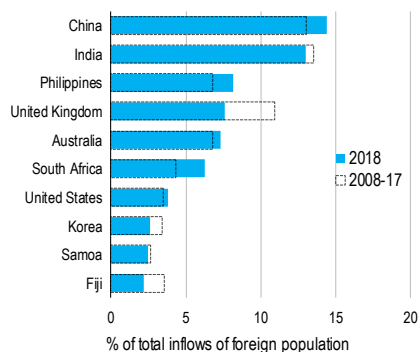
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	22 680	- 8%
Trainees	1 220	- 22%

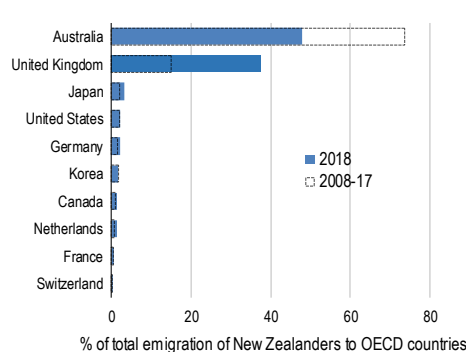
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	540	+ 17%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of New Zealanders to OECD countries
(national definition)



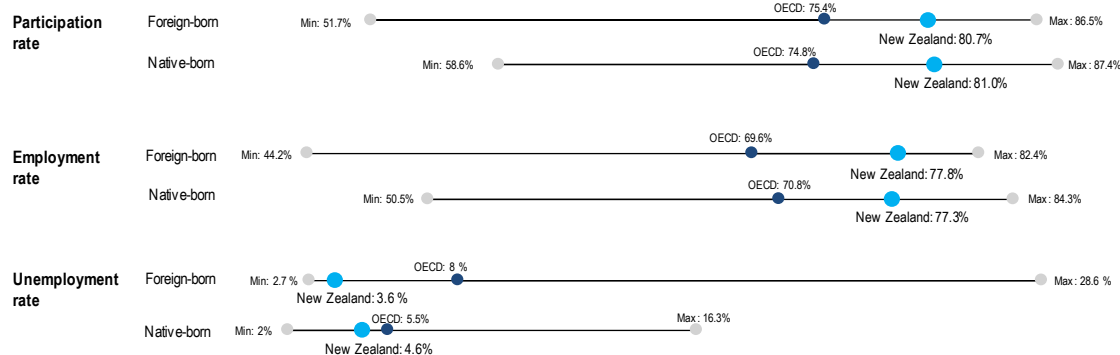
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	16.3	+0.5
Natural increase	5.2	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	11.1	+0.5

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	585	-5.5	0.3
Outflows (2018)	844	+3.8	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



Norway

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.8 million, 48% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
15% of the population	Poland (12%), Sweden (6%), Lithuania (5%)
Evolution since 2009: +72%	

In 2018, Norway received 41 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -10.6% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 54.3% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 9.3% labour migrants, 26.9% family members (including accompanying family) and 9.6% humanitarian migrants. Around 3 600 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 7 500 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Poland, Syria and Lithuania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (400) and Syria the largest decrease (-3 100) in flows to Norway compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -13.5%, to reach around 2 200. The majority of applicants came from Syria (500), Turkey (400) and Eritrea (200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Syria (+100) and the largest decrease nationals of Turkey (-400). Of the 2 500 decisions taken in 2019, 72.1% were positive.

In 2019 and 2020 integration policy initiatives have been prominent. The Norwegian integration strategy – “Integration through education and competence (2019-2022)” – aims to provide more opportunities for refugees and other immigrants to participate in the workforce and in community life and to reinforce education and training measures.

The strategy measures include vocational training combined with language training and primary education, modulated training tested in several municipalities and ordinary secondary education. Training measures administered by the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration will be available for more user groups, including immigrants who need further vocational education at the upper secondary level. In addition, the wage subsidy scheme will be easier to use. Other measures include the extension of the national scheme that offers 20 free core hours per week in kindergarten for low-income families to children aged two and the development of a tool for mapping Norwegian language skills for pre-school children. Better tools for mapping the language proficiency of pupils in primary and secondary education were launched in 2019. Part of the strategy concerns everyday integration, such as the role of civil society and the importance of counteracting racism, discrimination and negative social control.

Since September 2018, training in Norwegian culture and values and training in the Norwegian language have

been mandatory for asylum seekers in reception centres. The municipalities must provide the training in a language that the asylum seekers can understand. This amendment to the Introduction Act does not apply to those who are subject to the Dublin procedure or an accelerated procedure.

Following up on the integration strategy, the government has proposed to repeal the current Introduction Act and introduced a new Integration Act. The new act will contribute to more targeted qualification. The duration of the introduction programme will be differentiated to a greater extent, and more people will be given the opportunity to complete upper secondary education within the framework of the programme. The requirement to have completed a certain number of hours of training in Norwegian and social studies will be replaced by a requirement that the individual must achieve a minimum level in Norwegian.

The government has also proposed to raise the requirement for skills in oral Norwegian from level A2 to B1 to become naturalised in the Nationality Act. Amendments to the Nationality Act to allow dual citizenship took effect from 2020.

A Competence Strategy for the Municipal Child Welfare Services (2018-24) aims to promote greater understanding in the follow-up of children and families with minority background. New provisions in the Equality and Anti-Discrimination Act about effective equality efforts were implemented from January 2020. The duty to work proactively to promote equal opportunities has been broadened to cover also medium-sized private enterprises, i.e. between 20 and 50 employees, provided it is requested by labour unions or employer associations.

Strict immigration control measures to limit the spread of COVID-19 were introduced from mid-March 2020. Special measures were taken for seasonal agricultural workers to remain in Norway to work and from mid-May to allow also workers from third countries to enter. Gradual reopening of borders continued in June – July. This included allowing entry of third country family migrants. The government provided 456 million NOK to strengthen the introduction programme and the Norwegian language and social studies. From 26 May, a temporary act on adaptations in the Introduction Act to remedy consequences of outbreaks of COVID-19 came into force. The government also provided 26.6 million NOK in grants to voluntary organisations for distributing information on COVID-19 among immigrants.

For further information:

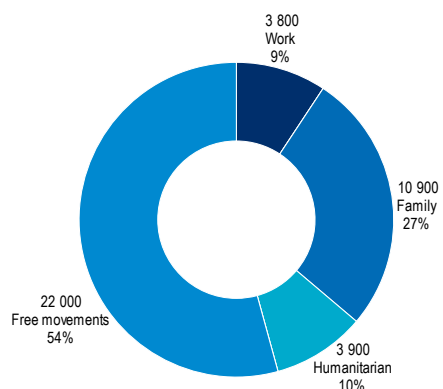
www.udi.no/en/

www.imdi.no/en

www.ssb.no/en/innvandring-og-innvandrerewww.regjeringen.no/en/dep/jd

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Norway

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	220	- 20%
Seasonal workers	2 910	+ 10%
Intra-company transfers	1 660	- 2%
Other temporary workers	2 430	- 5%

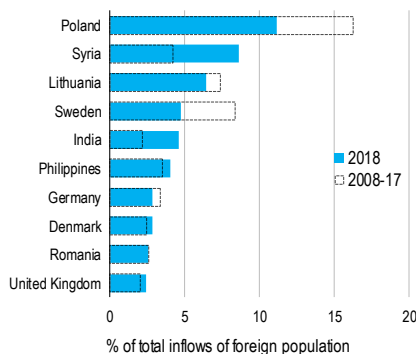
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	3 610	- 4%
Trainees	270	- 10%

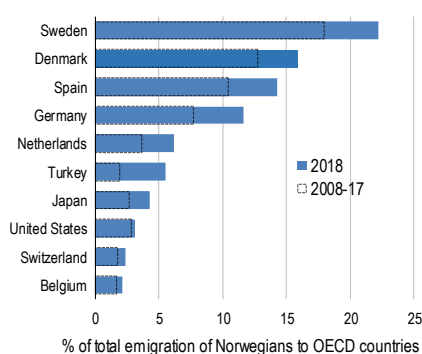
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	2 210	- 13%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Norwegians to OECD countries
(national definition)



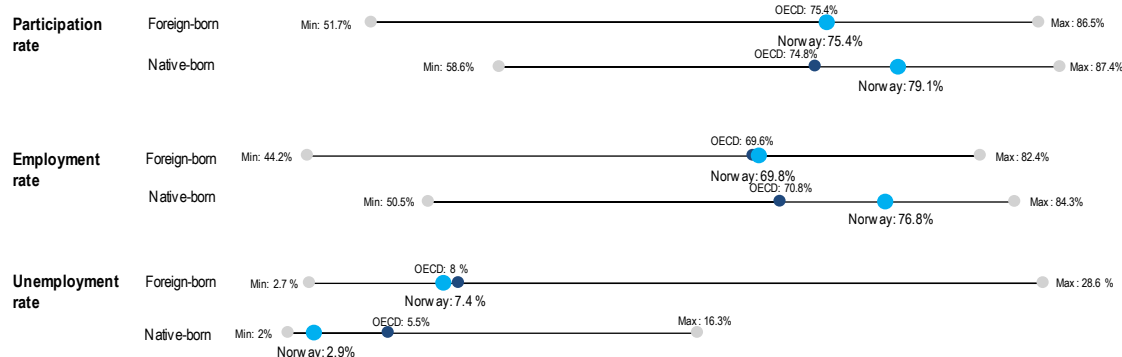
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	7.4	+1.3
Natural increase	2.6	-0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.8	+1.4

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	614	-4.7	0.1
Outflows (2018)	4 411	+9.6	1.0

Labour market outcomes
2019



Poland

Foreign-born population – 2011	
Size: 0.7 million, 59% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
2% of the population	Ukraine (34%), Germany (12%), Belarus (12%)
Evolution since 2002: -13%	

In 2018, 76 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Poland (excluding EU citizens), 62.1% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 67.6% labour migrants, 14.4% family members (including accompanying family), 7.1% who came for education reasons and 10.8% other migrants. Around 37 000 short-term permits were issued to international students and 276 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 27 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 29.6% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Belarus and India were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (9 800) and China the largest decrease (-1 200) in flows to Poland compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 15%, to reach around 2 800. The majority of applicants came from Russia (1 800), Ukraine (200) and Turkey (100). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Russia (+200) and the largest decrease nationals of Iraq (-35). Of the 1 000 decisions taken in 2019, 13.3% were positive.

The amended Act on foreigners came into force in April 2019. The Minister of the Interior now needs to approve all institutions (except public universities) accepting foreign students. From February 2018 foreign graduates of Polish universities applying for a job-seeking temporary residence permit or starting a business in Poland are only required to possess financial means that cover the costs of subsistence without recourse to the social assistance system. Their length of stay was reduced from one year to nine months.

Since July 2019, the Card of the Pole may now be obtained by foreigners with Polish origin from all over the world and not only from the countries of the former Soviet Union. The holders of the Card of the Pole can obtain a permanent residence permit free of charge from the very beginning of their stay in Poland; after one year of residence in Poland they are entitled to acquire Polish citizenship.

In February 2019, a draft amendment to the law came into force to prevent the abuse of the asylum procedure. The most important changes include the introduction of an accelerated asylum procedure and a listing of safe countries of origin. Undocumented foreigners applying

for refugee status at the border will not be allowed in if they come from a safe country of origin or provide inconsistent claims. They may be sent to detention centres to await a decision, due to be taken within 20 days from the receipt of the application. If no decision is taken within 28 days, they are allowed to enter the country where their application is examined through normal asylum procedure.

In January 2019 foreign women were given the right to a maternal pension (about the minimum old-age pension, around EUR 213) if they had at least four children. In order to participate in the 'Mum 4+' programme, foreigners must have personal or economic connections with Poland for at least 10 years after the age of 16 and must have stayed in Poland legally.

On 31st March 2020, in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Anti-Crisis Shield includes special measures for migrants during the pandemic, inter alia an extension of residence and work permits for migrants (until 30 days after the end of the state of emergency). A new provision allows them to work under conditions other than those specified in their permits, without the need to obtain new ones, if the changing of conditions was related to COVID-19 state aid. Detailed information on the special provisions for foreigners is available in several languages on the website of the Office for Foreigners. Border control has been temporarily re-established.

On 21 June 2020, a law introducing a solidarity allowance for workers (including migrant workers) who lost their jobs due to the pandemic entered into force. It concerns workers whose contract was terminated after 15 March 2020, or whose fixed-term work contract ended after this date, and will be paid for three months from June to August 2020.

For further information:

www.emn.gov.pl

www.udsc.gov.pl

www.stat.gov.pl

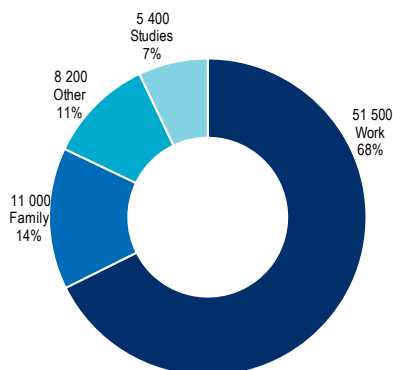
www.mrpips.gov.pl

<http://cudzoziemcy.gov.pl>

<https://fundusze.mswia.gov.pl/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Poland

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

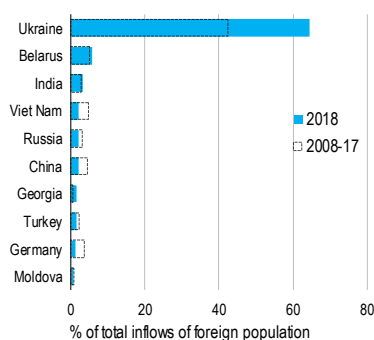
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	276 140	- 51%
Family reasons	2 100	+ 113%
Education reasons	36 880	+ 17%
Other	186 730	+ 325%

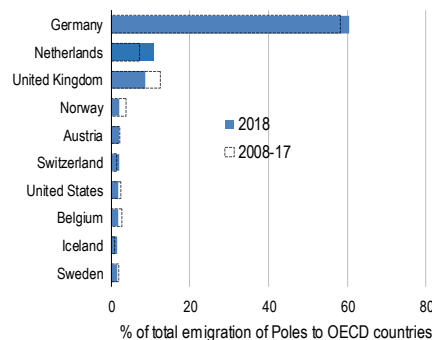
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers (2018)	2 770	+ 15%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Poles to OECD countries
(national definition)



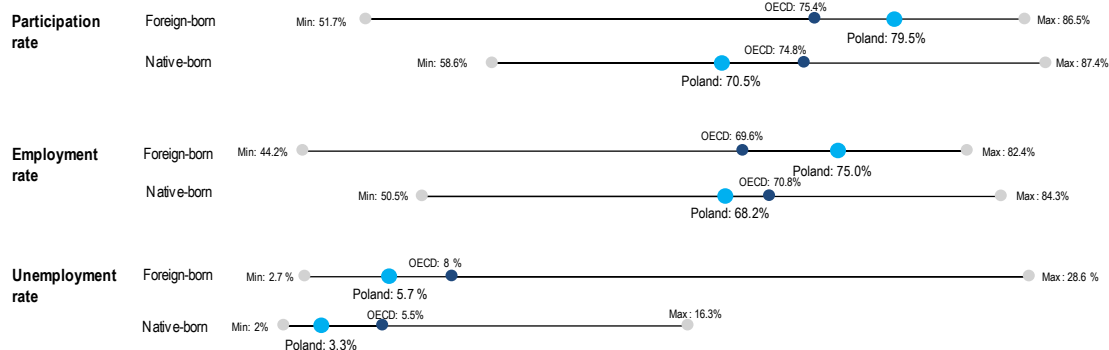
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-0.4	-0.3
Natural increase	-0.9	-0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	0.5	-0.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	6 031	-15.2	1.1
Outflows (2018)	7 116	+20.9	1.2

Labour market outcomes
2019



Portugal

Foreign-born population – 2016	
Size: 1 million, 53% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
10% of the population	Angola (18%), Brazil (16%),
Evolution since 2006: +20%	France (11%)

In 2018, Portugal received 64 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 61.6% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 26% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 31.2% labour migrants, 32.8% family members (including accompanying family) and 1% humanitarian migrants. Around 8 400 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 29 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 27.9% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Brazil, Italy and France were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Brazil registered the strongest increase (17 000) and Romania the largest decrease (-300) in flows to Portugal compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 39.9%, to reach around 1 700. The majority of applicants came from Angola (300), the Gambia (200) and Guinea-Bissau (200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Gambia (+200) and the largest decrease nationals of Ukraine (-55). Of the 700 decisions taken in 2019, 22.8% were positive.

The Portuguese Immigration Law (Law no. 23/2007, 4th July), in its 2019 amendment (Law no. 28/2019, 29th March) offered a pathway for undocumented migrants in employment, by facilitating the regularisation of those who are in the labour market and who have contributed to the social security for at least one year.

A Tech Visa, available from 2019, was created to accelerate visa procedures for highly qualified employees of established firms that are certified by IAPMEI (Executive Agency for Competitiveness and Innovation) as offering innovative technology.

The Portuguese parliament approved restrictions to the issue of Golden visas in February 2020. Real estate investments will only qualify under the scheme for inland municipalities to decrease the pressure on real estate prices, in Lisbon and Porto areas.

The Portuguese Nationality Law (Law no. 37/81, 3rd October) 2018 amendment broaden access to Portuguese citizenship for children born to foreign immigrant parents, if at least one of the parents has been living in Portugal legally for two years preceding the birth, instead of five years as previously required.

In 2019 Portugal approved the National Implementation Plan of the Global Compact for Migration (GCM no. 141/2019), becoming one of the first countries in the world to approve its National Plan to implement the Global Compact on Migration. This operational document is oriented to practical and accurate results. Following the 23 objectives of the Compact, the National Plan has 97 measures and 5 fundamental axes.

Portugal joined the Voluntary Resettlement Programme coordinated by the UNHCR and the EC. The first resettled refugees arrived in Portugal in December 2018. By August 2019, 308 people had arrived under this Programme.

In 2019, Portugal signed new Working Holiday agreements with the United States and Peru. Agreements have previously been signed with Canada, New Zealand (2018), Argentina, Chile (2017), Japan (2015) Australia, and Korea (2014).

A new programme to attract Portuguese emigrants started in January 2019. Emigrants who have lived abroad for at least three years and who return to Portugal between January 2019 and December 2020 will benefit, among other measures, from a 50% income tax cut until 2023.

The Portuguese government took exceptional measures to ensure that all migrants with pending immigration or asylum processes with the Portuguese Immigration and Borders Service (SEF) could fully access the national health system during the COVID-19 crisis. All migrants with processes filed before 18 March 2020 were granted the same rights as regular migrants until 30 October including full access to the national health system, to social support services, rental and labour market, financial and essential public services.

Integration services have also adapted their offer. The High Commission for Migration (ACM) services remained in operation with face-to-face assistance and increased support by telephone contact lines. ACM's Telephone Translation Service and ACM's translators' face-to-face support remained available. Information sessions on COVID-19 targeted at immigrants were organised, information leaflets distributed in several languages, and ACM's entrepreneurship course for migrants was offered on-line.

For further information:

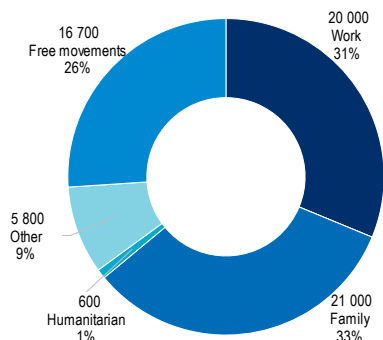
www.acm.gov.pt

www.om.acm.gov.pt

www.sef.pt

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Portugal

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	280	- 52%

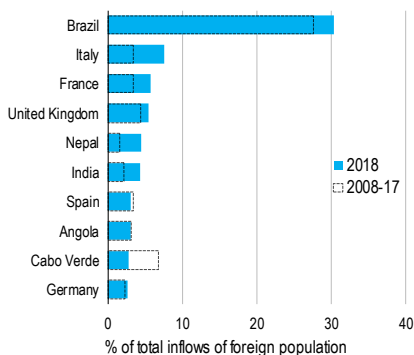
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	8 370	+ 71%
Trainees

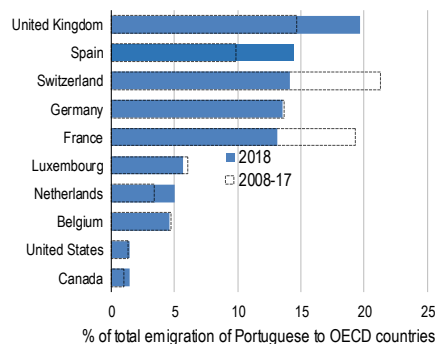
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	1 740	+ 40%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Portuguese to OECD countries
(national definition)



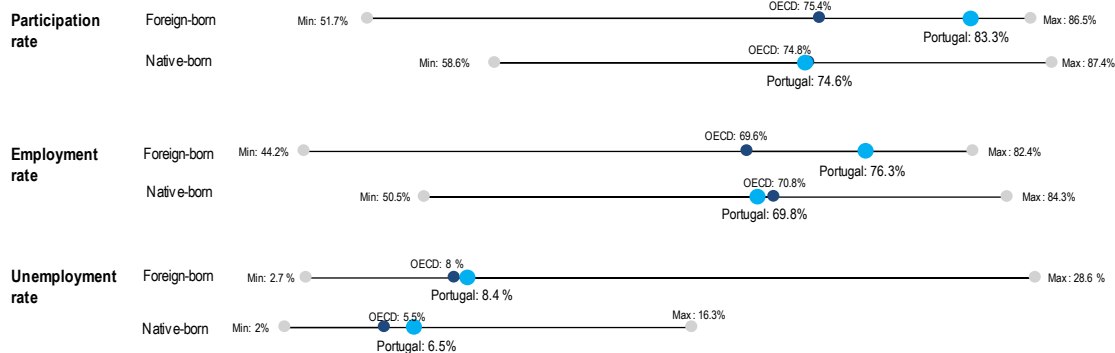
Components of population growth

	2019	
	Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	1.9	+3.3
Natural increase	-2.5	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.3	+3.2

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	4 327	-4.1	1.8
Outflows (2018)	245	-18.5	0.1

Labour market outcomes
2019



Romania

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.6 million, 46% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Moldova (40%), Italy (11%), Spain (9%)
8% of the population	
Evolution since 2009: +278%	

In 2018, 12 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Romania (excluding EU citizens), 17.1% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 38.2% labour migrants, 26.6% family members (including accompanying family), 25.2% who came for education reasons and 10% other migrants. Around 1 500 short-term permits were issued to international students and 1 700 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 16 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 32% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Moldova, Viet Nam and Turkey were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Viet Nam registered the strongest increase (1 000) and Bulgaria the largest decrease (-300) in flows to Romania compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 26.2%, to reach around 2 500. The majority of applicants came from Iraq (600), Syria (500) and Afghanistan (200). Of the 1 300 decisions taken in 2019, 44.5% were positive.

The initially approved foreign worker quota of 20 000 for 2019 was supplemented by an additional 10 000 for the last four months of the year, compared to 15 000 (7 000 supplemented by 8 000 for permanent and posted workers) in 2018. The increase aimed at tackling labour shortages and included permanent workers as well as posted, seasonal and other types of foreign employees.

In 2018, in a context of 33% increase in minimum salary levels, the salary level for foreign employees was reduced from the average gross salary to the minimum gross salary, while the EU Blue Card salary threshold increased to twice the average gross salary.

In 2018, the rights of students enrolled in Romanian educational establishments were extended by granting scholarships, increasing the number of partnerships with other international universities, and attracting new funding partners.

In 2019, Romania set up measures for the application of EU Regulation 2016/589 on a European network of employment services (EURES), increasing workers' access to mobility services and better integration in labour markets.

In November 2018, a new law transposing EU Directive 2016/801 facilitated the entry and residence of immigrants coming for research, studies, training, voluntary service, students exchange schemes or educational projects, or au pairing. An immigrant may now get a residence permit to study and the procedure to get a work permit is simplified. Immigrant workers now have the same minimum wage as Romanian nationals and highly skilled foreign workers salary threshold is twice the average gross wage.

In October 2018, the Action Plan to implement the National Strategy on Immigration for 2015-18 was finally adopted. It gives priority to voluntary return and reintegration measures under EU assistance funds. The plan also reinforces the capacity to return undocumented immigrants. New measures were also introduced to respond to labour market shortages, by simplifying admission procedures for selected immigrant workers. The plan also aimed to improve integration through four main pillars: social, medical, housing and employment. It provides vocational and employment programmes and new accommodation for refugees.

Bilateral agreements were signed and protocol implemented with Bulgaria and Georgia regarding the readmission of Romanian citizens and of foreigners. Several amendments were also adopted to facilitate the emigration of Romanian nationals (e.g. simplification of procedures, reinforcing the protection of Romanian citizens working abroad).

The COVID-19 crisis impacted immigration services in Romania. Immigration offices suspended all activities, except for work permit applications. The validity of permits expiring during the state of emergency was prolonged until 90 days after the end of this period. People entering Romania from the most affected countries had to quarantine for 14 days, while other people entering the country needed to self-isolate for 14 days. The daily cross-border workers from Hungary and from Bulgaria are still allowed without being obliged to quarantine/self-isolation (if no symptoms of COVID-19). Finally, individuals coming for installation/maintenance of medical, scientific, economical, defence, public order and national security domains equipment are not required to self-isolate or quarantine either (if they present no symptoms of COVID-19).

For further information:

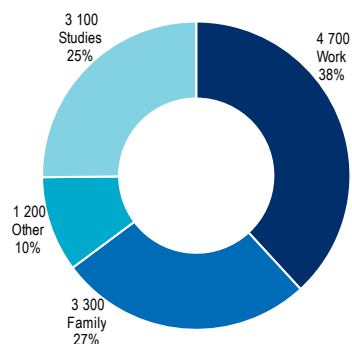
www.insse.ro

www.mai.gov.ro

www.igi.mai.gov.ro

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Romania

**Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)**



**Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)**

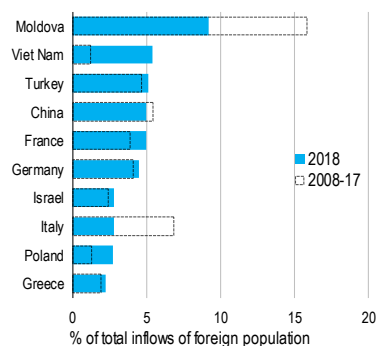
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	1 650	+ 402%
Family reasons	580	+ 13%
Education reasons	1 540	+ 2%
Other	420	+ 0%

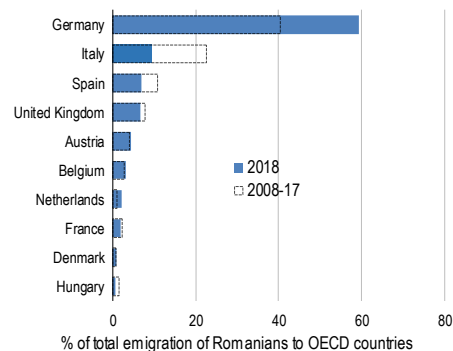
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers (2018)	2 460	- 59%

**Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)**



**Emigration of Romanians to OECD countries
(national definition)**



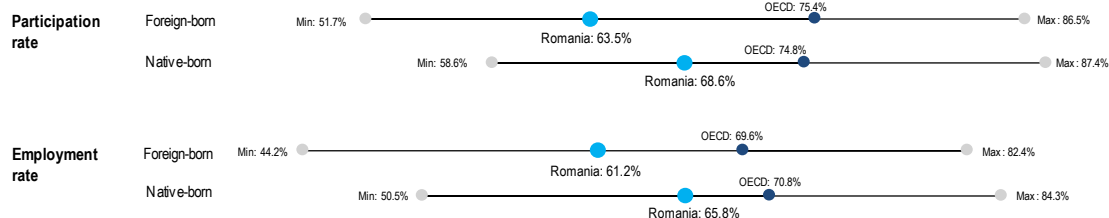
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	-5.0	+1.0
Natural increase	-3.8	-0.7
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-1.2	+1.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	7 235	+3.6	3.0
Outflows (2018)	435	+11.9	0.2

**Labour market outcomes
2019**



StatLink <https://stat.link/8k3wj6>

Russian Federation

Foreign-born population – 2010	
11.2 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
8% of the population	Ukraine (26%), Kazakhstan (22%), Uzbekistan (10%)

Ukraine, Tajikistan and Kazakhstan were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Kyrgyzstan registered the strongest increase (3 600) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-11 000) in flows to Russia compared to the previous year. In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -6.1%, to reach around 7 400. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (6 100), Afghanistan (1 000) and Syria (300). Of the 7 300 decisions taken in 2019, 79.5% were positive.

In October 2018, the new Concept of the National Migration Policy for the period 2019-25 was adopted, replacing the previous Concept adopted in 2012. It stresses the importance of Russian culture and language but also expresses the need to attract different categories of migrants by setting up new immigration channels and conditions beyond those for migrants with ethnic or cultural ties to Russia.

At the end of March 2019, a migration amnesty for Kyrgyzstan citizens with minor violations of Russian administrative legislation was introduced. These persons were allowed to apply to the authorities until 22 April 2019 to legalise their stay in Russia without leaving the country.

In 2018-19 Russia signed several bilateral agreements on visa free visits with Croatia, Maldives, Antigua and Barbuda, Botswana, Iran, Cape Verde, Andorra and Qatar; on cross-border cooperation with Mongolia, and on recognition of foreign qualifications with Uzbekistan, Hungary, Angola, Cambodia and the Slovak Republic. An agreement was signed with Tajikistan to recruit migrant workers.

At the end of 2018, Russia established a limitation of the foreign labour force in selected sectors and for the first time in the construction industry in 2019.

A new law adopted on 18 December 2018 simplified the procedure for acquiring Russian citizenship for selected categories of foreigners. It also extended the President's power to grant citizenship to foreigners living in countries where the socio-political or economic situation is complex, without the obligation to move to the Russian Federation and to renounce their previous citizenship.

In March 2019, the responsibilities of the Office of the President were enlarged to the activities on national migration policy (including data analysis and policy advice).

Access to temporary and permanent residence permits was facilitated for many immigrants in August 2019. The law allows temporary residence permits to be issued to selected categories of immigrants from former republics of the Soviet Union, without quota. Some foreigners may now apply directly for permanent residence permits without requesting temporary residence first. These measures concern, for example, investors, skilled professionals and foreign graduates with excellent academic performance in the Russian Federation vocational education system.

The COVID-19 crisis in Russia resulted in the temporary closure of most migration offices and the impossibility of filing any visa applications except for transit ones. Foreigners with valid documents were allowed to postpone the renewal of their permits that expire between 15 March and 15 June 2020. In addition, from 15 March to 15 June, the authorities did not cancel visas and permits or deport foreigners from Russia. From 16 June to 15 September, foreign citizens and stateless persons benefitting from the visa-free regime who arrived in Russia could apply for a patent (work authorisation) or its extension and re-registration, without respecting the usual requirements (filling in the request within a limited timeframe; stating purpose of the visit and departure). Exceptions to entry ban applied to selected categories of foreigners.

For further information:

<https://mvd.pf>

https://mvd.pf/mvd/structure1/Glavnie_upravlenija/guvm

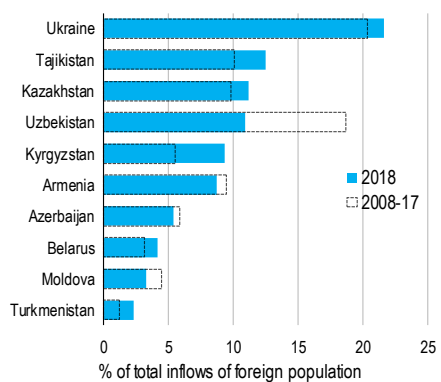
<https://mvd.pf/Deljatelnost/statistics/migracionnaya>

www.mid.ru

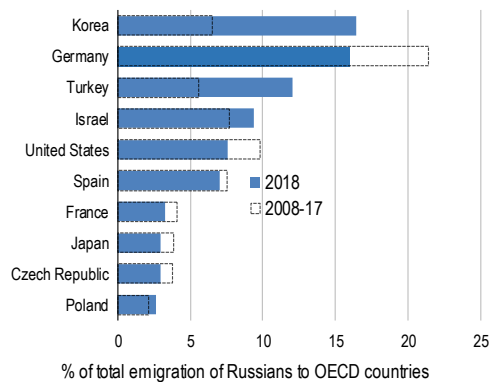
www.gks.ru

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Russian Federation

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Russians to OECD countries
(national definition)



Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	0.9	-0.5
Natural increase	0.1	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	0.8	-0.5

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	10 556	+22.6	0.6
Outflows (2018)	21 833	+5.9	1.3

StatLink  <https://stat.link/9f8wea>

Slovak Republic

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.2 million, 49% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
4% of the population	Czech Republic (45%),
Evolution since 2010: +38%	Hungary (8%), Ukraine (6%)

In 2018, 17 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in the Slovak Republic (excluding EU citizens), 72.2% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 64.1% labour migrants, 14.3% family members (including accompanying family), 11.1% who came for education reasons and 10.5% other migrants. Around 400 short-term permits were issued to international students and 3 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 14 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 2.8% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

The Czech Republic, Hungary and Romania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Romania registered the strongest increase (100) and Italy the largest decrease (-100) in flows to the Slovak Republic compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 38.7%, to reach around 200. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (85), Iran (45) and Armenia (15). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (+55) and the largest decrease nationals of Yemen (-20). Of the 90 decisions taken in 2019, 38.9% were positive.

Following changes introduced in May 2018 to the labour migration regulations, in particular a labour market test waiver for work permit applications under certain conditions, a new law took effect in January 2019 to streamline the processing of work authorisation applications. For shortage occupations, the maximum processing time has been reduced from 90 to 30 days. In addition, the list of shortage occupations will now be updated on a quarterly basis instead of annually. The labour market test has also been shortened: vacancies need to be posted by employers for 10 days instead of 15 days. However, employers must now report all vacant positions to the Labour Office, including shortage occupations and positions to be filled by EU and Slovak nationals. Previously, employers could post vacancies through less formal channels. The goal of this change is to allow the Labour Office to identify shortage occupations more precisely.

The new law also changes some documentary requirements. Applicants for most work authorisation types are no longer required to submit a legalised diploma with their application. Legalised degrees are now only required for applications for regulated

occupations. However, most applicants must now submit a Municipality Consent document with their residence permit application. Finally, the Labour Office will now review the records of employers hiring foreign workers to determine whether any illegal employment occurred over the past five years, instead of the past two years under the previous law.

A new amendment was introduced in the Labour Code in January 2019 to prevent employers from imposing confidentiality about working conditions and wages to employees, with the goal of averting social dumping.

In May 2019, the Slovak Foreign Police launched an online system for foreign nationals to schedule residence permit appointments and register their residency. The new system streamlines the residency process as foreign nationals were previously required to queue early in the morning to obtain an appointment.

In September 2019, an Amendment to the Anti-bureaucracy Act was published, reducing the administrative burden related to labour mobility and conditions for the stay of third-country nationals by using public administration information systems. These legislative changes entered into force in January 2020.

In mid-March, police controls including medical check-ups started to be carried out at all internal borders with neighbouring countries to prevent the spread of COVID-19. All international airports have been closed for passengers and international rail and bus transport have also been suspended. Apart from those with an authorisation to stay in the Slovak Republic, foreigners were not allowed to enter the country. Processing of permits has been mostly limited to renewals of temporary residence permits.

In connection with the COVID-19 crisis situation, the Center for Labor, Social Affairs and Family has issued a guideline that stipulates that foreigners, whose stay and work permit should expire during the crisis plus one month, may stay on the territory and continue to work.

For further information:

www.minv.sk

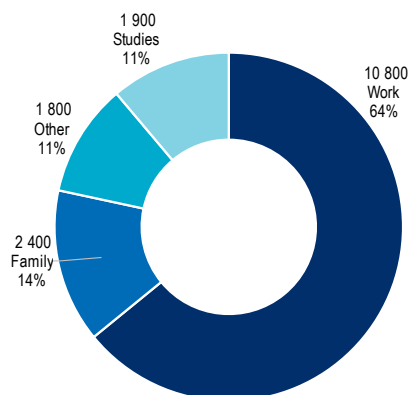
www.employment.gov.sk

www.upsvr.gov.sk

www.datacube.statistics.sk

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Slovak Republic

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

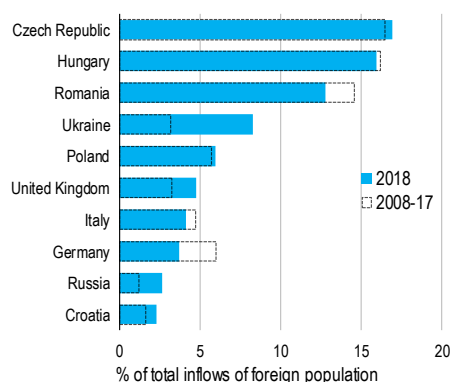
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	3 150	+ 15%
Family reasons	480	- 12%
Education reasons	440	- 11%
Other	60	- 35%

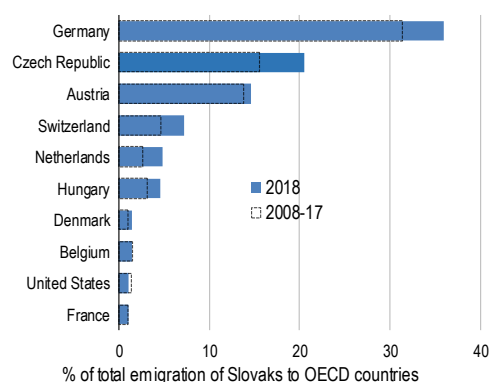
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers (2018)	220	+ 38%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Slovaks to OECD countries
(national definition)



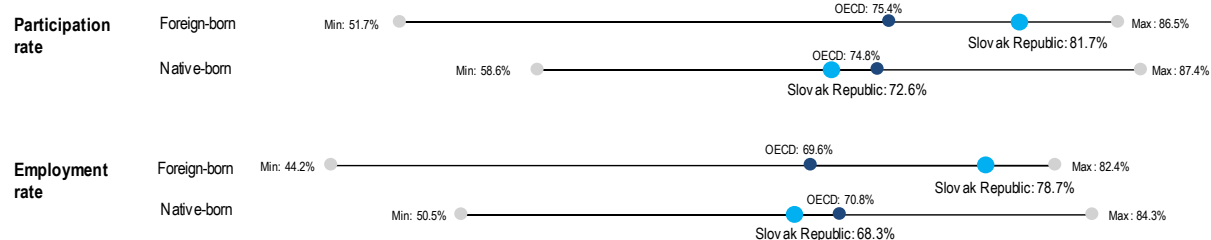
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	1.4	+0.1
Natural increase	0.7	+0.1
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	0.7	+0.0

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	1 967	-7.0	1.8
Outflows (2018)	385	+41.7	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/4sr1u6>

Slovenia

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 0.3 million, 42% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
13% of the population	Bosnia and Herzegovina (36%), Croatia (17%), Serbia (10%)
Evolution since 2011: +60%	

In 2018, 18 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Slovenia (excluding EU citizens), 55% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 72.2% labour migrants, 26.3% family members (including accompanying family), 0.7% who came for education reasons and 0.8% other migrants. Around 2 100 short-term permits were issued to international students and 8 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 9 200 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 46.9% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and North Macedonia were the top three origins of newcomers in 2018.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 29.1%, to reach around 3 600. The majority of applicants came from Algeria (1 000), Morocco (700) and Pakistan (500). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Morocco (+600) and the largest decrease nationals of Pakistan (-300). Of the 200 decisions taken in 2019, 39.5% were positive.

Slovenia transposed the European Union's directive on intra-corporate transferees (ICT) into national law in 2018. Non-EU managers, experts or trainees who are transferred within the same group of companies to a Slovenian office may apply for ICT permits and holders of EU ICT permits issued in another EU country may be transferred to an affiliated office in Slovenia for up to 90 days by notifying labor authorities or, for longer than 90 days, by applying for a long-term ICT permit.

In April 2018, new amendments to the Employment, Self-Employment and Work of Aliens Act (ZZSDT) were implemented as a result of the adoption of the Investment Promotion Act. The "fast track" procedure was established to allow employers of high-value-added companies or start-up companies to ease and speed up the recruitment of foreigners. For these companies, the process of obtaining a single residence and work permit does not require to check all the conditions to hire foreigners.

In July 2018, Slovenia lifted work permit requirements for Croatian immigrants so Slovenian employers no longer have to apply for work permits to hire Croatian employees. The monthly minimum wage for local and foreign workers in Slovenia increased by 6% in 2020 to EUR 940.58. Employers with pending work authorisation

applications, new or renewed, will need to adjust the level of salary.

Slovenia remains a transit country, as most migrants trying to reach the western part of the EU from Turkey use either the central route via Serbia or the route stemming from the Greek- Albanian border, along the Bosnian and Herzegovinian – Croatian – Slovenian corridor. In June 2019, the Italian and Slovenian Border Police signed an agreement to foster the fight against irregular migration on the Balkan route. It will more specifically involve the implementation of mixed patrolling at the border between the two countries. Austria decided to reintroduce temporary border control at the Slovenian border from 12 November 2018 and extended its decision for an additional six months from mid-May to mid-November 2019. Continuous secondary movements and public safety motivated these decisions.

In October 2019, the Constitutional Court cancelled the amendments passed in January 2017 that would have effectively allowed the country to suspend asylum law in special circumstances if endorsed by a majority in parliament.

Slovenia reacted to the COVID-19 crisis by providing multilingual information and medical care to immigrants and by covering all costs of their diagnosis and treatment of COVID-19, even for those who are not insured in the public health system.

In addition, Slovenia offered immigrants the possibility to remain in the country and extended permits until 9 July, 2020, while quarantine for all new arrivals was mandatory. Slovenia temporarily stopped issuing new residence permits but urgent asylum applications were considered. Applications for international protection will be lodged only when the quarantine period ends and medical examination may be conducted. All personal interviews are temporarily cancelled and many on-site services related to the asylum procedure are suspended but remote procedures continue. No suspension nor restrictions regarding the Dublin procedure are applied, but transfers are very rare owing to closed airports.

For further information:

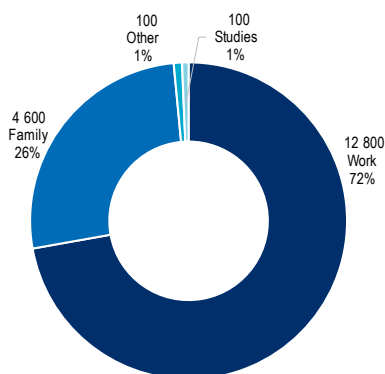
www.stat.si/eng

www.gov.si/podrocja/drzava-in-druzba/

<http://www.infotujci.si/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Slovenia

Grants of long-term residence permits
2018 (Source: Eurostat)



Temporary migration
(Source: Eurostat)

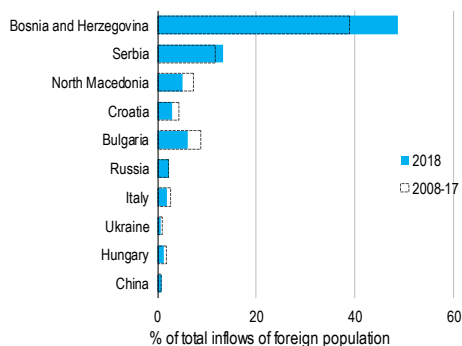
Temporary migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Remunerated activities reasons	8 270	+ 57%
Family reasons	1 560	+ 23%
Education reasons	2 120	+ 26%
Other	0	- 20%

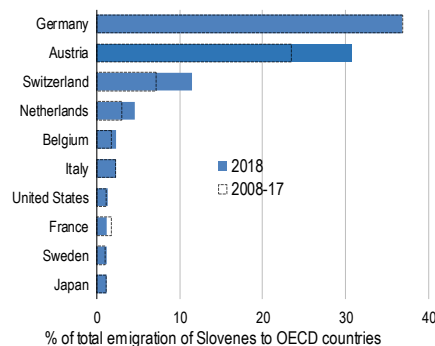
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers (2018)	3 620	+ 29%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Slovenes to OECD countries
(national definition)



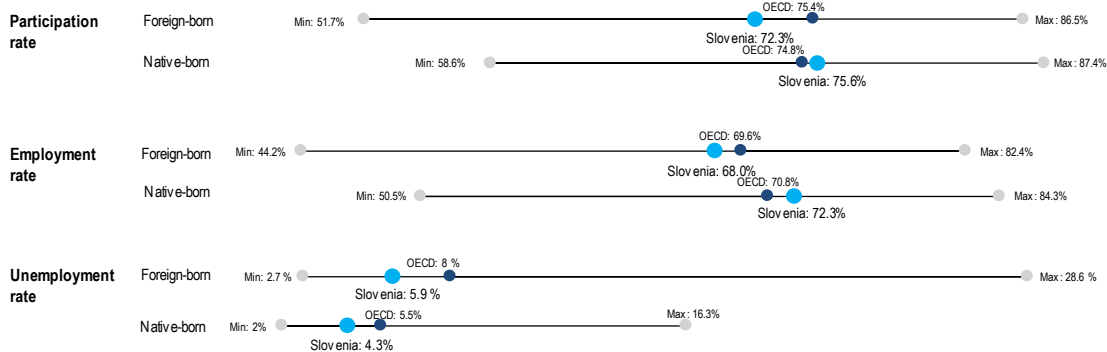
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	7.2	+0.4
Natural increase	-0.6	-0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	7.8	+0.6

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	553	-9.0	1.0
Outflows (2018)	276	+17.0	0.5

Labour market outcomes
2019



Spain

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 6.5 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
14% of the population	Morocco (11%), Romania (9%), Colombia (7%)
Evolution since 2009: +5%	

In 2018, Spain received 344 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 6.2% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 42.9% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 8.7% labour migrants, 36.4% family members (including accompanying family) and 1.4% humanitarian migrants. Around 42 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 19 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 64 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 5.7% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Morocco, Colombia and Venezuela were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Morocco registered the strongest increase (21 000) and Romania the largest decrease (- 2 100) in flows to Spain compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 100%, to reach around 115 000. The majority of applicants came from Venezuela (40 000), Colombia (29 000) and Honduras (6 700). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Venezuela (+21 000). Of the 58 000 decisions taken in 2019, 66.2% were positive.

Several measures have been taken since 2018 to promote orderly, regular and safe migration to Spain. A new provision approved at the end of 2018 regulates the collective hiring of foreigners in origin countries, broadening the scope beyond the agricultural sector.

Additionally, with the objective of building legal migration pathways and achieving greater interaction between business and education sectors of countries of origin and destination, the project “Young people as agents of change” allows Moroccan participants to improve their skills and knowledge through studying in Spain for a master’s degree related to key socio-economic sectors for Morocco.

A pilot project aiming at providing children and grandchildren of Spanish people residing in Argentina with a job-search visa was also launched in 2019. The initial selection of profiles focused on employability and the needs of Spanish companies, especially in sectors such as computing and research.

Inclusion is a key component of Spanish migration policy. A new Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration is currently being drafted to promote the inclusion of immigrants. This plan will consider consultations with

Autonomous Communities and Local Authorities, as well as immigrant associations, trade unions and business associations. Expected to be approved in 2020, it will include measures aiming at a successful integration of immigrants, including asylum seekers and refugees.

Reactivation of the Support Fund for the Receipt and Integration of Immigrants is planned and will be used as a collaborative tool between the National Administration, Autonomous Communities and City Councils. Funds will be allocated to guarantee social cohesion and respond to the challenge of new migration.

In March 2019, the government approved the Return to Spain Plan, which seeks to foster the return of those Spaniards who left the country due to the 2008-09 economic crisis. The Plan involves several ministerial departments, regional governments, local authorities and the business sector. It comprises 50 measures with a budget of EUR 24 million for 2019-20 and includes a One-Stop Return Scheme to offer official information and help deliver documentation. Customised advice will be offered to companies and job seekers through labour mediators. Grants will be made available for returning young scientists. The Plan includes a social security contribution discount for self-employed emigrants who return to undertake entrepreneurial activities.

The COVID-19 crisis has affected several aspects of the Spanish migration system. Access to Spanish territory has been restricted for most travellers, with the exception of Spanish nationals and residents, cross-border workers, and health care workers traveling to work. Work permit procedures have been prioritised and streamlined for health care workers and agricultural workers. All procedures regarding collective hiring of foreigners in origin countries are suspended for the year 2020, which strongly affects the recruitment of seasonal workers in agriculture. Therefore, specific measures have been adopted (i.e. granting the right to work to young foreigners formerly in care, letting seasonal workers to enter. An automatic extension of residence permits, and flexibility for renewals have been introduced). The Asylum and Refugee Office has suspended interviews and several procedures carried out by the Ministry of Inclusion, Social Security and Migration have also been suspended.

For further information:

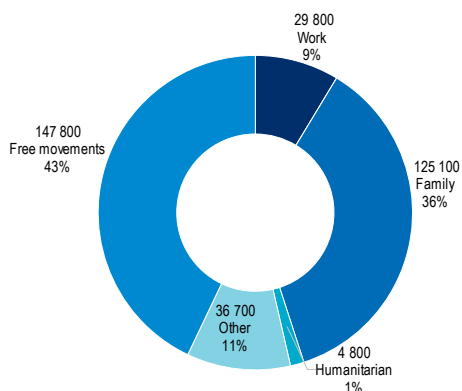
<http://extranjeros.mitramiss.gob.es/>

<http://www.mitramiss.gob.es/en/index.htm>

<https://www.ine.es/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Spain

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers	13 840	+ 142%
Intra-company transfers	1 890	+ 4%
Other temporary workers	3 220	+ 21%

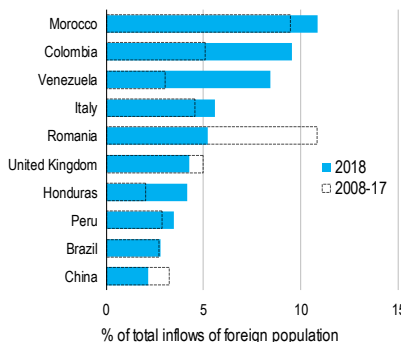
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	41 980	+ 6%
Trainees

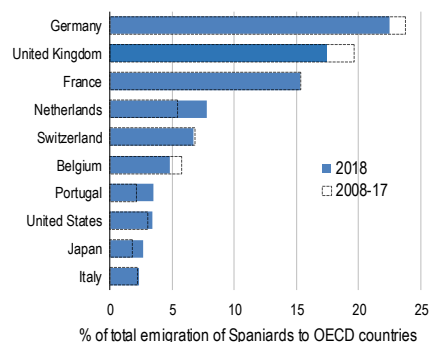
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	115 190	+ 118%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Spaniards to OECD countries
(national definition)



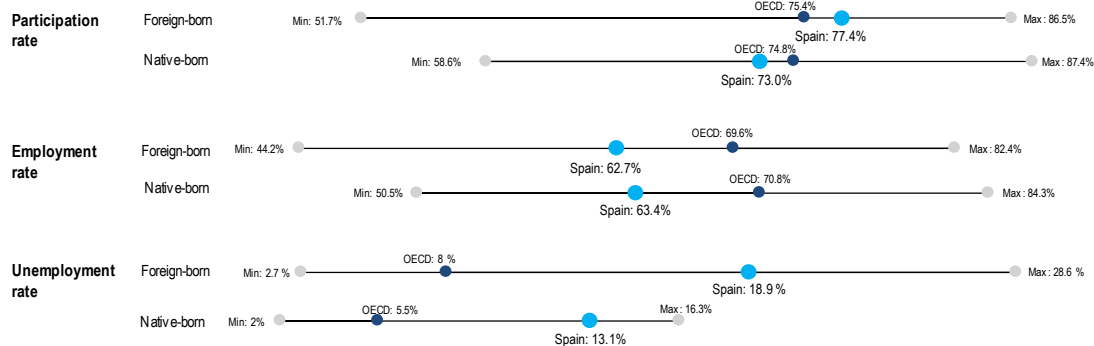
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	8.3	+2.3
Natural increase	-1.2	+0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	9.5	+2.4

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	9 975	-9.2	0.7
Outflows (2018)	443	+22.3	0.0

Labour market outcomes
2019



Sweden

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 2 million, 50% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
19% of the population	Syria (10%), Finland (8%),
Evolution since 2007: +53%	Iraq (7%)

In 2018, Sweden received 124 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -6.9% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 24.4% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 13.4% labour migrants, 41.9% family members (including accompanying family) and 20.3% humanitarian migrants. Around 14 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 9 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 54 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 22.4% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Syria, Afghanistan and India were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (1 600) and Syria the largest decrease (-7 000) in flows to Sweden compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 27.8%, to reach around 23 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (5 000), Eritrea (1 200) and Iran (1 000). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Syria (+2 400) and the largest decrease nationals of Georgia (-100). Of the 21 000 decisions taken in 2019, 29.2% were positive.

The temporary law passed in July 2016 which, amongst other things, restrict the possibility to obtain residence permits, has been prolonged and applies until June 2021. Under this act, refugees and persons eligible for subsidiary protection are granted a temporary residence permit and opportunities for family reunification remain more limited than under the ordinary Alien's act. In addition, internal border controls have been prolonged.

An amendment to restrict daily allowances for asylum seekers choosing to live in areas with socio-economic challenges entered into force in January 2020. The Swedish Migration Agency started to list those areas in July 2020. The government has proposed to introduce a new ground for entry and stay for highly qualified persons who want to come to Sweden to look for a job or start a business. This proposal, which is the object of an ongoing inquiry, is a deviation from the general system for labour immigration, which makes no distinction between high-skilled and other labour migrants.

The government has allocated new funding for Swedish language training for immigrant parents who are away from the labour market taking care of children. The

government agreement includes a proposal to set up an Intensive Introduction Year for newly arrived immigrants. In addition, the government decided that the acquisition of Swedish citizenship will be conditional on passing a Swedish language test, as well as a test on basic knowledge of Swedish society. Civic orientation courses are organised by the municipalities and now have a minimum duration of 100 hours, instead of 60 hours previously.

New rules on residence permits for research and higher education studies, as well as for trainees and au pairs, now apply following the transposition of an EU Directive. Residence permits should be granted to students for at least one year, or for the time of conducting studies (renewable, with possibility of extending their stay to look for a job or set up a business).

Due to the pandemic, the Swedish Government decided in mid-March to stop temporarily non-essential travel to Sweden from countries outside the EEA and Switzerland. Exemptions from the entry ban include Swedish citizens, foreigners with a residence permit returning to their homes and certain health care professionals and seasonal workers. Due to the entry ban, the Migration Agency decided that visa applications should, as a rule, be rejected. The Migration Agency also suspended resettlement of refugees during the spring. Oral interviews for asylum or residence permits were stopped from 30 March until 14 April. After that, interviews have in some cases been reinstated, but with precautions.

The government has presented a range of measures to mitigate the economic impact of the pandemic, affecting immigrants. Labour market measures include temporary reinforcement of the unemployment insurance, increased funds for the Public employment service and for active labour market policy measures as well as funds for summer jobs for youth. The duration of a subsidised job will be extended by an additional year for those who already have such jobs.

For further information:

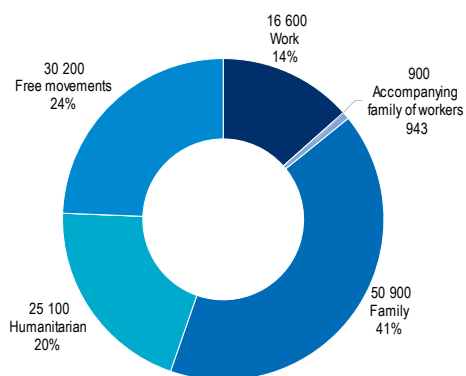
<https://www.migrationsverket.se>

<https://www.scb.se/en/>

<https://sweden.se/migration/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Sweden

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	1 210	+ 87%
Seasonal workers	4 990	+ 62%
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	2 560	+ 13%

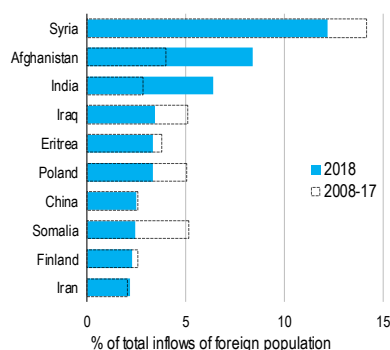
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	13 920	+ 4%
Trainees	390	+ 13%

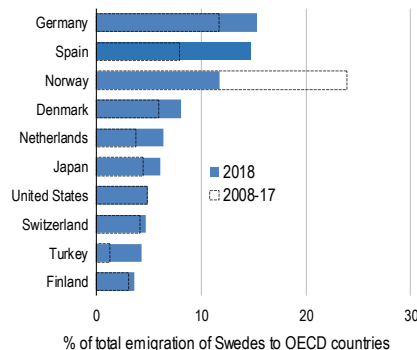
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	23 150	+ 28%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Swedes to OECD countries
(national definition)



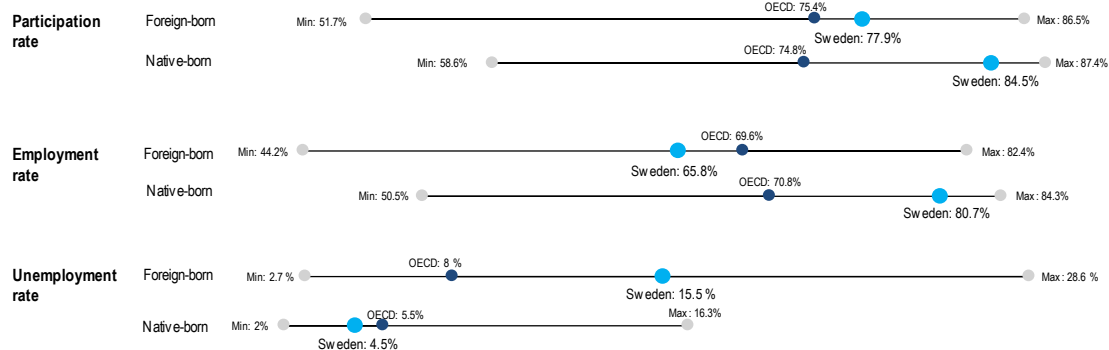
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	9.5	-1.3
Natural increase	2.5	+0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	7.0	-1.5

Annual remittances

	Million USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	3 259	+3.6	0.6
Outflows (2018)	2 023	-1.6	0.4

Labour market outcomes
2019



Switzerland

Foreign-born population – 2019	
Size: 2.6 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
30% of the population	Germany (14%), Italy (11%),
Evolution since 2007: +29%	Portugal (9%)

In 2018, Switzerland received 122 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 3.2% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 73% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 1.7% labour migrants, 17% family members (including accompanying family) and 5.5% humanitarian migrants. Around 11 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 75 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Germany, Italy and France were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Italy registered the strongest increase (1 000) and Portugal the largest decrease (-500) in flows to Switzerland compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -6.9%, to reach around 13 000. The majority of applicants came from Eritrea (2 500), Afghanistan (1 400) and Turkey (1 200). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Turkey (+300) and the largest decrease nationals of Georgia (-300). Of the 12 000 decisions taken in 2019, 87.5% were positive.

The revised asylum law entered into force in March 2019. Its main goal is to speed up asylum procedures. Asylum applications for which no further clarification is required should be processed in a fast-track procedure, which provides free legal protection for asylum seekers. These applicants are accommodated in centres for the duration of the procedure, until the execution of the removal (maximum 100 days, or 140 days for a Dublin procedure).

Since January 2019, refugees and persons admitted on a provisional basis may work in Switzerland without having to obtain an authorisation. This was replaced by a simple declaration made to the authorities.

The safeguard clause towards Bulgarian and Romanian workers was lifted on 31 May 2019. They now benefit from the same entry, stay and work conditions as other EU foreign citizens.

Starting 1 January 2020, language certificates from an accredited institution will be required for all applicants who need to demonstrate language skills to apply for a residence permit. Exceptions include foreign nationals whose native language is German, French or Italian, as well those who have attended compulsory school for at least three years or who completed a upper secondary school or a university programme in German, French and

Italian, even if the school was based outside Switzerland. Foreign nationals who do not provide the specified language certificate and are not exempt may have their residence permit refused or downgraded from a C permit (permanent residence) to a B permit (long-term permit for stays exceeding 24 months). The new requirements harmonise the language rules across all cantons, whereas previously they varied by canton.

From January 2020, employers will be required to advertise jobs for occupations where unemployment reaches 5% to people seeking work through Switzerland's Public Employment Service for five days, before others can access the job notifications. This measure builds on Switzerland's existing efforts to promote the local workforce. Previously, only occupations where unemployment was 8% or higher were required to meet the job notification rules.

In January 2018, the Swiss Citizenship Act was fully revised. This revision aimed to bring the integration criteria and the linguistic requirements in line with those of the federal law on foreigners, to optimise the decision-making bases, to harmonise the lengths of cantonal and communal stay required, to standardise the processes and to clarify the respective roles of the cantons and the Confederation in the naturalisation procedure.

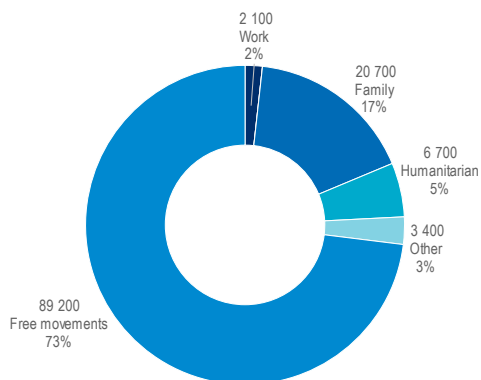
The government has implemented several measures in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. A communication campaign has been developed for the migrant population. To maintain the health of all stakeholders and support the foreign population, the cantons and integration services providers have adapted or postponed certain integration measures. An entry ban has been put in place, except for Swiss nationals, foreigners with a residence permit or a cross-border permit and some health professionals. The issue of new permits to foreigners outside the country has been mostly stopped, except for specific categories, such as health professionals or researchers working on the coronavirus, and for EU/EEA nationals working in essential sectors such as food, energy and IT sectors.

For further information:

www.sem.admin.ch

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Switzerland

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers
Other temporary workers	74 610	+ 0%

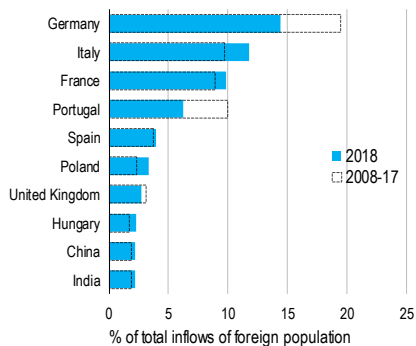
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	11 180	+ 0%
Trainees	130	+ 8%

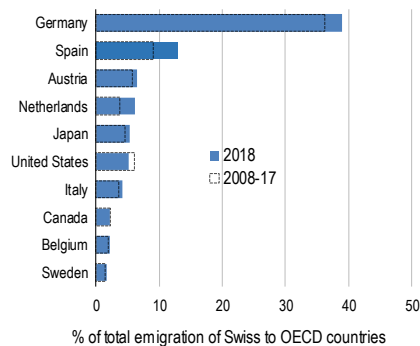
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	12 600	- 7%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Swiss to OECD countries
(national definition)



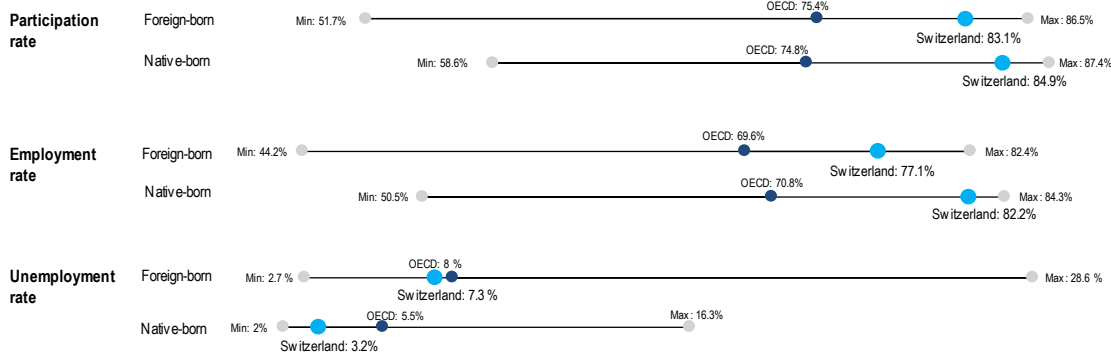
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	7.2	+0.1
Natural increase	2.1	-0.3
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	5.0	+0.3

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	2 507	-2.3	0.4
Outflows (2018)	26 750	+1.3	3.8

Labour market outcomes
2019



Turkey

Foreign-born population – 2018	
Size: 2.3 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i> Bulgaria (16%), Iraq (12%), Germany (12%)
3% of the population	
Evolution since 2014: +56%	

Iraq, Afghanistan and Syria were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Turkmenistan registered the strongest increase (15 000) and Uzbekistan the largest decrease (-2 600) in flows to Turkey compared to the previous year. In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -32.7%, to reach around 56 000. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (35 000), Iraq (16 000) and Iran (3 600). The largest decrease since 2018 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (-17 000). Of the 51 000 decisions taken in 2019, 10.3% were positive.

According to the Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM), around 3.6 million Syrian refugees were under temporary protection in Turkey on 25 June 2020. Almost 1.6 million were 18 years old or younger; 1.7% of the total were in government shelters.

2019 saw a record number of apprehensions of irregular migrants, 455 000, 41% more than in 2018. Driving the increase were the leading nationalities, Afghanistan and Pakistan. Figures for the first half of 2020 suggest a sharp decline in apprehensions.

From 2019, residence permit renewal requires an in-person appointment at the Migration Office. This

requirement was suspended during the COVID-19 pandemic with applications only allowed by post.

Turkey has expanded its visa waivers and exemptions. In January 2020, Uzbek nationals entering for tourism or business became visa exempt for 90 days in a 180-day period, up from 30 days. In March 2020, a similar expansion was granted for nationals of Croatia, Ireland, Malta, Norway, Portugal, Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom, replacing an e-visa and eliminating related fees.

From 2020, short-term tourist visas can no longer be renewed; holders must change status to another visa category.

In 2019, proof of residence address was shifted from paper issuance to on-line confirmation through the national population registry electronic service, in which foreigners must enrol to receive documents necessary for permit renewal.

For further information:

www.ailevecalisma.gov.tr

www.goc.gov.tr

www.iskur.gov.tr

www.nvi.gov.tr

www.mfa.gov.tr

www.tuik.gov.tr

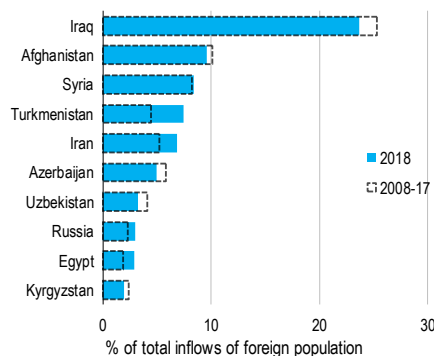
www.workinturkey.gov.tr

www.yok.gov.tr

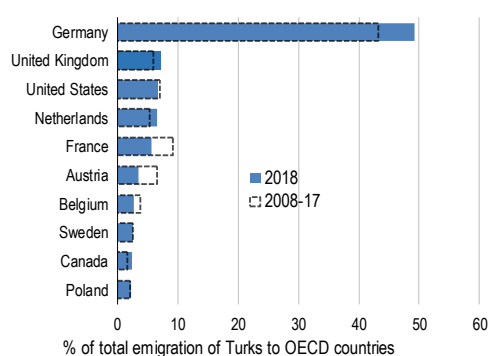
<https://denklik.yok.gov.tr/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Turkey

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Turks to OECD countries
(national definition)



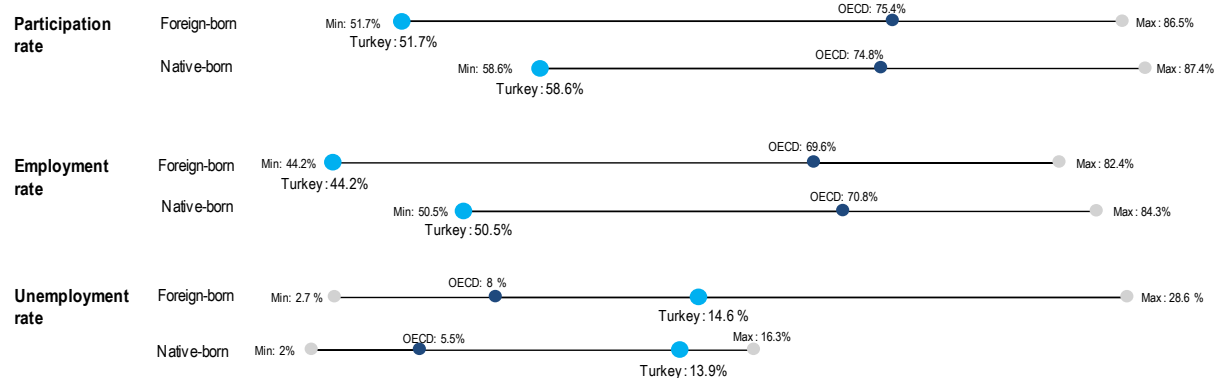
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	13.9	-0.8
Natural increase	9.1	-1.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.9	+0.3

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	810	-28.9	0.1
Outflows (2018)	1 533	+44.2	0.2

Labour market outcomes
2019



StatLink  <https://stat.link/aqwzbc>

United Kingdom

Foreign-born population – 2018	
Size: 9.4 million, 52% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
14% of the population	India (9%), Poland (8%),
Evolution since 2007: +38%	Pakistan (5%)

In 2018, the United Kingdom received 343 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 0.2% more than in 2017. This figure comprises 46.5% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 10.7% labour migrants, 25.9% family members (including accompanying family) and 7.4% humanitarian migrants. Around 331 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 91 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 61 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2018, an increase of 2.1% compared to 2017. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 18.6%, to reach around 44 000. The majority of applicants came from Iran (5 500), Albania (3 900) and Iraq (3 900). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Albania (+1 600) and the largest decrease nationals of Kuwait (-300). Of the 29 000 decisions taken in 2019, 52.6% were positive.

In 2019/20, several changes to the immigration system were implemented to improve the selection and retention of highly qualified migrants. The Shortage Occupation List (SOL) was expanded adding occupations in several fields, including health, IT, and STEM. Jobs in the SOL are exempt from labour market testing and are not subject to numerical caps. In addition, PhD-level occupations were removed from the Tier 2 cap.

Start-up and Innovator visas replaced Tier 1 Entrepreneur and Graduate Entrepreneur visas in March 2019. Industry experts rather than immigration officers now make the selection of visa applicants.

In February 2020, the Global Talent visa (with no numerical cap) replaced the Tier 1 Exceptional Talent visa. It is a fast track visa for talented and promising individuals in the fields of science, engineering, medicine, humanities, digital technology and arts and culture, with an accelerated path to settlement.

The government introduced a Seasonal Workers Pilot for 2019 and 2020, enabling the recruitment of 2 500 and 10 000 temporary migrants, respectively for specific roles in the horticultural sector outside the EU. A new Graduate Route will apply to international students starting with the 2020-21 university intake. It is similar to the two-year Post Study Work Visa discontinued in 2012. International students who will successfully complete an undergraduate or higher degree will be eligible to stay in

the United Kingdom to look for a job for two years after completing their studies.

The immigration health surcharge paid by non-EEA immigrants, introduced in 2015, doubled in January 2019, and will increase again in October 2020. As a response to COVID-19, the increase was suspended for a year for medical staff.

The new points based immigration system to start on 1 January 2021 was presented in February 2020. To be eligible under the new system, all immigrants will need 70 points, 50 of which must come from having a job offer by an approved sponsor at a medium or high skill-level and meet an English language requirement. Extra points are awarded for a job offer with a higher wage, a job on the SOL, or for having a PhD.

Under the EU Settlement Scheme and agreements between the United Kingdom and EFTA and Switzerland, EEA and Swiss citizens already in the United Kingdom on 31 December 2020 will continue benefiting from free-movement. Irish citizens will still benefit from free-mobility under the Ireland- United Kingdom Common Travel Area after 2021.

As a response to COVID-19, the Home Office suspended all visa issuances, extended leave for migrants with expiring leaves, and expanded in-country switching provisions, in particular from Tier 4 (student) to Tier 2 (general worker). Applications under the EU Settlement Scheme continue to be accepted on-line. Several programme rules were relaxed during the crisis, such as easier changes to start dates of visas, extra-time allowed for migrant entrepreneurs to fulfil the conditions of their visa, or reduced pay of sponsored employees, under certain conditions. Automatic visa extensions of one year were granted to doctors, nurses and paramedics working in the United Kingdom, and the limit on hours trainee nurses and doctors can work was removed.

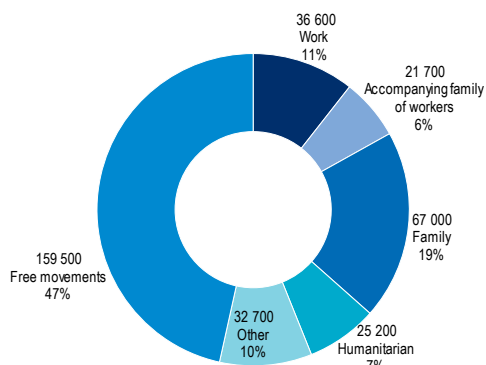
For further information:

www.gov.uk/government/organisations/home-office

www.ons.gov.uk

Key figures on immigration and emigration – United Kingdom

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	20 880	- 3%
Seasonal workers
Intra-company transfers	31 720	- 3%
Other temporary workers	38 370	+ 4%

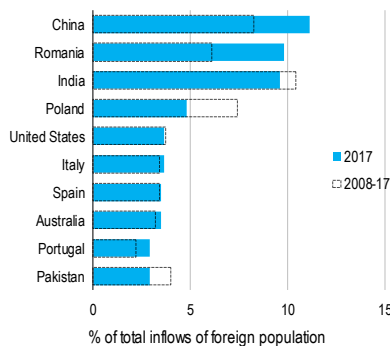
Education (non-EU citizens)

	2018	2018/17
International students	330 950	+ 8%
Trainees

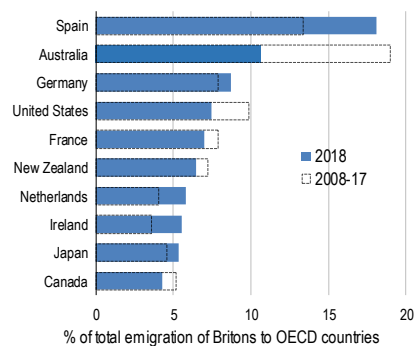
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	44 320	+ 19%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Britons to OECD countries
(national definition)



Components of population growth

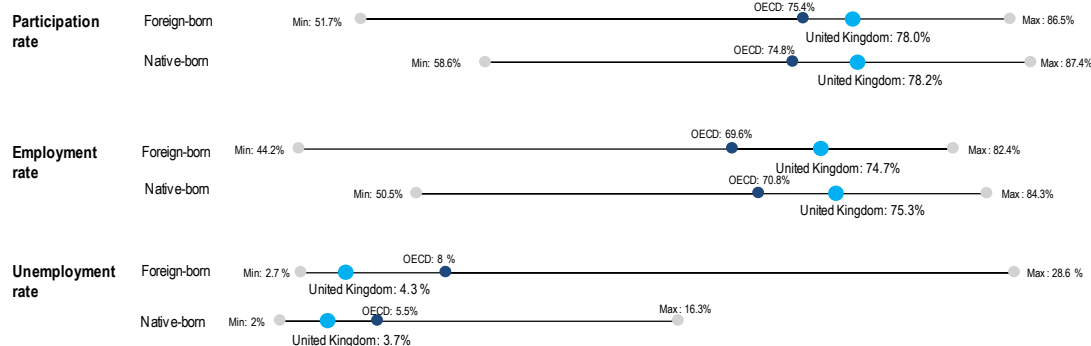
	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	5.7	+0.1
Natural increase	1.6	-0.2
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	4.0	+0.1

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	3 873	-11.8	0.1
Outflows (2018)	10 410	+6.2	0.4

Labour market outcomes

2019



StatLink <https://stat.link/0szq6g>

United States

Foreign-born population – 2019	
44.7 million, 51% women	<i>Main countries of birth:</i>
14% of the population	Mexico (25%), India (6%),
Evolution since 2007: +18%	China (5%)

In 2018, the United States received 1 097 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -2.7% compared to 2017. This figure comprises 6% labour migrants, 70.1% family members (including accompanying family) and 17% humanitarian migrants. Around 363 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 724 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Mexico, Cuba and China were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2018. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Cuba registered the strongest increase (+11 000) and Mexico the largest decrease (-8 700) in flows to the United States compared to the previous year.

In 2019, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 18.4%, to reach around 301 000. The majority of applicants came from Guatemala (52 000), Honduras (39 000) and El Salvador (34 000). The largest increase since 2018 concerned nationals of Guatemala (+18 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Venezuela (-1 800). Of the 180 000 decisions taken in 2019, 23.1% were positive.

The Department of Homeland Security (DHS) implemented the Migrant Protection Protocols (MPP) in January 2019. Under MPP, certain foreign migrants attempting to enter the United States illegally or without documentation through the southern border, including those who claim asylum, may be returned to Mexico for the duration of their immigration proceedings. MPP is subject to limited exceptions.

In July 2019, DHS and the Department of Justice issued the joint Interim Third-Country Asylum Rule to enhance the integrity of the asylum process by placing further restrictions or limitations on eligibility. This applies to migrants who enter or attempt to enter the United States across the southern border, but who did not apply for asylum where it was available in at least one third country through which they transited en route to the United States. The bar is subject to limited exceptions.

In July 2019, DHS also announced a new designation of foreign citizens subject to expedited removal that applies to certain foreign citizens encountered anywhere in the United States within two years of illegal entry. Use of expedited removal allows DHS to more quickly remove certain foreign citizens encountered on the US territory.

In February 2020, DHS implemented the Inadmissibility on Public Charge Grounds final rule which prescribes how DHS will determine whether foreigners are

inadmissible to the United States based on their likelihood of becoming a public charge at any time in the future. Foreigners seeking an extension or stay of change of status must demonstrate that they have not received public benefits over the designated threshold since obtaining the non-immigrant status they seek to extend or change.

In June 2020, DHS announced a rule to strengthen employment eligibility requirements for asylum seekers and will be effective in August 2020. The rule prevents foreign citizens who, absent good cause, illegally entered the United States from obtaining employment authorisation based on a pending asylum application. In addition, the rule defines new bars and denials, such as for certain criminal behaviour; and extends the wait time before an asylum applicant can apply for employment authorisation from 150 days to 365 calendar days.

Online filing to replace paper forms was also expanded in 2020 notably to applications for permanent residence, applications to extend / change non-immigrant status, and for naturalisation.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the United States is restricting and suspending the entry into the United States from foreign citizens who have recently been in certain impacted countries. While all non-essential travel is restricted, legal permanent residents and foreign citizens holding certain visas are still admitted.

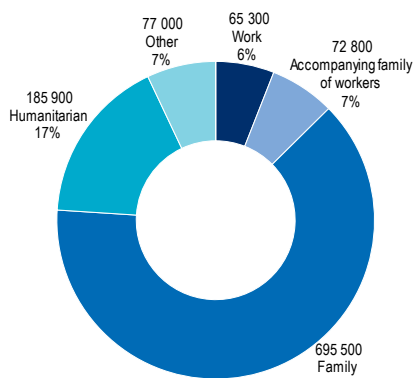
In June 2020, President Trump issued a proclamation extending and expanding the suspension of certain visas through the end of the year to ensure American workers take first priority as the United States recovers from the economic effects of the coronavirus. The proclamation pauses several job-related non-immigrant visas, including H-1Bs, H-2Bs without a nexus to the food-supply chain, certain H-4s (immediate family members of H-1B visa holders), as well as Ls (intracompany transfers) and certain Js (interns, trainees, au pairs, etc.).

For further information:

<https://www.whitehouse.gov/issues/immigration/>
www.dhs.gov/
www.uscis.gov
www.state.gov

Key figures on immigration and emigration – United States

Long-term immigration flows
2018 (Source: OECD)



Temporary migration
(Source: OECD)

Temporary labour migration

	2018	2018/17
Working holidaymakers	104 510	- 0%
Seasonal workers	196 410	+ 22%
Intra-company transfers	74 390	- 5%
Other temporary workers	347 510	+ 1%

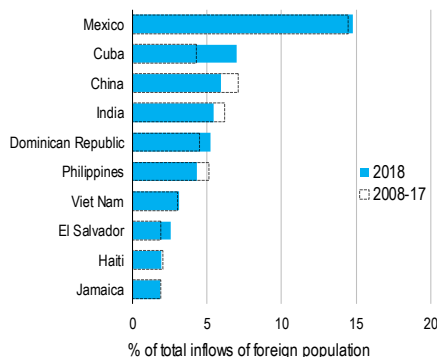
Education

	2018	2018/17
International students	362 930	- 8%
Trainees	1 040	- 16%

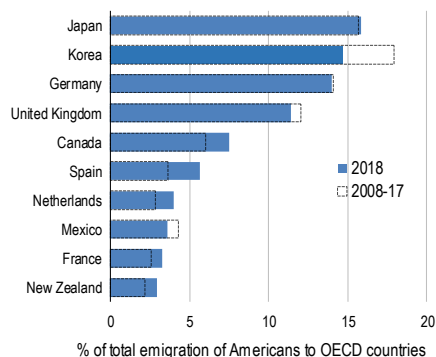
Humanitarian

	2019	2019/18
Asylum seekers	301 070	+ 18%

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
(national definition)



Emigration of Americans to OECD countries
(national definition)



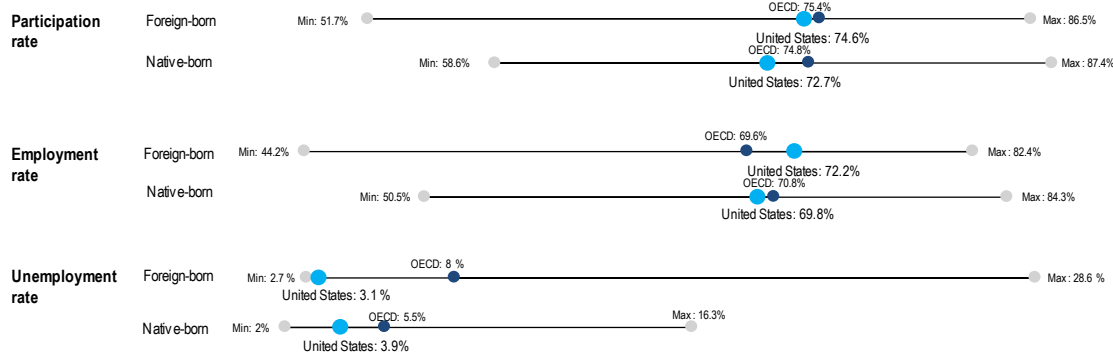
Components of population growth

	2019 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2019/18 difference
Total	4.8	-0.5
Natural increase	4.2	-0.0
Net migration plus statistical adjustments	0.6	-0.4

Annual remittances

	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %
Inflows (2019)	6 881	+3.2	0.0
Outflows (2018)	68 472	+1.6	0.3

Labour market outcomes
2019



Notes and data sources

Foreign-born population

National sources and Secretariat estimates. Sources and notes are available in the Statistical annex (see metadata for Tables A.4. and B.4.).

Long-term immigration flows

The statistics are generally based on residence and work permit data and have been standardised, to the extent possible, except for Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia, for which the source is Eurostat's database on first permits by reason, length of validity and citizenship (Table migr_resfirst).

Temporary migration

Residence or work permit data. Data on temporary workers do not generally cover workers who benefit from a free circulation agreement. Students exclude secondary education and vocational training. For Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia, the source is Eurostat's database on first permits by reason, length of validity and citizenship (migr_resfirst).

Inflows of asylum seekers. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (www.unhcr.org/statistics); Eurostat.

Inflows of top ten nationalities

OECD countries and Russia: sources and notes are available in the Statistical annex (metadata related to Tables A.1. and B.1.).

Bulgaria: Number of new permanent and long-term residence permits granted (Source: Ministry of the Interior); Romania: Changes in permanent residence (Source: Romanian Statistical Yearbook).

Emigration of nationals to OECD countries

Sum of the inflows of the country's citizens to OECD countries.

Components of population growth

European countries: Population change – Demographic balance and crude rates at national level (Eurostat); other countries: national sources.

Annual remittances

World Bank calculation based on data from IMF Balance of Payments Statistics database and data releases from central banks, national statistical agencies, and World Bank country desks.

Labour market outcomes

European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys.

Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN)*.

Japan: Population census 2015.

Korea: Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force and Economically Active Population Survey of Korean nationals (the rates refer to the long term resident foreign born population aged 15-59 who is foreign or was naturalised within the last five years).

Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE)*.

United States: Current Population Surveys.

The OECD average excludes Chile, Colombia, Japan and Korea.

Annex A. Statistical annex

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

A.1. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries and Russia

B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality

A.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries

Metadata relative to Tables A.1, B.1. and A.2. Inflows and outflows of foreign population

Inflows of asylum seekers

A.3. Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries and Russia

B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.3. and B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations

A.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and in Russia

B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth

Metadata relative to Tables A.4. and B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population

A.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and in Russia

B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.5. and B.5. Stocks of foreign population

Acquisitions of nationality

A.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and in Russia

B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.6. and B.6. Acquisitions of nationality

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex have been provided by national correspondents of the OECD Expert Group on Migration appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of member countries. Consequently, these data are not necessarily based on common definitions. Countries under review in this annex are OECD countries for which data are available, as well as the Russian Federation. The OECD Expert Group on Migration has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It is an observatory 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.

The purpose of this annex is to describe the “immigrant” population (generally the foreign-born population). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population as well as the acquisition of nationality. These data have not been standardised and are therefore not fully comparable across countries. In particular, the criteria for registering persons in population registers and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if the same type of source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of unauthorised migrants. Part of this population may be counted in censuses. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to identify and enumerate a far from negligible fraction of unauthorised immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible to better measure the volume of the foreign-born population at a given time, even if it is not always possible to determine the year these immigrants entered the country.

Each series in the annex is preceded by an explanatory note concerning the data presented. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each destination country), and finally the tables by nationality or country of birth, as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides the sources and notes for the data presented in the tables for each country.

General comments

The tables provide annual series covering the period 2008-18 or 2009-19.

- The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country. In the other tables, nationalities or countries of birth are ranked by decreasing order of frequency for the last year available.
- In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown. “Other countries” is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign or foreign-born population and the sum for all countries indicated in the table. For some countries, 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.
- There is no table by nationality for the series on outflows of the foreign population (series A.2). These statistics, as well as data by gender are available online (<http://www.oecd.org/els/mig/keystat.htm>).
- The rounding of data cells may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component cells.
- The symbol “..” used in the tables means that the data are not available.
- Figures in italic are estimated by the Secretariat.

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

OECD countries seldom have tools specifically designed to measure the inflows and outflows of the foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. This note describes 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 the 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.

In population registers, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform about his departure to avoid losing rights related to the presence on the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries; in particular the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be registered ranges from three months to one year, which poses major problems of international comparisons. For example, in some countries, register data cover many temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants) and international students.

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 granted the right of permanent residence, and this right is often granted upon arrival. Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries. In the case of France, the permits covered are those valid for at least one year (excluding students).

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 included in the 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.

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. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries and Russia

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Australia	203.9	219.4	202.2	206.4	236.0	244.8	233.9	223.7	218.5	224.2	186.6
Austria	94.4	91.7	96.9	109.9	125.6	135.2	154.3	198.7	158.7	139.3	131.7
Belgium	106.0	102.7	113.6	117.9	128.9	117.6	106.3	128.8	103.2	109.5	116.8
Canada	247.2	252.2	280.7	248.7	257.8	259.0	260.3	271.8	296.4	286.5	321.0
Chile	43.6	35.9	41.4	50.7	65.2	84.4	83.5	101.9	135.5	207.2	339.4
Colombia	5.7	8.3	11.3	10.6
Czech Republic	76.2	38.2	28.0	20.7	28.6	27.8	38.5	31.6	34.8	43.5	55.9
Denmark	37.0	32.0	33.4	34.6	35.5	41.3	49.0	58.7	54.6	49.0	45.3
Estonia	1.9	2.2	1.2	1.7	1.1	1.6	1.3	7.4	7.7	9.1	9.7
Finland	19.9	18.1	18.2	20.4	23.3	23.9	23.6	21.4	27.3	23.7	23.1
France	147.0	149.6	145.8	142.1	151.6	251.3	251.8	242.7	245.7	245.9	248.9
Germany	573.8	606.3	683.5	841.7	965.9	1 108.1	1 342.5	2 016.2	1 719.1	1 384.0	1 383.6
Greece	41.5	35.8	35.4	33.0	32.0	31.3	29.5	34.0	86.1	80.5	87.3
Hungary	35.5	25.6	23.9	22.5	20.3	21.3	26.0	25.8	23.8	36.5	49.3
Iceland	7.5	3.4	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.9	4.3	5.0	7.9	11.8	11.5
Ireland	89.7	50.7	23.9	33.7	37.2	41.0	43.7	49.3	53.9	57.2	61.9
Israel	13.7	14.6	16.6	16.9	16.6	16.9	24.1	27.9	26.0	26.4	28.1
Italy	496.5	406.7	424.5	354.3	321.3	279.0	248.4	250.5	262.9	301.1	285.5
Japan	344.5	297.1	287.1	266.9	303.9	306.7	336.5	391.2	427.6	475.0	519.7
Korea	302.2	232.8	293.1	307.2	300.2	360.5	407.1	372.9	402.2	452.7	495.1
Latvia	3.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.7	3.5	4.5	4.5	3.4	5.1	6.6
Lithuania	3.0	1.7	1.1	1.7	2.5	3.0	4.8	3.7	6.0	10.2	12.3
Luxembourg	16.8	14.6	15.8	19.1	19.4	19.8	21.0	22.6	21.6	23.1	23.3
Mexico	15.9	23.9	26.2	22.0	18.2	63.0	43.5	34.4	35.9	32.8	38.7
Netherlands	103.4	104.4	110.2	118.5	115.7	122.3	139.3	159.5	182.2	183.9	191.0
New Zealand	90.1	75.7	69.7	71.4	71.6	77.2	91.7	102.9	105.6	105.3	111.8
Norway	58.8	56.7	65.1	70.8	70.0	66.9	61.4	59.1	58.5	49.8	44.4
Poland	41.8	41.3	41.1	41.3	47.1	46.6	32.0	86.1	107.0	128.0	137.6
Portugal	72.8	61.4	50.7	45.4	38.5	33.2	35.3	37.9	46.9	61.4	93.2
Russia	281.6	279.9	187.8	214.9	290.6	350.7	443.1	425.0	388.6	393.1	365.0
Slovak Republic	7.4	5.1	4.2	3.8	2.9	2.5	2.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9
Slovenia	28.0	27.3	12.7	10.7	12.2	11.6	11.3	12.6	13.8	15.6	24.1
Spain	567.4	365.4	330.3	335.9	272.5	248.4	264.5	290.0	352.2	454.4	560.0
Sweden	83.3	83.8	79.0	75.9	82.6	95.4	106.1	113.9	143.0	125.0	114.4
Switzerland	157.3	132.4	134.2	142.5	143.8	155.4	152.1	150.4	143.1	137.8	140.1
Turkey	29.9	273.9	364.6	466.9
United Kingdom	456.0	430.0	459.0	453.0	383.0	406.0	504.0	481.0	455.0	520.0	486.5
United States	1 107.1	1 130.8	1 042.6	1 062.0	1 031.6	990.6	1 016.5	1 051.0	1 183.5	1 127.2	1 096.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Table A.2.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/nbmcko>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Australia (permanent)

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
India	22.7	25.3	23.5	21.9	27.8	38.1	39.6	34.7	38.6	40.0	33.1	50
China	20.7	22.3	24.5	28.7	25.3	27.9	27.1	27.9	29.1	29.3	25.7	55
New Zealand	34.5	33.0	24.4	34.6	44.3	41.2	27.3	22.4	19.7	12.6	15.2	50
United Kingdom	31.7	33.3	26.7	21.5	27.0	23.1	23.8	22.2	19.0	17.6	14.1	48
Philippines	7.1	8.9	10.2	10.7	12.8	11.0	10.3	11.9	12.0	12.1	10.9	60
Pakistan	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.8	3.9	3.6	5.7	8.0	7.0	6.8	6.3	49
Viet Nam	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8	4.8	5.7	5.2	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.2	62
South Africa	6.9	11.3	11.1	8.1	8.0	5.8	4.9	4.7	4.0	4.8	4.3	51
Afghanistan	2.0	1.7	1.6	2.0	1.6	2.2	5.7	3.3	3.2	3.6	3.8	57
Iraq	2.6	4.1	2.5	2.9	2.0	3.2	4.0	3.1	3.0	9.7	3.7	50
Malaysia	5.1	5.4	4.9	4.9	5.4	5.6	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.2	3.4	55
Syria	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.0	2.6	2.2	8.7	3.3	50
Nepal	0.9	1.0	1.3	2.1	2.5	4.0	4.4	4.2	5.1	4.4	3.0	52
United States	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	3.5	3.5	3.6	2.7	53
Sri Lanka	4.8	4.8	5.2	4.5	5.7	5.3	4.5	3.9	3.8	3.2	2.7	53
Other countries	56.7	59.9	57.2	54.6	61.3	63.9	62.2	62.2	59.0	58.1	49.1	
Total	203.9	219.4	202.2	206.4	236.0	244.8	233.9	223.7	218.5	224.2	186.6	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Austria**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	9.2	9.3	11.3	12.9	13.4	13.5	20.7	17.5	16.7	17.9	19.2	43
Germany	19.2	17.6	18.0	17.4	17.8	17.7	16.8	17.0	16.1	16.2	17.0	47
Hungary	5.2	5.8	6.4	9.3	13.1	14.9	14.5	14.4	13.3	13.1	12.6	47
Serbia	6.0	4.6	7.1	6.1	6.7	7.1	7.4	7.6	7.3	7.2	6.8	43
Croatia	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	4.2	6.0	5.8	5.1	5.1	5.4	43
Bulgaria	2.5	2.6	3.1	3.2	3.6	3.9	5.8	5.2	4.9	5.0	5.3	44
Poland	4.4	3.8	4.0	6.4	7.1	7.3	6.9	6.1	5.4	5.2	4.8	36
Slovak Republic	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.3	6.0	6.2	6.5	6.1	5.6	5.1	4.8	51
Italy	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.3	3.1	4.0	4.1	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.4	42
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2.9	2.4	2.5	3.9	4.1	5.0	5.2	5.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	44
Turkey	5.0	4.7	4.3	3.8	4.1	4.5	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.0	41
Slovenia	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.9	2.5	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.2	40
Russia	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.6	3.4	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.1	56
Syria	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.9	1.7	7.4	22.6	9.0	6.7	2.1	58
United States	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.0	52
Other countries	25.7	27.9	27.2	31.2	36.7	37.4	41.1	75.0	55.8	39.1	36.2	
Total	94.4	91.7	96.9	109.9	125.6	135.2	154.3	198.7	158.7	139.3	131.7	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Belgium

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	6.8	6.1	8.0	10.9	11.2	10.0	11.3	10.6	10.3	11.6	13.1	37
France	14.1	12.3	13.5	13.8	13.3	13.6	12.0	12.0	11.1	11.2	11.4	51
Netherlands	11.7	8.8	9.3	9.5	9.1	9.0	8.1	8.1	7.5	7.7	7.6	47
Italy	3.7	3.6	4.3	4.7	5.2	5.7	5.3	5.1	4.8	4.8	5.2	45
Morocco	8.2	9.1	9.8	8.5	5.9	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.4	4.5	4.9	55
Poland	9.0	9.9	8.9	9.3	8.6	7.5	5.8	5.3	4.4	4.3	4.1	45
Spain	2.8	3.6	4.6	5.3	6.0	6.1	5.0	4.1	3.7	4.0	4.0	48
Bulgaria	3.9	3.3	4.2	4.3	4.5	3.9	4.2	3.8	3.3	3.6	3.8	45
Syria	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.9	1.0	2.8	10.4	4.4	5.4	3.5	46
India	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.1	3.2	44
Portugal	3.2	2.9	2.7	3.1	4.2	4.3	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	39
Palestinian administrative areas	0.1	0.1	0.1	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.8	2.7	30
Germany	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5	51
Turkey	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.4	2.0	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.3	44
Afghanistan	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	2.8	1.3	1.1	7.5	2.5	1.5	2.1	44
Other countries	33.3	34.6	38.9	39.7	49.5	42.8	36.9	47.7	36.9	39.9	43.4	
Total	106.0	102.7	113.6	117.9	128.9	117.6	106.3	128.8	103.2	109.5	116.8	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Canada (permanent)**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
India	28.3	29.4	34.2	27.5	30.9	33.1	38.3	39.5	39.8	51.7	70.0	47
Philippines	24.9	28.6	38.6	36.8	34.3	29.5	40.0	50.8	41.8	40.9	35.1	56
China	30.0	29.6	30.4	28.5	33.0	34.1	24.6	19.5	26.9	30.3	29.7	56
Syria	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.6	1.0	2.1	9.9	34.9	12.0	12.0	48
Nigeria	2.1	3.2	3.9	3.1	3.4	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.4	5.5	10.9	48
United States	10.2	9.0	8.1	7.7	7.9	8.5	8.5	7.5	8.4	9.1	10.9	51
Pakistan	9.0	7.2	6.8	7.5	11.2	12.6	9.1	11.3	11.3	7.7	9.5	49
France	4.5	5.1	4.6	4.1	6.3	5.6	4.7	5.8	6.4	6.6	6.2	46
Eritrea	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.7	2.0	2.2	4.6	4.7	5.7	44
United Kingdom	9.0	8.9	8.7	6.1	6.2	5.8	5.8	5.5	5.8	5.3	5.7	41
Iran	6.5	6.6	7.5	7.5	7.5	11.3	16.8	11.7	6.5	4.7	5.5	50
Iraq	3.5	5.5	5.9	6.2	4.0	4.9	3.9	4.0	2.4	4.7	5.3	50
Korea	7.3	5.9	5.5	4.6	5.3	4.5	4.5	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.8	58
Brazil	2.1	2.5	2.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	2.8	4.0	52
Jamaica	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.5	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9	45
Other countries	105.8	106.6	119.4	103.5	101.9	98.0	90.9	90.7	93.8	92.8	102.0	
Total	247.2	252.2	280.7	248.7	257.8	259.0	260.3	271.8	296.4	286.5	321.0	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Chile

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Venezuela	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.0	2.3	7.4	21.9	70.1	137.6	..
Haiti	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.2	2.2	6.4	23.0	44.8	121.7	..
Colombia	3.2	4.1	5.5	9.4	12.1	16.7	15.4	19.5	26.9	30.3	31.5	..
Bolivia	3.4	2.1	4.6	6.2	10.8	23.6	21.6	19.8	14.8	21.4	30.4	..
Peru	22.3	14.9	14.7	16.4	18.9	18.9	19.8	24.7	25.5	26.2	29.7	..
Ecuador	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.8	4.3	6.2	6.8	..
Argentina	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.3	4.3	4.5	4.9	4.1	4.5	4.0	..
Cuba	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.7	2.1	3.0	..
Dominican Republic	0.2	0.4	0.8	1.2	2.9	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.9	2.4	..
Brazil	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.2	..
China	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.1	..
Spain	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.0	2.1	4.1	3.4	2.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	..
United States	1.6	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.0	..
Paraguay	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	..
Mexico	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	..
Other countries	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.3	5.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	..
Total	43.6	35.9	41.4	50.7	65.2	84.4	83.5	101.9	135.5	207.2	339.4	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Colombia**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Venezuela	2.0	3.3	5.4	5.8	..
Ecuador	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	..
United States	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	..
Spain	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.4	..
Argentina	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	..
Peru	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	..
Brazil	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	..
Mexico	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	..
Cuba	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	..
Chile	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	..
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	..
France	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	..
Italy	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	..
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
China	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	..
Other countries	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.0	..
Total	5.7	8.3	11.3	10.6	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Czech Republic

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	18.7	8.1	3.5	2.0	5.9	3.7	8.4	5.5	5.8	10.3	16.7	39
Slovak Republic	7.6	5.6	5.1	4.4	4.8	6.5	6.9	6.7	6.7	6.3	6.7	47
Russia	5.8	4.1	3.7	2.1	3.2	3.1	4.9	2.9	2.4	2.9	3.4	56
Viet Nam	13.4	2.3	1.4	0.7	1.6	1.2	1.7	1.3	1.8	2.2	2.3	44
Romania	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	32
Bulgaria	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.0	36
Mongolia	3.5	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.7	1.2	1.5	46
Hungary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.3	40
India	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	29
Belarus	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	36
China	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	47
United States	2.2	2.5	1.7	1.3	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	51
Serbia	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	1.0	24
Poland	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	44
Kazakhstan	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	53
Other countries	19.1	10.9	8.7	7.0	7.7	7.7	9.1	7.9	9.2	10.6	12.5	
Total	76.2	38.2	28.0	20.7	28.6	27.8	38.5	31.6	34.8	43.5	55.9	40

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Denmark**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	1.4	1.5	2.0	2.7	3.2	3.6	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1	37
Poland	6.5	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.6	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.7	3.4	33
Germany	3.0	2.2	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	52
India	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.1	44
Ukraine	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	44
Lithuania	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.9	40
United Kingdom	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.6	36
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	40
Sweden	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	49
Norway	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	59
China	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	57
United States	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	55
Bulgaria	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	38
Philippines	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	90
Spain	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	43
Other countries	13.0	12.8	13.7	13.5	13.9	17.4	22.7	32.1	27.6	21.2	17.5	
Total	37.0	32.0	33.4	34.6	35.5	41.3	49.0	58.7	54.6	49.0	45.3	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Estonia

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.5	29
Russia	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5	49
Finland	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	36
Latvia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.8	29
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	50
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	42
France	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	44
Belarus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	45
United Kingdom	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	23
India	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	31
Spain	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	48
Sweden	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	24
Nigeria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	35
Lithuania	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	42
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	19
Other countries	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.8	
Total	1.9	2.2	1.2	1.7	1.1	1.6	1.3	7.4	7.7	9.1	9.7	38

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Finland**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Estonia	3.0	3.2	3.9	4.7	6.0	5.9	4.7	3.4	2.6	2.2	2.0	41
Iraq	0.5	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.8	3.2	2.6	1.9	36
Russia	3.0	2.3	2.3	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.1	2.5	1.5	1.7	56
India	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	45
China	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	56
Ukraine	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	48
Syria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6	1.7	2.0	0.7	50
Afghanistan	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	1.9	0.9	0.7	39
Sweden	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	37
Viet Nam	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.6	54
Romania	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	34
Somalia	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	51
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	27
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	66
Eritrea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.4	34
Other countries	8.8	7.2	6.7	7.5	8.9	8.8	9.7	9.2	9.6	9.5	10.0	
Total	19.9	18.1	18.2	20.4	23.3	23.9	23.6	21.4	27.3	23.7	23.1	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – France

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Algeria	24.4	23.1	21.4	21.2	23.7	23.6	22.0	22.4	21.8	21.8	22.6	52
Morocco	24.9	21.5	20.1	18.8	19.8	20.0	18.1	18.4	18.8	19.1	20.6	53
Italy	12.2	12.7	13.2	13.9	13.6	14.4	..
Tunisia	8.8	10.3	10.7	10.3	11.3	11.6	10.8	10.5	11.3	11.9	14.1	41
Spain	13.7	12.9	12.4	10.7	10.9	12.7	..
United Kingdom	10.4	9.3	9.8	11.6	10.0	9.3	47
Romania	6.1	8.1	10.1	8.5	8.1	8.4	..
Portugal	18.8	14.7	11.6	12.4	8.3	8.1	..
Belgium	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.7	6.6	7.3	..
Germany	7.7	6.4	7.1	6.2	5.7	6.1	..
Afghanistan	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.7	5.0	5.2	9
Côte d'Ivoire	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.9	4.2	5.2	48
Comoros	3.1	3.3	2.9	2.5	3.1	4.8	5.5	7.3	3.9	4.2	5.0	67
United States	2.8	3.5	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.7	58
Turkey	7.2	6.7	5.7	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.0	4.7	45
Other countries	72.3	77.5	78.4	77.1	80.9	102.1	110.4	99.8	104.8	107.2	100.5	
Total	147.0	149.6	145.8	142.1	151.6	251.3	251.8	242.7	245.7	245.9	248.9	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Germany**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	48.2	57.3	75.5	97.5	120.5	139.5	198.7	221.4	222.3	230.6	252.0	33
Poland	119.9	112.0	115.6	164.7	177.8	190.4	192.2	190.8	160.7	149.7	143.6	33
Bulgaria	24.1	29.2	39.8	52.4	60.2	60.9	80.1	86.3	83.0	81.6	85.7	38
Croatia	8.7	9.1	10.2	11.5	12.9	25.8	46.1	61.0	62.1	58.6	57.7	35
Italy	20.1	22.2	23.9	28.1	36.9	47.5	56.7	57.2	52.6	51.5	53.3	39
Syria	2.0	2.3	3.0	4.6	8.5	19.0	69.1	309.7	179.4	76.4	49.0	51
Hungary	25.2	25.3	29.3	41.1	54.5	60.0	58.8	58.1	51.6	48.1	43.9	32
Turkey	26.7	27.2	27.6	28.6	26.2	23.2	22.1	23.7	28.6	33.7	40.6	36
India	11.4	12.0	13.2	15.4	18.1	19.5	22.4	26.1	27.7	29.5	33.7	35
China	14.3	15.4	16.2	18.3	19.7	22.4	23.2	25.5	26.6	26.6	25.9	51
Greece	8.3	8.6	12.3	23.0	32.7	32.1	28.8	28.3	27.1	26.1	25.6	38
Serbia	5.4	7.0	16.7	16.5	22.1	27.3	38.4	39.7	22.9	24.5	25.6	35
Bosnia and Herzegovina	6.2	6.1	6.9	9.5	12.2	15.1	20.7	21.7	22.4	24.0	22.7	40
Iraq	8.9	13.1	9.5	7.5	6.7	5.2	7.1	64.8	68.0	27.6	21.7	42
United States	17.5	17.7	18.3	20.1	19.6	20.5	20.5	21.1	20.7	21.1	20.3	47
Other countries	227.1	241.7	265.6	302.9	337.4	399.7	457.9	780.8	663.4	474.5	482.2	
Total	573.8	606.3	683.5	841.7	965.9	1 108.1	1 342.5	2 016.2	1 719.1	1 384.0	1 383.6	39

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Hungary

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	4.1	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2	6.3	16.7	33
Serbia	4.1	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.7	2.9	24
Romania	10.0	7.1	6.6	5.8	4.2	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.9	33
Germany	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.5	44
China	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.9	1.1	2.2	4.7	3.5	1.5	2.3	2.0	51
Slovak Republic	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	54
India	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4	31
Viet Nam	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.3	39
United States	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.3	52
Turkey	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	35
Russia	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	61
Korea	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.8	40
Iran	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.8	46
Mongolia	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7	36
Italy	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	34
Other countries	7.2	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.6	7.2	8.6	8.8	8.8	12.1	12.3	
Total	35.5	25.6	23.9	22.5	20.3	21.3	26.0	25.8	23.8	36.5	49.3	38

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Iceland**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	3.9	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6	2.9	4.5	3.9	34
Lithuania	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.7	1.3	1.2	27
Romania	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	28
Latvia	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.6	20
Czech Republic	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	49
Portugal	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	24
Germany	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	68
Croatia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	21
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	52
Philippines	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	68
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	45
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	33
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	50
Denmark	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	46
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	41
Other countries	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.8	2.1	2.2	
Total	7.5	3.4	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.9	4.3	5.0	7.9	11.8	11.5	37

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Israel

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Former USSR	5.6	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.2	7.3	11.6	14.7	14.5	16.2	18.8	51
United States	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.5	50
France	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.9	6.5	6.6	4.2	3.2	2.4	51
Brazil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	53
United Kingdom	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	50
India	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	52
Argentina	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	56
South Africa	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	48
Canada	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	50
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	49
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	58
Venezuela	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	54
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	57
Belgium	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	52
Mexico	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	54
Other countries	2.5	1.3	2.8	3.8	3.5	2.6	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.4	
Total	13.7	14.6	16.6	16.9	16.6	16.9	24.1	27.9	26.0	26.4	28.1	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Italy**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	174.6	105.6	92.1	90.1	81.7	58.2	50.7	46.4	45.2	43.5	40.1	58
Brazil	12.6	9.7	8.6	7.1	5.7	5.0	5.0	7.0	10.5	15.7	18.0	50
Albania	35.7	27.5	22.6	16.6	14.1	12.2	11.4	11.5	13.0	15.4	18.0	52
Nigeria	3.7	4.0	4.8	4.5	6.7	6.3	5.3	8.9	14.7	23.3	17.9	33
Morocco	37.3	33.1	30.0	23.9	19.6	19.6	17.6	15.0	14.7	15.7	16.9	55
Bangladesh	9.3	8.9	9.7	10.3	10.1	10.5	12.7	12.4	10.7	14.6	13.4	26
Pakistan	5.7	7.9	10.8	7.5	8.8	7.8	9.6	11.4	14.7	15.0	13.2	24
India	12.5	12.8	15.2	13.3	11.2	10.8	11.1	11.2	10.0	7.7	11.1	51
China	12.8	16.8	22.9	20.1	20.5	17.6	15.8	14.9	12.4	11.3	10.0	52
Senegal	4.8	4.9	8.9	6.6	5.5	6.5	6.3	7.5	8.5	10.9	8.8	18
Ukraine	24.0	22.6	30.4	17.9	11.5	12.8	9.7	9.3	8.7	7.9	7.7	70
Egypt	5.3	8.0	9.3	9.6	8.6	9.8	8.7	7.4	6.6	7.7	7.4	43
Gambia	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.7	5.1	6.6	8.7	6.2	2
Mali	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	1.5	1.3	2.0	4.8	5.2	6.8	5.2	2
Côte d'Ivoire	2.3	2.0	1.9	1.7	2.7	1.8	1.3	2.0	3.5	6.5	4.7	18
Other countries	155.8	142.8	156.9	124.8	112.9	98.6	79.7	75.5	77.8	90.5	86.8	
Total	496.5	406.7	424.5	354.3	321.3	279.0	248.4	250.5	262.9	301.1	285.5	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Japan

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Viet Nam	12.5	10.9	11.9	13.9	19.5	31.7	43.0	65.9	77.5	98.6	123.3	..
China	134.2	121.2	107.9	100.4	107.0	93.0	98.6	100.6	103.3	109.8	114.9	..
Korea	30.0	27.0	27.9	23.4	25.7	24.2	21.1	22.6	25.6	28.0	32.4	..
Philippines	21.0	15.8	13.3	13.6	15.4	16.4	19.9	24.0	26.2	29.6	31.3	..
Indonesia	10.1	7.5	8.3	8.4	9.3	9.6	11.8	14.3	16.8	19.6	23.2	..
United States	24.0	23.5	22.7	19.3	21.0	21.1	22.0	21.5	22.2	22.0	22.9	..
Thailand	10.5	9.9	10.9	13.6	15.4	15.4	14.3	14.5	15.4	16.4	17.1	..
Brazil	14.4	3.0	4.7	4.5	5.8	4.8	6.1	9.1	12.8	14.2	15.8	..
Chinese Taipei	5.5	5.4	6.6	5.6	6.6	6.6	7.7	10.8	12.2	13.7	14.9	..
Nepal	3.6	3.6	2.9	3.5	4.8	8.3	11.5	13.4	14.1	14.5	13.0	..
India	5.7	4.6	4.9	4.7	5.6	5.6	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.9	9.6	..
Myanmar	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.5	2.1	3.3	5.2	6.1	7.6	8.1	..
United Kingdom	6.0	5.3	5.8	5.2	5.5	6.1	5.9	6.7	6.6	6.7	7.1	..
France	4.5	3.9	4.0	2.9	4.0	4.5	4.5	5.0	5.6	5.5	6.2	..
Germany	4.8	4.5	4.3	3.7	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.8	5.3	5.1	5.3	..
Other countries	56.2	49.5	50.0	43.2	52.7	53.2	55.5	66.1	70.6	75.6	74.5	..
Total	344.5	297.1	287.1	266.9	303.9	306.7	336.5	391.2	427.6	475.0	519.7	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Korea**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
China	161.7	117.6	155.3	149.2	127.3	178.6	192.9	177.0	165.5	156.8	169.3	49
Thailand	8.6	5.8	6.9	10.3	13.8	18.3	48.3	20.1	28.5	71.5	80.3	54
Viet Nam	24.0	16.4	22.9	27.9	24.7	22.2	28.0	30.2	40.1	48.0	56.0	50
United States	23.4	27.1	28.3	28.1	28.9	26.6	24.5	22.7	21.8	19.8	21.2	55
Uzbekistan	9.4	4.7	8.6	8.2	11.4	12.3	12.9	14.2	16.2	18.5	18.8	35
Russia	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.2	6.8	15.0	18.6	18.7	40
Kazakhstan	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.4	3.5	7.7	13.4	15.7	41
Indonesia	9.7	3.3	5.3	8.1	8.3	11.8	10.5	8.5	9.0	6.9	10.7	12
Mongolia	8.1	5.3	5.4	4.3	5.7	4.3	4.0	8.3	8.2	11.8	10.2	51
Philippines	9.1	8.9	9.1	9.6	9.9	12.0	10.7	9.9	9.5	9.0	10.1	41
Nepal	2.4	2.6	2.7	4.3	6.9	6.0	6.8	6.5	8.7	8.6	9.8	10
Cambodia	3.4	2.6	3.7	6.4	9.5	10.5	9.5	9.6	10.2	9.5	8.7	33
Myanmar	0.5	1.7	0.6	2.6	4.1	4.6	5.1	5.2	6.7	6.3	7.4	4
Japan	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.5	5.8	5.9	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.5	5.2	77
Canada	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.3	5.3	4.6	4.6	56
Other countries	27.7	22.5	29.7	33.5	34.1	37.7	39.1	40.4	45.3	44.8	48.2	..
Total	302.2	232.8	293.1	307.2	300.2	360.5	407.1	372.9	402.2	452.7	495.1	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Latvia

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.9	1.4	14
India	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.9	14
Russia	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.3	0.9	0.9	43
Uzbekistan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	20
Belarus	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.4	25
Pakistan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	10
Azerbaijan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	17
Sri Lanka	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	28
Lithuania	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	31
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	32
Philippines	0.1	0.0	0.1	2
Kazakhstan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	40
Turkey	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	12
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	33
Georgia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	24
Other countries	2.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	
Total	3.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.7	3.5	4.5	4.5	3.4	5.1	6.6	24

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Lithuania**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.4	1.1	1.1	1.6	4.3	5.7	7
Belarus	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.2	2.7	3.3	9
Russia	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	44
India	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	27
Moldova	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	4
Latvia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	53
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	23
China	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	50
Germany	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	23
Syria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	42
United States	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	51
Italy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	21
Georgia	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	22
Israel	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	46
Kazakhstan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	36
Other countries	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	
Total	3.0	1.7	1.1	1.7	2.5	3.0	4.8	3.7	6.0	10.2	12.3	15

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.



StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Luxembourg

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
France	3.2	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.5	3.5	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.0	45
Portugal	4.5	3.8	3.8	5.0	5.2	4.6	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.5	42
Italy	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	39
Belgium	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.2	43
Germany	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	48
Romania	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	51
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	43
India	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	44
United Kingdom	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	41
United States	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	50
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	58
Poland	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	52
Greece	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	48
Brazil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	62
Eritrea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	38
Other countries	3.7	3.3	3.8	4.9	4.3	4.6	5.0	6.5	5.9	6.3	6.4	
Total	16.8	14.6	15.8	19.1	19.4	19.8	21.0	22.6	21.6	23.1	23.3	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Mexico**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Venezuela	0.7	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.2	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.5	3.4	6.3	56
United States	2.2	2.9	4.0	4.3	4.0	14.4	9.4	7.1	6.8	5.4	5.2	45
Honduras	0.8	1.4	1.5	1.0	0.4	2.4	2.3	1.8	2.6	2.5	3.4	52
El Salvador	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.4	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.8	2.3	2.8	48
Colombia	1.1	1.9	2.3	1.8	1.4	3.2	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.8	52
Guatemala	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.3	0.5	3.1	2.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.3	50
Cuba	1.0	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	3.2	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.3	50
China	1.3	2.0	1.7	1.1	0.8	5.2	2.6	2.2	2.1	1.5	1.8	39
Spain	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	2.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	37
Canada	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	3.5	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.4	46
Argentina	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.0	0.9	3.2	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.1	45
France	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	43
Italy	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	1.5	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	30
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.5	38
Brazil	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	54
Other countries	4.4	5.4	5.7	4.6	3.8	13.0	8.6	6.5	6.6	5.7	5.5	
Total	15.9	23.9	26.2	22.0	18.2	63.0	43.5	34.4	35.9	32.8	38.7	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Netherlands

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	13.3	12.7	14.5	18.6	18.3	20.4	23.8	23.0	23.1	23.8	25.5	43
Germany	9.0	8.7	9.8	9.6	8.7	8.1	8.2	8.6	9.4	10.5	10.9	57
India	3.5	3.1	3.2	3.8	4.0	4.5	5.1	6.1	7.2	8.6	10.6	42
Romania	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	4.6	4.3	5.2	7.5	9.4	41
Italy	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.2	5.1	5.7	6.5	7.6	8.5	45
United Kingdom	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.7	5.1	5.3	5.8	6.5	7.2	7.7	43
Bulgaria	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.4	5.0	4.5	5.2	4.8	5.0	6.0	6.9	43
China	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.5	5.2	4.7	4.8	5.4	5.7	6.5	6.8	55
Spain	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.7	4.6	5.3	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.9	6.5	50
United States	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.8	4.7	4.7	5.6	5.8	55
France	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	51
Turkey	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.2	4.4	5.5	45
Syria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	6.9	17.3	25.1	15.3	5.3	48
Eritrea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	2.9	5.7	5.9	4.7	4.0	52
Greece	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.7	3.3	2.9	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.0	42
Other countries	44.9	48.6	49.2	48.8	45.6	49.6	49.7	53.5	61.6	61.7	68.0	
Total	103.4	104.4	110.2	118.5	115.7	122.3	139.3	159.5	182.2	183.9	191.0	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – New Zealand**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
China	6.7	7.7	7.7	9.6	10.0	10.6	13.0	15.1	16.5	15.5	16.1	51
India	8.0	8.5	9.6	8.4	8.5	9.1	16.2	19.6	14.8	14.1	14.5	47
Philippines	6.6	3.9	3.3	3.7	4.2	4.7	6.5	8.4	8.2	9.1	9.1	38
United Kingdom	12.6	10.1	8.8	9.2	8.8	9.0	8.8	8.7	8.9	9.0	8.5	47
Australia	5.6	5.1	5.1	4.9	4.8	5.8	6.2	6.8	7.1	7.1	8.2	50
South Africa	7.8	3.3	2.2	2.1	1.9	2.3	2.6	3.4	5.8	5.8	7.0	48
United States	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.9	3.3	3.1	3.5	4.2	53
Korea	4.0	3.9	3.2	2.6	2.2	2.1	2.5	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.9	58
Samoa	3.2	2.3	1.6	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.8	44
Fiji	6.1	4.6	2.3	2.1	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.4	47
France	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.1	48
Malaysia	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.0	55
Germany	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	56
Brazil	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.8	49
Japan	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	60
Other countries	19.3	17.4	17.3	17.7	18.0	19.8	21.3	22.3	24.0	24.4	26.5	
Total	90.1	75.7	69.7	71.4	71.6	77.2	91.7	102.9	105.6	105.3	111.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Norway

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	14.4	10.5	11.3	12.9	11.5	10.5	9.9	8.2	6.0	5.2	5.0	38
Syria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.8	2.1	4.0	11.2	7.0	3.8	51
Lithuania	2.9	3.2	6.6	7.7	6.6	5.6	4.4	3.3	2.5	2.7	2.8	42
Sweden	5.7	6.0	7.6	8.2	5.7	5.3	4.6	3.6	2.5	2.2	2.1	45
India	1.1	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.6	2.0	39
Philippines	1.8	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.5	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.8	80
Germany	4.3	2.8	2.7	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	53
Denmark	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	47
Romania	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	2.0	2.5	2.1	1.9	1.2	1.2	1.1	41
United Kingdom	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.1	33
Eritrea	0.8	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.7	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.1	1.1	54
Thailand	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.1	1.0	78
United States	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	51
Spain	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	44
Latvia	0.6	1.1	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	37
Other countries	20.9	22.5	22.7	24.0	27.1	25.2	22.6	23.1	21.4	19.1	17.3	
Total	58.8	56.7	65.1	70.8	70.0	66.9	61.4	59.1	58.5	49.8	44.4	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Poland**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.1	11.8	11.9	7.8	45.2	63.8	79.0	88.7	42
Belarus	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.3	1.4	3.2	3.5	6.2	7.9	43
India	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.2	0.8	1.9	2.8	4.1	4.5	26
Viet Nam	2.8	3.0	2.4	2.1	4.0	2.8	2.0	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.0	45
Russia	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.1	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.0	55
China	1.2	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.9	3.0	1.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	2.9	47
Georgia	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.9	17
Turkey	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	0.9	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.9	25
Germany	2.9	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	1.8	17
Moldova	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.1	38
Armenia	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.0	46
Nepal	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	19
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	24
Korea	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	43
Bangladesh	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	8
Other countries	13.6	13.5	13.5	14.0	14.7	15.9	11.2	17.4	18.2	18.3	16.8	
Total	41.8	41.3	41.1	41.3	47.1	46.6	32.0	86.1	107.0	128.0	137.6	40

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Portugal

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Brazil	32.8	23.1	16.2	12.9	11.7	6.7	5.6	5.7	7.1	11.6	28.2	52
Italy	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.6	3.1	5.3	7.0	43
France	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.9	2.5	3.5	4.7	5.3	45
United Kingdom	2.7	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.9	3.1	3.8	5.1	44
Nepal	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.7	4.2	35
India	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.8	4.1	23
Spain	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.7	2.9	49
Angola	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.9	53
Cabo Verde	5.3	4.6	4.2	4.6	3.4	2.7	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.6	53
Germany	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.9	2.5	45
China	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.9	3.7	2.6	2.8	2.6	2.3	51
Romania	5.3	8.1	6.0	4.6	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.1	35
Bangladesh	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.7	2.0	21
Guinea-Bissau	2.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.9	47
Venezuela	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.7	57
Other countries	14.9	12.7	12.2	11.2	9.7	9.0	9.3	10.5	13.4	16.2	18.4	
Total	72.8	61.4	50.7	45.4	38.5	33.2	35.3	37.9	46.9	61.4	93.2	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Russia**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	49.1	45.9	27.5	30.1	35.4	40.1	89.5	139.7	115.0	90.3	78.9	54
Tajikistan	20.7	27.0	18.2	25.7	31.7	40.2	44.6	35.6	38.1	45.3	45.5	31
Kazakhstan	40.0	38.8	27.9	7.2	22.8	28.5	34.8	38.3	41.0	40.7	40.7	52
Uzbekistan	43.5	42.5	24.1	53.7	75.3	103.3	115.1	57.1	44.5	47.5	39.8	33
Kyrgyzstan	24.0	23.3	20.9	5.0	11.7	14.2	17.0	15.1	17.7	30.5	34.2	36
Armenia	35.2	35.8	19.9	24.5	27.6	31.0	35.1	34.1	32.2	33.4	31.8	41
Azerbaijan	23.3	22.9	14.5	16.6	17.1	18.0	21.5	19.4	18.3	18.9	19.5	39
Belarus	5.9	5.5	4.9	4.9	12.4	12.0	14.5	14.1	10.9	17.1	15.0	27
Moldova	15.5	16.4	11.8	9.2	11.9	15.4	18.8	18.3	15.1	12.9	11.7	48
Turkmenistan	4.0	3.3	2.3	2.2	2.8	3.8	4.3	4.5	5.4	6.9	8.5	42
China	1.2	0.8	1.4	6.9	8.4	8.0	10.5	8.9	7.9	8.0	6.9	34
India	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.8	4.7	5.6	5.0	36
Viet Nam	0.7	1.0	0.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.8	41
Georgia	8.8	7.5	5.2	3.9	4.3	4.2	4.3	3.8	3.3	3.6	3.3	46
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.9	4.1	5.0	6.3	6.1	7.4	6.0	1.8	2
Other countries	9.6	9.1	8.1	18.5	20.4	21.8	21.4	23.2	23.5	22.5	18.6	
Total	281.6	279.9	187.8	214.9	290.6	350.7	443.1	425.0	388.6	393.1	365.0	41

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Slovak Republic

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Czech Republic	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	53
Hungary	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	39
Romania	2.1	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	28
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	55
Poland	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	41
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	29
Italy	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	19
Germany	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	30
Russia	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	61
Croatia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	36
Bulgaria	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	24
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	53
Serbia	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	38
France	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	30
Norway	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	71
Other countries	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	
Total	7.4	5.1	4.2	3.8	2.9	2.5	2.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9	40

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Slovenia**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	13.0	12.9	4.4	3.4	4.0	3.8	3.4	4.7	4.8	6.2	11.7	22
Serbia	4.4	2.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.6	2.0	3.2	18
North Macedonia	3.2	3.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.5	40
Croatia	1.6	1.4	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	35
Bulgaria	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	21
Russia	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	49
Italy	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	30
Ukraine	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	51
Hungary	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	28
China	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	49
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	32
Germany	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	38
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	35
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	46
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	40
Other countries	3.5	4.9	3.1	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.5	3.7	
Total	28.1	27.4	12.7	10.8	12.3	11.6	11.3	12.7	13.8	15.5	24.1	27

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Spain

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Morocco	71.8	43.2	30.2	28.0	22.4	20.5	20.0	23.8	29.7	39.8	60.9	40
Colombia	36.0	20.4	13.7	13.2	10.0	8.7	8.5	9.4	22.6	34.2	53.3	56
Venezuela	8.7	5.7	6.5	6.8	4.6	4.7	7.2	10.5	18.5	31.5	47.1	56
Italy	15.9	11.8	11.2	11.6	12.0	12.2	14.9	18.6	21.7	28.7	31.3	46
Romania	61.3	44.1	51.9	50.8	27.3	22.8	29.7	28.8	28.6	31.2	29.1	47
United Kingdom	23.8	17.9	16.2	15.7	16.4	14.1	14.2	15.0	18.5	21.2	24.0	47
Honduras	4.6	3.7	4.7	6.3	5.3	4.3	5.7	7.6	10.9	18.2	23.4	71
Peru	27.5	13.7	8.0	7.7	5.6	4.8	4.7	5.3	8.0	13.9	19.3	58
Brazil	20.5	10.5	8.7	7.9	6.4	5.1	5.6	7.1	9.7	12.5	15.5	57
China	20.1	11.9	10.5	10.7	9.2	9.1	9.4	10.1	10.2	11.5	11.9	56
France	8.9	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.4	7.3	8.1	9.0	9.3	11.4	11.7	49
Nicaragua	2.9	2.4	3.0	3.6	2.8	2.1	2.7	3.1	4.1	6.2	11.4	66
Cuba	8.9	5.6	6.1	7.4	5.7	5.1	4.6	4.9	5.9	8.0	11.3	51
Argentina	13.4	6.7	5.4	4.9	3.6	3.8	4.2	5.0	6.4	8.8	11.1	52
Germany	11.3	9.3	8.3	8.3	8.0	7.2	6.8	6.7	7.3	9.1	9.4	51
Other countries	232.0	150.9	138.2	145.2	125.8	116.4	118.2	125.0	140.8	168.2	189.1	
Total	567.4	365.4	330.3	335.9	272.5	248.4	264.5	290.0	352.2	454.4	560.0	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Sweden**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Syria	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.5	4.7	11.7	21.7	28.0	49.0	20.9	13.9	54
Afghanistan	1.0	1.6	1.9	3.4	4.7	4.2	3.8	3.4	4.1	11.3	9.6	27
India	1.5	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.0	2.4	3.0	3.5	4.2	5.7	7.3	41
Iraq	12.1	8.5	4.5	4.5	3.6	2.3	2.4	2.8	3.4	6.0	3.9	45
Eritrea	1.2	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.2	3.3	5.9	7.6	7.6	4.8	3.8	52
Poland	7.0	5.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.6	5.1	5.6	5.0	4.4	3.8	39
China	2.7	3.1	3.2	2.6	2.5	2.1	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.7	2.9	52
Somalia	4.1	6.9	6.8	3.1	4.5	11.0	4.2	3.5	3.8	2.8	2.8	51
Finland	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.6	57
Iran	1.8	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.7	2.3	2.5	46
Pakistan	1.5	1.8	1.6	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.7	2.5	45
Germany	3.4	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.4	52
Romania	2.5	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	43
Turkey	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.5	2.2	41
Serbia	1.8	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.0	2.1	51
Other countries	38.4	40.4	39.6	40.0	41.6	42.3	45.4	44.5	50.3	51.3	49.9	
Total	83.3	83.8	79.0	75.9	82.6	95.4	106.1	113.9	143.0	125.0	114.4	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Switzerland
Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Germany	46.4	33.9	30.7	30.5	27.1	26.6	23.8	22.1	20.9	19.7	20.2	43
Italy	9.9	8.5	10.1	10.8	13.6	17.5	17.8	18.2	18.1	15.5	16.5	39
France	13.7	10.9	11.5	11.5	11.4	13.5	13.8	14.8	13.8	14.1	13.8	43
Portugal	17.8	13.7	12.8	15.4	18.6	19.9	14.9	12.6	10.1	9.2	8.7	42
Spain	2.4	2.5	3.3	4.6	6.5	8.8	7.6	7.0	5.8	5.2	5.6	48
Poland	2.4	2.1	2.0	3.4	3.3	2.9	4.8	4.8	4.1	4.1	4.7	42
United Kingdom	5.6	4.8	5.5	5.4	4.4	4.6	4.2	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.8	42
Hungary	1.1	1.1	1.2	2.1	2.5	2.5	4.2	3.9	3.6	3.3	3.2	43
China	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.1	55
India	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	42
United States	4.0	4.2	3.5	3.4	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	52
Austria	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.9	3.1	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	2.8	2.8	43
Eritrea	2.1	2.4	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.6	2.9	2.4	48
Romania	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.7	2.3	2.7	2.4	2.0	2.9	2.9	2.4	56
Slovak Republic	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.7	2.6	2.3	2.1	2.4	41
Other countries	52.8	50.1	41.6	41.3	39.8	41.7	42.5	44.0	43.4	43.1	44.5	
Total	157.3	132.4	134.2	142.5	143.8	155.4	152.1	150.4	143.1	137.8	140.1	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Turkey
Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Iraq	1.2	70.9	97.1	110.3	48
Afghanistan	2.2	27.9	37.7	45.0	41
Syria	0.9	25.7	28.2	39.0	44
Turkmenistan	1.2	8.4	20.3	34.9	52
Iran	1.5	15.5	17.8	31.9	48
Azerbaijan	2.5	15.3	20.9	23.2	52
Uzbekistan	0.6	9.0	17.9	15.2	66
Russia	1.8	6.4	7.3	13.8	62
Egypt	0.1	4.1	8.6	13.5	35
Kyrgyzstan	1.0	6.0	9.0	9.1	70
Germany	1.6	8.6	8.4	8.9	51
Yemen	0.0	1.8	3.7	8.6	35
Palestinian administrative areas	0.2	2.0	4.8	8.6	38
Jordan	0.1	1.7	2.9	8.0	37
Kazakhstan	1.4	3.6	4.3	7.4	59
Other countries	13.6	66.9	75.6	89.5	
Total	29.9	273.9	364.6	466.9	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – United Kingdom

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2017 (%)
China	18	22	28	45	41	46	39	43	35	58
Romania	..	10	7	8	6	19	37	56	55	51
India	48	64	68	61	36	30	46	36	35	50
Poland	55	32	34	33	30	28	32	40	29	25
Italy	14	8	9	10	10	17	17	26	26	19
Australia	14	12	18	13	16	11	15	16	13	18
Pakistan	17	17	30	43	19	10	11	8	11	15
France	..	14	11	17	14	15	24	15	25	14
Germany	18	11	7	13	8	10	13	10	9	12
Greece	6	6	4	4	11	5	11
Ireland	..	11	14	10	4	10	6	5	11	10
Other countries	272	229	233	194	193	206	260	215	201	237
Total	456	430	459	453	383	406	504	481	455	520	486	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – United States (permanent)**

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Mexico	190.0	164.9	139.1	143.4	146.4	135.0	134.1	158.6	174.5	170.6	161.9	53
Cuba	49.5	39.0	33.6	36.5	32.8	32.2	46.7	54.4	66.5	65.0	76.5	46
China	80.3	64.2	70.9	87.0	81.8	71.8	76.1	74.6	81.8	71.6	65.2	57
India	63.4	57.3	69.2	69.0	66.4	68.5	77.9	64.1	64.7	60.4	59.8	51
Dominican Republic	31.9	49.4	53.9	46.1	41.6	41.3	44.6	50.6	61.2	58.5	57.4	54
Philippines	54.0	60.0	58.2	57.0	57.3	54.4	50.0	56.5	53.3	49.1	47.3	62
Viet Nam	31.5	29.2	30.6	34.2	28.3	27.1	30.3	30.8	41.5	38.2	33.8	60
El Salvador	19.7	19.9	18.8	18.7	16.3	18.3	19.3	19.5	23.4	25.1	28.3	55
Haiti	26.0	24.3	22.6	22.1	22.8	20.4	15.3	17.0	23.6	21.8	21.4	54
Jamaica	18.5	21.8	19.8	19.7	20.7	19.4	19.0	17.6	23.4	21.9	20.3	55
Korea	26.7	25.9	22.2	22.8	20.8	23.2	20.4	17.1	21.8	19.2	17.7	56
Colombia	30.2	27.8	22.4	22.6	20.9	21.1	18.2	17.3	18.6	18.0	17.5	61
Pakistan	19.7	21.6	18.3	15.5	14.7	13.3	18.6	18.1	19.3	17.4	15.8	53
Bangladesh	11.8	16.7	14.8	16.7	14.7	12.1	14.6	13.6	18.7	14.7	15.7	56
Guatemala	16.2	12.2	10.5	11.1	10.3	10.2	10.2	11.8	13.0	13.2	15.6	47
Other countries	437.9	496.7	437.8	439.6	435.6	422.3	421.3	429.5	478.3	462.4	442.3	..
Total	1 107.1	1 130.8	1 042.6	1 062.0	1 031.6	990.6	1 016.5	1 051.0	1 183.5	1 127.2	1 096.6	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/p4svie>

Table A.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries

Thousands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Australia	30.9	27.6	29.3	31.2	29.9	31.7	32.6	33.9	33.2
Austria	60.2	67.2	68.4	72.8	74.4	74.5	76.5	80.1	89.0	89.6	91.7
Belgium	44.9	49.1	50.8	56.6	69.5	78.8	64.9	59.8	48.7	48.3	45.5
Czech Republic	3.8	9.4	12.5	2.5	16.7	27.2	16.1	15.0	13.4	14.4	16.2
Denmark	23.3	26.6	27.1	26.6	29.1	29.7	30.4	30.6	37.4	41.5	..
Estonia	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	3.3	3.4	4.3	3.9
Finland	4.5	4.0	3.1	3.3	4.2	4.2	5.5	6.7	7.5	6.8	7.6
Germany	563.1	578.8	529.6	538.8	578.8	657.6	765.6	859.3	1 083.8	885.5	923.6
Hungary	4.2	5.6	6.0	2.7	9.9	13.1	10.8	10.4	10.5	12.9	..
Iceland	5.9	5.8	3.4	2.8	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.2	3.6	3.9	4.9
Ireland	36.1	52.8	40.3	38.6	33.3	33.0	30.0	27.5	29.1	34.0	28.0
Italy	27.0	32.3	32.8	32.4	38.2	43.6	48.0	44.7	..	40.6	..
Japan	234.2	262.0	242.6	230.9	219.4	213.4	212.9	223.5	233.5	259.2	292.1
Korea	210.0	233.5	196.1	217.7	290.0	268.1	270.5	301.0	325.0	348.7	365.1
Latvia	6.7	4.7	3.4	1.4	2.6	3.0	2.3	2.9
Lithuania	3.0	5.5	3.8	2.4	2.6	3.3	3.5	..	4.3	2.6	3.2
Luxembourg	8.0	7.3	7.7	7.5	8.6	8.9	9.5	10.4	11.3	11.6	11.6
Netherlands	49.8	57.5	64.0	70.2	80.8	83.1	83.4	85.2	89.9	96.4	102.8
New Zealand	39.5	41.2	43.4	44.6	41.0	39.4	37.8	39.2	41.4	48.2	48.5
Norway	15.2	18.4	22.5	22.9	21.3	25.0	23.3	27.4	30.7	26.6	24.5
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Slovenia	7.3	15.1	12.0	2.1	1.7	0.7	1.0	1.7	2.2	2.4	..
Spain	254.9	344.1	363.2	353.6	389.3	459.0	320.0	249.2	237.5	280.2	..
Sweden	19.2	18.4	22.1	23.7	26.6	24.6	26.4	31.3	23.5	23.4	24.1
Switzerland	54.1	55.2	65.5	64.0	65.9	70.0	69.2	73.4	77.6	79.1	80.7
Turkey	178.0	253.6	323.9
United Kingdom	243.0	211.0	185.0	190.0	165.0	170.0	171.0	164.0	195.0	222.0	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata in the following table.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/sxwpy7>

Metadata related to Tables A.1., B.1. and A.2. Inflows and outflows of foreign population

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	Includes persons who are entitled to stay permanently in Australia at arrival (Settler Arrivals) as well as those who changed status from temporary to permanent residence. Settler arrivals include holders of a permanent visa, holders of a temporary (provisional) visa where there is a clear intention to settle, citizens of New Zealand indicating an intention to settle and persons otherwise eligible to settle. <i>Outflows:</i> People leaving Australia for 12 months or more in a 16-month period. Net Overseas Migration (NOM).	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated). From 2014, figures inferior to 5 individuals are not shown.	Department of Immigration and Border Protection.
Austria	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and who have actually stayed for at least 3 months.	Outflows include administrative corrections.	Population Registers, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. <i>Outflows:</i> Include administrative corrections.	From 2012, asylum seekers are included in inflow and outflow data.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSIE).
Canada	Total number of people who have been granted permanent resident status in Canada.	Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence. Due to privacy considerations, the figures have been subjected to random rounding. Under this method, all figures in the table are randomly rounded either up or down to multiples of 5.	Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada.
Chile	Total number of people who obtained a temporary visa for the first time.	Estimations for the years 2017 and 2018.	Register of residence permits, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Colombia	Total number of people who have been granted permanent resident status.		Migration Colombia, Ministry of External Relations.
Czech Republic	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit (visa over 90 days) or who were granted asylum in the given year. Excludes nationals of EU countries if they intend to stay for less than 30 days in the country. <i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners who were staying in the country on a permanent or temporary basis.	Country of origin refers to country of last permanent or temporary residence. Inflows and outflows of nationals of EU countries are likely to be underestimated.	Register of Foreigners, Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who live legally in Denmark, are registered in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least one year. <i>Outflows:</i> Include administrative corrections.	Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country (out of the country in the case outflows) for at least 12 months.	The number of nationals from other EU countries who are staying temporarily in the country for at least 12 months may be underestimated.	Statistics Estonia.
Finland	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreign nationals with a residence permit valid for more than one year and nationals of EU countries who intend to stay in the country for more than 12 months. Nordic citizens who are moving for less than 6 months are not included.	Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. Excludes asylum seekers and persons with temporary residence permits. Inflows and outflows of nationals of EU countries can be underestimated.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
France	Inflows of non-EU nationals are first issuances of permanent-type permits. They include status changes from a temporary-type permit to a permanent-type permit. Inflows of EU nationals included from 2013 onwards are extracted from the permanent census.		Ministry of the Interior and INSEE.
Germany	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who had previously no registered address in Germany and intending to stay at least one week in the country. <i>Outflows:</i> Deregistrations from population registers of persons who move out of their address without taking a new address in the country and administrative deregistrations.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>). In 2008, local authorities started to purge registers of inactive records. As a result, higher emigration figures were reported from this year.	Central Population Register, Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	Permits valid for more than 12 months delivered to third country nationals.		Eurostat.
Hungary	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country for at least 90 days. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreign citizens having a residence or a settlement document and who left Hungary in the given year with no intention to return, or whose permission's validity has expired and did not apply for a new one or whose permission was invalidated by authority due to withdrawal. From 2012, it contains estimations.		Population Register, Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country (out of the country in the case outflows) for at least 12 months.		Register of Migration Data, Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	<i>Inflows:</i> The estimates derive from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) and relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad one year earlier. <i>Outflows:</i> The estimates derive from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) and relate to the persons who were resident in the country at a point in the previous twelve-month period who are now living abroad.	Figures for Tables A.1. and A.2. are based on May to April of the year indicated.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Data refer to permanent immigrants by last country of residence.	The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Changes of residence.	Excludes seasonal workers. Administrative corrections are made following censuses (the last census took place in 2011).	Administrative Population Register (Anagrafe) analysed by ISTAT.
Japan	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who entered the country, excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners who left Japan without re-entry permission. Excludes temporary visitors.		Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Latvia	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Long-term migration (permanent change of residence or for a period of at least one year).		Population Register, Central Statistical Office.
Lithuania	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreign citizens who have been residing in the country for at least 6 months.		Lithuanian Department of Migration.
Luxembourg	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 12 months. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners who left the country with the intention to live abroad for at least 12 months.		Central Population Register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Until 2012, number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time (" <i>inmigrante</i> " FM2). 2011 and 2012 also include new and former refugees who obtained immigrant status (" <i>inmigrado</i> "). From 2013 on, number of foreigners who are issued a permanent residence card, as the 2011 Migration Act came into effect.	The sharp increase in the numbers of 2013 is explained by administrative changes with the implementation of the 2011 Migration Act. Most of these "new residents" are foreigners already in the country on a temporary status.	National Migration Institute, Unit for Migration Policy, Ministry of Interior.
Netherlands	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least four of the next six months. <i>Outflows:</i> Outflows include the "net administrative corrections", i.e. unreported emigration of foreigners.	Inflows exclude asylum seekers who are staying in reception centres.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
New Zealand	<i>Inflows:</i> Permanent and long-term arrivals to live in the country for 12 months or more. <i>Outflows:</i> Permanent and long-term departures: Foreign-born returning to live overseas after a stay of 12 months or more in New Zealand.	Revised series due to a change in methodology.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months. Include EU/EFTA foreigners. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and who stayed in the country for at least 6 months.	Asylum seekers are registered as immigrants only after having settled in a Norwegian municipality following a positive outcome of their application. An asylum seeker whose application has been rejected will not be registered as an 'immigrant', even if the application process has taken a long time and return to the home country is delayed for a significant period.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-term" residence permits issued. Since 26 August 2006, nationals of European Union Member States and their family members are no longer issued residence permits. However, they still need to register their stay in Poland, provided that they are planning to stay in Poland for more than 3 months.		Office for Foreigners.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. Following the new legislation, the data include the new residence permits delivered to every foreigner with a citizenship from an EU or non-EU country. Includes continuous regularisation.		Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF); National Statistical Institute (INE); Ministry of Foreign Affairs (before 2008).
Russia	Registered changes of residence. Until 2010, data refer to the country of previous residence. Data from 2011 on refer to citizenship.		Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Includes permanent, temporary, and tolerated residents.		Register of Foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Slovenia			Eurostat.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Spain	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Changes in regular residence for at least 12 months declared by foreigners.	From 2008 on, data correspond to Migration Statistics estimates that are based on the number of registrations and cancellations in the Municipal Registers by all foreigners, irrespective of their legal status.	Municipal Population Registers (<i>Padron municipal de habitantes</i>), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one year (including nationals of EU countries). <i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners who have the intention to live abroad for at least one year.	Excludes asylum seekers and temporary workers.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners 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. <i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners holding a permanent or an annual residence permit and of holders of an L-permit who stayed in the country for at least one year. The data include administrative corrections, so that, for example, foreigners whose permit expired are considered to have left the country.		Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	<i>Inflows:</i> Residence permits issued for the first time to foreigners intending to stay 12 months or more in the country (long-term residents). <i>Outflows:</i> Departures of long-term residents.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of the Interior.
United Kingdom	<i>Inflows:</i> Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. <i>Outflows:</i> Non-British citizens leaving the United Kingdom.	Statistics whose coefficient of variation exceeds 30% are not shown separately but grouped under "Other countries". Annual variations should be interpreted with caution. Last year data is estimated.	International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	<i>Permanent migrants:</i> Lawful Permanent Residents (LPRs) ("green card" recipients).	Includes persons already present in the United States who changed status. Certain LPRs are admitted conditionally and are required to remove their conditional status after two years; they are counted as LPRs when they first enter. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	Office of Immigration Statistics, Department of Homeland Security; Citizenship and Immigration Services, Department of Homeland Security.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <http://stats.oecd.org/>.

Inflows of asylum seekers

Statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by Eurostat and 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 (<https://www.unhcr.org/data.html>).

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 enumerated 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. Acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities will review the applicants' claims 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 count the entire family (Switzerland).

The figures presented in the summary table (Table A.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.3, which give data by country of origin. This is because the data received by the UNHCR by country of origin combine both 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.3.

Table A.3. New asylum requests into OECD countries and Russia

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Australia	6 210	8 250	11 510	15 790	11 740	8 960	12 360	27 630	36 250	28 840	27 400
Austria	15 820	11 010	14 420	17 410	17 500	28 060	85 620	39 950	22 470	11 610	10 790
Belgium	17 190	21 760	26 000	18 530	12 500	13 870	38 700	14 670	14 060	18 160	23 140
Canada	33 970	22 540	24 990	20 220	10 360	13 450	16 070	23 830	49 430	55 390	58 340
Chile	640	260	310	170	250	280	630	2 300	5 660	5 780	770
Colombia	360	160	80	100	230	630	2 710	10 620
Czech Republic	1 360	980	760	750	500	920	1 250	1 210	1 140	1 360	1 580
Denmark	3 820	4 970	3 810	6 190	7 560	14 820	21 230	6 240	3 140	3 500	2 650
Estonia	40	30	70	80	100	150	230	70	180	90	100
Finland	5 910	4 020	3 090	2 920	3 020	3 520	32 270	5 320	4 350	2 960	2 460
France	42 120	48 070	52 150	55 070	60 230	59 030	74 300	70 750	91 970	111 420	119 920
Germany	27 650	41 330	45 740	64 540	109 580	173 070	441 900	722 360	198 310	161 930	142 510
Greece	15 930	10 270	9 310	9 580	8 220	9 450	11 370	49 850	56 950	64 990	74 920
Hungary	4 670	2 100	1 690	2 160	18 570	41 370	174 430	28 070	3 120	640	470
Iceland	40	50	80	110	170	160	360	1 130	1 070	730	810
Ireland	2 690	1 940	1 420	1 100	950	1 440	3 280	2 240	2 910	3 660	4 740
Israel	4 630	5 580	6 460	5 700	4 760	5 560	5 010	8 150	15 370	16 260	9 440
Italy	17 600	10 050	34 120	17 350	25 720	63 660	83 240	122 120	126 560	53 440	35 010
Japan	1 390	1 200	1 870	2 550	3 260	5 000	7 580	10 900	19 250	10 490	10 380
Korea	320	430	1 010	1 140	1 570	2 900	5 710	7 540	9 940	16 150	15 430
Latvia	340	190	190	360	330	340	360	180	180
Lithuania	210	370	410	530	280	390	290	320	520	390	630
Luxembourg	480	740	2 080	2 000	990	970	2 300	1 940	2 330	2 230	2 200
Mexico	680	1 040	750	810	1 300	1 520	3 420	8 780	14 600	29 620	70 370
Netherlands	14 910	13 330	11 590	9 660	14 400	23 850	43 100	18 410	16 090	20 470	22 540
New Zealand	340	340	310	320	290	290	350	390	560	460	540
Norway	17 230	10 060	9 050	9 790	11 470	12 640	30 520	3 200	3 390	2 550	2 210
Poland	10 590	6 530	5 090	9 170	13 760	6 810	10 250	9 840	3 010	2 410	2 770
Portugal	140	160	280	300	510	440	900	1 460	1 020	1 240	1 740
Russia	5 700	2 180	1 270	1 240	1 960	6 670	1 270	26 410	14 090	7 880	..
Slovak Republic	820	540	490	730	280	230	270	100	160	160	220
Slovenia	180	250	370	310	240	360	260	1 260	1 440	2 800	3 620
Spain	3 010	2 740	3 410	2 580	4 510	5 900	13 370	16 270	30 450	52 750	115 190
Sweden	24 190	31 820	29 650	43 880	54 260	75 090	156 460	22 410	22 230	18 110	23 150
Switzerland	16 010	13 520	19 440	25 950	19 440	22 110	38 120	25 870	16 670	13 540	12 600
Turkey	7 830	9 230	16 020	26 470	44 810	87 820	133 590	77 850	123 600	83 820	56 420
United Kingdom	30 680	22 640	25 900	27 980	29 400	31 260	39 970	38 380	33 380	37 370	44 320
United States	38 080	49 310	70 030	78 410	84 400	121 160	172 740	261 970	331 700	254 300	301 070
OECD	367 100	357 620	434 100	480 540	577 320	836 870	1 661 780	1 633 120	1 264 270	1 092 510	1 211 250

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.3.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/js2xep>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Australia

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Malaysia	231	249	182	173	209	704	2 767	7 258	7 983	9 791	7 065
China	1 192	1 187	1 189	1 155	1 537	1 541	1 456	1 914	6 638	6 586	5 058
India	213	409	769	949	1 163	964	652	1 117	1 299	1 813	2 495
Fiji	262	375	277	236	413	287	250	390	260	638	1 093
Iran	312	458	2 152	1 851	967	262	844	2 971	5 075	744	1 069
Viet Nam	37	78	130	81	128	264	223	772	1 263	812	959
Thailand	8	27	17	24	22	16	98	204	301	1 481	919
Sri Lanka	555	589	370	2 468	806	176	806	2 662	2 184	451	836
Pakistan	260	428	817	1 538	1 104	828	642	1 334	1 404	657	801
Indonesia	192	179	174	126	190	152	208	318	510	618	752
Afghanistan	940	1 265	1 720	3 064	370	123	567	2 563	1 478	453	697
Philippines	43	74	71	57	63	45	62	93	190	318	671
Iraq	298	373	490	778	362	422	1 043	1 378	854	264	353
Lebanon	115	200	158	326	349	246	157	238	378	182	344
Bangladesh	69	97	127	162	382	250	217	433	462	252	308
Other countries	1 479	2 258	2 862	2 798	3 676	2 708	2 368	3 987	5 966	3 779	3 979
Total	6 206	8 246	11 505	15 786	11 741	8 988	12 360	27 632	36 245	28 839	27 399

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Austria

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	279	194	422	922	1 991	7 661	24 314	8 723	7 255	3 300	2 660
Afghanistan	2 237	1 582	3 609	4 003	2 589	4 916	25 143	11 506	3 525	1 765	2 515
Iran	340	387	457	761	595	726	3 381	2 415	950	1 050	655
Somalia	344	190	610	483	433	1 152	2 040	1 500	655	475	595
Iraq	399	336	484	491	468	1 051	13 285	2 737	1 345	650	590
Russia	3 559	2 322	2 314	3 098	2 841	1 484	1 340	1 235	1 035	690	530
India	427	433	476	401	339	266	371	407	310	195	280
Georgia	975	370	261	300	257	348	355	290	380	410	255
Pakistan	183	276	949	1 827	1 037	330	2 892	2 414	1 445	160	250
Turkey	554	369	414	273	302	165	190	310	260	175	240
Bangladesh	95	116	87	212	278	88	709	0	125	95	200
Ukraine	120	82	63	79	64	419	481	338	435	190	190
China	398	217	238	241	237	228	290	245	195	170	170
Nigeria	837	573	414	400	691	544	1 245	1 659	1 135	395	160
Algeria	248	304	447	573	949	442	821	867	220	80	120
Other countries	4 826	3 261	3 171	3 349	4 432	8 240	8 763	5 306	3 200	1 810	1 380
Total	15 821	11 012	14 416	17 413	17 503	28 060	85 620	39 952	22 470	11 610	10 790

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Belgium

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	347	374	494	798	944	2 524	10 185	2 612	2 625	2 770	2 730
Palestinian Authority	9	39	55	26	27	0	51	139	815	2 420	2 320
Afghanistan	1 659	1 124	2 774	2 349	892	744	7 562	2 227	995	1 045	2 245
El Salvador	0	0	29	18	22	6	30	76	115	220	1 365
Eritrea	69	106	62	65	57	745	333	331	665	725	1 155
Turkey	259	275	430	340	204	144	182	652	465	785	1 000
Iraq	1 386	1 637	2 005	636	295	965	9 180	759	600	895	845
Guinea	1 052	1 455	2 046	1 370	1 023	657	619	721	750	1 000	830
Somalia	216	262	454	293	156	260	1 994	727	295	380	765
Iran	732	261	366	347	210	170	443	253	200	485	710
Burundi	120	149	149	133	133	51	251	271	235	400	620
Albania	256	208	1 152	607	472	487	599	649	670	505	540
Venezuela	0	4	5	0	2	0	11	45	190	405	525
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	670	813	1 080	1 392	1 166	632	620	503	550	405	520
Georgia	327	336	347	386	229	280	199	184	415	640	500
Other countries	10 084	14 712	14 555	9 765	6 668	6 211	6 441	4 521	4 470	5 080	6 470
Total	17 186	21 755	26 003	18 525	12 500	13 876	38 700	14 670	14 055	18 160	23 140

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Canada

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
India	502	532	632	765	228	294	374	557	1 484	4 524	5 150
Mexico	9 296	1 299	763	324	84	73	110	259	1 511	3 156	5 061
Nigeria	760	846	696	700	468	578	793	1 493	5 840	9 599	3 976
Iran	310	327	318	264	201	161	149	286	684	2 483	3 663
Colombia	2 299	1 384	904	724	597	579	701	848	1 413	2 571	3 040
Pakistan	437	526	882	808	630	776	897	1 137	1 746	2 031	2 059
Turkey	247	299	332	369	178	174	263	1 096	2 194	1 820	1 548
China	1 592	1 650	1 922	1 741	762	1 189	1 500	1 180	1 078	1 865	1 394
Haiti	1 597	1 062	523	419	329	364	295	616	7 921	1 403	1 374
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	298	288	347	357	308	346	281	411	621	1 167	1 312
Venezuela	180	149	111	106	27	161	257	565	1 245	1 254	1 199
United States	468	344	308	386	127	166	184	375	2 553	1 311	1 076
Egypt	43	108	155	168	255	252	173	325	816	1 200	879
Sudan	25	45	64	98	52	83	86	404	710	609	866
Bangladesh	118	122	120	109	156	321	222	282	489	813	731
Other countries	15 798	13 562	16 908	12 885	5 954	8 144	9 785	13 999	19 120	19 579	25 010
Total	33 970	22 543	24 985	20 223	10 356	13 661	16 070	23 833	49 425	55 385	58 338

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Chile

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Cuba	2	14	9	56	1 603	2 764	272
Colombia	601	220	267	1 804	2 516	1 157	252
Venezuela	3	0	2	245	1 345	1 666	226
Dominican Republic	0	0	0	64	..	59	10
Nicaragua	1	..	0	5
Syria	12	..	19	5
Other countries	38	26	27	117	192	119	0
Total	644	260	305	168	249	282	630	2 299	5 656	5 784	770

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Czech Republic

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Armenia	23	19	11	19	29	0	11	51	115	100	330
Ukraine	220	141	152	101	68	416	574	356	295	280	215
Georgia	33	9	17	6	12	0	5	46	110	140	190
Viet Nam	65	49	46	35	37	42	37	53	60	75	120
Kazakhstan	192	57	18	18	17	0	5	19	35	30	95
Russia	66	62	47	29	40	5	12	53	40	70	80
Uzbekistan	19	16	26	9	6	0	0	17	10	90	65
Moldova	22	13	8	6	10	7	0	5	15	10	40
Azerbaijan	1	5	1	8	2	0	0	49	120	35	35
Iran	5	8	7	2	6	0	0	1	..	20	35
Syria	54	17	23	57	69	102	121	73	70	30	35
Venezuela	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	5	35
Cuba	12	18	20	14	36	15	107	80	55	145	25
Afghanistan	4	10	26	10	8	6	6	36	15	20	20
China	18	9	7	3	5	0	29	64	5	5	20
Other countries	621	546	347	436	158	321	343	311	195	305	235
Total	1 355	979	756	753	503	914	1 250	1 214	1 140	1 360	1 575

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Denmark

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	380	821	428	907	1 702	7 185	8 604	1 251	765	600	490
Eritrea	37	26	20	57	98	2 293	1 738	267	295	675	480
Somalia	177	110	107	914	964	688	259	262	85	105	160
Morocco	31	29	45	108	162	226	183	347	300	175	155
Iran	334	597	461	548	374	285	2 771	299	145	195	135
Iraq	305	237	115	133	115	148	1 531	449	130	120	115
Afghanistan	1 049	1 476	903	576	425	321	2 288	1 122	170	115	90
Georgia	17	15	19	75	69	104	94	73	70	405	65
Russia	335	340	304	521	983	526	175	81	45	80	60
Albania	12	6	4	39	66	47	65	88	70	80	55
Algeria	46	46	103	134	111	120	92	164	80	70	40
India	33	48	32	39	30	10	21	27	25	20	40
Pakistan	49	26	57	67	75	59	84	75	20	25	40
Ukraine	9	6	19	15	38	118	92	96	40	45	35
Belarus	8	6	23	148	52	55	68	44	50	30	30
Other countries	997	1 176	1 171	1 905	2 293	2 589	3 165	1 590	850	755	655
Total	3 819	4 965	3 811	6 186	7 557	14 774	21 230	6 235	3 140	3 495	2 645

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Estonia

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Russia	5	7	4	8	15	0	6	8	15	10	30
Turkey	0	1	1	3	1	0	0	5	..	0	20
Afghanistan	9	7	8	3	1	0	11	0	5	0	5
Georgia	6	0	6	35	9	0	5	3	10	0	5
Iran	0	3	0	0	10	5	5	5
Iraq	2	0	2	0	0	0	11	0	5	0	5
Nigeria	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	1	..	0	5
Syria	5	0	0	4	17	0	8	0	80	5	5
Ukraine	0	0	2	0	0	37	84	9	10	15	5
Other countries	8	12	44	24	50	106	105	33	50	55	15
Total	36	30	67	77	97	143	230	69	180	90	100

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Finland

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Turkey	140	117	74	56	55	13	40	98	110	285	360
Russia	599	436	294	199	219	167	160	174	395	455	285
Iraq	1 183	575	588	784	764	807	20 427	1 083	1 000	565	270
Somalia	1 169	571	365	173	196	407	1 974	426	100	155	140
Afghanistan	445	265	292	188	172	198	5 198	697	305	135	125
Nigeria	130	84	105	93	202	157	153	162	95	90	105
Iran	159	142	125	121	147	84	601	141	90	230	95
Syria	36	41	109	180	148	146	876	600	740	105	95
Yemen	3	3	1	0	4	0	51	64	60	50	70
Cameroon	24	21	21	22	37	29	28	86	45	55	60
Georgia	22	61	70	29	14	16	0	19	120	70	60
China	6	20	26	17	5	5	5	50	25	15	40
Cuba	2	2	6	9	9	0	0	4	..	15	35
Angola	43	41	36	34	20	0	6	10	20	40	30
Honduras	0	4	1	1	0	0	0	4	5	5	30
Other countries	1 949	1 635	973	1 016	1 031	1 488	2 751	1 701	1 240	685	655
Total	5 910	4 018	3 086	2 922	3 023	3 517	32 270	5 319	4 350	2 955	2 455

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – France

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Afghanistan	688	772	653	522	526	605	2 453	5 466	6 600	10 255	9 995
Albania	536	479	477	2 647	5 016	2 843	3 228	5 769	11 425	8 300	8 010
Georgia	471	1 355	1 645	2 552	2 456	1 369	1 084	833	1 895	6 755	7 735
Guinea	1 671	2 034	2 033	1 884	2 445	2 166	2 131	2 387	4 130	6 685	6 600
Bangladesh	1 441	3 145	3 572	1 093	3 069	2 646	3 358	2 198	2 620	3 920	5 810
Côte d'Ivoire	510	536	1 671	986	968	949	1 278	1 504	3 620	5 295	5 485
Haiti	1 458	2 008	2 016	1 602	1 473	1 854	3 198	4 936	5 600	2 305	4 715
Nigeria	689	744	802	967	1 306	1 375	1 586	1 612	2 030	2 985	4 465
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	2 800	3 426	3 845	5 321	5 263	5 170	3 984	3 063	3 805	3 965	4 240
Turkey	2 047	1 415	1 737	2 054	1 682	1 391	1 030	907	1 290	2 050	3 725
Mali	705	712	739	938	1 663	1 473	1 546	1 425	1 720	3 070	3 665
China	1 602	1 937	2 187	2 226	2 293	2 675	2 961	1 853	2 070	2 750	3 385
Pakistan	634	893	1 433	1 941	1 735	2 130	1 810	1 691	1 500	2 100	3 000
Somalia	279	420	762	511	479	787	1 350	829	905	2 270	2 760
Algeria	1 118	1 171	1 132	1 162	1 479	1 601	2 323	2 290	2 995	3 100	2 645
Other countries	25 469	27 027	27 443	28 662	28 381	30 007	40 980	33 985	39 760	45 610	43 680
Total	42 118	48 074	52 147	55 068	60 234	59 041	74 300	70 748	91 965	111 415	119 915

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Germany

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	819	1 490	2 634	6 201	11 851	39 332	158 657	266 248	48 970	44 165	39 270
Iraq	6 538	5 555	5 831	5 352	3 958	5 345	29 784	96 115	21 930	16 330	13 740
Turkey	1 429	1 340	1 578	1 457	1 521	1 565	1 500	5 383	8 025	10 160	10 785
Afghanistan	3 375	5 905	7 767	7 498	7 735	9 115	31 382	127 011	16 425	9 945	9 520
Nigeria	791	716	759	892	1 923	3 924	5 207	12 709	7 810	10 170	9 070
Iran	1 170	2 475	3 352	4 348	4 424	3 194	5 394	26 426	8 610	10 855	8 405
Somalia	346	2 235	984	1 243	3 786	5 528	5 126	9 851	6 835	5 075	3 570
Eritrea	346	642	632	650	3 616	13 198	10 876	18 854	10 225	5 570	3 520
Georgia	560	664	471	1 298	2 336	2 873	2 782	3 448	3 080	3 765	3 330
Russia	936	1 199	1 689	3 202	14 887	4 411	5 257	10 985	4 885	3 940	3 145
Guinea	237	229	281	428	1 260	1 148	662	3 458	3 955	2 870	2 420
Pakistan	481	840	2 539	3 412	4 101	3 968	8 199	14 484	3 670	2 210	2 175
Moldova	36	41	21	30	68	255	1 561	3 346	890	1 780	1 770
Albania	49	39	78	232	1 247	7 865	53 805	14 853	3 775	1 875	1 695
Azerbaijan	652	469	646	547	905	1 192	1 335	4 573	3 030	1 785	1 280
Other countries	9 884	17 493	16 479	27 749	45 962	70 159	120 373	104 620	46 195	31 435	28 815
Total	27 649	41 332	45 741	64 539	109 580	173 072	441 900	722 364	198 310	161 930	142 510

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Greece

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Afghanistan	1 510	524	637	584	1 223	1 711	1 544	4 293	7 480	11 820	23 665
Syria	965	167	352	275	485	791	3 319	26 614	16 305	13 145	10 750
Pakistan	3 716	2 748	2 309	2 339	1 358	1 623	1 503	4 417	8 345	7 185	6 420
Iraq	886	342	257	315	145	175	579	4 773	7 870	9 640	5 590
Turkey	71	71	34	32	30	26	20	182	1 820	4 820	3 795
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	11	16	12	20	153	75	112	224	1 085	1 450	3 570
Albania	517	693	276	384	579	570	913	1 295	2 345	3 125	2 795
Bangladesh	1 809	987	615	1 007	727	635	536	1 053	1 255	1 435	2 375
Iran	303	125	247	211	188	358	187	1 084	1 295	1 730	2 325
Somalia	140	141	68	60	122	109	90	123	230	715	2 270
Palestinian Authority	0	150	27	28	41	61	48	848	1 305	1 515	2 140
Egypt	145	104	306	249	308	280	233	259	810	915	1 695
Georgia	2 170	1 162	1 121	893	532	350	297	583	985	1 340	1 460
Cameroon	44	20	39	24	84	281	155	211	455	1 035	855
Algeria	44	79	79	105	144	187	93	869	755	835	470
Other countries	3 597	2 944	2 932	3 051	2 105	2 200	1 741	3 019	4 610	4 280	4 740
Total	15 928	10 273	9 311	9 577	8 224	9 432	11 370	49 847	56 950	64 985	74 915

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Hungary

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Afghanistan	1 194	702	649	880	2 279	8 539	45 560	10 774	1 365	270	185
Iraq	57	48	54	28	56	468	9 173	3 357	795	215	155
Pakistan	41	41	121	327	3 052	296	15 011	3 652	100	20	25
Iran	87	62	33	45	59	247	1 780	1 248	95	30	20
Syria	19	23	91	145	960	6 749	64 081	4 735	565	50	20
Burundi	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	..	0	5
Ghana	5	0	2	1	264	157	318	10	..	0	5
Nigeria	66	37	22	27	441	169	937	47	5	0	5
Palestinian Authority	23	225	36	17	86	829	1 010	195	15	5	5
Tajikistan	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	62	..	0	5
Tunisia	5	10	30	21	231	15	65	63	..	0	5
Turkey	114	59	25	30	84	99	275	411	20	0	5
Other countries	3 061	897	636	11 053	23 543	36 210	3 516	160	45	30	3 061
Total	4 672	2 104	1 693	2 157	18 565	41 111	174 430	28 070	3 120	635	470

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Iceland

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Venezuela	0	0	0	0	0	..	15	180
Iraq	2	5	5	3	6	5	19	73	110	110	135
Nigeria	2	2	7	17	2	0	0	21	10	35	50
Afghanistan	2	7	3	9	4	0	14	23	15	45	45
Albania	3	0	2	11	22	10	103	231	255	90	45
Iran	7	6	3	12	1	0	0	20	25	30	35
Somalia	2	5	2	1	1	0	0	21	30	50	35
Moldova	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	..	30	30
Georgia	0	1	4	8	3	5	0	42	290	30	20
Palestinian Authority	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	15	15	25	20
Syria	3	2	1	3	5	5	13	37	30	40	20
Ghana	0	0	1	2	1	0	10	11	5	5	15
Russia	0	0	7	3	5	10	0	11	5	10	15
Colombia	0	0	2	1	0	5	0	2	..	5	10
Other countries	41	122	130	201	624	..	210	150
Total	35	51	76	113	172	170	360	1 132	1 065	730	805

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Ireland

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Albania	47	13	35	46	48	91	214	221	280	460	970
Georgia	88	53	18	20	15	0	9	75	300	450	635
Zimbabwe	91	48	69	50	70	74	88	192	260	280	445
Nigeria	569	387	205	181	129	139	186	176	185	250	385
South Africa	54	53	47	35	28	33	39	94	105	200	315
Pakistan	257	200	197	123	91	291	1 353	233	195	240	205
Somalia	84	38	24	8	10	5	0	29	20	55	135
Brazil	8	3	8	12	5	0	0	32	35	110	115
Afghanistan	68	69	74	50	32	7	119	121	75	95	105
Algeria	71	32	53	39	51	73	77	63	80	95	95
Venezuela	0	0	1	0	0	25	8	17	20	45	95
Syria	3	2	11	16	37	5	68	244	545	330	85
China	194	228	156	36	22	12	5	22	30	45	80
Malawi	14	15	26	24	55	36	93	50	50	80	80
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	102	71	76	62	72	61	44	66	95	100	75
Other countries	1 039	727	419	402	281	596	977	602	635	820	920
Total	2 689	1 939	1 419	1 104	946	1 448	3 280	2 237	2 910	3 655	4 740

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Italy

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Pakistan	1 362	929	2 058	2 601	3 175	7 095	10 287	13 516	9 470	7 445	7 305
El Salvador	23	44	9	35	44	101	209	1 060	1 365	2 270	2 520
Peru	20	4	2	19	13	5	16	41	120	750	2 445
Ukraine	18	21	17	37	34	2 071	4 681	2 567	2 720	3 015	1 775
Albania	60	35	39	66	114	175	420	364	465	1 290	1 545
Venezuela	0	0	4	10	13	0	19	142	520	1 260	1 545
Morocco	160	81	265	282	307	312	576	1 554	1 860	1 875	1 510
Bangladesh	1 338	222	1 595	566	460	4 524	6 017	6 611	12 125	4 165	1 340
Nigeria	3 991	1 385	6 208	1 613	3 170	9 689	17 779	26 698	24 950	5 510	1 255
India	95	43	29	65	28	71	254	538	505	915	1 035
Georgia	92	80	29	65	107	79	135	194	540	1 155	970
Iraq	417	380	309	403	552	781	505	1 530	1 650	1 170	940
Colombia	40	66	30	44	52	60	26	89	210	580	875
Senegal	156	162	775	939	988	4 661	6 371	7 584	8 295	2 490	865
Egypt	42	41	249	445	905	678	560	783	810	740	805
Other countries	9 789	6 559	22 499	10 162	15 758	33 355	35 385	58 853	60 955	18 810	8 275
Total	17 603	10 052	34 117	17 352	25 720	63 657	83 240	122 124	126 560	53 440	35 005

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Japan

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Sri Lanka	234	171	224	255	346	485	468	939	2 226	1 551	1 530
Turkey	94	126	234	422	655	845	925	1 143	1 198	563	1 331
Cambodia	0	0	0	61	318	772	961	1 321
Nepal	29	109	251	320	544	1 293	1 768	1 451	1 451	1 713	1 256
Pakistan	92	83	169	298	241	212	296	289	469	720	971
Myanmar	568	342	491	368	380	434	808	651	962	656	788
India	59	91	51	125	163	225	228	470	603	549	730
Bangladesh	51	33	98	169	190	284	244	241	438	542	662
Cameroon	11	20	48	58	99	56	51	66	98	203	234
Senegal	0	2	4	2	7	7	0	45	223
Uganda	46	21	30	24	31	11	20	39	193
China	18	17	20	32	35	43	159	156	315	308	134
Nigeria	17	33	51	112	68	79	148	108	120
Philippines	10	9	15	18	57	73	295	1 412	4 897	860	108
Tunisia	0	1	5	15	21	5	11	63	86
Other countries	159	145	176	327	423	948	2 098	3 510	5 821	1 867	688
Total	1 388	1 203	1 867	2 545	3 260	5 000	7 580	10 901	19 250	10 493	10 375

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Korea

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Russia	5	0	4	1	2	0	16	324	692	1 916	2 829
Kazakhstan	0	2	0	0	0	0	39	539	1 223	2 496	2 236
China	19	7	8	3	46	359	401	1 062	1 413	1 199	2 000
Malaysia	0	0	0	0	6	448	1 236	1 438
India	2	6	15	7	2	34	292	218	691	1 120	959
Pakistan	95	129	434	244	275	396	1 143	809	667	1 120	790
Bangladesh	41	41	38	32	45	52	388	335	383	608	491
Viet Nam	0	0	0	0	1	0	202	275	..	106	381
Morocco	2	1	0	1	4	37	86	127	152	305	365
Turkey	0	3	0	0	11	..	158	320
Nepal	2	5	14	43	90	79	230	217	149	175	291
Thailand	0	0	1	0	0	0	96	139	296	341	284
Nigeria	16	19	39	102	206	203	265	324	486	390	270
Sri Lanka	26	4	100	308	26	7	56	77	119	178	260
Uzbekistan	2	6	2	3	1	0	71	145	..	146	235
Other countries	114	205	356	399	873	1 729	2 425	2 934	3 223	4 653	2 284
Total	324	425	1 011	1 143	1 574	2 896	5 710	7 542	9 942	16 147	15 433

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Latvia

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Azerbaijan	2	0	0	5	4	5	15	35
Russia	8	5	0	0	27	25	50	25
India	0	0	0	0	20	5	5	15
Georgia	106	144	163	25	4	10	10	10
Nigeria	0	1	0	0	0	..	0	10
Ukraine	0	0	66	39	6	5	5	10
Afghanistan	4	0	5	33	35	15	5	5
Armenia	1	0	5	0	8	5	0	5
Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	3	5	5	5
Belarus	0	2	0	0	4	5	0	5
China	0	0	0	0	1	..	0	5
Cuba	0	0	0	0	0	..	5	5
Egypt	5	5	0	0	1	..	10	5
Iran	6	1	0	0	1	..	0	5
Iraq	0	2	15	85	6	5	20	5
Other countries	57	25	110	143	224	270	45	30
Total	335	189	185	364	330	344	355	175	180

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Lithuania

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Russia	46	41	58	59	80	50	275
Tajikistan	2	5	4	18	50	120	205
Belarus	11	9	12	12	35	15	15
Syria	6	0	1	82	170	15	15
Turkey	1	0	2	6	20	20	15
Ukraine	1	1	0	28	35	15	15
Afghanistan	8	26	45	32	15	20	10
Azerbaijan	0	4	0	7	5	25	10
Iraq	10	2	1	18	..	35	10
Armenia	3	22	28	13	25	10	5
Egypt	0	0	0	0	..	0	5
India	7	0	0	0	..	0	5
Iran	1	2	0	0	..	15	5
Kazakhstan	2	0	2	3	..	0	5
Nigeria	1	0	1	2	..	10	5
Other countries	112	261	252	37	85	35	25
Total	211	373	406	526	275	406	290	317	520	385	625

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Luxembourg

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Eritrea	11	11	14	7	5	15	23	105	230	410	565
Syria	1	19	10	14	24	78	635	289	405	280	375
Afghanistan	13	15	22	11	17	0	211	56	40	180	170
Iraq	37	95	41	31	27	0	527	161	140	185	130
Algeria	11	43	30	33	38	26	6	75	160	75	75
Venezuela	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	..	10	65
Turkey	4	18	21	10	3	0	8	15	10	45	60
Albania	26	18	24	302	70	80	122	212	130	40	55
Iran	24	23	22	30	22	0	55	50	20	50	55
Morocco	3	4	4	8	25	0	6	74	205	90	45
Somalia	8	29	12	13	7	0	0	21	20	30	45
Guinea	6	3	3	10	5	0	0	18	35	50	40
Sudan	2	5	1	2	4	0	0	14	30	65	40
Georgia	2	7	16	6	16	0	12	63	135	135	35
Tunisia	2	3	42	46	52	18	0	38	100	90	30
Other countries	327	450	1 814	1 480	674	756	695	746	665	490	415
Total	477	744	2 076	2 003	989	973	2 300	1 938	2 325	2 225	2 200

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Mexico

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Honduras	184	135	168	4 119	4 272	13 631	30 093
El Salvador	119	159	181	3 488	3 708	6 186	8 999
Cuba	42	42	48	43	796	212	8 683
Venezuela	0	6	2	361	4 042	6 344	7 665
Haiti	65	39	38	47	436	..	5 536
Guatemala	39	59	69	437	676	1 383	3 778
Nicaragua	29	15	6	70	62	1 246	2 232
Colombia	62	82	43	44	96	204	558
Brazil	1	5	1	3	552
Cameroon	2	2	4	23	105	..	513
Chile	0	1	1	0	418
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	5	6	9	5	221
Angola	0	..	0	0	184
Ghana	3	9	14	16	86
Ecuador	1	4	6	20	78
Other countries	128	475	163	105	403	417	770
Total	680	1 039	753	811	1 296	1 524	3 420	8 781	14 596	29 623	70 366

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Netherlands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	101	125	168	454	2 673	8 748	18 675	2 226	2 965	2 960	3 675
Nigeria	151	168	129	106	136	223	216	201	245	560	2 105
Iran	502	785	929	834	728	505	1 890	890	720	1 870	1 535
Turkey	69	92	96	89	59	35	33	298	480	1 300	1 250
Algeria	36	21	13	28	29	0	29	992	890	1 270	1 210
Moldova	4	9	2	10	2	0	5	15	340	830	1 205
Morocco	23	26	22	24	69	42	76	1 274	980	1 065	1 060
Yemen	10	11	12	26	39	18	33	45	170	530	645
Iraq	1 991	1 383	1 435	1 391	1 094	616	3 009	952	845	745	620
Gambia	14	16	24	25	27	5	37	131	215	350	540
Eritrea	475	392	458	424	978	3 833	7 344	1 523	1 590	1 410	500
Afghanistan	1 281	1 364	1 885	1 022	673	452	2 550	1 045	320	325	435
Russia	151	207	451	743	263	163	126	123	315	295	400
Pakistan	42	60	94	150	150	181	157	162	180	310	395
Azerbaijan	120	81	115	71	71	35	17	67	115	240	375
Other countries	9 935	8 593	5 757	4 267	7 408	8 994	8 903	8 470	5 720	6 405	6 590
Total	14 905	13 333	11 590	9 664	14 399	23 850	43 100	18 414	16 090	20 465	22 540

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – New Zealand

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
China	20	22	20	33	21	6	7	64	65	103	91
India	24	1	1	9	2	0	0	31	31	..	66
Sri Lanka	30	28	19	25	41	6	7	11	19	..	50
Malaysia	6	2	1	4	1	0	0	12	36
Afghanistan	2	5	11	9	7	0	0	6	5	..	32
Iran	24	43	29	39	22	0	0	15	32
Bangladesh	7	6	8	8	6	0	0	11	14	..	21
Colombia	3	2	4	1	1	0	0	8	14
South Africa	9	20	14	0	9	0	11	15	14
Mongolia	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	13
Turkey	2	4	4	9	12	0	0	20	22	..	13
Fiji	45	66	29	21	37	10	22	12	12
Pakistan	18	8	22	24	18	10	11	14	12
Philippines	0	1	1	2	2	0	0	3	7	..	11
Russia	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	5	13	..	11
Other countries	144	130	140	139	112	256	292	160	384	352	110
Total	336	340	305	324	291	288	350	387	560	455	538

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Norway

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	278	119	198	312	868	1 978	10 520	510	1 000	415	535
Turkey	82	74	42	38	62	34	78	89	160	770	360
Eritrea	2 667	1 711	1 256	1 600	3 766	2 805	2 785	353	840	220	180
Afghanistan	3 871	979	979	987	720	549	6 916	373	135	90	95
Russia	867	628	365	294	339	172	105	76	45	50	80
Iran	574	429	355	435	274	84	1 308	132	85	110	70
Albania	29	24	43	167	179	202	431	130	85	65	60
Iraq	1 214	460	357	229	179	165	2 939	214	140	95	50
Ethiopia	706	505	293	221	356	365	662	157	85	40	40
Colombia	19	5	5	0	6	0	0	8	15	10	35
Somalia	1 901	1 397	2 216	2 803	2 530	756	501	154	45	45	30
Yemen	113	73	47	34	37	14	54	12	10	10	30
Georgia	47	85	49	105	66	17	19	9	35	30	25
Sudan	251	181	209	486	622	792	362	42	40	40	25
Ukraine	27	9	16	29	24	126	83	24	30	35	25
Other countries	4 580	3 385	2 623	2 045	1 439	4 581	3 757	919	635	525	565
Total	17 226	10 064	9 053	9 785	11 467	12 640	30 520	3 202	3 385	2 550	2 205

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Poland

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Russia	5 726	4 795	3 034	4 940	11 933	2 079	6 985	7 488	2 120	1 600	1 770
Ukraine	36	45	43	58	32	2 147	1 573	589	300	225	215
Turkey	11	19	11	8	12	0	10	65	45	55	115
Tajikistan	2	0	0	9	5	107	526	835	85	35	80
Afghanistan	14	25	35	88	43	14	5	19	25	40	55
Georgia	4 213	1 082	1 427	2 960	1 057	561	232	56	20	20	50
Iran	5	7	10	15	9	0	0	15	10	30	35
Armenia	147	107	168	380	150	99	160	321	65	35	30
Belarus	37	46	64	61	23	0	0	35	30	25	30
Cuba	8	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	5	0	30
Iraq	21	27	25	25	24	19	33	41	40	65	30
Lebanon	7	1	2	10	6	0	0	3	..	0	25
Syria	7	8	11	107	255	98	278	42	40	25	25
Viet Nam	67	47	26	50	32	33	41	72	20	35	25
India	16	17	1	6	5	0	0	5	10	15	20
Other countries	270	306	227	450	172	1 653	407	252	190	200	230
Total	10 587	6 534	5 086	9 167	13 758	6 810	10 250	9 840	3 005	2 405	2 765

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Portugal

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Angola	4	12	5	4	2	5	7	30	120	225	305
Gambia	2	2	2	1	6	0	0	22	20	20	175
Guinea-Bissau	5	10	11	19	17	0	0	5	10	50	155
Guinea	18	43	46	64	81	0	25	52	45	70	120
Venezuela	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	35	40	95
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	5	9	13	18	13	0	5	42	160	130	85
Ukraine	5	0	6	2	2	154	366	141	125	135	80
Senegal	1	2	5	7	36	0	0	26	25	20	70
Nigeria	9	7	22	27	37	0	0	4	10	20	60
Cameroon	3	1	5	4	2	0	0	10	30	25	45
Sierra Leone	3	7	7	4	5	0	0	24	35	15	45
Morocco	0	0	5	4	15	6	6	4	10	30	35
Iran	4	6	11	5	4	0	0	11	20	15	30
Togo	1	0	0	1	5	0	0	3	5	10	30
Mali	0	0	0	2	26	7	73	24	15	10	25
Other countries	79	61	137	137	256	270	418	1 049	350	425	380
Total	139	160	275	299	507	442	900	1 463	1 015	1 240	1 735

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Russia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Ukraine	19	10	17	11	11	13	23 534	11 914	5 822
Syria	18	6	3	31	197	1 073	1 265	191	306
Afghanistan	2 047	1 577	884	540	493	382	788	147	149
Other countries	3 334	4 108	1 277	683	542	494	822	1 834	1 598
Total	5 418	5 701	2 181	1 265	1 243	1 962	6 980	1 267	26 409	14 086	7 875

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Slovak Republic

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Afghanistan	51	76	75	63	84	67	23	8	25	30	85
Iran	10	12	13	0	3	0	0	4	5	15	45
Armenia	21	12	10	26	21	0	0	0	..	0	15
Bangladesh	15	6	8	3	1	5	0	1	5	0	15
Algeria	1	9	8	13	1	0	0	6	5	0	5
India	57	44	24	1	0	0	0	5	..	0	5
Morocco	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	1	5	0	5
Myanmar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	5
Pakistan	168	34	15	5	8	0	0	13	10	10	5
Russia	72	66	38	6	6	0	0	1	5	5	5
Sudan	0	0	0	1	8	0	0	0	..	0	5
Syria	10	4	10	4	13	27	0	10	10	10	5
Turkey	5	9	12	11	3	0	0	0	5	5	5
Ukraine	13	20	8	5	5	0	0	15	5	0	5
Other countries	398	248	270	588	128	129	247	36	75	80	5
Total	822	541	491	732	281	228	270	100	155	155	215

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Slovenia

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Algeria	2	6	11	23	14	0	0	41	190	470	1 010
Morocco	1	4	9	7	9	0	0	38	40	170	720
Pakistan	6	0	29	6	19	20	17	104	140	775	520
Afghanistan	11	31	69	50	14	58	31	409	575	455	415
Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	5	60	175
Tunisia	0	3	25	8	3	0	0	11	15	40	130
Iran	9	11	11	2	6	6	5	73	50	160	120
Iraq	3	10	8	1	0	0	32	108	20	95	85
Turkey	12	32	51	26	11	5	0	60	100	65	65
Syria	0	4	11	32	56	77	8	273	90	155	60
Libya	0	0	6	3	1	0	0	17	30	25	55
Palestinian Authority	1	10	7	5	4	0	0	1	10	20	45
Egypt	0	0	6	1	1	5	0	1	10	15	40
Cuba	0	1	0	7	7	0	0	4	10	0	30
India	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	7	5	35	25
Other countries	136	134	127	134	95	190	167	114	150	260	120
Total	183	246	373	305	243	361	260	1 263	1 440	2 800	3 615

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Spain

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Venezuela	29	19	52	28	35	122	515	4 099	10 325	19 070	40 305
Colombia	255	123	104	60	62	91	87	641	2 410	8 465	28 880
Honduras	15	42	45	41	38	39	111	397	960	2 400	6 730
Nicaragua	2	6	11	6	13	0	0	20	30	1 360	5 840
El Salvador	12	35	21	36	23	48	90	439	1 100	2 240	4 715
Peru	4	4	1	5	7	0	0	32	200	525	3 965
Morocco	73	114	37	47	46	91	397	343	510	1 280	2 470
Syria	30	19	97	255	725	1 666	5 627	3 052	4 150	2 725	2 315
Ukraine	8	4	12	21	14	937	2 570	2 422	2 185	1 880	2 240
Georgia	36	48	12	9	9	5	16	76	195	910	1 625
Cuba	84	406	440	64	58	0	21	64	125	355	1 295
Algeria	181	176	122	202	351	302	650	752	1 140	1 215	1 275
Mali	29	14	41	101	1 478	619	176	229	265	650	1 190
Tunisia	3	2	5	4	3	0	0	25	20	145	1 115
Brazil	8	5	9	4	3	0	0	24	55	145	985
Other countries	2 238	1 727	2 405	1 696	1 648	2 027	3 110	3 659	6 775	9 380	10 245
Total	3 007	2 744	3 414	2 579	4 513	5 947	13 370	16 274	30 445	52 745	115 190

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Sweden

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Syria	587	421	640	7 814	16 317	30 313	50 909	4 731	5 250	2 615	5 015
Eritrea	1 000	1 443	1 647	2 356	4 844	11 057	6 513	744	1 540	750	1 155
Iran	1 144	1 182	1 120	1 529	1 172	799	4 281	935	905	1 095	985
Uzbekistan	298	272	377	366	349	279	282	221	280	665	965
Iraq	2 297	1 977	1 633	1 322	1 476	1 743	20 259	2 046	1 475	1 065	940
Georgia	359	291	280	748	625	735	782	638	1 005	1 040	905
Ukraine	139	118	194	133	173	1 278	1 327	543	460	500	835
Afghanistan	1 694	2 393	4 122	4 755	3 011	2 882	41 281	2 144	1 245	615	745
Somalia	5 874	5 553	3 981	5 644	3 901	3 783	4 695	1 279	550	430	730
Turkey	272	240	139	149	187	152	222	690	825	440	635
Palestinian Authority	0	0	0	0	0	22	407	165	270	340	595
Albania	114	61	263	1 490	1 156	1 636	2 559	729	685	570	490
Colombia	13	25	19	20	17	10	0	119	190	325	490
Nicaragua	49	13	12	22	16	12	7	29	70	275	360
Pakistan	137	111	183	283	269	358	513	270	230	345	345
Other countries	10 217	17 723	15 038	17 245	20 746	20 037	22 423	7 128	7 245	7 040	7 960
Total	24 194	31 823	29 648	43 876	54 259	75 096	156 460	22 411	22 225	18 110	23 150

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Switzerland

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Eritrea	1 724	1 708	3 225	4 295	2 490	6 820	9 859	5 040	3 155	2 495	2 500
Afghanistan	751	632	1 006	1 349	863	727	7 800	3 183	1 180	1 125	1 350
Turkey	559	462	508	515	373	264	387	475	770	925	1 225
Syria	400	387	688	1 146	1 852	3 768	4 649	2 040	1 810	1 195	945
Algeria	300	313	464	681	714	337	284	521	515	710	780
Georgia	638	531	281	614	565	402	365	396	615	805	530
Iran	259	276	326	315	178	117	570	529	280	455	490
Iraq	935	501	378	382	351	279	2 286	1 251	545	520	490
Sri Lanka	1 415	892	433	443	455	906	1 777	1 317	730	500	475
Somalia	753	302	558	762	552	769	1 214	1 530	795	510	360
Nigeria	1 786	1 597	1 303	2 353	1 574	848	906	1 065	665	485	325
Morocco	36	113	429	860	974	666	372	793	420	440	320
China	365	333	688	801	671	376	578	333	255	260	225
Ethiopia	183	142	184	293	221	312	565	1 008	305	190	145
Albania	22	13	48	73	93	114	416	142	125	85	130
Other countries	5 879	5 319	8 920	11 066	7 514	5 408	6 092	6 249	4 505	2 835	2 310
Total	16 005	13 521	19 439	25 948	19 440	22 113	38 120	25 872	16 670	13 535	12 600

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Turkey

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Afghanistan	1 009	1 248	2 486	14 146	8 726	15 652	63 292	34 669	66 459	53 029	35 042
Iraq	3 763	3 656	7 912	6 942	25 280	50 510	56 332	28 479	43 711	19 959	15 532
Iran	1 981	2 881	3 411	3 589	5 897	8 202	11 023	11 856	8 828	6 387	3 558
Other countries	1 081	1 441	2 212	1 793	4 904	13 456	2 943	2 847	4 599	4 443	2 285
Total	7 834	9 226	16 021	26 470	44 807	87 820	133 590	77 851	123 597	83 818	56 417

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – United Kingdom

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Iran	2 145	2 225	3 047	3 155	2 967	2 499	3 716	4 780	3 050	3 955	5 455
Albania	235	220	427	987	1 641	1 972	1 998	1 756	1 690	2 370	3 940
Iraq	995	495	367	411	450	911	2 648	3 644	3 260	3 595	3 895
Pakistan	2 100	2 150	3 947	4 783	4 576	3 976	3 365	3 701	3 125	2 575	2 565
Afghanistan	3 540	1 845	1 528	1 234	1 456	1 753	2 852	3 099	1 915	2 095	2 130
Eritrea	1 410	770	836	764	1 431	3 291	3 756	1 278	1 125	2 195	1 925
India	715	610	611	1 180	1 111	922	1 324	2 008	1 770	1 615	1 905
Sudan	255	645	791	732	834	1 615	3 018	1 462	1 830	1 770	1 780
Viet Nam	470	465	329	412	466	400	620	774	1 085	1 230	1 575
China	1 585	1 375	921	859	1 086	1 117	770	906	1 000	1 175	1 475
Nigeria	910	1 150	1 058	1 428	1 450	1 519	1 590	1 827	1 580	1 350	1 415
Syria	185	160	499	1 289	2 020	2 353	2 794	1 587	795	915	1 370
Bangladesh	495	500	666	1 155	1 246	919	1 320	2 226	1 980	1 440	1 365
Turkey	215	175	178	196	267	296	254	424	505	780	1 265
El Salvador	0	0	1	8	20	12	11	89	75	205	1 180
Other countries	15 420	9 859	10 692	9 385	8 374	8 789	9 934	8 819	8 595	10 100	11 075
Total	30 675	22 644	25 898	27 978	29 395	32 344	39 970	38 380	33 380	37 365	44 315

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – United States

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Guatemala	1 740	2 171	3 671	4 152	4 865	9 098	16 419	25 723	35 318	33 073	51 502
Honduras	850	1 030	1 559	2 115	3 165	6 798	14 255	19 470	28 806	24 435	39 466
El Salvador	2 366	2 685	4 324	4 587	5 692	10 093	18 883	33 620	49 459	33 391	33 619
Venezuela	430	584	764	716	882	3 113	7 354	18 312	29 926	27 483	25 664
Mexico	2 295	3 879	8 304	11 067	10 077	13 987	19 294	27 879	26 065	20 026	22 525
India	751	755	2 477	1 998	1 633	3 395	3 650	6 162	7 435	9 440	10 607
China	10 725	12 510	15 649	15 884	12 295	13 716	15 083	19 868	17 374	9 426	10 267
Cuba	340	287	242	195	185	155	112	147	730	1 512	9 155
Nicaragua	223	241	312	280	259	349	387	518	857	1 527	5 474
Haiti	1 649	1 223	1 377	1 612	1 879	2 196	2 220	3 969	8 643	4 112	3 945
Colombia	650	623	642	574	631	817	1 058	1 767	3 204	2 678	3 334
Brazil	175	223	340	444	311	492	983	1 454	2 625	2 282	2 798
Nigeria	152	204	260	337	289	548	770	1 308	3 052	3 464	2 764
Ecuador	174	404	807	1 394	1 848	3 545	3 732	4 423	3 884	2 386	2 748
Russia	806	828	888	881	950	1 103	1 699	2 158	2 936	1 900	2 595
Other countries	14 754	15 324	18 971	19 865	23 282	51 755	66 841	95 192	111 386	77 165	74 602
Total	38 080	42 971	60 587	66 101	68 243	121 160	172 740	261 970	331 700	254 300	301 065

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lj3pht>

Metadata related to Tables A.3. and B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers

Totals in Table A.3 might differ from the tables by nationality (Tables B.3) because the former totals get revised retroactively while the origin breakdown does not. Data for Table A.3 generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications. Data by country of origin since 2014 may be slightly underestimated as they are the sum of monthly data where only cells with 5 people and above were filled.

Comments on countries of asylum:

- France: Data include unaccompanied minors.
- Germany: Germany has a pre-registration system (EASY system). Asylum requests officially registered and presented in this section are lower than the pre-registrations in the EASY system (1.1 million in 2015).
- United Kingdom: All figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of 5.
- United States: In Table B.3, data are a combination of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS – number of cases) affirmative asylum applications, and of the Executive Office for Immigration Review (EOIR – number of persons) defensive asylum applications, if the person is under threat of removal. Factors have been applied to totals since 2010 in both Table A.3. and Table B.3 to reflect the estimated number of cases.

Comments on countries of origin:

Serbia (and Kosovo): Data may include asylum seekers from Serbia, Montenegro, Serbia and Montenegro, and/or Former Yugoslavia.

Source for all countries: European countries: Eurostat; other countries: governments, compiled by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Population Data Unit (<http://popstas.unhcr.org/en/overview>).

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined across OECD countries. 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 include persons born abroad who retained the nationality of their country of origin but also 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. Both the nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives to naturalise play a role in determining the extent to which native-born persons may or may not be foreign nationals.

Sources for and problems in measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries which have a population register and in those which use residence permit data, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, with some countries using census or labour force survey data to estimate the stock of the immigrant population. In studying stocks and flows, the same problems are encountered whether population register 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 the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of purging the files regularly to remove the records of persons who have left the country.

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. The OECD produces estimates of stocks for some countries

Some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data since sample sizes can be small. Both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, because they can be missed in the census or because they do not live in private households (labour force surveys may not cover those living in collective dwelling such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources may cover a portion of the unauthorised population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and in Russia

Thousands and percentages

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Australia	5 729.9	5 881.4	6 018.2	6 214.0	6 408.7	6 570.2	6 729.7	6 912.1	7 139.5	7 342.7	7 500.0
% of total population	26.3	26.5	26.7	27.1	27.6	27.8	28.1	28.5	29.0	29.5	29.7
Austria	1 260.3	1 275.5	1 294.7	1 323.1	1 364.8	1 414.6	1 484.6	1 594.7	1 656.3	1 697.1	1 728.6
% of total population	15.1	15.2	15.3	15.6	16.0	16.4	17.1	18.2	18.8	19.1	19.3
Belgium	1 443.9	1 503.8	1 628.8	1 643.6	1 748.3	1 775.6	1 786.1	1 849.3	1 893.4	1 932.8	1 981.5
% of total population	13.3	13.7	14.8	14.8	15.7	15.8	15.8	16.3	16.6	16.8	17.2
Canada	6 617.6	6 777.6	6 775.8	6 922.6	7 071.9	7 220.1	7 372.7	7 540.8	7 713.7	7 896.2	..
% of total population	19.6	19.8	19.6	19.8	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.7	21.0	21.3	..
Chile	317.1	352.3	369.4	388.2	415.5	441.5	465.3	..	746.4
% of total population	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	..	4.0
Czech Republic	672.0	661.2	745.2	744.1	744.8	755.0	769.6	798.3	828.6	833.1	903.4
% of total population	6.4	6.3	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.8	7.8	8.5
Denmark	401.8	414.4	428.9	441.5	456.4	476.1	501.1	540.5	570.6	591.7	607.6
% of total population	7.3	7.5	7.7	7.9	8.1	8.4	8.8	9.5	10.0	10.3	10.5
Estonia	221.9	217.9	212.7	210.8	198.4	196.6	194.7	193.8	192.5	196.2	197.9
% of total population	16.6	16.4	16.0	15.9	15.0	14.9	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.8	14.9
Finland	218.6	233.2	248.1	266.1	285.5	304.3	322.0	337.2	357.5	372.8	387.2
% of total population	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.6	5.9	6.1	6.5	6.8	7.0
France	7 202.1	7 287.8	7 372.7	7 474.7	7 590.9	7 715.1	7 847.5	7 944.8	8 106.9	8 145.3	8 343.8
% of total population	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.9	12.0	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.5	12.8
Germany	10 583.0	10 557.0	10 551.0	9 807.0	10 102.0	10 465.0	10 853.0	11 453.0	12 738.0	13 172.0	13 457.0
% of total population	13.1	13.1	13.0	12.1	12.4	12.8	13.3	13.9	15.4	15.8	16.1
Greece	1 304.7	1 321.1	1 325.3	1 312.5	1 279.5	1 265.2	1 242.9	1 220.4	1 250.9	1 277.9	1 307.5
% of total population	11.9	12.1	12.2	12.2	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.5	11.8	12.1	12.5
Hungary	394.2	407.3	443.3	402.7	424.2	447.7	476.1	504.3	514.1	536.2	564.8
% of total population	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.2	5.3	5.5	5.8
Iceland	37.6	35.1	34.7	34.7	35.4	37.2	39.2	42.0	46.5	54.6	61.4
% of total population	11.9	11.0	10.7	10.6	10.8	11.3	11.9	12.6	13.9	16.2	18.1
Ireland	766.8	771.3	779.4	789.8	805.4	810.4	818.4	830.6	867.7
% of total population	16.7	16.7	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.3	17.2	17.2	17.8
Israel	1 899.4	1 877.7	1 869.0	1 850.0	1 835.0	1 821.0	1 817.0	1 817.5	1 812.4	1 811.2	1 808.9
% of total population	26.4	25.6	25.0	24.3	23.7	23.2	22.8	22.4	22.0	21.6	21.2
Italy	5 813.8	5 787.9	5 759.0	5 715.1	5 695.9	5 737.2	5 805.3	5 907.5	6 054.0	6 175.3	6 298.0
% of total population	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.6	9.7	10.0	10.2	10.4
Latvia	324.9	313.8	302.8	289.0	279.2	271.1	265.4	258.9	251.5	246.0	241.8
% of total population	15.1	14.8	14.5	14.0	13.7	13.4	13.3	13.1	12.9	12.8	12.7
Lithuania	220.1	215.3	207.9	206.6	..	137.4	136.0	129.7	127.4	131.0	138.2
% of total population	6.9	6.9	6.7	6.8	..	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.7	5.0
Luxembourg	194.5	197.2	205.2	215.3	226.1	237.7	248.9	260.6	270.7	280.8	291.2
% of total population	39.2	38.8	39.5	40.6	41.7	42.9	43.9	45.0	45.7	46.5	47.3
Mexico	885.7	961.1	966.8	973.7	991.2	939.9	1 007.1	1 074.8	..
% of total population	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	..
Netherlands	1 793.7	1 832.5	1 868.7	1 906.3	1 927.7	1 953.4	1 996.3	2 056.5	2 137.2	2 215.9	2 298.7
% of total population	10.8	11.0	11.2	11.4	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.6	13.0	13.4
New Zealand	931.0	945.7	956.3	965.0	1 001.8	1 050.2	1 108.5	1 168.8	1 230.9	1 271.8	1 297.2
% of total population	21.5	21.6	21.6	21.6	22.2	23.0	24.0	25.1	26.2	26.8	27.3
Norway	488.8	526.8	569.1	616.3	663.9	704.5	741.8	772.5	799.8	822.4	841.6
% of total population	10.1	10.8	11.5	12.3	13.1	13.7	14.3	14.7	15.1	15.4	15.6

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Poland	674.9	630.5	625.4	620.3	611.9	626.4	651.8	695.9	760.9
% of total population	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0
Portugal	790.3	834.8	871.8	982.6	1 017.2	991.3	998.0	1 006.8	1 011.2	1 049.6	1 106.9
% of total population	7.5	7.9	8.2	9.3	9.7	9.5	9.6	9.8	9.8	10.2	10.8
Russia	..	11 194.7
% of total population	..	7.8
Slovak Republic	..	140.7	145.7	169.8	172.6	174.9	177.6	181.6	186.2	190.3	194.4
% of total population	..	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6
Slovenia	243.4	253.8	228.6	230.1	232.7	235.3	237.6	241.2	245.4	250.2	265.1
% of total population	12.0	12.4	11.1	11.2	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.8
Spain	6 225.5	6 280.1	6 282.2	6 295.0	6 174.7	5 958.3	5 891.2	5 918.3	6 024.5	6 200.9	6 541.2
% of total population	13.4	13.4	13.3	13.4	13.2	12.7	12.6	12.7	12.9	13.3	14.0
Sweden	1 281.6	1 338.0	1 384.9	1 427.3	1 473.3	1 533.5	1 603.6	1 676.3	1 784.5	1 877.1	1 955.6
% of total population	13.8	14.2	14.6	15.0	15.3	15.8	16.4	17.0	18.0	18.8	19.5
Switzerland	1 974.2	2 037.5	2 075.2	2 158.4	2 218.4	2 289.6	2 354.8	2 416.4	2 480.0	2 519.1	2 553.4
% of total population	25.6	26.1	26.2	27.0	27.4	27.9	28.4	28.8	29.3	29.5	29.7
Turkey	1 459.8	1 592.4	1 777.3	1 923.9	2 278.5	..
% of total population	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.8	..
United Kingdom	6 899.0	7 056.0	7 430.0	7 588.0	7 860.0	8 064.0	8 482.0	8 988.0	9 369.0	9 183.0	9 482
% of total population	11.0	11.1	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.3	12.9	13.6	14.0	13.7	14.0
United States	38 016.1	38 452.8	39 916.9	40 381.6	40 738.2	41 344.4	42 390.7	43 289.6	43 738.9	44 525.5	44 728.5
% of total population	12.4	12.4	12.8	12.9	12.9	13.0	13.2	13.4	13.5	13.6	13.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.4. Estimates are in italic. The percentage of total population is based on the UN estimates of the total population and may differ from national estimates.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Australia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
United Kingdom	1 182.9	1 187.9	1 196.0	1 211.5	1 220.2	1 216.3	1 209.1	1 202.1	1 196.0	1 188.0	986.0	49
China	345.0	371.6	387.4	406.4	432.4	466.5	508.9	557.7	606.3	650.7	677.0	55
India	307.6	329.5	337.1	355.4	378.5	411.2	449.0	489.4	538.1	592.3	660.0	46
New Zealand	504.4	517.8	544.0	569.6	585.4	583.7	575.4	568.2	567.3	568.3	570.0	49
Philippines	175.0	183.8	193.0	206.1	218.9	230.2	241.1	252.7	265.8	277.5	294.0	61
Viet Nam	197.8	203.8	207.6	212.1	219.9	228.5	235.6	243.2	250.6	256.3	263.0	56
South Africa	150.7	156.0	161.6	167.6	172.2	174.9	177.4	180.5	185.5	189.2	194.0	50
Italy	208.1	204.7	201.7	200.4	200.7	200.4	198.5	195.8	191.5	186.6	183.0	49
Malaysia	124.8	129.9	134.1	136.6	138.4	139.4	143.4	152.9	164.7	173.7	176.0	52
Sri Lanka	92.1	96.5	99.7	105.0	110.7	115.1	119.7	124.5	129.5	134.5	140.0	47
Korea	81.4	84.2	85.9	91.6	97.9	101.9	106.6	111.6	114.8	116.2	..	53
Germany	126.4	126.3	125.8	124.7	123.1	120.8	119.1	116.7	115.9	114.6	..	53
Greece	124.2	122.5	121.2	120.5	119.8	118.3	115.8	113.4	111.5	108.8	..	52
United States	82.2	85.3	90.1	96.7	100.8	102.7	104.7	105.8	108.1	108.6	..	52
Hong Kong, China	84.4	85.5	86.0	87.3	89.8	92.6	95.1	97.6	99.4	100.6	..	52
Other countries	1 943.0	1 996.4	2 047.0	2 122.6	2 200.2	2 268.0	2 330.4	2 400.2	2 493.9	2 575.9	3 357.0	
Total	5 729.9	5 881.4	6 018.2	6 214.0	6 408.7	6 570.2	6 729.7	6 912.1	7 138.6	7 341.9	7 500.0	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Austria
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Germany	186.2	191.2	196.9	201.4	205.9	210.7	215.0	219.9	224.0	227.8	232.2	53
Bosnia and Herzegovina	149.9	149.6	149.7	150.5	151.7	155.1	158.9	162.0	164.3	166.8	168.5	50
Turkey	156.6	157.8	158.5	158.7	159.2	160.0	160.0	160.2	160.4	160.3	159.7	48
Serbia	131.4	130.4	130.9	130.2	130.9	132.6	134.7	137.1	139.1	141.9	143.2	52
Romania	57.0	60.0	64.5	69.1	73.9	79.3	91.3	98.7	105.6	113.3	121.1	52
Hungary	36.2	37.6	39.3	42.6	48.1	55.0	61.5	67.7	72.4	75.8	79.0	54
Poland	57.1	57.0	57.8	60.5	63.2	66.8	69.9	72.2	73.8	75.1	75.6	52
Syria	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	12.3	33.6	41.6	47.0	48.5	41
Croatia	40.0	39.7	39.3	39.1	39.0	39.8	41.7	43.3	44.5	45.2	46.7	53
Afghanistan	6.4	7.5	8.4	11.0	13.6	18.2	20.3	36.6	44.7	44.4	43.1	32
Slovak Republic	24.5	25.3	26.0	27.7	30.0	32.6	35.5	38.0	40.0	41.5	42.7	63
Czech Republic	46.4	45.0	43.6	42.5	41.6	40.8	40.3	39.6	38.7	37.8	37.0	63
Russia	25.1	25.9	26.4	27.5	29.4	30.2	31.7	33.0	33.9	34.4	34.7	60
Italy	25.0	25.0	25.2	25.3	26.2	27.7	29.3	31.2	32.3	33.3	34.1	46
Bulgaria	12.7	13.5	14.6	15.7	17.0	18.5	21.6	23.8	25.7	27.4	29.2	55
Other countries	303.3	307.1	310.5	317.8	330.8	342.1	360.6	397.7	415.4	425.3	433.2	
Total	1 260.3	1 275.5	1 294.7	1 323.1	1 364.8	1 414.6	1 484.6	1 594.7	1 656.3	1 697.1	1 728.6	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Belgium
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Morocco	170.2	178.9	189.1	197.1	201.9	204.8	208.1	211.2	214.5	217.8	221.3	49
France	169.0	171.3	175.0	177.0	179.3	180.9	182.2	183.7	185.9	186.3	187.2	54
Netherlands	123.8	124.8	126.4	127.0	127.6	128.1	128.5	129.4	130.1	130.4	130.9	50
Italy	121.4	120.5	120.2	119.7	119.7	119.9	120.0	120.1	120.1	119.6	119.4	49
Turkey	91.4	93.6	97.0	97.4	99.0	98.9	98.3	98.3	98.8	99.4	100.3	48
Romania	26.2	30.6	37.7	45.0	53.1	58.2	65.2	71.7	78.3	84.8	92.0	46
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	74.2	76.2	81.3	80.0	84.3	84.7	83.6	84.1	84.6	85.1	85.6	54
Germany	84.2	84.1	84.2	83.8	83.4	82.6	81.5	81.1	81.0	80.6	80.4	54
Poland	45.5	51.7	57.7	63.1	68.0	71.1	73.4	75.5	76.9	77.5	77.9	57
Former USSR	54.6	54.3	51.8	51.2	52.0	53.2	54.8	60
Spain	36.1	37.0	38.8	40.5	42.9	44.8	46.0	47.0	47.8	48.4	49.1	53
Former Yugoslavia	41.0	47.9	47.1	43.1	42.9	43.1	43.3	43.9	50
Bulgaria	11.7	14.4	18.7	21.0	24.2	26.4	28.7	31.3	33.3	35.3	37.4	50
Portugal	26.5	27.5	28.3	29.5	31.6	33.4	34.3	35.2	36.3	36.7	37.1	48
Syria	7.3	8.3	10.9	21.3	25.1	30.0	33.2	43
Other countries	463.7	493.2	574.3	521.4	523.6	532.1	530.4	565.2	585.6	604.4	630.9	
Total	1 443.9	1 503.8	1 628.8	1 643.6	1 748.3	1 775.6	1 786.1	1 849.3	1 893.4	1 932.8	1 981.5	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Canada
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
India	547.9	668.6
China	545.5	649.3
Philippines	454.3	588.3
United Kingdom	537.0	499.1
United States	263.5	253.7
Italy	256.8	236.6
Hong Kong, China	205.4	208.9
Pakistan	156.9	202.3
Viet Nam	165.1	169.3
Iran	120.7	154.4
Poland	152.3	146.5
Germany	152.3	145.8
Portugal	138.5	139.4
Jamaica	126.0	138.3
Sri Lanka	132.1	132.0
Other countries	2 821.2	3 208.3
Total	6 775.8	7 540.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Chile
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2017 (%)
Peru	107.6	130.9	138.5	146.6	157.7	187.8
Colombia	10.9	12.9	14.4	16.1	19.1	105.4
Venezuela	83.0
Bolivia	22.2	24.1	25.1	26.7	30.5	73.8
Argentina	59.2	60.6	61.9	63.2	64.9	66.5
Haiti	62.7
Ecuador	17.5	19.1	20.0	20.9	21.9	27.7
Spain	..	11.0	11.3	11.6	12.1	16.7
Brazil	..	9.6	10.1	10.5	11.2	14.2
United States	..	9.7	10.0	10.4	10.9	12.3
Dominican Republic	11.9
China	..	4.6	5.2	5.9	6.6	10.1
Cuba	6.7
Mexico	5.8
Germany	..	6.5	6.7	6.9	7.1	5.7
Other countries	99.8	63.2	66.2	69.4	73.5	56.1
Total	317.1	352.3	369.4	388.2	415.5	441.5	465.3	..	746.4	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Czech Republic
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2011 (%)
Slovak Republic	289.6	53
Ukraine	138.0	45
Viet Nam	52.4	40
Russia	35.7	57
Poland	26.0	62
Germany	16.7	32
Romania	12.8	51
Moldova	9.4	38
Bulgaria	9.2	39
United States	7.0	45
Kazakhstan	6.7	51
Mongolia	5.6	59
China	4.9	45
Hungary	4.8	57
United Kingdom	4.8	24
Other countries	121.7
Total	745.2	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Denmark
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	24.4	25.4	26.6	28.0	29.9	32.0	34.5	37.1	39.1	40.6	41.5	47
Syria	1.9	2.0	2.4	3.1	4.0	5.8	11.6	24.1	33.6	35.4	35.9	44
Turkey	31.8	32.3	32.5	32.4	32.2	32.4	32.4	32.5	32.6	32.9	33.1	48
Germany	27.8	28.2	28.5	28.6	28.7	28.7	28.7	29.1	29.6	29.8	30.3	52
Romania	4.6	5.9	7.7	10.1	12.9	15.7	18.7	21.9	24.3	26.3	28.5	43
Iraq	21.3	21.3	21.3	21.2	21.2	21.1	21.2	21.2	21.4	21.6	21.9	45
Iran	11.9	12.1	12.5	12.9	13.3	14.1	14.9	15.6	16.0	16.8	17.1	42
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18.0	17.9	17.8	17.6	17.4	17.3	17.3	17.2	17.1	17.1	17.0	50
Norway	14.5	14.7	14.7	14.9	14.9	14.9	15.1	15.6	15.8	15.8	15.7	65
United Kingdom	11.8	11.8	12.1	12.2	12.5	12.8	13.0	13.4	14.1	14.8	15.3	35
Pakistan	10.8	11.2	11.7	12.1	12.3	12.9	13.5	13.8	14.0	14.2	14.4	47
Sweden	13.2	13.2	13.2	13.1	13.1	13.2	13.4	13.6	13.8	14.2	14.3	61
Afghanistan	9.7	10.0	10.6	11.1	11.6	12.1	12.6	12.8	13.0	13.5	13.8	45
Lithuania	4.2	5.1	6.3	7.3	8.3	9.0	9.7	10.6	11.3	12.4	13.2	48
Lebanon	12.0	12.0	12.1	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.9	46
Other countries	183.8	191.2	199.1	204.9	212.0	221.8	232.3	249.5	262.2	273.5	282.9	
Total	401.8	414.4	428.9	441.5	456.4	476.1	501.1	540.5	570.6	591.7	607.6	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Estonia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Russia	83.8	81.7	79.5	77.5	75.5	73.5	71.5	69.9	59
Ukraine	15.7	15.5	15.4	15.6	16.1	16.5	16.6	17.4	44
Finland	4.1	4.7	5.4	5.9	6.5	7.2	7.7	8.2	34
Belarus	9.1	8.8	8.6	8.4	8.2	8.0	7.9	7.7	57
Latvia	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.7	5.3	42
Germany	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.4	46
Kazakhstan	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.6	50
Lithuania	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	48
Italy	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	36
France	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	40
Azerbaijan	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	38
Spain	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	42
United Kingdom	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	20
Sweden	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	17
Poland	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	43
Other countries	85.6	74.0	72.6	71.2	70.1	68.6	72.0	72.1	
Total	221.9	217.9	212.7	210.8	198.4	196.6	194.7	193.8	192.5	196.2	197.9	57

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Finland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Former USSR	45.8	47.3	48.7	50.5	52.3	53.7	54.7	55.6	56.5	56.7	57.1	62
Estonia	19.2	21.8	25.0	29.5	35.0	39.5	42.7	44.5	45.7	46.0	46.2	50
Sweden	30.6	31.0	31.2	31.4	31.6	31.8	31.9	32.0	32.1	32.4	32.7	48
Iraq	5.3	6.2	7.2	7.9	8.4	9.3	10.0	10.7	13.8	16.3	17.9	36
Russia	6.7	7.3	8.0	9.0	10.0	11.1	12.0	12.8	13.7	14.2	14.9	55
Somalia	6.4	7.1	8.1	8.8	9.1	9.6	10.1	10.6	11.1	11.4	11.8	48
China	6.0	6.6	7.0	7.7	8.3	8.9	9.4	10.0	10.4	10.9	11.4	58
Thailand	5.4	6.1	6.7	7.4	8.1	8.7	9.2	9.7	10.2	10.5	10.9	79
Viet Nam	4.0	4.3	4.5	4.8	5.2	5.5	6.0	6.6	7.5	8.0	8.5	55
Former Yugoslavia	5.8	6.1	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.6	44
Turkey	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.1	7.5	31
Iran	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.3	5.8	6.1	6.8	7.2	7.4	44
Afghanistan	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.3	5.7	6.4	6.9	39
India	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.4	5.7	5.8	6.2	6.8	41
Germany	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.7	43
Other countries	64.3	68.9	73.7	79.7	86.4	93.1	101.0	108.5	117.5	125.4	133.1	
Total	218.6	233.2	248.1	266.1	285.5	304.3	322.0	337.2	357.5	372.8	387.2	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – France
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2015 (%)
Algeria	1 361.0	1 364.5	1 357.5	1 359.8	1 363.9	1 368.4	1 375.3	51
Morocco	881.3	888.0	895.6	907.8	924.0	935.4	953.5	50
Portugal	608.6	614.2	618.3	625.2	633.2	642.1	648.1	49
Tunisia	370.7	374.7	377.3	381.2	387.6	393.9	397.8	45
Italy	350.2	343.3	337.5	331.7	327.6	325.0	323.9	51
Spain	290.3	286.2	282.5	282.5	283.4	284.6	286.2	56
Turkey	251.1	255.8	257.6	259.5	260.2	261.2	260.5	47
Germany	221.7	219.0	217.6	213.8	211.6	209.9	208.3	57
United Kingdom	166.8	169.1	169.9	170.1	168.0	167.0	166.5	50
Belgium	145.8	146.9	148.2	148.5	149.7	151.2	152.7	54
Senegal	112.1	114.0	116.4	119.6	124.1	127.7	132.7	47
Madagascar	114.5	115.8	118.1	120.1	122.3	124.7	127.1	59
Viet Nam	119.7	118.9	119.4	120.2	119.0	118.4	117.9	56
Romania	63.6	71.4	79.5	87.3	96.7	108.8	117.3	51
China	90.2	95.4	98.5	102.2	105.3	106.9	109.7	59
Other countries	2 054.6	2 110.6	2 179.0	2 245.1	2 314.4	2 390.1	2 469.9	
Total	7 202.1	7 287.8	7 372.7	7 474.7	7 590.9	7 715.1	7 847.5	7 944.8	8 106.9	8 145.3	8 343.8	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Germany
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	1 102	1 117	1 116	1 081	1 151	1 207	1 260	1 334	1 468	1 664	1 668	53
Turkey	1 502	1 460	1 474	1 301	1 296	1 318	1 347	1 364	1 324	1 270	1 319	49
Russia	1 151	1 009	984	964	954	963	939	957	960	1 100	1 076	55
Kazakhstan	564	636	699	736	729	731	727	737	737	931	946	53
Romania	383	389	373	379	424	462	487	547	657	707	779	51
Syria	42	36	44	55	71	143	479	641	711	38
Italy	434	431	416	374	373	418	427	442	508	498	508	39
Greece	232	225	230	199	212	222	234	257	282	278	298	44
Bosnia and Herzegovina	210	176	154	134	148	148	157	165	172	270	289	50
Croatia	263	250	226	200	205	209	220	255	306	264	278	51
Ukraine	228	229	228	206	206	211	215	212	224	267	269	61
Bulgaria	52	62	64	67	91	97	119	146	215	242	264	50
Iraq	90	88	89	75	76	88	98	107	157	199	233	39
Austria	199	191	194	167	180	188	186	191	190	203	209	50
Afghanistan	81	86	93	90	85	91	104	114	189	186	209	42
Other countries	4 092	4 208	4 169	3 798	3 928	4 057	4 262	4 482	4 870	4 452	4 401	
Total	10 583	10 557	10 551	9 807	10 102	10 465	10 853	11 453	12 738	13 172	13 457	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Greece
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
Albania	..	384.6	346.2	357.1	..	337.7	..	312.7	49
Georgia	..	62.6	53.0	54.2	..	45.1	..	43.3	62
Russia	..	55.7	44.4	37.8	..	43.0	..	35.3	67
Bulgaria	..	45.7	43.9	35.0	..	40.9	..	31.0	71
Germany	..	29.3	25.1	21.2	..	25.7	..	26.7	61
Romania	..	32.4	34.9	32.7	..	27.2	..	22.1	58
Ukraine	..	13.3	13.5	11.5	..	10.7	..	16.6	78
Pakistan	..	20.1	22.5	24.0	..	18.0	..	16.5	5
Armenia	..	9.1	10.6	9.6	..	7.7	..	11.4	63
Poland	..	10.8	7.3	9.4	..	16.6	..	10.8	61
Cyprus	..	10.2	12.8	10.3	..	10.9	..	9.8	50
Turkey	..	9.5	6.1	9.4	..	12.5	..	9.4	50
United States	..	7.5	6.2	7.4	..	5.3	..	8.7	58
Egypt	..	10.2	13.6	11.4	..	9.8	..	7.7	49
Moldova	..	4.9	3.4	1.8	..	4.9	..	6.3	72
Other countries	..	122.3	107.3	97.3	..	111.5	..	80.2	
Total	..	828.4	750.7	729.9	..	727.5	..	648.5	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Hungary
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Romania	202.2	198.2	201.9	183.1	190.9	198.4	203.4	208.4	206.3	207.4	207.1	51
Ukraine	4.6	6.5	13.4	25.5	28.8	33.3	42.0	50.2	55.8	61.6	68.5	48
Serbia	0.2	0.3	8.2	24.1	27.1	30.0	32.4	34.0	42.0	43.8	46.6	43
Germany	28.7	31.3	29.4	25.7	27.3	29.2	30.2	31.7	32.4	33.6	34.4	48
Former USSR	30.1	31.2	30.7	13.1	14.1	13.5	13.2	13.3	12.7	14.6	23.4	49
Slovak Republic	3.2	3.3	5.7	21.1	21.3	21.3	21.1	21.1	21.1	20.9	20.3	61
China	5.4	5.6	10.9	9.0	9.9	11.1	14.8	18.2	17.5	18.2	17.0	50
United Kingdom	4.3	4.8	4.7	4.9	5.6	6.8	7.9	9.4	11.2	12.9	14.6	46
Austria	7.3	7.9	7.8	7.6	8.1	8.8	9.3	9.9	10.3	10.6	10.8	46
United States	4.6	5.0	6.9	7.0	7.2	7.4	7.8	8.2	8.4	8.7	9.0	47
Italy	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.6	5.9	6.0	37
Former Czechoslovakia	28.5	28.5	24.1	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.2	5.8	5.5	5.5	63
Viet Nam	2.1	2.1	3.3	2.8	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.6	4.1	5.1	48
France	3.9	4.1	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.7	46
Russia	0.7	0.7	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.7	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.4	62
Other countries	65.1	74.2	86.1	63.3	64.2	67.1	71.9	76.5	73.0	79.3	87.4	
Total	394.2	407.3	443.3	402.7	424.2	447.7	476.1	504.3	514.1	536.2	564.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Iceland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	11.6	10.1	9.5	9.3	9.4	10.2	11.0	12.0	13.8	17.0	19.2	41
Denmark	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	50
Lithuania	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.9	38
United States	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	47
Sweden	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	51
Philippines	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	66
Germany	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	62
Latvia	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.8	33
United Kingdom	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	40
Romania	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.5	32
Thailand	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	74
Norway	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	52
Portugal	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	33
Spain	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	43
Viet Nam	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	57
Other countries	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.7	9.0	9.4	9.9	10.7	12.1	14.5	16.7	
Total	37.6	35.1	34.7	34.7	35.4	37.2	39.2	42.0	46.5	54.6	61.4	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Ireland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
United Kingdom	288.6	277.2	51
Poland	115.2	115.2	50
Lithuania	34.8	33.3	54
Romania	18.0	28.7	49
United States	27.7	28.7	55
India	17.9	21.0	45
Latvia	20.0	19.0	57
Nigeria	19.8	16.6	53
Brazil	9.3	15.8	53
Philippines	13.8	14.7	59
Germany	13.0	13.0	56
Pakistan	8.3	12.9	35
France	10.1	11.9	50
Spain	7.0	11.8	60
China	11.5	11.3	56
Other countries	151.8	179.5	
Total	766.8	810.4	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Israel
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Former USSR	913.8	877.5	875.5	867.0	862.4	858.7	859.4	863.1	867.1	873.3	882.2	56
Morocco	148.5	154.7	152.0	149.6	147.2	145.4	143.1	140.9	138.8	136.1	133.2	53
United States	82.7	84.8	86.2	88.0	90.5	92.6	94.6	96.9	98.8	52
Ethiopia	80.8	77.4	78.9	81.9	84.6	85.9	85.6	85.7	85.5	87.0	86.9	50
Romania	96.9	96.4	93.1	90.0	87.0	84.0	80.8	77.8	74.8	71.8	68.8	56
France	40.9	41.4	42.9	43.5	44.2	46.3	51.1	57.0	60.1	62.6	64.0	54
Iraq	63.5	63.7	61.8	60.0	58.5	56.8	54.9	53.0	51.1	49.3	47.4	54
Iran	46.8	49.8	48.9	48.1	47.4	46.7	46.0	45.2	44.4	43.5	42.7	52
Argentina	36.7	37.6	37.5	37.6	36.8	36.3	36.0	35.6	35.4	35.1	34.8	53
Poland	50.1	54.0	50.7	48.0	45.0	42.2	39.7	37.2	34.8	32.6	30.5	57
Tunisia	29.9	29.2	28.8	28.4	28.6	28.3	27.7	27.1	26.4	55
United Kingdom	22.2	21.8	22.5	23.0	23.0	23.2	23.5	24.0	24.4	24.6	24.8	52
Yemen	28.9	28.9	27.9	26.9	24.1	25.4	22.5	21.6	22.7	21.7	20.9	57
Turkey	25.6	26.1	25.6	24.9	24.1	23.4	22.8	22.1	21.6	21.2	20.6	53
India	17.7	18.1	17.6	17.5	17.4	17.5	18.0	18.0	17.8	17.9	18.1	53
Other countries	326.6	330.7	221.5	218.0	218.3	213.0	214.6	215.5	211.7	210.6	208.9	
Total	1 899.0	1 878.0	1 869.0	1 850.0	1 835.0	1 821.0	1 817.0	1 817.5	1 812.4	1 811.2	1 808.9	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Italy
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Romania	1 021.4	1 016.9	1 011.7	1 003.7	1 000.1	1 004.6	1 016.0	1 024.1	1 036.0	1 033.0	1 036.5	60
Albania	443.2	440.6	438.0	434.3	432.7	440.1	446.6	449.7	458.2	467.9	480.5	50
Morocco	419.0	416.8	414.5	411.1	409.6	418.1	424.1	428.9	434.5	437.8	446.7	46
Ukraine	214.7	213.6	212.4	210.8	210.0	218.5	222.9	231.6	237.6	240.9	245.6	78
China	195.7	194.7	193.5	192.0	191.3	197.1	200.4	212.2	220.1	223.7	230.6	51
Germany	223.7	222.7	221.5	219.9	220.0	216.3	214.3	211.6	210.4	209.0	208.8	57
Moldova	160.7	159.9	159.0	157.7	157.1	164.0	171.3	176.2	182.2	188.5	192.2	67
Switzerland	195.5	194.5	193.5	192.1	191.5	194.9	194.0	192.8	192.1	191.7	191.3	54
India	129.7	129.0	128.3	127.3	126.8	134.1	139.1	149.5	155.6	157.8	165.3	41
Philippines	138.6	137.8	137.0	135.9	135.4	141.1	143.2	145.5	147.8	148.5	149.8	60
Bangladesh	89.6	89.1	88.6	87.9	87.5	95.4	105.5	111.3	119.5	128.5	133.9	25
Brazil	111.0	110.5	110.0	109.2	108.9	102.5	100.0	104.8	111.8	121.8	131.8	62
Egypt	107.3	107.1	106.6	105.8	105.5	106.7	108.9	112.8	117.7	121.8	127.4	31
France	138.2	137.7	137.3	136.5	136.7	132.2	127.9	128.4	128.1	127.4	126.8	60
Pakistan	78.3	78.2	77.9	77.3	77.1	83.4	89.5	97.8	108.9	116.7	123.3	28
Other countries	2 147.1	2 138.7	2 129.0	2 113.5	2 105.7	2 088.2	2 101.5	2 130.2	2 193.4	2 260.3	2 307.4	
Total	5 813.8	5 787.9	5 759.0	5 715.1	5 695.9	5 737.2	5 805.3	5 907.5	6 054.0	6 175.3	6 298.0	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Latvia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Russia	159.9	152.3	146.3	140.7	136.4	131.8	126.9	122.4	117.8	..
Belarus	55.1	53.2	51.5	50.0	48.6	47.2	45.5	43.9	42.6	..
Ukraine	38.4	36.8	35.7	34.7	34.1	34.0	33.0	32.5	32.6	..
Lithuania	19.7	18.6	17.9	17.2	16.7	16.1	15.4	14.9	14.3	..
Kazakhstan	6.7	6.4	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.7	..
United Kingdom	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.7	2.2	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.7	..
Estonia	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	..
Uzbekistan	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.6	..
Germany	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	..
Azerbaijan	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	..
Moldova	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	..
India	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.8	1.3	..
Georgia	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	..
Ireland	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	..
Poland	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	..
Other countries	7.1	6.5	6.5	6.9	7.4	7.4	7.7	8.3	9.3	
Total	324.9	313.8	302.8	289.0	279.2	271.1	265.4	258.9	251.5	246.0	241.8	61

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Lithuania
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Russia	95.2	92.5	88.9	86.3	..	60.1	58.5	54.9	52.3	50.5	49.1	60
Belarus	54.9	52.2	49.6	47.8	..	35.4	33.6	31.1	30.0	30.8	32.2	57
Ukraine	20.3	19.1	18.0	17.4	..	12.4	12.3	11.3	12.4	15.4	19.6	31
United Kingdom	10.3	..	3.3	4.3	5.2	5.0	5.4	6.3	49
Latvia	10.0	9.8	9.4	9.2	..	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.4	57
Kazakhstan	7.7	..	4.6	4.5	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.0	56
Norway	1.0	1.4	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.6	47
Germany	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	..	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.0	46
Poland	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.2	..	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.8	58
Ireland	3.9	..	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	49
Moldova	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	24
Spain	1.2	..	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	43
Estonia	1.3	..	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	56
Uzbekistan	1.6	..	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	54
Azerbaijan	1.3	..	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	40
Other countries	32.9	35.0	35.5	12.1	..	6.1	6.6	6.4	7.0	8.1	9.5	
Total	220.1	215.3	207.9	206.6	..	137.4	136.0	129.7	127.4	131.0	138.2	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Luxembourg
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Portugal	60.9	72.5	72.8	73.2	48
France	28.1	39.0	40.6	41.9	47
Belgium	16.8	20.5	20.8	21.0	46
Italy	13.2	17.0	17.7	18.4	42
Germany	14.8	16.5	16.5	16.7	53
Cabo Verde	4.6	6.4	6.6	6.9	53
Spain	2.9	4.9	5.2	5.5	49
United Kingdom	4.2	5.1	5.3	5.5	43
Romania	1.9	4.2	4.6	5.1	60
Poland	2.9	4.5	4.6	4.9	58
China	1.9	3.3	3.7	4.0	55
Netherlands	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.9	46
Brazil	1.8	2.9	3.2	3.6	61
Greece	1.2	2.5	2.8	3.1	50
Former Yugoslavia	0.8	4.3	3.8	3.1	49
Other countries	45.7	63.3	68.5	74.4	
Total	194.5	197.2	205.2	215.3	226.1	237.7	248.9	260.6	270.7	280.8	291.2	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Mexico
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
United States	..	738.1	739.2	799.1	..	50
Guinea	..	0.0	0.0	32.4	..	51
Colombia	..	13.9	18.7	27.9	..	61
Venezuela	..	10.1	15.7	24.4	..	60
Spain	..	18.9	22.6	19.7	..	58
Hong Kong, China	18.4	..	51
Cuba	..	12.1	12.8	18.2	..	39
Canada	..	7.9	9.8	14.8	..	11
Gabon	..	0.0	14.2	..	56
El Salvador	..	8.1	10.6	13.6	..	52
Argentina	..	13.7	14.7	10.5	..	69
Other countries	..	138.3	162.9	81.5	..	
Total	885.7	961.1	966.8	973.7	991.2	939.9	1 007.1	1 074.8	..	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Netherlands
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Turkey	195.7	196.7	197.4	197.4	196.5	195.1	192.7	191.0	190.8	192.0	194.3	49
Suriname	186.7	186.8	186.2	185.5	184.1	182.6	181.0	179.5	178.6	178.2	178.3	56
Morocco	166.9	167.4	167.7	168.3	168.2	168.5	168.6	168.5	168.7	169.2	170.5	49
Poland	51.1	58.1	66.6	78.2	86.5	96.2	108.5	117.9	126.6	135.6	145.2	53
Germany	119.2	120.5	122.3	122.8	121.8	120.5	119.1	118.6	118.8	119.5	120.6	58
Indonesia	143.7	140.7	137.8	135.1	132.0	129.2	126.4	123.5	120.8	117.9	115.1	57
Syria	6.9	6.9	7.1	7.3	7.7	9.5	17.9	38.5	65.9	81.8	86.7	44
Former USSR	39.4	41.9	45.6	49.2	51.8	53.7	56.4	59.1	62.2	66.6	72.1	62
China	40.0	42.5	44.7	47.5	49.7	51.3	52.5	54.4	56.1	58.3	61.1	57
Belgium	48.6	49.2	50.0	50.9	51.9	52.8	54.0	55.3	56.9	58.6	60.2	54
United Kingdom	46.7	47.1	47.2	47.5	47.8	48.4	49.1	50.2	51.7	53.4	55.8	45
Former Yugoslavia	52.7	52.8	52.7	52.7	52.5	52.5	52.6	52.7	53.1	53.5	54.3	53
Iraq	38.7	40.9	41.0	40.8	40.6	40.5	40.7	40.9	43.1	43.9	44.8	44
India	16.5	17.3	18.2	19.5	20.7	22.2	24.3	27.0	30.6	35.3	41.2	44
Afghanistan	30.7	31.1	31.8	32.6	32.8	33.1	33.1	33.0	34.7	35.0	35.5	46
Other countries	610.2	632.5	652.3	670.9	683.0	697.2	719.4	746.4	778.6	816.9	863.1	
Total	1 793.7	1 832.5	1 868.7	1 906.3	1 927.7	1 953.4	1 996.3	2 056.5	2 137.2	2 215.9	2 298.7	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – New Zealand
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
United Kingdom	255.0	265.5	..	49
China	89.1	132.9	..	55
India	67.2	117.3	..	42
Australia	62.7	75.8	..	53
South Africa	54.3	71.4	..	51
Philippines	37.3	67.6	..	52
Fiji	52.8	62.3	..	51
Samoa	50.7	55.5	..	51
Korea	26.6	31.0	..	54
United States	22.1	27.7	..	54
Tonga	22.4	26.9	..	48
Malaysia	16.4	19.9	..	54
Netherlands	19.9	19.3	..	50
Germany	12.9	16.6	..	57
Sri Lanka	9.6	14.3	..	47
Other countries	202.8	267.7	..	
Total	1 001.8	1 271.8	..	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Norway
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	42.7	49.5	57.1	67.6	76.9	84.2	91.2	96.1	97.6	98.6	99.1	37
Sweden	39.4	41.8	44.6	47.0	47.8	48.6	49.2	49.1	48.3	47.9	47.7	49
Lithuania	7.3	9.9	15.6	22.7	28.6	33.0	35.9	37.4	37.7	38.4	39.4	42
Syria	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.0	3.1	5.5	9.7	20.8	27.4	30.8	40
Somalia	16.9	18.0	19.4	20.7	23.7	25.9	27.0	28.3	28.7	28.8	28.7	48
Germany	23.0	24.9	26.2	27.3	27.8	27.9	28.2	28.2	28.0	27.8	28.0	48
Denmark	22.6	22.7	22.9	23.3	23.8	24.4	25.3	25.1	24.8	24.6	24.5	48
Philippines	12.3	13.5	14.7	16.3	17.8	19.5	20.6	21.4	22.2	23.1	24.1	77
Iraq	19.4	20.6	21.4	22.0	22.1	22.1	22.2	22.2	22.5	23.1	23.3	44
Eritrea	3.3	4.8	6.6	8.2	10.1	12.4	14.8	17.7	20.1	21.9	22.7	42
Thailand	11.8	13.1	14.1	15.2	16.4	17.3	18.0	18.9	20.1	21.1	22.0	81
Pakistan	16.7	17.2	17.6	18.0	18.6	19.0	19.4	19.7	20.1	20.6	20.9	48
United Kingdom	16.2	16.9	17.5	18.1	18.6	19.0	19.3	19.5	19.4	19.4	19.7	39
United States	15.7	16.0	16.3	16.6	17.0	17.3	17.5	17.6	17.7	17.9	18.4	51
Russia	13.1	13.8	14.6	15.3	16.2	16.8	17.2	17.5	17.7	17.9	18.3	67
Other countries	227.0	242.8	259.0	276.6	296.4	313.9	330.4	344.0	354.1	363.8	374.3	
Total	488.8	526.8	569.1	616.3	663.9	704.5	741.8	772.5	799.8	822.4	841.6	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Poland

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2011 (%)
Ukraine	227.5
Germany	84.0
Belarus	83.6
Lithuania	55.6
United Kingdom	38.0
Ireland	8.4
Other countries	177.8
Total	674.9	59

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Portugal**

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2011 (%)
Angola	162.6	54
Brazil	139.7	58
France	94.5	54
Mozambique	73.1	54
Cabo Verde	62.0	53
Guinea-Bissau	29.6	44
Germany	28.0	52
Venezuela	25.2	54
Romania	23.7	49
United Kingdom	19.1	50
Sao Tome and Principe	18.6	56
Spain	16.5	57
Switzerland	16.5	49
South Africa	11.5	53
China	10.9	48
Other countries	140.5
Total	871.8	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Russia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2010 (%)
Ukraine	..	2 942.0	54
Kazakhstan	..	2 481.9	54
Uzbekistan	..	1 111.7	47
Azerbaijan	..	743.9	44
Belarus	..	740.9	57
Kyrgyzstan	..	573.3	51
Armenia	..	511.2	44
Tajikistan	..	452.2	41
Georgia	..	436.4	46
Moldova	..	285.3	47
Turkmenistan	..	180.0	52
Germany	..	137.7	50
Latvia	..	86.7	53
Lithuania	..	68.9	53
Estonia	..	57.0	53
Other countries	..	385.8	
Total	..	11 194.7	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Slovak Republic
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Czech Republic	88.7	88.6	88.2	88.0	87.8	88.0	88.0	88.1	55
Hungary	17.6	17.7	17.3	17.1	16.8	16.6	16.3	16.1	48
Ukraine	9.8	9.8	9.9	10.1	10.5	10.7	11.1	11.4	58
Romania	7.6	7.8	8.1	8.3	8.7	9.1	9.3	9.6	36
United Kingdom	3.7	4.2	4.8	5.5	6.3	7.2	8.1	9.1	44
Poland	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.3	52
Germany	4.2	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.1	35
Austria	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.7	41
Italy	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.7	3.9	26
Russia	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	64
France	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	44
United States	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	46
Bulgaria	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.6	31
Serbia	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.4	36
Viet Nam	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	40
Other countries	13.6	14.6	15.7	16.8	18.2	19.7	21.0	22.2	
Total	..	140.7	145.7	169.8	172.6	174.9	177.6	181.6	186.2	190.3	194.4	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Slovenia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	97.1	102.9	96.9	97.2	98.5	100.0	100.9	102.8	104.7	107.7	116.4	38
Croatia	56.2	56.0	49.2	48.8	48.3	47.7	47.0	46.1	45.6	45.0	44.4	51
Serbia	16.2	20.9	26.4	26.4	26.7	26.9	27.1	24.3	24.6	25.4	27.4	39
North Macedonia	13.0	14.3	13.7	14.2	14.7	15.1	15.6	15.9	16.5	17.1	18.2	41
Germany	12.3	12.3	8.5	8.4	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.3	49
Italy	4.3	4.3	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.3	40
Russia	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	58
Montenegro	2.0	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.3	3.4	46
Austria	5.4	5.5	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	50
Ukraine	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.7	66
Bulgaria	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	39
France	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	50
China	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	48
Switzerland	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	47
United States	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	46
Other countries	30.2	27.6	17.8	18.4	19.3	20.3	21.4	25.7	26.4	27.1	29.5	
Total	243.4	253.8	228.6	230.1	232.7	235.3	237.6	241.2	245.4	250.2	265.1	42

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Spain
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Morocco	743.5	763.7	767.0	762.4	740.1	712.5	699.9	696.8	699.5	713.3	752.2	45
Romania	727.5	727.5	736.3	750.4	715.0	670.1	646.2	627.8	611.9	596.6	587.1	51
Colombia	368.5	376.2	375.9	373.6	366.0	353.2	347.5	347.2	361.5	386.3	431.1	59
Ecuador	499.0	496.7	484.8	471.3	452.4	429.4	416.4	409.4	408.2	408.8	411.9	53
Venezuela	145.6	148.1	151.9	155.8	156.3	154.3	160.5	174.0	199.4	244.7	311.8	54
United Kingdom	317.7	319.1	317.5	318.7	321.1	314.4	306.0	300.3	296.8	288.9	290.2	50
Argentina	288.0	282.6	276.4	270.9	264.0	255.3	251.8	252.1	255.5	261.1	272.8	50
Peru	189.7	197.8	198.6	198.0	193.6	186.9	184.8	185.8	190.5	200.6	216.8	56
France	210.6	210.0	208.3	209.2	208.4	205.4	203.7	204.4	205.7	208.0	211.9	51
Germany	212.9	212.9	210.8	210.2	209.6	204.5	200.6	197.2	195.7	193.2	192.1	51
Dominican Republic	129.8	137.0	141.2	148.0	152.9	154.1	156.9	159.7	164.3	170.4	176.9	60
China	146.4	154.9	161.0	163.7	160.5	155.7	155.7	158.7	161.9	165.8	171.5	55
Cuba	99.1	103.2	109.5	118.6	124.0	127.5	131.1	134.8	139.0	145.0	155.4	55
Bolivia	230.1	216.0	201.6	188.7	174.3	157.5	150.7	148.3	148.6	150.2	153.1	61
Italy	84.1	87.3	89.9	94.8	99.3	102.1	106.3	114.2	123.7	135.4	147.0	41
Other countries	1 833.0	1 847.0	1 851.6	1 860.5	1 837.1	1 775.3	1 773.1	1 807.6	1 862.4	1 932.6	2 057.0	
Total	6 225.5	6 280.1	6 282.2	6 295.0	6 174.7	5 958.3	5 891.2	5 918.3	6 024.5	6 200.9	6 539.0	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Sweden

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Syria	18.8	19.6	20.8	22.4	27.5	41.7	67.7	98.2	149.4	172.3	186.0	44
Finland	175.1	172.2	169.5	166.7	163.9	161.1	158.5	156.0	153.6	150.9	147.9	61
Iraq	109.4	117.9	121.8	125.5	127.9	128.9	130.2	131.9	135.1	140.8	144.0	46
Poland	63.8	67.5	70.3	72.9	75.3	78.2	81.7	85.5	88.7	91.2	92.8	53
Iran	57.7	59.9	62.1	63.8	65.6	67.2	68.4	69.1	70.6	74.1	77.4	47
Somalia	25.2	31.7	37.8	40.2	44.0	54.2	57.9	60.6	63.9	66.4	68.7	51
Former Yugoslavia	72.3	71.6	70.8	70.1	69.3	68.6	67.9	67.2	66.5	65.9	65.1	50
Bosnia and Herzegovina	56.0	56.1	56.2	56.3	56.6	56.8	57.3	57.7	58.2	58.9	59.4	50
Afghanistan	11.4	12.7	14.4	17.5	21.5	25.1	28.4	31.3	34.8	44.0	52.0	35
Germany	46.9	47.8	48.2	48.4	48.7	49.0	49.4	49.6	50.2	50.9	51.1	53
Turkey	39.2	40.8	42.5	43.9	45.1	45.7	46.1	46.4	47.1	48.3	49.9	45
Thailand	25.9	28.7	31.4	33.6	35.6	37.0	38.1	38.8	39.9	41.2	42.4	78
Eritrea	7.8	9.0	10.3	12.0	13.7	16.6	21.8	28.6	35.1	39.1	42.3	45
Norway	44.3	43.8	43.4	43.1	42.9	42.5	42.3	42.1	42.1	42.0	41.7	55
Denmark	46.2	46.0	45.5	45.0	44.2	43.2	42.4	41.9	41.2	40.6	40.0	47
Other countries	481.7	512.5	539.9	566.1	591.5	617.6	645.4	671.4	708.1	750.6	794.8	
Total	1 281.6	1 338.0	1 384.9	1 427.3	1 473.3	1 533.5	1 603.6	1 676.3	1 784.5	1 877.1	1 955.6	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Switzerland**

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Germany	318.9	330.0	337.4	343.6	348.1	350.5	352.2	353.4	355.3	50
Italy	233.1	241.0	244.7	251.3	258.3	263.3	267.3	267.9	268.8	44
Portugal	172.3	187.4	199.2	211.5	218.7	222.3	223.1	220.9	217.7	46
France	132.3	138.4	141.4	146.8	153.1	158.6	162.5	166.3	169.4	50
Turkey	76.0	76.9	77.4	77.9	78.2	78.7	79.2	79.8	80.4	47
North Macedonia	51.7	53.5	55.1	57.0	59.2	61.4	64.3	66.9	69.3	48
Spain	53.5	57.2	59.8	64.1	67.1	68.9	69.4	68.9	68.6	49
Serbia	56.5	59.2	60.1	62.9	63.4	64.6	65.3	65.7	65.9	51
Austria	58.8	59.2	59.7	59.9	60.0	60.1	59.8	59.6	59.2	59
Bosnia and Herzegovina	51.1	52.4	53.2	54.1	55.4	56.4	56.9	57.1	57.4	52
United Kingdom	41.1	43.7	44.2	44.8	45.2	45.2	45.0	45.3	45.7	46
Brazil	32.3	33.4	34.4	35.5	36.6	37.8	39.1	40.9	42.5	70
Poland	21.5	24.0	26.2	28.1	31.6	34.7	36.7	38.7	40.8	54
United States	33.7	34.9	35.4	35.9	36.3	36.6	37.0	37.6	38.6	52
Sri Lanka	28.6	29.6	30.0	30.6	31.3	32.6	34.2	35.1	35.6	47
Other countries	713.9	737.4	760.3	785.6	812.5	844.6	888.0	914.9	938.2	
Total	2 075.2	2 158.4	2 218.4	2 289.6	2 354.8	2 416.4	2 480.0	2 519.1	2 553.4	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Turkey

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Bulgaria	382.1	378.7	374.0	366.2	362.7	..	54
Iraq	52.2	97.5	146.1	199.7	283.8	..	47
Germany	259.1	263.3	272.7	277.9	281.9	..	53
Syria	66.1	76.4	98.1	109.4	163.8	..	44
Afghanistan	33.8	38.7	59.3	78.7	115.2	..	41
Azerbaijan	46.1	52.8	64.2	71.2	85.3	..	57
Iran	30.2	36.2	47.5	53.8	80.2	..	48
Turkmenistan	19.9	24.9	30.3	45.2	71.2	..	58
Uzbekistan	29.6	36.1	43.7	52.1	63.2	..	64
Russia	30.3	34.5	37.8	37.4	47.2	..	68
Saudi Arabia	12.6	14.6	17.3	25.6	41.3	..	45
North Macedonia	44.3	43.4	42.3	41.0	40.0	..	54
Netherlands	32.0	32.3	34.1	34.1	34.6	..	54
France	28.1	28.5	33.3	35.3	33.9	..	51
United Kingdom	32.3	32.1	32.4	29.2	30.6	..	55
Other countries	361.2	402.3	444.4	467.2	543.7	..	
Total	1 459.8	1 592.4	1 777.3	1 923.9	2 278.5	..	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – United Kingdom**

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
India	661	687	686	750	746	733	784	755	799	827	..	50
Poland	540	534	617	658	650	764	783	936	878	770	..	53
Pakistan	427	382	441	432	476	419	510	482	535	495	..	46
Romania	55	77	82	118	151	162	220	306	373	439	..	45
Ireland	401	401	429	429	400	346	372	365	372	398	..	55
Germany	296	301	292	303	343	279	252	337	304	308	..	59
Italy	117	130	150	135	142	159	168	239	240	281	..	44
South Africa	220	227	208	208	224	201	178	195	275	228	..	53
Nigeria	166	167	203	162	202	170	206	222	201	225	..	52
Bangladesh	199	193	219	191	184	187	198	230	261	224	..	47
Jamaica	130	134	123	151	140	128	149	142	134	174	..	56
United States	160	193	159	203	216	186	158	160	132	168	..	59
France	144	122	132	146	128	127	174	167	191	164	..	59
Lithuania	62	91	118	117	140	137	171	178	172	160	..	61
Australia	123	124	109	106	117	123	131	143	129	155	..	45
Other countries	3 198	3 293	3 462	3 479	3 601	3 943	4 028	4 131	4 373	4 167	..	
Total	6 899	7 056	7 430	7 588	7 860	8 064	8 482	8 988	9 369	9 183	9 482	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – United States

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Mexico	11 451.3	11 478.2	11 746.5	11 691.6	11 489.4	11 556.5	11 714.5	11 643.3	11 573.7	11 269.9	11 171.9	..
India	1 626.9	1 665.1	1 796.5	1 855.7	1 974.3	2 036.3	2 205.9	2 389.6	2 434.5	2 610.5	2 652.9	..
China	1 339.1	1 425.8	1 604.4	1 651.5	1 719.8	1 786.1	1 929.5	2 065.4	2 130.4	2 216.8	2 221.9	..
Philippines	1 685.1	1 733.9	1 766.5	1 814.9	1 862.0	1 863.5	1 926.3	1 982.4	1 941.7	2 008.1	2 013.8	..
El Salvador	1 078.3	1 157.2	1 207.1	1 245.5	1 254.5	1 247.5	1 315.5	1 352.4	1 387.0	1 401.8	1 419.3	..
Viet Nam	1 154.7	1 149.4	1 243.8	1 253.9	1 264.2	1 308.2	1 291.8	1 300.5	1 352.8	1 342.6	1 345.8	..
Cuba	987.8	982.9	1 112.1	1 090.6	1 114.9	1 138.2	1 172.9	1 210.7	1 271.6	1 311.8	1 344.0	..
Dominican Republic	779.2	791.6	879.9	878.9	960.2	1 010.7	997.7	1 063.2	1 085.3	1 162.6	1 177.9	..
Korea	1 034.7	1 012.9	1 086.9	1 095.1	1 105.7	1 081.2	1 079.8	1 060.0	1 041.7	1 063.1	1 039.1	..
Guatemala	743.8	790.5	797.3	844.3	880.9	900.5	915.6	927.6	935.7	958.8	1 007.0	..
Canada	824.3	814.1	785.6	787.5	799.1	841.1	806.4	830.6	783.2	809.3	813.7	..
Colombia	603.3	617.7	648.3	655.1	705.0	679.6	706.8	699.4	704.6	783.0	789.6	..
Jamaica	631.7	645.0	650.8	694.6	668.8	705.3	705.8	711.1	736.3	744.7	733.4	..
United Kingdom	692.4	688.3	676.6	684.6	686.7	706.0	679.1	683.5	696.9	702.6	699.2	..
Haiti	545.8	536.0	596.4	602.7	616.0	599.6	628.0	675.5	668.2	679.8	687.2	..
Other countries	12 837.6	12 964.4	13 318.2	13 535.1	13 636.9	13 883.9	14 315.1	14 694.3	14 995.3	15 460.2	15 612.0	
Total	38 016.1	38 452.8	39 916.9	40 381.6	40 738.2	41 344.4	42 390.7	43 289.6	43 738.9	44 525.5	44 728.5	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/h8enli>

Metadata related to Tables A.4. and B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Ⓒ Estimated residential population. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS).
Austria	Ⓒ Stock of foreign-born residents recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Ⓒ Stock of foreign-born recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers from 2008 on.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSIE).
Canada	Ⓒ 2011: National Household Survey. The foreign-born population covers all persons who are or have ever been a landed immigrant/permanent resident in Canada. The foreign-born population does not include non-permanent residents, on employment or student authorizations, or who are refugee claimants. Ⓒ 2016: 2016 Census, 25% sample data. ε PM for other years.	Statistics Canada.
Chile	Ⓒ Register of residence permits.	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Ⓒ 2011 Census. ε CM for other years.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	Ⓒ Immigrants according to the national definition, e.g. persons born abroad to parents both foreigner or born abroad. When no information is available on the parents' nationality/country of birth, foreign-born persons are classified as immigrants.	Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Ⓒ National population register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	Ⓒ Population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	From 2006 on, annual censuses. From 2016 on estimated totals are based on Eurostat data. Includes the département of Mayotte from 2014. Includes persons who were born French abroad.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Ⓒ Microcensus. Includes ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>). Excludes people in shared/community accommodation, notably some refugees/asylum seekers.	Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	Totals in Table A.4 (Eurostat dataset) are not comparable to data presented in Table B.4 by country of birth (Labour Force Survey data, foreign-born population aged 15 and above; 4th quarter prior to 2014; 2nd quarter from 2014 on).	Eurostat and Hellenic Statistical authority.
Hungary	Ⓒ From 2010 on, includes third-country nationals holding a temporary residence permit (for a year or more). From 2011 on, includes persons under subsidiary protection. Data for 2011 were adjusted to match the October census results. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Office of Immigration and Nationality; Central Office Administrative and Electronic Public Services (Central Population Register); Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Ⓒ National population register. Numbers from the register are likely to be overestimated. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Ⓒ 2011 and 2016 Censuses. Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. ε PM for other years.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Estimates are based on the results of the Population Censuses and on the changes that occurred in the population after the Censuses, as recorded in the Population Register. They include Jews and foreign-born members of other religions (usually family members of Jewish immigrants). The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	Ⓒ Population register.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).

Country	Comments	Source
Latvia	® Population register. <i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Central Statistical Office.
Lithuania	<i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Eurostat
Luxembourg	® 2011: Census. ε CM for other years.	Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	® 2010 census; 2015 Intercensal Survey. ε Other years, estimation from the National Survey on Occupation and Employment (ENOE).	National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
Netherlands	® <i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	® 2013 and 2018 Censuses. ε PM for other years.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	® <i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	® 2011 Census. 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. Country of birth in accordance with administrative boundaries at the time of the census. From 2012 on, estimates based on Eurostat data.	Central Statistical Office and Eurostat.
Portugal	® 2011 census. From 2012 on, estimates based on Eurostat data.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Russia	® 2010 Census.	Federal state statistics service (Rosstat).
Slovak Republic	® Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia		Eurostat.
Spain	® Population register. Foreign-born recorded in the Municipal Registers irrespective of their legal status. <i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).
Sweden	® <i>Reference date: 1 January.</i>	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	® From 2011 on, Population Register of the Confederation. ε CM for other years.	Federal Statistical Office.
Turkey		Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
United Kingdom	® From 2006 on: Foreign-born residents in the Labour Force Survey. Figures are rounded to the closest thousand.	Office for National Statistics.
United States	® Includes persons who are naturalised and persons who are in an unauthorised status. Excludes children born abroad to US citizen parents.	American Community Survey, Census Bureau.

Notes: ® Observed figures. ε Estimates (in italic) made by means of the complement method (CM) or the parametric method (PM). No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.4). Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <http://stats.oecd.org/>.

Table A.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and in Russia

Thousands and percentages

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Austria	860.0	883.6	913.2	951.4	1 004.3	1 066.1	1 146.1	1 267.7	1 341.9	1 395.9	1 438.9
% of total population	10.3	10.5	10.8	11.2	11.7	12.4	13.2	14.5	15.2	15.7	16.1
Belgium	1 013.3	1 057.7	1 119.3	1 169.1	1 257.2	1 268.1	1 276.9	1 333.2	1 366.5	1 388.9	1 423.2
% of total population	9.3	9.7	10.2	10.5	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.3
Canada	1 957.0	2 404.8
% of total population	5.7	6.7
Chile	952.7
% of total population	5.2
Czech Republic	437.6	432.5	424.3	434.2	435.9	439.2	449.4	464.7	493.4	524.1	564.3
% of total population	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.3
Denmark	320.2	329.9	346.0	358.9	374.7	397.3	422.6	463.1	485.0	506.0	525.8
% of total population	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.6	7.0	7.4	8.1	8.5	8.8	9.1
Estonia	211.1	210.9	211.7	211.4	211.5	212.2	213.7	216.4
% of total population	16.0	16.0	16.1	16.1	16.1	16.1	16.2	16.3
Finland	143.3	155.7	168.0	183.1	195.5	207.5	219.7	229.8	243.6	249.5	257.6
% of total population	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.7
France	3 771.0	3 818.0	3 889.0	3 980.0	4 084.0	4 289.0	4 428.0	4 542.0	4 704.0	4 769.4	4 986.9
% of total population	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.3	7.4	7.7
Germany	6 727.6	6 694.8	6 753.6	6 930.9	7 213.7	7 633.6	8 153.0	9 107.9	10 039.1	10 623.9	10 915.5
% of total population	8.3	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.9	9.4	10.0	11.1	12.1	12.8	13.1
Greece	927.6	931.4	934.4	921.4	886.5	855.0	822.0	798.4	810.0	816.1	831.7
% of total population	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.5	8.2	8.0	7.7	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.9
Hungary	184.4	197.8	209.2	143.4	141.4	140.5	146.0	156.6	151.1	161.5	180.5
% of total population	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9
Iceland	24.4	21.7	21.1	21.0	21.4	22.7	24.3	26.5	30.3	37.8	44.3
% of total population	7.7	6.8	6.5	6.4	6.6	6.9	7.4	8.0	9.1	11.2	13.1
Ireland	575.6	575.4	598.1	599.9	601.8	603.7	605.5	607.4	566.6	593.5	622.7
% of total population	13.0	12.8	13.1	13.1	13.1	13.1	13.1	13.1	12.1	12.5	12.9
Italy	3 402.4	3 648.1	3 879.2	4 052.1	4 387.7	4 921.3	5 014.4	5 026.9	5 047.0	5 144.4	5 255.5
% of total population	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.8	7.3	8.1	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.5	8.7
Japan	2 215.9	2 184.7	2 132.9	2 078.5	2 033.7	2 066.4	2 121.8	2 232.2	2 382.8	2 561.8	2 731.1
% of total population	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2
Korea	920.9	1 002.7	982.5	933.0	985.9	1 091.5	1 143.1	1 161.7	1 171.8	1 246.8	..
% of total population	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4
Latvia	382.7	362.4	342.8	324.3	315.4	304.8	298.4	288.9	279.4	272.5	266.6
% of total population	17.8	17.1	16.4	15.7	15.4	15.1	14.9	14.6	14.3	14.1	14.0
Lithuania	30.9	27.3	24.0	22.9	22.2	21.6	22.5	18.7	20.1	27.3	47.2
% of total population	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.7
Luxembourg	215.5	216.3	220.5	229.9	238.8	248.9	258.7	269.2	281.5	288.2	291.3
% of total population	43.4	42.6	42.5	43.3	44.0	44.9	45.6	46.5	47.6	47.7	47.3
Mexico	262.7	281.1	303.9	296.4	..	326.0	355.2	381.8	423.9	462.0	..
% of total population	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	..	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	..
Netherlands	719.5	735.2	760.4	786.1	796.2	816.0	847.3	900.5	972.3	1 040.8	1 110.9
% of total population	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.7	6.1	6.5
Norway	303.0	333.9	369.2	407.3	448.8	483.2	512.2	538.2	559.2	567.8	584.2
% of total population	6.3	6.8	7.5	8.1	8.8	9.4	9.8	10.3	10.6	10.6	10.9
Poland	60.4	75.2	79.3	85.8	93.3	101.2	108.3	149.6	210.3	239.2	289.8
% of total population	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.8

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Portugal	440.6	454.2	445.3	436.8	417.0	401.3	395.2	388.7	397.7	421.7	480.3
% of total population	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.7
Russia	..	687.0	490.3	621.0	715.8	872.6	1 039.0	1 104.7	1 130.8	1 134.5	..
% of total population	..	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	..
Slovak Republic	52.5	62.9	68.0	53.4	56.5	59.2	61.8	65.8	69.7	72.9	76.1
% of total population	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4
Slovenia	70.6	82.2	82.7	85.6	91.4	96.6	101.5	107.8	114.4	121.9	138.2
% of total population	3.5	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.9	6.6
Spain	5 386.7	5 402.6	5 312.4	5 236.0	5 072.7	4 677.1	4 454.4	4 417.5	4 419.5	4 563.0	4 840.2
% of total population	11.6	11.5	11.3	11.1	10.8	10.0	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.8	10.4
Sweden	562.1	602.9	633.3	655.1	667.2	694.7	739.4	782.8	851.9	897.3	932.3
% of total population	6.0	6.4	6.7	6.9	6.9	7.2	7.6	8.0	8.6	9.0	9.3
Switzerland	1 638.9	1 680.2	1 720.4	1 772.3	1 825.1	1 886.6	1 947.0	1 993.9	2 029.5	2 053.6	2 081.2
% of total population	21.2	21.5	21.8	22.1	22.5	23.0	23.5	23.8	24.0	24.1	24.2
Turkey	104.4	167.3	190.5	242.1	278.7	456.5	518.3	650.3	816.4	919.1	..
% of total population	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	..
United Kingdom	4 348.0	4 524.0	4 785.0	4 788.0	4 941.0	5 154.0	5 592.0	5 951.0	6 137.0	5 991.0	6 227.0
% of total population	6.9	7.1	7.5	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.5	9.0	9.2	8.9	9.0
United States	21 685.7	21 641.0	22 460.6	22 225.5	22 115.0	22 016.4	22 263.4	22 426.2	22 415.3	22 595.7	22 518.8
% of total population	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.5.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/70xtn8>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Austria
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Germany	128.7	136.0	144.1	150.9	157.8	164.8	170.5	176.5	181.6	186.8	192.4	50
Serbia	122.2	109.4	110.5	110.4	111.3	112.5	114.3	116.6	118.5	120.2	121.3	49
Turkey	110.0	111.3	112.5	112.9	113.7	114.7	115.4	116.0	116.8	117.3	117.2	49
Romania	32.2	36.0	41.6	47.3	53.3	59.7	73.4	82.9	92.1	102.3	112.7	51
Bosnia and Herzegovina	91.8	90.5	89.6	89.6	89.9	91.0	92.5	94.0	94.6	95.2	95.8	46
Hungary	21.3	23.3	25.6	29.8	37.0	46.3	54.9	63.6	70.6	77.1	82.7	52
Croatia	58.9	58.5	58.3	58.3	58.6	62.0	66.5	70.2	73.3	76.7	80.0	47
Poland	36.6	37.2	38.6	42.1	46.0	50.3	54.3	57.6	60.1	62.2	63.4	47
Syria	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.9	2.7	4.3	11.3	33.3	41.7	48.1	49.8	42
Afghanistan	4.5	5.7	6.7	9.4	12.4	14.0	16.8	35.6	45.3	45.7	44.4	32
Slovak Republic	17.9	19.2	20.4	22.5	25.3	28.6	32.1	35.3	38.1	40.2	42.0	60
Russia	22.5	23.4	24.2	25.5	27.3	28.8	30.0	31.2	32.0	32.4	32.6	58
Italy	13.9	14.5	15.4	16.2	17.8	20.2	22.5	25.3	27.3	29.2	30.9	42
Bulgaria	8.9	9.8	11.2	12.5	14.1	15.9	19.6	22.4	24.9	27.4	29.9	52
North Macedonia	17.9	18.1	18.6	18.9	19.4	20.1	20.9	21.7	22.4	23.1	23.4	49
Other countries	171.5	189.0	194.5	203.3	217.7	233.0	251.3	285.3	302.7	312.0	320.3	
Total	860.0	883.6	913.2	951.4	1 004.3	1 066.1	1 146.1	1 267.7	1 341.9	1 395.9	1 438.9	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Belgium
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
France	136.6	140.2	145.3	150.0	153.4	156.1	158.8	161.8	165.2	166.5	168.1	52
Netherlands	130.2	133.5	137.8	141.2	144.0	146.2	148.9	151.7	153.8	155.4	157.5	48
Italy	167.0	165.1	162.8	159.7	157.4	156.6	156.6	156.8	156.8	156.2	155.9	46
Romania	21.4	26.4	33.6	42.4	51.3	57.0	65.3	73.2	80.9	87.9	96.1	44
Morocco	79.4	81.9	84.7	86.1	83.5	81.0	82.3	83.0	82.9	81.5	80.5	52
Poland	36.3	43.1	49.7	56.1	61.5	65.1	68.1	70.4	71.7	71.8	71.6	52
Spain	43.6	45.2	48.0	50.9	54.4	57.4	59.9	61.7	63.2	64.3	65.5	49
Portugal	31.7	33.1	34.5	36.1	38.8	41.2	42.6	44.2	45.9	46.8	47.8	47
Germany	39.1	39.4	39.8	40.0	39.8	39.5	39.1	39.3	39.6	39.5	39.6	51
Turkey	39.6	39.6	39.8	39.4	39.2	37.9	37.2	37.1	37.2	37.3	37.8	49
Bulgaria	10.4	13.2	17.3	20.4	23.7	25.9	28.6	31.3	33.3	35.3	37.5	49
Syria	2.1	..	4.0	4.8	7.4	18.0	22.1	27.5	30.9	44
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	16.8	18.1	19.6	20.6	23.8	23.4	22.1	22.3	22.5	22.6	22.6	52
United Kingdom	25.5	25.0	25.0	24.8	24.5	24.1	23.9	23.5	23.1	21.6	20.4	43
Afghanistan	2.8	3.8	9.6	9.4	9.6	17.5	19.1	19.3	19.9	28
Other countries	235.6	253.9	276.5	297.6	348.2	342.4	326.6	341.7	349.2	355.4	371.4	
Total	1 013.3	1 057.7	1 119.3	1 169.1	1 257.2	1 268.1	1 276.9	1 333.2	1 366.5	1 388.9	1 423.2	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Canada
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
China	340.6	53
India	274.2	47
Philippines	259.2	58
United States	149.7	55
United Kingdom	113.9	48
France	65.2	46
Korea	60.5	56
Pakistan	59.2	49
Iran	52.2	50
Germany	46.6	52
Syria	35.9	49
Mexico	35.6	49
Haiti	27.7	54
Nigeria	27.2	47
Italy	27.2	51
Other countries	829.9	
Total	1 957.0	2 404.8	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Chile
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2017 (%)
Argentina	501.3
Venezuela	117.1
Haiti	108.9
Bolivia	81.1
Peru	52.4
Colombia	33.7
Brazil	20.9
Ecuador	7.2
Australia	2.9
China	2.6
Uruguay	2.5
France	2.3
Spain	2.3
Germany	1.8
Israel	1.3
Other countries	14.4
Total	952.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Czech Republic
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Ukraine	131.9	131.9	124.3	118.9	112.5	105.1	104.2	105.6	109.9	117.1	131.3	46
Slovak Republic	76.0	73.4	71.8	81.3	85.8	90.9	96.2	101.6	107.3	111.8	116.8	46
Viet Nam	60.3	61.1	60.3	58.2	57.3	57.3	56.6	56.9	58.0	59.8	61.1	45
Russia	27.1	30.3	31.8	32.4	33.0	33.1	34.4	34.7	35.8	36.6	38.0	57
Poland	21.7	19.3	18.2	19.1	19.2	19.5	19.6	19.8	20.3	20.7	21.3	48
Germany	17.5	13.8	13.9	15.8	17.1	18.5	19.7	20.5	21.2	21.3	21.3	19
Bulgaria	5.9	6.4	6.9	7.4	8.2	9.1	10.1	11.0	12.3	13.8	15.6	37
Romania	3.6	4.1	4.4	4.8	5.7	6.8	7.7	9.1	10.8	12.6	14.7	33
United States	5.3	5.6	6.1	7.3	7.0	7.1	6.5	6.5	8.8	9.6	9.5	44
Mongolia	8.6	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.5	6.0	6.8	7.9	9.1	54
China	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.7	6.1	6.9	7.5	47
United Kingdom	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	6.0	6.3	6.7	7.1	23
Hungary	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.5	2.3	3.1	4.1	5.4	6.6	36
Belarus	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.7	5.2	6.2	53
Kazakhstan	3.4	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.8	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.7	6.0	57
Other countries	62.1	62.5	62.0	63.5	63.9	64.8	66.0	68.5	75.7	83.3	92.3	
Total	437.6	432.5	424.3	434.2	435.9	439.2	449.4	464.7	493.4	524.1	564.3	43

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Denmark
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	19.9	21.1	22.6	24.5	26.8	29.3	32.3	35.3	37.6	39.3	40.5	44
Syria	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.9	2.7	4.4	9.8	21.6	31.0	33.6	34.7	44
Romania	3.7	5.1	6.9	9.5	12.4	15.4	18.8	22.4	25.3	27.8	30.7	42
Turkey	28.9	29.0	29.2	29.0	28.8	28.9	28.8	28.8	28.1	28.2	28.3	49
Germany	20.4	21.1	21.6	22.1	22.4	22.7	23.0	23.7	24.4	24.8	25.5	50
United Kingdom	14.2	14.3	14.7	15.0	15.4	15.8	16.1	16.7	17.6	18.3	18.8	35
Norway	14.8	15.0	15.1	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.8	16.4	16.7	16.8	16.8	61
Sweden	12.7	12.8	12.9	13.1	13.4	13.9	14.4	14.9	15.1	15.7	16.1	57
Lithuania	4.3	5.2	6.5	7.7	8.7	9.7	10.4	11.5	12.4	13.5	14.5	47
Ukraine	5.8	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.6	7.0	7.9	8.6	9.2	10.2	11.7	50
China	7.2	7.4	7.6	7.5	7.8	8.4	8.9	9.6	10.1	10.5	10.9	57
India	3.9	4.0	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.6	6.3	7.5	8.7	9.6	10.9	43
Thailand	7.3	7.7	8.3	8.6	8.8	9.2	9.5	9.8	10.0	10.2	10.4	85
Pakistan	6.9	7.1	7.8	8.2	8.6	9.2	9.8	10.1	9.9	10.1	10.4	51
Bulgaria	1.5	2.3	3.2	4.0	5.0	6.1	7.2	8.2	9.0	9.7	10.4	42
Other countries	168.0	170.8	177.8	181.5	187.1	196.3	203.3	218.0	219.8	227.7	235.1	
Total	320.2	329.9	346.0	358.9	374.7	397.3	422.6	463.1	485.0	506.0	525.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Estonia

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Russia	96.5	95.1	93.6	92.6	91.4	90.3	89.0	88.1	53
Ukraine	5.4	5.5	5.7	6.3	7.2	7.8	8.3	9.3	41
Finland	4.3	5.0	5.7	6.3	6.9	7.6	8.2	8.8	35
Latvia	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.6	3.9	4.2	5.0	5.6	42
Germany	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.6	45
Lithuania	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	44
Italy	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	2.0	36
Belarus	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	53
France	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	40
United Kingdom	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	23
Sweden	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	23
Spain	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.3	42
Poland	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	42
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	22
United States	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	34
Other countries	93.6	92.7	92.2	90.5	88.6	87.2	86.5	86.0	
Total	211.1	210.9	211.7	211.4	211.5	212.2	213.7	216.4	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Finland**

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Estonia	22.6	25.5	29.1	34.0	39.8	44.8	48.4	50.4	51.5	51.5	51.5	49
Russia	26.9	28.2	28.4	29.6	30.2	30.8	30.6	30.8	31.0	29.2	28.7	55
Iraq	3.2	4.0	5.0	5.7	5.9	6.4	6.8	7.1	9.8	11.7	13.1	35
China	4.6	5.2	5.6	6.2	6.6	7.1	7.6	8.0	8.5	8.7	9.2	54
Sweden	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.2	8.0	8.0	8.0	41
Thailand	3.9	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.9	7.2	7.5	7.5	7.6	86
Somalia	4.9	5.6	6.6	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.4	7.3	7.0	6.7	6.4	48
Afghanistan	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.7	5.3	5.8	6.2	38
Syria	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.6	3.4	5.3	6.0	45
Viet Nam	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.6	5.9	53
India	2.7	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.7	40
Turkey	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8	35
United Kingdom	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.6	20
Ukraine	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.6	49
Poland	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.4	40
Other countries	50.9	54.9	59.0	63.7	66.9	70.1	75.0	79.5	84.2	86.7	90.7	
Total	143.3	155.7	168.0	183.1	195.5	207.5	219.7	229.8	243.6	249.5	257.6	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – France

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2015 (%)
Portugal	509.3	519.5	500.9	509.3	519.5	548.7	541.6	546.1	548.7	47
Algeria	468.4	465.5	465.8	469.6	476.5	483.8	495.8	505.6	518.1	48
Morocco	439.9	435	433	436.4	443.4	448.6	458.3	464.9	472.6	49
Turkey	221.6	221.3	219.5	217.8	216.4	215.7	215.5	212.5	211.8	47
Italy	174.9	177.2	172.6	174.9	177.2	202.6	187.9	194.6	202.6	45
Tunisia	143.9	146.7	150.1	155	161.5	168	173.1	178.9	187.1	41
Spain	133.4	138.7	129.1	133.4	138.7	163.6	152.2	157.4	163.6	50
Comoros	18.7	19.6	21.1	22.3	23.8	109.9	116	121.7	147.2	49
United Kingdom	156.4	153.6	157.8	156.4	153.6	146.1	150.4	148.2	146.1	57
Romania	64.8	74.3	57.2	64.8	74.3	116.8	96.9	106.2	116.8	52
China	81.4	86.1	90.1	93.8	96.2	97.6	100.6	100.4	102.1	50
Belgium	95.1	96.1	93	95.1	96.1	101.7	99.3	100.4	101.7	55
Germany	93.4	91.7	93.8	93.4	91.7	86.6	89.8	88.2	86.6	40
Mali	62.3	63.7	65.1	66.8	69.7	71	73.4	75.5	78.1	55
Haiti	56.6	58	62.8	64.2	65.8	68.6	72.5	74.6	77.5	44
Other countries	1 050.9	1 071	1 177.1	1 226.8	1 279.6	1 259.7	1 404.7	1 466.8	1 543.4			
Total	3 771.0	3 818.0	3 889.0	3 980.0	4 084.0	4 289.0	4 428.0	4 542.0	4 704.0			50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Germany**

Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Turkey	1 688.4	1 658.1	1 629.5	1 607.2	1 575.7	1 549.8	1 527.1	1 506.1	1 492.6	1 483.5	1 476.4	48
Poland	393.8	398.5	419.4	468.5	532.4	609.9	674.2	741.0	783.1	866.9	860.1	46
Syria	28.5	28.9	30.1	32.9	40.4	56.9	118.2	366.6	637.8	699.0	745.6	40
Romania	94.3	105.0	126.5	159.2	205.0	267.4	355.3	452.7	533.7	622.8	696.3	43
Italy	523.2	517.5	517.5	520.2	529.4	552.9	574.5	596.1	611.5	643.1	643.5	42
Croatia	223.1	221.2	220.2	223.0	225.0	240.5	263.3	297.9	332.6	367.9	395.7	46
Greece	287.2	278.1	276.7	283.7	298.3	316.3	328.6	339.9	348.5	362.2	363.2	46
Bulgaria	54.0	61.9	74.9	93.9	118.8	146.8	183.3	226.9	263.3	310.4	337.0	46
Afghanistan	48.4	48.8	51.3	56.6	61.8	67.0	75.4	131.5	253.5	251.6	257.1	35
Russia	188.3	189.3	191.3	195.3	202.1	216.3	221.4	231.0	245.4	249.2	254.3	63
Iraq	74.5	79.4	81.3	82.4	84.1	85.5	88.7	136.4	227.2	237.4	247.8	42
Serbia	136.2	164.9	179.0	198.0	202.5	205.0	220.9	230.4	223.1	225.5	231.2	49
Hungary	60.0	61.4	68.9	82.8	107.4	135.6	156.8	178.2	192.3	207.0	212.4	42
Bosnia and Herzegovina	156.8	154.6	152.4	153.5	155.3	157.5	163.5	168.0	172.6	181.0	190.5	47
Austria	175.4	174.5	175.2	175.9	176.3	178.8	179.8	181.8	183.6	191.3	187.4	48
Other countries	2 595.6	2 552.7	2 559.3	2 598.0	2 699.3	2 847.4	3 021.9	3 323.4	3 538.4	3 725.2	3 816.9	
Total	6 727.6	6 694.8	6 753.6	6 930.9	7 213.7	7 633.6	8 153.0	9 107.9	10 039.1	10 623.9	10 915.5	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Greece
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
Albania	413.9	501.7	485.0	449.7	471.5	410.4	436.9	369.1	49
Bulgaria	40.2	54.5	48.4	47.3	38.4	46.2	43.3	31.1	70
Romania	29.5	33.8	33.3	40.6	38.5	30.9	28.8	23.8	52
Georgia	33.6	33.9	32.8	28.0	23.5	19.8	19.4	16.2	73
Pakistan	18.0	23.0	21.2	24.1	24.5	17.0	19.0	12.0	9
Russia	16.7	19.5	14.1	12.0	15.1	12.4	10.9	11.8	80
Ukraine	12.0	13.7	12.2	10.8	10.7	8.3	8.1	11.0	81
Turkey	5.4	2.8	5.6	2.5	0.2	1.6	2.9	10.5	56
Poland	18.9	11.2	10.2	7.5	11.3	15.0	20.3	9.3	71
Cyprus	14.2	11.8	9.9	12.1	11.2	12.0	10.4	9.0	56
Bangladesh	14.1	12.5	14.6	10.5	7.5	6.7	8.4	7.3	12
Germany	8.1	7.3	9.6	6.2	5.2	6.8	4.6	7.0	55
India	5.0	7.7	8.0	2.8	5.4	4.5	4.5	6.4	39
United Kingdom	7.5	7.5	7.3	7.6	9.5	8.7	12.0	5.9	74
Egypt	12.6	10.3	9.5	10.9	10.4	3.3	4.7	4.7	26
Other countries	83.9	88.6	88.4	84.7	85.1	83.5	72.5	151.1	
Total	733.6	839.7	810.0	757.4	768.1	687.1	706.7	686.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Hungary
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Ukraine	17.6	17.2	16.5	11.9	10.8	8.3	6.9	6.7	5.8	10.5	24.2	36
Romania	66.4	72.7	76.9	41.6	34.8	30.9	28.6	29.7	24.0	22.7	21.0	33
China	10.7	11.2	11.8	10.1	11.5	12.7	16.5	19.8	19.1	19.9	18.9	50
Germany	16.7	18.7	20.2	15.8	17.4	18.7	18.8	19.4	18.6	17.9	16.5	44
Slovak Republic	6.1	6.4	7.3	6.7	7.6	8.3	8.7	9.4	9.5	9.7	9.6	57
Serbia	6.9	10.2	9.7	8.0	4.7	3.0	2.4	2.4	2.3	3.4	5.3	25
Russia	2.9	3.3	3.5	2.9	3.4	3.7	4.3	4.9	4.9	4.8	5.1	60
Viet Nam	3.3	3.1	3.1	2.6	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.7	4.7	48
Italy	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.6	28
Iran	1.0	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.9	3.4	46
United States	2.4	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.4	46
Austria	3.0	3.7	3.9	3.3	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.7	3.1	36
United Kingdom	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.1	35
India	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.9	33
Netherlands	1.4	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.8	41
Other countries	41.5	40.3	44.2	29.2	32.1	35.1	38.8	41.6	43.1	47.4	52.8	
Total	184.4	197.8	209.2	143.4	141.4	140.5	146.0	156.6	151.1	161.5	180.5	42

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Iceland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	11.0	9.6	9.1	9.0	9.4	10.2	11.1	12.1	13.8	17.0	19.3	39
Lithuania	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.3	3.4	4.1	34
Latvia	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.9	31
Romania	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.5	31
Germany	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	65
Portugal	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.2	33
United Kingdom	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	33
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	43
Denmark	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	52
Philippines	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	61
United States	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	48
Czech Republic	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.7	47
France	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	47
Croatia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.7	25
Thailand	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	69
Other countries	5.0	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.8	6.9	8.0	
Total	24.4	21.7	21.1	21.0	21.4	22.7	24.3	26.5	30.3	37.8	44.3	41

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Ireland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
Poland	122.6	122.5	50
United Kingdom	117.9	117.1	112.3	113.0	113.4	114.9	115.5	103.1	107.7	110.8	114.5	49
Lithuania	36.7	36.6	54
Romania	17.3	29.2	48
Latvia	20.6	19.9	57
Brazil	8.7	13.6	53
Spain	6.8	12.1	60
Italy	7.7	11.7	45
France	9.7	11.7	50
Germany	11.3	11.5	57
India	17.0	11.5	37
United States	11.0	10.5	58
Slovak Republic	10.8	9.7	50
Hungary	8.0	9.3	49
Pakistan	6.8	7.4	31
Other countries	190.8	187.1	
Total	575.6	575.4	598.1	599.9	601.8	603.7	605.5	607.4	566.6	593.5	622.7	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Italy
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Romania	658.8	726.2	782.0	834.5	933.4	1 081.4	1 131.8	1 151.4	1 168.6	1 190.1	1 206.9	57
Albania	422.1	441.2	450.2	450.9	465.0	495.7	490.5	467.7	448.4	440.5	441.0	49
Morocco	368.6	388.4	400.7	408.7	426.8	454.8	449.1	437.5	420.7	416.5	423.0	47
China	154.1	168.0	184.2	197.1	223.4	256.8	265.8	271.3	282.0	290.7	299.8	50
Ukraine	134.4	150.5	171.6	180.1	191.7	219.1	226.1	230.7	234.4	237.0	239.4	78
Philippines	105.4	112.6	120.0	129.2	139.8	162.7	168.2	165.9	166.5	167.9	168.3	57
India	85.7	97.2	109.2	118.4	128.9	142.5	147.8	150.5	151.4	151.8	158.0	42
Bangladesh	60.4	67.3	73.8	81.7	92.7	111.2	115.3	118.8	122.4	132.0	140.0	28
Moldova	85.3	99.9	122.4	132.2	139.7	149.4	147.4	142.3	135.7	131.8	129.0	66
Egypt	54.8	58.6	62.4	66.9	76.7	96.0	103.7	109.9	112.8	119.5	126.7	34
Pakistan	50.1	57.8	66.3	71.0	80.7	90.6	96.2	101.8	108.2	114.2	122.3	30
Nigeria	38.7	41.5	44.7	48.2	56.5	66.8	71.2	77.3	88.5	106.1	117.4	41
Sri Lanka	57.8	62.0	65.3	71.6	79.5	95.0	100.6	102.3	104.9	108.0	111.1	47
Senegal	60.4	63.9	69.5	73.7	80.3	90.9	94.0	98.2	101.2	105.9	110.2	26
Peru	72.3	80.5	88.9	93.8	99.2	109.9	109.7	103.7	99.1	97.4	97.1	58
Other countries	993.6	1 032.6	1 068.2	1 094.1	1 173.5	1 298.6	1 297.1	1 297.7	1 302.4	1 335.1	1 365.3	
Total	3 402.4	3 648.1	3 879.2	4 052.1	4 387.7	4 921.3	5 014.4	5 026.9	5 047.0	5 144.4	5 255.5	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Japan
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
China	655.4	680.5	687.2	674.9	652.6	649.1	654.8	665.8	695.5	730.9	764.7	55
Korea	589.2	578.5	566.0	545.4	530.0	519.7	501.2	457.8	453.1	450.7	449.6	54
Viet Nam	41.1	41.0	41.8	44.7	52.4	72.3	99.9	147.0	200.0	262.4	330.8	44
Philippines	210.6	211.7	210.2	209.4	203.0	209.2	217.6	229.6	243.7	260.6	271.3	71
Brazil	312.6	267.5	230.6	210.0	190.6	181.3	175.4	173.4	180.9	191.4	201.9	46
Nepal	12.3	15.3	17.5	20.4	24.1	31.5	42.3	54.8	67.5	80.0	89.0	41
Chinese Taipei	22.8	33.3	40.2	48.7	52.8	56.7	60.7	67
United States	52.7	52.1	50.7	49.8	48.4	50.0	51.3	52.3	53.7	55.7	57.5	34
Indonesia	27.3	25.5	24.9	24.7	25.5	27.2	30.2	35.9	42.9	50.0	56.3	33
Thailand	42.6	42.7	41.3	42.8	40.1	41.2	43.1	45.4	47.6	50.2	52.3	72
Peru	59.7	57.5	54.6	52.8	49.2	48.6	48.0	47.7	47.7	48.0	48.4	48
India	22.3	22.9	22.5	21.5	21.7	22.5	24.5	26.2	28.7	31.7	35.4	31
Democratic People's Rep. of Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.9	32.5	30.9	29.6	45
Myanmar	7.8	8.4	8.6	8.7	8.0	8.6	10.3	13.7	17.8	22.5	26.5	53
Sri Lanka	8.8	9.0	9.1	9.3	8.4	9.2	10.7	13.2	17.3	23.3	25.4	27
Other countries	173.5	172.2	168.1	164.2	156.9	162.7	172.4	186.7	201.2	217.0	231.7	
Total	2 215.9	2 184.7	2 132.9	2 078.5	2 033.7	2 066.4	2 121.8	2 232.2	2 382.8	2 561.8	2 731.1	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Korea
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
China	487.1	489.1	505.4	536.7	474.8	161.1	546.7	568.0	549.1	527.1	553.1	50
Viet Nam	79.8	86.2	98.2	110.6	114.2	113.8	122.6	128.0	137.8	151.4	170.7	51
Uzbekistan	15.0	15.9	20.8	24.4	28.0	30.7	34.7	36.9	42.1	47.7	52.6	32
Philippines	39.4	38.4	39.5	38.4	33.2	38.7	43.2	45.3	46.1	45.2	45.3	44
Cambodia	7.0	8.8	11.7	16.8	23.4	30.7	37.3	42.0	44.5	45.7	45.2	32
Nepal	5.9	7.4	9.2	12.6	17.8	20.7	25.5	29.2	33.1	35.4	38.9	11
Indonesia	27.4	25.9	27.4	29.6	29.8	33.2	38.7	40.0	39.1	36.9	37.4	9
Thailand	30.1	28.7	27.6	26.0	21.4	26.2	26.8	27.9	29.3	30.2	31.4	30
Myanmar	2.9	3.6	3.8	5.6	8.3	11.5	14.7	18.1	21.3	23.5	26.7	3
United States	56.2	63.1	57.6	26.5	23.4	24.0	24.9	24.1	23.9	24.2	24.6	45
Sri Lanka	14.3	14.4	17.4	20.5	21.0	21.9	24.6	25.2	26.0	25.3	24.3	3
Mongolia	21.2	21.0	21.8	21.3	19.8	18.4	17.3	18.5	20.1	22.6	24.2	51
Japan	18.6	18.6	19.4	21.1	22.6	23.1	23.2	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.9	76
Chinese Taipei	27.0	21.7	21.5	21.4	21.2	21.2	21.0	20.5	20.4	20.4	20.5	52
Bangladesh	7.7	7.3	9.3	10.6	10.8	10.9	12.1	12.3	13.2	13.6	14.3	7
Other countries	56.0	70.8	112.1	60.6	63.3	399.9	78.2	83.9	92.4	99.2	113.7	
Total	895.5	920.9	1 002.7	982.5	933.0	985.9	1 091.5	1 143.1	1 161.7	1 171.8	1 246.8	43

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Latvia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Russia	33.8	37.0	36.1	38.8	51.6	56.0	55.4	54.7	53.9	..
Ukraine	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4	4.1	5.9	6.4	7.0	8.2	..
Lithuania	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.1	..
Belarus	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.5	..
Germany	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.5	..
India	0.6	0.9	1.3	2.2	..
Uzbekistan	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	..
Estonia	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	..
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	..
China	0.9	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	..
Sweden	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	..
Bulgaria	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	..
Italy	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	..
Poland	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	..
Kazakhstan	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	..
Other countries	300.4	279.0	271.1	257.5	227.9	208.3	197.7	189.9	182.1	
Total	382.7	362.4	342.8	324.3	315.4	304.8	298.4	288.9	279.4	272.5	266.6	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Lithuania
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Ukraine	2.5	1.7	1.3	2.1	1.9	1.7	2.1	1.5	2.5	6.2	13.9	15
Russia	12.3	11.7	11.2	10.8	10.5	10.3	10.7	8.9	8.3	8.1	10.9	49
Belarus	4.8	3.3	2.3	3.4	3.0	2.3	1.9	0.8	0.9	3.2	8.9	19
Poland	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	49
Latvia	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	52
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	31
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	48
United Kingdom	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	49
Romania	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	13
India	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.5	24
Italy	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	17
Syria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.4	47
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	55
Moldova	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	19
Turkey	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	21
Other countries	10.0	9.3	8.2	4.6	4.9	4.2	4.3	3.7	3.9	4.3	5.9	
Total	30.9	27.3	24.0	22.9	22.2	21.6	22.5	18.7	20.1	27.3	47.2	30

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Luxembourg
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Portugal	80.0	79.8	82.4	85.3	88.2	90.8	92.1	93.1	96.8	96.5	95.5	47
France	28.5	29.7	31.5	33.1	35.2	37.2	39.4	41.7	44.3	45.8	46.9	47
Italy	19.4	18.2	18.1	18.1	18.3	18.8	19.5	20.3	21.3	22.0	22.5	44
Belgium	16.7	16.8	16.9	17.2	17.6	18.2	18.8	19.4	20.0	20.2	20.0	45
Germany	12.0	12.1	12.0	12.3	12.4	12.7	12.8	12.8	13.1	13.1	13.0	50
Spain	3.3	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.1	5.5	6.1	6.5	6.8	49
United Kingdom	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.1	5.9	5.8	43
Romania	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.1	4.7	5.2	59
Poland	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.7	56
Netherlands	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.3	4.2	46
China	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.7	54
Montenegro	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	4.4	4.2	3.6	48
Greece	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.4	50
Cabo Verde	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.6	53
India	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.9	2.3	44
Other countries	41.5	42.0	32.3	35.1	36.8	39.1	41.5	45.0	46.2	49.0	51.0	
Total	215.5	216.3	220.5	229.9	238.8	248.9	258.7	269.2	281.5	288.2	291.3	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Mexico
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
United States	60.0	64.9	68.5	63.4	..	65.3	67.5	68.9	74.6	79.6	..	44
Venezuela	10.1	11.8	12.8	12.9	..	15.3	18.6	22.3	28.2	35.1	..	55
Colombia	14.6	15.5	16.9	16.7	..	18.3	20.6	23.0	26.3	30.0	..	55
Spain	18.6	18.8	19.6	20.7	..	24.7	26.7	27.7	28.5	28.9	..	40
Cuba	10.3	11.8	14.0	14.5	..	17.0	18.4	20.5	24.3	26.5	..	50
China	10.2	12.5	15.2	15.6	..	18.3	20.5	21.5	22.7	23.5	..	42
Argentina	15.2	15.6	15.8	15.3	..	16.8	18.0	19.0	19.8	20.7	..	47
Honduras	4.9	6.3	7.6	6.9	..	7.8	9.3	12.0	15.6	19.5	..	55
Guatemala	8.4	9.8	10.9	9.7	..	10.3	11.6	13.2	15.8	18.5	..	55
Canada	10.9	12.7	13.6	12.9	..	13.2	14.1	14.6	16.0	17.2	..	46
El Salvador	4.8	5.0	6.0	5.7	..	6.2	7.2	9.0	12.2	15.3	..	51
France	9.4	9.1	9.1	9.0	..	9.8	10.5	10.9	11.7	12.1	..	45
Germany	8.9	8.8	9.0	8.8	..	9.5	10.5	10.9	11.2	11.4	..	42
Brazil	6.3	6.3	7.1	6.5	..	7.2	8.2	9.3	10.5	11.4	..	52
Japan	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.6	..	8.0	9.0	9.9	10.8	11.2	..	40
Other countries	65.2	67.2	72.7	72.1	..	78.3	84.5	89.2	95.8	101.1	..	
Total	262.7	281.1	303.9	296.4	..	326.0	355.2	381.8	423.9	462.0	..	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Netherlands
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	35.5	43.1	52.5	65.1	74.6	85.8	99.6	110.9	121.4	132.4	144.0	50
Germany	65.9	68.4	71.4	72.8	72.6	72.2	71.8	72.3	73.3	75.0	77.1	56
Turkey	92.7	90.8	88.0	84.8	81.9	80.1	77.5	75.4	74.1	73.8	74.8	49
Syria	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.4	8.2	25.4	51.4	67.5	74.1	44
United Kingdom	41.1	41.4	41.4	41.4	41.7	42.3	43.0	44.2	45.3	46.0	47.3	41
Italy	20.3	21.1	21.9	22.6	23.6	25.0	27.1	29.5	32.3	35.5	39.1	41
Morocco	70.8	66.6	61.9	56.6	51.0	48.1	44.9	42.3	39.9	38.0	36.5	48
China	18.1	19.8	21.4	23.9	25.9	27.2	28.2	29.7	31.4	33.9	36.5	53
Belgium	26.6	26.9	27.2	27.6	28.2	28.8	29.6	30.6	31.9	33.2	34.4	53
Spain	17.3	18.1	19.2	20.3	21.9	23.9	25.3	26.8	28.3	30.3	32.7	51
Bulgaria	10.2	12.3	14.1	16.8	17.6	17.8	19.8	21.9	24.1	27.3	31.2	49
India	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.8	11.7	13.1	14.7	17.1	20.4	24.9	30.6	42
Eritrea	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	3.2	9.1	15.7	21.0	26.0	43
France	16.4	17.2	17.8	18.1	18.3	18.7	19.7	20.9	22.6	24.2	25.8	52
Romania	6.3	7.1	8.3	9.1	9.5	10.0	11.9	13.7	16.1	20.0	24.9	49
Other countries	289.4	292.8	305.0	315.2	316.5	321.2	322.6	330.7	344.1	357.8	375.8	
Total	719.5	735.2	760.4	786.1	796.2	816.0	847.3	900.5	972.3	1 040.8	1 110.9	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Norway
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Poland	39.2	46.7	55.2	66.6	77.1	85.6	93.6	99.6	102.0	103.8	105.2	36
Lithuania	7.6	10.4	16.4	24.1	30.7	35.8	39.5	41.7	42.5	43.7	45.1	43
Sweden	32.8	35.8	39.2	42.0	43.1	44.2	45.1	45.1	44.4	44.0	44.0	46
Syria	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.5	3.6	7.6	18.9	26.0	30.2	41
Germany	18.9	20.8	22.4	23.7	24.4	24.6	25.0	25.2	24.9	24.7	24.8	47
Denmark	20.6	20.7	20.9	21.4	21.9	22.6	23.5	23.3	23.0	22.8	22.8	45
Eritrea	2.1	3.8	5.7	7.6	10.0	12.7	15.2	17.7	19.0	18.6	19.1	41
United Kingdom	12.6	13.3	14.0	14.7	15.5	15.8	16.3	16.3	16.3	16.2	16.5	35
Romania	2.4	3.4	4.5	5.7	7.5	10.0	12.0	13.8	14.5	15.0	15.6	43
Somalia	10.9	10.8	11.1	10.8	13.0	14.4	15.1	16.8	16.8	15.9	14.5	48
Philippines	6.1	6.8	7.8	8.9	10.1	11.4	11.7	11.8	12.1	11.7	12.3	78
Thailand	7.9	8.6	9.3	10.0	10.8	11.4	11.5	11.6	12.1	11.3	11.9	85
Latvia	1.7	2.8	4.9	6.9	8.5	9.4	10.3	10.8	11.0	11.1	11.5	43
Russia	10.4	10.6	10.8	10.9	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.3	11.4	66
United States	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.8	9.2	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.2	9.2	9.5	51
Other countries	121.2	130.5	138.0	144.8	155.2	163.1	169.0	176.1	181.2	182.6	189.9	
Total	303.0	333.9	369.2	407.3	448.8	483.2	512.2	538.2	559.2	567.8	584.2	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Poland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2010 (%)
Ukraine	7.2	10.2	..	13.4
Germany	12.2	4.4	..	5.2
Russia	3.5	4.2	..	4.2
Belarus	2.2	3.2	..	3.8
Viet Nam	2.2	2.9	..	2.6
Armenia	0.9	1.4	..	1.8
Sweden	2.8	1.3
Bulgaria	1.1	1.1
United States	1.1	1.1
Former USSR	1.2	1.0
Austria	2.8	1.0
Greece	1.2	0.9
United Kingdom	0.6	0.8
France	0.6	0.7
Czech Republic	0.7	0.7
Other countries	20.1	40.4	..	54.8
Total	60.4	75.2	79.3	85.8	93.3	101.2	108.3	149.6	210.3	239.2	..	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Portugal
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Brazil	107.0	116.2	119.4	111.4	105.6	92.1	87.5	82.6	81.3	85.4	105.4	59
Cabo Verde	51.4	48.8	44.0	43.9	42.9	42.4	40.9	38.7	36.6	35.0	34.7	54
Romania	27.8	32.5	36.8	39.3	35.2	34.2	31.5	30.5	30.4	30.8	30.9	45
Ukraine	52.5	52.3	49.5	48.0	44.1	41.1	37.9	35.8	34.5	32.5	29.2	54
United Kingdom	15.4	16.4	17.2	17.7	16.7	16.5	16.6	17.2	19.4	22.4	26.5	46
China	13.3	14.4	15.7	16.8	17.5	18.7	21.5	21.4	22.6	23.2	25.4	50
France	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.2	5.3	6.5	8.4	11.3	15.3	19.8	46
Italy	3.9	4.5	5.1	5.3	5.2	5.1	5.3	6.1	8.5	12.9	18.9	41
Angola	27.6	26.6	23.5	21.6	20.4	20.2	19.7	18.2	17.0	16.9	18.4	55
Guinea-Bissau	24.4	22.9	19.8	18.5	17.8	17.8	18.0	17.1	15.7	15.2	16.2	47
Spain	7.2	8.1	8.9	9.3	9.4	9.5	9.7	10.0	11.1	12.5	14.1	49
Germany	8.2	8.6	9.0	9.1	8.6	8.6	8.8	9.0	10.0	11.2	12.8	48
Nepal	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.7	2.6	3.5	4.8	5.8	7.4	11.5	36
India	5.5	5.8	5.3	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4	6.9	7.2	8.0	11.4	29
Sao Tome and Principe	11.7	11.5	10.5	10.5	10.4	10.3	10.2	9.6	9.0	8.6	9.2	55
Other countries	79.3	80.1	74.7	73.6	70.9	70.9	71.3	72.3	77.4	84.4	96.2	
Total	440.3	454.2	445.3	436.8	417.0	401.3	395.2	388.7	397.7	421.7	480.3	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Russia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	..	93.4	92.0	110.2	122.3	192.7	306.0	345.8	346.2	331.3	..	55
Uzbekistan	..	131.1	86.4	103.1	115.3	127.5	138.4	141.1	149.1	148.9	..	41
Tajikistan	..	87.1	64.4	75.7	82.9	91.8	100.3	110.2	126.3	137.3	..	37
Armenia	..	59.4	73.0	90.0	102.3	115.0	116.1	114.8	107.3	98.9	..	53
Azerbaijan	..	67.9	53.0	62.8	67.2	77.3	85.5	90.0	93.7	96.8	..	41
Kazakhstan	..	28.1	16.3	42.2	65.5	79.4	85.7	93.2	92.4	92.2	..	57
Moldova	..	33.9	28.2	36.3	41.2	51.6	60.1	62.4	63.7	63.6	..	49
Belarus	..	27.7	6.1	9.8	14.0	17.7	20.2	24.9	28.7	32.9	..	52
Kyrgyzstan	..	44.6	4.4	14.0	22.4	30.8	34.2	30.7	27.8	27.4	..	62
Georgia	..	12.1	12.1	15.6	17.1	18.7	19.3	18.8	20.0	21.4	..	46
Viet Nam	..	11.1	8.8	10.2	10.7	11.5	12.1	12.1	12.9	13.3	..	47
China	..	28.4	7.6	8.5	8.0	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.9	9.5	..	35
Turkey	..	5.4	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.4	6.4	..	4
Turkmenistan	..	5.6	3.8	4.1	4.4	5.0	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.9	..	52
Lithuania	..	2.6	4.2	4.6	4.9	4.0	4.4	4.3	4.0	4.2	..	47
Other countries	..	48.8	26.7	30.1	33.4	36.2	39.2	39.0	40.4	44.6	..	
Total	..	687.0	490.3	621.0	715.8	872.6	1 039.0	1 104.7	1 130.8	1 134.5	..	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Slovak Republic
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Czech Republic	6.9	8.3	9.0	10.6	11.0	11.4	11.9	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.0	47
Hungary	3.6	4.6	5.3	7.1	7.8	8.1	8.6	9.2	9.8	10.2	10.7	34
Romania	5.0	5.4	5.8	4.4	4.7	4.9	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.9	29
Poland	4.4	5.4	5.6	4.8	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8	5.9	48
Germany	3.8	4.0	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.2	26
Ukraine	4.7	5.9	6.3	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	63
Italy	1.1	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	19
United Kingdom	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	29
Bulgaria	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	25
Austria	1.7	2.1	2.2	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	25
France	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	29
Viet Nam	2.5	2.3	2.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	45
Russia	1.5	2.0	2.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	63
China	1.5	1.7	1.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	49
Croatia	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	24
Other countries	11.6	14.7	16.2	9.7	10.3	10.9	11.4	12.2	13.0	13.6	14.3	
Total	52.5	62.9	68.0	53.4	56.5	59.2	61.8	65.8	69.7	72.9	76.1	38

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Slovenia
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2017 (%)
Bosnie-Herzégovine	33.1	39.0	38.8	39.3	41.3	43.3	44.9	47.7	50.4	54.0	62.9	28
Serbie	8.0	7.1	7.6	7.3	7.8	9.8	9.7	9.8	10.6	11.8	14.0	26
Macédoine du Nord	7.8	9.1	8.8	9.1	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.3	12.3	45
Croatie	7.2	7.8	7.7	8.0	8.3	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.5	9.8	36
Bulgarie	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	27
Russie	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.6	3.0	55
Italie	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.4	34
Ukraine	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	63
Chine	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	47
Allemagne	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	48
Monténégro	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	44
Hongrie	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	40
Royaume-Uni	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	37
République slovaque	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	66
Autriche	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	40
Autres pays	9.0	12.7	12.4	13.7	15.2	14.9	16.6	18.3	19.6	20.4	23.0	
Total	70.6	82.2	82.7	85.6	91.4	96.6	101.5	107.8	114.4	121.9	138.2	34

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Spain
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Morocco	727.2	761.2	774.2	771.6	759.3	718.0	688.7	680.5	665.6	682.5	713.8	47
Romania	764.4	770.4	783.2	799.0	769.6	728.3	708.4	695.0	683.8	675.1	670.2	50
United Kingdom	312.6	314.2	312.2	313.0	316.4	310.1	301.8	296.4	293.5	285.7	286.8	50
Italy	163.5	168.8	172.1	178.2	181.0	180.8	182.7	191.6	203.8	221.8	243.7	44
Colombia	296.8	288.8	265.8	245.8	223.1	173.2	145.5	135.9	138.4	160.1	199.2	56
China	150.0	160.4	167.6	170.8	169.6	166.0	167.5	172.2	177.5	183.4	190.6	51
Germany	157.3	157.0	154.2	153.6	153.4	148.5	145.0	142.1	141.1	139.1	138.3	51
Ecuador	420.3	399.4	350.3	309.8	269.4	214.0	174.4	159.0	145.2	140.0	134.9	47
Venezuela	59.1	57.2	55.1	53.8	52.0	44.4	44.2	50.0	63.3	91.2	134.0	57
Bulgaria	152.5	150.8	149.3	151.5	147.3	139.9	134.4	130.5	127.4	125.2	123.3	50
France	104.3	103.2	100.4	101.1	101.5	99.5	98.7	100.7	103.2	106.5	111.5	50
Ukraine	81.6	82.3	83.3	84.4	84.1	81.8	84.1	90.8	94.5	99.1	103.6	57
Portugal	131.2	128.8	123.8	121.3	116.4	109.0	103.8	101.8	100.9	100.4	102.8	42
Honduras	23.4	25.5	28.1	32.2	35.0	34.3	35.9	40.8	48.1	64.2	84.8	73
Argentina	142.1	129.9	115.8	103.5	95.4	80.9	73.2	71.3	71.2	74.5	80.0	52
Other countries	1 700.3	1 704.7	1 677.1	1 646.4	1 599.0	1 448.4	1 365.9	1 358.9	1 362.0	1 414.1	1 522.8	
Total	5 386.7	5 402.6	5 312.4	5 236.0	5 072.7	4 677.1	4 454.4	4 417.5	4 419.5	4 563.0	4 840.2	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Sweden
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Syria	3.1	3.4	4.1	5.0	9.1	20.5	42.2	70.0	116.4	132.1	137.1	43
Poland	34.7	38.6	40.9	42.7	44.6	46.1	48.2	50.8	52.5	54.0	54.9	45
Finland	77.1	74.1	70.6	67.9	65.3	62.8	59.7	57.6	55.8	53.8	51.0	58
Afghanistan	8.2	8.6	9.8	12.7	16.7	20.3	23.6	26.0	28.0	37.4	45.4	33
Eritrea	3.9	5.0	6.4	8.4	10.0	12.8	18.0	25.1	32.1	36.4	39.7	43
Norway	35.5	35.2	34.9	34.8	34.8	34.6	34.5	34.4	34.6	34.7	34.5	52
Somalia	18.3	24.7	30.8	33.0	36.1	45.0	47.1	46.2	41.3	36.4	32.4	50
Denmark	39.7	40.3	40.5	40.5	40.2	39.3	38.4	37.1	35.2	33.4	31.5	43
Germany	26.6	27.5	27.6	27.8	28.0	28.1	28.2	28.2	28.7	29.0	29.2	49
Iraq	48.6	55.1	56.6	55.8	43.2	31.2	25.9	23.2	22.7	25.3	26.4	43
India	4.7	5.7	7.1	7.7	8.4	9.2	10.4	11.4	13.5	17.1	22.2	40
China	9.4	11.8	14.1	15.5	16.3	17.1	17.5	16.6	17.3	18.6	20.2	54
United Kingdom	16.5	17.3	17.4	18.1	18.4	18.8	19.4	19.8	19.9	20.0	20.0	31
Romania	6.5	7.7	8.8	10.2	11.2	12.0	13.0	14.4	15.5	16.9	18.2	45
Iran	10.6	11.8	13.5	14.3	14.5	14.8	14.9	14.1	14.2	14.6	15.2	46
Other countries	218.7	236.0	250.2	260.7	270.5	282.2	298.6	307.9	324.2	337.6	354.6	
Total	562.1	602.9	633.3	655.1	667.2	694.7	739.4	782.8	851.9	897.3	932.3	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Switzerland
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2019 (%)
Italy	290.0	289.1	289.1	290.5	294.4	301.3	308.6	313.7	318.7	319.4	322.1	42
Germany	233.4	250.5	264.2	276.8	285.4	293.2	298.6	301.5	304.7	305.8	307.9	45
Portugal	196.2	205.3	213.2	224.2	238.4	253.8	263.0	268.1	269.5	268.0	265.5	45
France	85.6	90.6	95.1	99.5	103.9	110.2	116.8	123.1	127.3	131.5	135.3	45
Spain	64.4	64.1	64.2	66.0	69.8	75.4	79.5	82.4	83.5	83.7	84.3	46
Turkey	71.7	71.0	70.6	70.2	69.6	69.2	69.1	68.6	68.0	67.3	66.7	47
North Macedonia	59.7	59.8	60.2	60.8	61.6	62.5	63.3	64.2	65.2	65.8	66.5	50
Serbia	180.0	148.9	113.3	103.0	94.9	79.3	69.7	65.3	64.3	63.2	61.9	50
Austria	35.5	36.5	37.2	38.2	39.0	39.6	40.4	41.3	42.1	42.7	43.2	47
United Kingdom	31.9	34.1	36.4	38.6	39.4	40.4	41.1	41.3	41.0	41.0	41.0	43
Poland	8.9	10.2	11.5	13.9	16.2	17.9	21.4	24.7	26.9	29.2	31.6	50
Bosnia and Herzegovina	37.5	35.8	34.6	33.5	32.9	32.2	31.8	31.3	30.8	30.2	29.6	49
Croatia	36.1	34.9	33.8	32.8	31.8	30.7	30.2	29.6	29.0	28.5	28.5	50
Eritrea	8.4	8.4	9.8	11.7	14.0	16.6	19.8	23.2	26.2	44
Sri Lanka	24.6	24.6	23.9	23.7	24.5	25.4	25.8	25.9	26.0	48
Other countries	308.1	349.4	364.2	391.4	414.2	445.5	474.9	497.0	513.0	528.3	544.9	
Total	1 638.9	1 680.2	1 720.4	1 772.3	1 825.1	1 886.6	1 947.0	1 993.9	2 029.5	2 053.6	2 081.2	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Turkey
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2015 (%)
Germany	7.6	..	32.6	43.6	25.6	59.0	63.2	69.9	53
Syria	1.2	..	2.9	5.1	10.1	57.9	50.9	56.6	43
Iraq	3.5	..	8.1	11.8	19.1	31.1	47.2	93.7	43
Afghanistan	3.8	..	7.4	10.7	19.5	27.9	33.6	38.5	42
Azerbaijan	12.7	..	9.9	14.8	18.9	26.2	30.2	36.5	50
Iran	3.8	..	5.2	7.9	12.2	16.8	21.9	27.8	44
Russia	5.0	..	10.7	14.4	15.6	20.7	21.6	25.3	71
Georgia	2.3	..	1.7	2.4	15.7	13.5	19.1	19.8	88
Turkmenistan	1.1	..	3.9	5.8	11.7	13.4	18.4	23.4	60
United Kingdom	5.2	..	6.4	10.1	9.3	16.0	14.9	14.6	53
Ukraine	2.1	..	3.3	4.7	7.0	9.7	12.9	17.1	82
Kazakhstan	2.2	..	5.8	6.9	8.4	11.1	11.9	13.7	58
Uzbekistan	1.7	..	2.7	3.4	6.5	7.9	11.0	16.1	73
Kyrgyzstan	1.6	..	3.3	4.8	6.1	8.4	10.6	14.0	63
Austria	0.6	..	5.5	7.5	3.9	9.5	10.5	12.0	45
Other countries	50.2	..	81.1	88.2	89.1	127.4	140.5	171.2	
Total	104.4	167.3	190.5	242.1	278.7	456.5	518.3	650.3	816.4	919.1	..	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – United Kingdom
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	549	550	658	713	679	826	855	1 006	994	829	..	52
Romania	52	72	79	117	148	165	219	324	382	478	..	45
India	293	354	332	360	336	354	379	347	317	370	..	54
Ireland	344	344	386	356	345	309	329	330	343	350	..	56
Italy	107	117	153	125	138	182	212	262	296	311	..	42
Portugal	96	104	123	106	138	140	235	247	269	195	..	46
Pakistan	177	137	166	163	194	197	184	175	167	186	..	48
Lithuania	67	99	129	126	153	158	192	204	196	181	..	57
France	148	116	114	132	132	135	189	181	186	179	..	54
Spain	52	61	55	82	75	130	167	162	191	156	..	46
United States	112	133	109	146	149	145	132	127	130	149	..	58
China	76	107	106	87	93	106	122	113	132	148	..	65
Netherlands	35	58	56	59	83	85	81	102	97	125	..	55
Germany	121	129	132	137	153	110	119	166	131	120	..	61
Bulgaria	32	34	47	33	62	45	68	81	109	105	..	50
Other countries	2 087	2 109	2 140	2 047	2 063	2 067	2 109	2 124	2 197	2 109	..	
Total	4 348	4 524	4 785	4 788	4 941	5 154	5 592	5 951	6 137	5 991	6 227	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – United States
Thousands

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Of which: Women 2017 (%)
Mexico	8 933.8	8 885.1	9 043.0	8 861.2	8 613.0	8 598.6	8 579.5	8 327.0	8 256.8	47
India	914.2	912.3	975.7	992.6	1 045.4	1 068.9	1 159.0	1 296.9	1 325.7	46
China	627.8	662.6	791.9	797.1	861.4	868.2	963.6	1 079.0	1 118.9	53
El Salvador	759.0	833.9	873.5	877.6	872.5	860.5	913.6	927.4	912.3	46
Guatemala	562.8	600.5	602.5	640.3	650.5	677.4	670.0	679.6	674.0	38
Philippines	621.6	598.0	611.5	638.4	635.9	595.7	596.1	615.2	563.8	60
Cuba	410.2	409.6	498.4	489.0	474.2	470.5	502.1	491.4	536.8	46
Honduras	354.4	361.5	405.9	386.8	412.8	421.9	441.3	462.8	518.7	47
Dominican Republic	405.5	415.0	462.9	457.4	487.0	502.9	474.4	493.6	513.3	52
Canada	455.3	444.2	430.2	428.8	444.9	452.8	422.0	445.9	405.1	52
Korea	468.7	446.6	472.3	476.7	475.3	435.7	418.0	409.5	389.9	56
United Kingdom	370.0	361.0	344.8	343.3	346.4	336.9	339.1	335.6	330.2	45
Viet Nam	289.8	282.9	313.5	296.5	299.6	316.9	318.0	320.0	307.4	58
Haiti	281.5	266.5	297.7	292.9	312.3	268.3	272.2	284.0	284.3	54
Colombia	312.9	323.6	335.3	327.2	322.8	294.5	294.3	304.1	280.3	57
Other countries	5 918.2	5 837.8	6 001.4	5 919.6	5 860.9	5 846.6	5 900.3	5 954.3	5 997.8	
Total	21 685.7	21 641.0	22 460.6	22 225.5	22 115.0	22 016.4	22 263.4	22 426.2	22 415.3	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/xf24id>

Metadata related to Tables A.5. and B.5. **Stocks of foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers from 2012 on. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information.
Canada	2011 and 2016 Censuses.	Statistics Canada.
Chile	Estimation of the resident foreign population in the 2017 Census.	
Czech Republic	Numbers of foreigners residing in the country on the basis of permanent or temporary residence permits (i.e. long-term visa, long-term residence permit or temporary residence permit of EU nationals). <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Ministry of the Interior, Directorate of Alien Police.
Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Including trainees, students and illegal migrants who accept to be interviewed. Excluding seasonal and cross-border workers. 2016 to 2019 totals are estimated based on Eurostat data. Includes the département of Mayotte from 2014.	Censuses, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes all foreigners regardless of their housing situation (private or non-private dwelling). Excludes ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>). <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Central Population Register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Totals in Table A.5 (Eurostat dataset) are not comparable to data presented in Table B.5 by nationality (Labour Force Survey data, foreign population aged 15 and above; 4th quarter prior to 2014; 2nd quarter from 2014 on).	Labour Force Survey, Hellenic Statistical authority.
Hungary	Foreigners having a residence or a settlement document. From 2010 on, includes third-country nationals holding a temporary residence permit (for a year or more). From 2011 on, includes persons under subsidiary protection. Data for 2011 were adjusted to match the October census results. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Data are from the National Register of Persons. It is to be expected that figures are overestimates. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Census data for 2011 and 2016.	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
Italy	Data refer to resident foreigners (registered in municipal registry offices). Excludes children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit. Includes foreigners who were regularised following the 2009 programme. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	National Statistical Institute (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan for the mid- to long-term with a resident status under the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in the population registers.	Ministry of Justice.
Latvia	Population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs.
Lithuania	<i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Eurostat.
Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Excludes visitors (staying for less than 3 months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January. 2010 figures are extracted from the February 2011 census.	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).

Country	Comments	Source
Mexico	Number of foreigners who hold a valid permit for permanent or temporary residence. Data until 2013 are estimates under the terms of the 1974 Act; they include immigrants FM2 "inmigrante" and "inmigrado" (both categories refer to permanent residence) and non-immigrants FM3 with specific categories (temporary residence). Data from 2015 are estimates under the terms of the 2011 Migration Act.	National Migration Institute, Unit for Migration Policy, Ministry of Interior.
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> 1 January.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. It excludes visitors (staying for less than six months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland		Central Population Register, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	Figures include holders of a valid residence permit and holders of a renewed long-term visa.	Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF); National Statistical Institute (INE).
Russia	2010 Census: foreigners and stateless persons permanently residing in the Russian Federation. From 2011 on: stocks of temporary and permanent residence permit holders on 31 December.	Federal state statistics service (Rosstat); Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	Holders of a permanent or long-term residence permit.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	Number of valid residence permits, regardless of the administrative status of the foreign national. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	All foreign citizens in the Municipal Registers irrespective of their legal status. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	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> 1 January.	Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	<i>Reference date:</i> 1 January.	Eurostat.
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> 1 January.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.
United States	Foreigners born abroad.	Current Population Survey, Census Bureau.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <http://stats.oecd.org/>.

Acquisitions of nationality

Nationality law can have a significant impact on the measurement of the national and foreign populations. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly easily acquire the nationality of the country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the population of nationals. On the other hand, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births among foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as growth in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant impact. 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 a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen and 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. 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.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and Russia

Numbers and percentages

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Australia	119 811	86 654	119 383	95 235	83 698	123 438	162 002	135 596	133 126	137 750	80 562
% of foreign population
Austria	10 258	7 978	6 135	6 690	7 043	7 354	7 570	8 144	8 530	9 125	9 355
% of foreign population	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Belgium	37 710	32 767	34 635	29 786	38 612	34 801	18 726	27 071	31 935	37 401	36 200
% of foreign population	4.0	3.4	3.4	2.8	3.4	3.0	1.5	2.1	2.5	2.8	2.6
Canada	176 617	156 363	143 579	179 451	111 923	127 470	259 274	251 144	147 267	105 813	176 470
% of foreign population	5.7	4.4	..
Chile	623	811	741	1 030	1 226	678	1 048	686	788	2 976	..
% of foreign population
Czech Republic	1 837	1 621	1 495	1 936	2 036	2 514	5 114	4 925	5 536	6 440	5 260
% of foreign population	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.1
Denmark	6 111	6 537	3 006	3 911	3 489	1 750	4 747	11 745	15 028	7 272	2 836
% of foreign population	2.2	2.2	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.5	1.3	3.0	3.6	1.6	0.6
Estonia	2 124	1 670	1 189	1 518	1 340	1 330	1 614	897	1 775	882	766
% of foreign population	0.6	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.4
Finland	6 682	3 413	4 334	4 558	9 087	8 930	8 260	7 921	9 375	12 219	9 211
% of foreign population	5.5	2.6	3.0	2.9	5.4	4.9	4.2	3.8	4.3	5.3	3.8
France	137 452	135 852	143 261	114 569	96 050	97 276	105 613	113 608	119 152	114 274	110 014
% of foreign population	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.0	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.4
Germany	94 470	96 122	101 570	106 897	112 348	112 353	108 422	107 317	110 383	112 211	112 340
% of foreign population	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1
Greece	16 922	17 019	9 387	17 533	20 302	29 462	21 829	12 837	32 819	34 305	27 857
% of foreign population	3.0	2.6	1.3	2.1	2.5	3.9	2.8	1.9	4.6	5.0	5.2
Hungary	8 104	5 802	6 086	20 554	18 379	9 178	8 745	4 048	4 315	2 787	3 508
% of foreign population	4.9	3.3	3.3	10.4	8.8	6.4	6.2	2.9	3.0	1.8	2.3
Iceland	914	728	450	370	413	597	595	801	703	637	569
% of foreign population	4.9	3.1	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.8	2.8	3.5	2.9	2.4	1.9
Ireland	4 350	4 594	6 387	10 749	25 039	24 263	21 090	13 565	10 044	8 195	8 225
% of foreign population	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.9	4.2	4.5	3.8	2.4	1.8	1.3	1.5
Italy	53 696	59 369	65 938	56 153	65 383	100 712	129 887	178 035	201 591	146 605	112 523
% of foreign population	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.5	1.7	2.5	3.0	3.6	4.0	2.9	2.2
Japan	13 218	14 785	13 072	10 359	10 622	8 646	9 277	9 469	9 554	10 315	9 074
% of foreign population	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Korea	15 258	26 756	17 323	18 400	12 527	13 956	14 200	13 934	12 854	13 293	14 758
% of foreign population	2.3	3.3	1.9	2.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.3
Latvia	4 230	3 235	3 660	2 467	3 784	3 083	2 141	1 897	1 957	962	930
% of foreign population	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.3
Lithuania	240	214	162	311	183	173	179	177	173	166	196
% of foreign population	0.6	0.7	0.5	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0
Luxembourg	1 215	4 022	4 311	3 405	4 680	4 411	4 991	5 306	7 140	9 030	11 864
% of foreign population	0.6	2.0	2.0	1.6	2.1	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.8	3.4	4.2
Mexico	4 471	3 489	2 150	2 633	3 590	3 581	2 341	2 736	2 940	3 067	3 872
% of foreign population	1.0	1.3	1.2	0.8	..	0.9	0.9	1.0
Netherlands	28 229	29 754	26 275	28 598	30 955	25 882	32 578	27 877	28 534	27 663	27 851
% of foreign population	4.1	4.3	3.7	3.9	4.1	3.3	4.1	3.4	3.4	3.1	2.9
New Zealand	23 781	18 140	15 331	19 513	27 607	28 468	28 759	28 468	32 862	37 464	36 840
% of foreign population

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Norway	10 312	11 442	11 903	14 637	12 384	13 223	15 336	12 432	14 676	21 648	10 268
% of foreign population	4.3	4.3	3.9	4.4	3.4	3.2	3.4	2.6	2.9	4.0	1.8
Poland	1 054	2 503	2 926	2 325	3 792	3 462	4 518	4 048	4 086	4 259	4 593
% of foreign population	1.9	4.3	4.8	3.1	4.8	4.0	4.8	4.0	3.8	2.8	2.2
Portugal	22 408	24 182	21 750	23 238	21 819	24 476	21 124	20 396	25 104	18 022	21 333
% of foreign population	5.3	5.5	4.9	5.1	4.9	5.6	5.1	5.1	6.4	4.6	5.4
Russia	350 243	382 694	102 131	129 802	91 915	114 927	138 578	197 379	254 283	249 199	262 893
% of foreign population	13.4	23.4	22.3	27.6	29.1	24.0	23.8
Slovak Republic	478	262	239	272	255	207	234	309	409	645	721
% of foreign population	1.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.0
Slovenia	1 691	1 792	1 840	1 775	1 490	1 470	1 057	1 255	1 297	1 563	1 978
% of foreign population	2.6	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7
Spain	84 170	79 597	123 721	114 599	115 557	225 793	205 880	114 351	150 944	66 498	90 774
% of foreign population	1.9	1.6	2.3	2.1	2.2	4.3	4.1	2.4	3.4	1.5	2.1
Sweden	30 254	29 318	32 197	36 328	49 746	49 632	42 918	48 249	60 343	61 826	58 189
% of foreign population	6.1	5.6	5.7	6.0	7.9	7.6	6.4	6.9	8.2	7.9	6.8
Switzerland	44 365	43 440	39 314	36 757	34 121	34 332	33 325	40 888	41 587	44 515	42 630
% of foreign population	2.9	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1
Turkey	5 968	8 141	9 488	9 216
% of foreign population	..	8.3	9.1	5.5
United Kingdom	129 377	203 789	195 094	177 934	194 370	208 095	125 754	118 109	149 421	123 213	157 023
% of foreign population	3.4	4.9	4.5	3.9	4.1	4.3	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.1	2.6
United States	1 046 539	743 715	619 913	694 193	757 434	779 929	653 416	730 259	753 060	707 265	761 901
% of foreign population	4.8	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.2	3.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.6.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/q52f36>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Australia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
India	9 119	9 124	17 788	12 948	10 076	19 217	27 827	24 236	21 989	24 181	17 716	47
United Kingdom	27 032	18 206	22 284	19 101	16 401	20 478	25 884	20 583	20 949	21 069	13 875	49
Philippines	3 841	3 453	4 505	4 051	5 592	9 090	11 628	8 996	8 333	9 112	4 921	56
South Africa	5 538	4 162	5 218	4 389	4 206	7 900	9 286	6 211	5 629	4 906	3 370	49
Sri Lanka	2 937	2 203	3 412	2 520	1 671	2 746	3 957	3 179	3 752	4 487	3 262	49
Ireland	1 423	881	1 280	1 302	1 145	1 796	2 843	3 092	3 943	4 286	2 670	44
Korea	2 395	1 211	2 409	2 321	1 570	2 109	2 746	2 307	2 258	1 915	2 015	52
Malaysia	2 742	1 778	2 216	2 207	1 487	1 841	2 788	2 213	2 827	2 734	1 979	56
New Zealand	6 835	3 761	4 165	4 304	3 458	3 794	5 361	4 091	4 390	3 593	1 840	51
China	8 407	6 700	11 109	8 898	6 876	8 979	9 203	7 549	6 931	6 578	1 720	57
Nepal	440	298	550	520	589	1 384	1 810	2 401	2 959	2 402	1 665	48
United States	2 016	1 420	1 736	1 680	1 356	1 564	2 034	1 833	1 963	2 107	1 383	54
Thailand	1 253	874	1 762	1 343	1 125	1 316	1 970	1 712	1 895	1 732	1 301	78
Viet Nam	2 177	1 522	2 000	1 688	1 929	2 568	3 514	3 835	4 173	3 859	1 216	60
Bangladesh	1 072	1 756	2 940	1 178	1 183	1 946	2 650	2 473	1 976	2 471	1 169	44
Other countries	42 584	29 305	36 009	26 785	25 034	36 710	48 501	40 885	39 159	42 318	20 460	
Total	119 811	86 654	119 383	95 235	83 698	123 438	162 002	135 596	133 126	137 750	80 562	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Austria

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 207	1 457	1 278	1 174	1 131	1 039	1 120	1 216	1 261	1 288	1 032	56
Turkey	1 664	1 242	937	1 178	1 198	1 108	885	997	818	778	828	49
Romania	382	246	114	223	275	224	244	221	257	291	456	66
North Macedonia	377	281	150	182	163	182	210	224	297	296	453	47
Russia	127	135	137	296	316	427	431	298	337	323	373	59
Afghanistan	106	108	113	157	179	28	232	187	332	424	328	41
Iran	99	103	111	138	168	18	159	182	226	217	306	46
Germany	67	174	132	117	110	127	187	148	182	234	265	51
Hungary	56	72	68	66	71	83	111	119	154	227	258	62
Croatia	824	440	456	363	401	224	184	143	160	168	251	56
Egypt	121	124	94	97	152	174	189	214	169	196	247	43
India	122	90	84	82	171	165	207	233	277	342	238	47
Ukraine	70	80	75	106	99	134	136	298	225	181	220	74
Nigeria	54	36	57	50	57	15	158	156	238	263	214	47
Slovak Republic	46	50	66	64	77	97	107	102	146	149	197	68
Other countries	3 936	3 340	2 263	2 397	2 475	3 309	3 010	3 406	3 451	3 748	3 689	
Total	10 258	7 978	6 135	6 690	7 043	7 354	7 570	8 144	8 530	9 125	9 355	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Belgium

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Morocco	8 427	6 919	7 380	7 035	7 879	5 926	2 408	3 170	3 996	5 084	4 856	47
Romania	480	362	395	356	777	1 155	824	1 192	1 535	2 031	2 219	53
Poland	619	640	523	394	729	888	742	1 136	1 243	1 498	1 528	60
Italy	1 762	1 700	2 833	3 697	3 203	1 856	1 199	1 067	1 048	1 174	1 352	43
Democratic. Rep. of the Congo	1 795	1 555	1 603	1 158	1 936	1 526	713	1 061	1 016	1 201	1 191	59
Afghanistan	520	356	370	174	260	283	194	326	534	875	1 067	25
Netherlands	683	608	641	495	961	1 272	705	993	1 390	1 368	1 064	46
United Kingdom	104	143	111	114	99	141	110	127	506	1 381	1 045	45
Turkey	3 182	2 763	2 760	2 359	2 517	1 857	691	843	989	1 061	985	45
Cameroon	463	401	490	600	924	915	546	738	845	872	955	53
Russia	2 599	1 647	1 641	1 032	1 439	1 525	641	950	1 029	973	896	58
France	838	792	717	638	903	973	586	647	673	795	869	51
Guinea	278	233	291	228	757	941	416	635	681	972	855	50
Spain	282	185	232	245	410	379	266	443	513	717	706	46
Iraq	251	298	322	184	397	612	377	546	655	930	672	37
Other countries	15 427	14 165	14 326	11 077	15 421	14 552	8 308	13 197	15 282	16 469	15 940	
Total	37 710	32 767	34 635	29 786	38 612	34 801	18 726	27 071	31 935	37 401	36 200	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Canada

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Philippines	11 668	11 069	11 586	15 902	10 392	14 583	27 416	31 729	23 875	14 050	19 649	59
India	20 840	17 399	18 958	22 043	13 319	15 246	26 320	28 048	16 601	9 978	19 487	45
Iran	4 984	3 827	3 585	4 923	3 506	3 337	9 357	8 959	3 927	3 523	10 037	51
China	21 083	16 058	13 464	15 503	10 382	10 053	21 620	20 081	10 786	5 949	9 717	57
Pakistan	9 433	7 839	8 060	9 812	5 526	5 197	8 988	8 628	5 779	5 089	9 407	48
Nigeria	1 205	1 081	1 405	2 184	1 238	1 318	2 978	4 210	2 158	1 883	4 398	48
United States	4 136	3 737	3 713	5 010	3 797	4 424	7 249	6 627	4 405	3 283	4 227	52
Egypt	1 468	1 196	1 047	1 458	990	1 135	3 471	4 729	2 392	2 284	4 116	47
Iraq	1 508	1 187	1 056	1 581	1 298	2 359	4 556	5 175	2 983	2 238	3 953	52
France	1 884	2 688	1 971	2 702	1 441	2 089	5 755	4 590	2 252	2 112	3 835	46
United Kingdom	4 724	4 372	4 506	5 971	4 298	4 721	7 293	6 255	4 158	3 005	3 515	43
Algeria	2 150	3 160	2 456	3 296	1 585	1 837	7 173	5 679	2 468	2 004	3 340	49
Bangladesh	1 873	2 140	2 281	2 846	1 468	1 674	4 261	3 526	1 731	1 330	3 239	48
Haiti	1 512	2 057	1 249	1 427	751	1 411	3 918	4 020	2 561	2 374	3 146	55
Morocco	2 225	3 372	2 031	2 715	1 473	1 879	7 400	5 957	2 209	2 149	2 921	46
Other countries	85 924	75 181	66 211	82 078	50 459	56 207	111 519	102 931	58 982	44 562	71 483	
Total	176 617	156 363	143 579	179 451	111 923	127 470	259 274	251 144	147 267	105 813	176 470	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Chile

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2016 (%)
Peru	174	171	156	241	307	153	237	142	167	940	..	57
Colombia	26	61	54	98	149	105	168	120	121	592	..	56
Ecuador	62	72	89	116	174	95	127	83	93	270	..	55
Bolivia	71	119	95	136	118	59	92	54	64	224	..	59
Cuba	116	107	119	158	159	88	115	83	69	183	..	43
Dominican Republic	5	7	6	4	17	2	13	10	15	103	..	73
Venezuela	8	14	17	26	21	8	24	23	42	92	..	60
Argentina	10	20	16	26	33	21	31	27	27	67	..	41
India	17	11	9	23	15	8	23	11	18	48	..	33
China	16	46	29	28	29	18	19	17	9	47	..	44
Haiti	0	0	1	2	1	1	6	4	14	43	..	21
Pakistan	4	17	15	20	17	12	4	3	13	33	..	15
Spain	5	10	9	5	14	8	17	8	6	32	..	33
Russia	5	13	3	8	13	4	6	6	4	28	..	75
Brazil	2	7	6	7	9	5	6	6	8	25	..	50
Other countries	102	136	117	132	150	91	160	89	118	249	..	
Total	623	811	741	1 030	1 226	678	1 048	686	788	2 976	..	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Czech Republic

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	398	520	396	501	518	948	2 075	1 044	1 429	1 891	1 319	..
Russia	84	58	50	68	173	162	463	305	563	752	633	..
Slovak Republic	521	431	377	378	331	270	574	111	372	630	501	..
Viet Nam	42	44	52	86	80	166	298	271	405	223	231	..
Belarus	27	20	15	38	49	53	137	94	135	215	139	..
Moldova	21	23	15	32	25	41	175	55	93	138	118	..
Romania	83	35	36	76	70	30	311	111	115	108	82	..
Poland	53	58	63	198	180	176	105	34	96	110	60	..
Kazakhstan	121	21	17	48	30	65	122	48	50	64	53	..
Bulgaria	11	12	21	28	19	27	52	51	65	87	53	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11	9	9	16	27	11	59	47	49	51	38	..
North Macedonia	9	11	2	9	6	14	20	23	28	47	31	..
Croatia	6	6	7	8	12	5	20	38	20	30	22	..
Armenia	19	16	11	47	74	46	144	49	35	41	19	..
Yemen	12	16	15	22	6	10	6	13	..
Other countries	431	357	424	391	426	485	537	2 638	2 071	2 047	1 948	
Total	1 837	1 621	1 495	1 936	2 036	2 514	5 114	4 925	5 536	6 440	5 260	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Denmark

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Sweden	52	52	58	64	57	33	47	105	277	164	185	54
Germany	51	84	81	55	80	41	27	38	110	248	168	51
Iceland	11	26	17	24	12	16	17	39	238	160	144	56
United Kingdom	30	47	34	26	21	17	21	20	85	164	143	43
Poland	51	44	36	33	41	39	29	45	174	372	122	69
United States	25	18	13	12	11	15	6	23	110	248	114	54
Turkey	603	511	239	227	300	166	150	193	977	353	113	52
Russia	70	123	74	55	85	62	31	76	232	330	110	76
Iraq	1 178	1 201	368	838	730	356	1 588	1 131	2 917	357	96	58
Bosnia and Herzegovina	311	265	131	110	82	39	59	96	493	374	94	67
Pakistan	201	214	21	73	89	77	38	191	641	199	82	43
Ukraine	32	30	16	35	44	32	10	72	228	329	73	62
Thailand	90	96	64	57	52	29	54	14	142	273	72	71
Afghanistan	363	790	354	576	463	151	917	408	1 621	297	67	51
China	199	199	103	103	97	19	105	23	348	175	52	60
Other countries	2 844	2 837	1 397	1 623	1 325	658	1 648	9 271	6 435	3 229	1 201	
Total	6 111	6 537	3 006	3 911	3 489	1 750	4 747	11 745	15 028	7 272	2 836	57

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Estonia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Russia	138	87	77	156	174	169	204	132	244	225	199	58
Ukraine	16	20	18	10	24	18	30	19	29	30	26	62
Latvia	1	1	1	3	1	8	2	7	43
Belarus	3	1	3	1	5	2	3	..	5	6	6	50
Armenia	1	1	12	4	6	50
Other countries	1 967	1 562	1 091	1 350	1 135	1 140	1 374	744	1 477	615	522	
Total	2 124	1 670	1 189	1 518	1 340	1 330	1 614	897	1 775	882	766	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Finland

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Russia	2 211	1 026	1 925	1 652	2 477	2 103	2 317	1 728	2 028	2 758	1 766	62
Somalia	595	290	131	96	609	814	834	955	1 066	957	856	51
Iraq	379	207	78	106	457	521	405	560	534	742	621	43
Estonia	262	166	243	302	521	436	382	420	459	705	541	54
Afghanistan	279	186	108	100	510	479	251	242	376	469	339	50
Thailand	34	24	41	50	75	104	125	150	193	261	249	79
Iran	329	180	137	145	451	341	219	140	222	309	244	52
Turkey	195	94	132	166	278	271	257	229	264	313	210	37
Sweden	274	126	104	196	190	146	186	165	206	212	210	41
Ukraine	62	53	92	95	148	157	141	145	163	281	202	61
Viet Nam	78	42	54	82	150	150	114	146	225	249	197	62
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	35	18	25	20	100	122	150	131	150	223	183	58
Philippines	19	15	33	35	48	77	67	79	106	141	182	76
Myanmar	18	7	3	9	56	177	141	89	129	130	162	54
Nigeria	19	2	7	18	75	87	111	179	175	283	157	34
Other countries	1 893	977	1 221	1 486	2 942	2 945	2 560	2 563	3 079	4 186	3 092	
Total	6 682	3 413	4 334	4 558	9 087	8 930	8 260	7 921	9 375	12 219	9 211	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – France

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Morocco	28 699	26 353	28 919	22 612	18 325	16 662	18 051	19 110	17 769	16 687	15 390	50
Algeria	20 256	20 757	21 299	15 527	12 991	13 408	15 142	17 377	17 662	16 283	14 867	50
Tunisia	9 471	9 476	9 008	6 828	5 546	5 569	6 274	7 018	7 663	7 045	6 687	45
Turkey	10 202	9 259	9 667	8 277	6 920	5 873	5 835	5 595	5 757	5 332	5 101	48
Comoros	1 049	1 373	1 546	1 828	1 778	2 307	2 175	1 881	2 869	2 917	3 903	51
Mali	2 237	2 786	3 214	2 616	2 201	2 645	3 345	3 621	4 111	4 057	3 662	48
United Kingdom	230	231	205	261	335	354	279	374	517	1 733	3 268	50
Côte d'Ivoire	2 197	2 582	3 096	2 257	1 766	2 513	3 055	3 188	3 652	3 363	3 012	55
Senegal	3 038	3 443	3 839	3 168	2 755	2 823	3 048	3 382	3 369	3 249	2 949	49
Congo	2 933	3 309	3 417	2 018	1 326	1 808	1 797	2 089	2 181	2 967	2 935	53
Cameroon	2 014	2 425	2 890	2 425	1 926	2 579	3 010	3 125	3 377	3 137	2 502	61
Haiti	2 922	3 070	3 166	2 204	1 799	2 121	2 181	2 228	2 922	2 574	2 496	53
Portugal	7 778	6 583	5 723	4 720	4 294	3 887	3 345	3 109	2 579	2 429	2 080	50
Russia	3 530	4 157	4 507	3 390	2 203	2 517	3 040	2 654	4 094	3 550	2 011	73
Romania	787	823	1 024	1 233	1 268	1 409	1 486	1 557	1 695	1 882	1 956	61
Other countries	40 109	39 225	41 741	35 205	30 617	30 801	33 550	37 300	38 935	37 069	37 195	
Total	137 452	135 852	143 261	114 569	96 050	97 276	105 613	113 608	119 152	114 274	110 014	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Germany

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Turkey	24 449	24 647	26 192	28 103	33 246	27 970	22 463	19 695	16 290	14 984	16 700	50
United Kingdom	232	260	256	284	325	460	515	622	2 865	7 493	6 640	45
Poland	4 245	3 841	3 789	4 281	4 496	5 462	5 932	5 957	6 632	6 613	6 220	71
Romania	2 137	2 357	2 523	2 399	2 343	2 504	2 566	3 001	3 828	4 238	4 325	66
Iraq	4 229	5 136	5 228	4 790	3 510	3 150	3 172	3 450	3 553	3 480	4 080	45
Italy	1 392	1 273	1 305	1 707	2 202	2 754	3 245	3 406	3 597	4 256	4 050	47
Greece	1 779	1 362	1 450	2 290	4 167	3 498	2 800	3 058	3 444	3 424	3 235	48
Iran	2 734	3 184	3 046	2 728	2 463	2 560	2 546	2 533	2 661	2 689	3 080	48
Syria	1 156	1 342	1 401	1 454	1 321	1 508	1 820	2 027	2 263	2 479	2 880	45
Afghanistan	2 512	3 549	3 520	2 711	2 717	3 054	3 000	2 572	2 482	2 400	2 545	45
Ukraine	1 953	2 345	3 118	4 264	3 691	4 539	3 142	4 168	4 048	2 718	2 455	64
Morocco	3 130	3 042	2 806	3 011	2 852	2 710	2 689	2 551	2 450	2 390	2 365	47
Croatia	1 032	542	689	665	544	1 721	3 899	3 328	2 985	2 896	2 360	56
Viet Nam	1 048	1 513	1 738	2 428	3 299	2 459	2 196	1 929	2 190	2 018	2 230	56
Russia	2 439	2 477	2 753	2 965	3 167	2 784	2 743	2 329	2 375	2 123	1 930	64
Other countries	40 003	39 252	41 756	42 817	42 005	45 220	45 694	46 691	48 720	48 010	47 245	
Total	94 470	96 122	101 570	106 897	112 348	112 353	108 422	107 317	110 383	112 211	112 340	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Greece

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Albania	9 996	14 271	6 059	15 452	17 396	25 830	18 409	10 665	28 251	29 769	24 203	..
Ukraine	167	129	178	130	235	246	231	188	504	449	388	..
Russia	834	410	611	..	1	2	309	289	386	345	353	..
Georgia	1 285	550	763	252	152	359	226	189	331	323	300	..
Romania	79	63	57	56	76	129	156	136	234	306	291	..
India	4	1	6	35	122	16	18	18	255	278	245	..
Moldova	29	32	44	91	131	159	124	114	365	378	241	..
Armenia	165	137	199	150	210	189	150	109	296	287	240	..
Bulgaria	89	62	70	101	75	192	200	142	287	329	220	..
Egypt	50	45	36	65	332	58	57	45	358	283	144	..
Turkey	212	175	71	49	70	167	151	139	141	107	106	..
Philippines	12	8	10	16	51	20	7	9	54	91	87	..
Syria	43	26	34	42	223	3	87	46	123	133	78	..
Poland	25	33	38	25	27	52	33	46	66	89	78	..
Pakistan	3	2	8	21	26	88	75	59	..
Other countries	3 929	1 075	1 203	1 069	1 201	2 040	1 650	676	1 080	1 063	824	
Total	16 922	17 019	9 387	17 533	20 302	29 462	21 829	12 837	32 819	34 305	27 857	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Hungary

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Romania	5 535	3 805	3 939	15 658	14 392	6 999	6 200	2 605	2 874	1 757	2 123	..
Slovak Republic	106	97	97	414	307	202	310	208	282	136	223	..
Ukraine	857	558	646	2 189	1 765	894	858	386	365	186	192	..
Egypt	2	5	3	2	6	9	81	93	101	119	191	..
Russia	156	119	111	168	151	97	170	131	119	75	89	..
Viet Nam	95	39	75	38	29	15	67	39	36	46	87	..
Germany	33	35	25	55	67	35	59	29	15	38	50	..
Bulgaria	4	8	23	9	7	6	5	3	3	8	29	..
Mongolia	4	14	16	18	9	8	20	18	13	19	28	..
Turkey	13	10	9	12	8	20	58	19	20	23	20	..
Poland	14	13	9	27	18	11	45	15	18	22	19	..
United States	11	9	2	17	13	9	25	13	17	10	17	..
Croatia	34	25	26	61	50	22	27	15	14	12	17	..
Syria	17	11	10	7	11	10	57	21	11	21	15	..
China	29	20	27	15	3	7	13	12	15	14	12	..
Other countries	1 194	1 034	1 068	1 864	1 543	834	750	441	412	301	396	..
Total	8 104	5 802	6 086	20 554	18 379	9 178	8 745	4 048	4 315	2 787	3 508	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Iceland

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	164	153	50	35	30	89	149	265	224	223	149	56
Syria	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	8	3	57	46
Thailand	62	40	28	27	26	26	43	42	48	34	37	78
United States	20	15	19	11	12	13	14	18	11	17	28	46
Viet Nam	52	51	39	14	8	39	33	33	26	22	27	48
Philippines	126	106	67	35	49	89	52	74	55	41	20	60
Latvia	9	1	2	1	4	18	4	21	22	24	19	74
Sweden	1	5	3	6	11	3	6	11	17	10	15	67
Lithuania	23	9	11	8	6	7	16	10	16	15	13	54
Russia	38	17	21	12	21	18	13	25	14	20	10	70
Czech Republic	1	0	0	2	1	1	1	4	3	7	10	40
Denmark	3	6	2	6	1	0	5	11	35	22	9	67
Ukraine	18	18	15	10	21	18	12	17	12	11	7	71
United Kingdom	4	4	5	7	3	2	1	3	2	5	6	17
Nigeria	9	3	2	2	1	6	1	2	10	1	6	50
Other countries	382	300	186	194	218	268	244	262	200	182	156	..
Total	914	728	450	370	413	597	595	801	703	637	569	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Ireland

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Poland	10	13	29	25	359	508	939	1 161	1 326	1 357	1 464	..
Romania	74	117	143	135	457	564	1 029	901	756	763	819	..
United Kingdom	72	32	59	68	84	55	51	54	98	529	687	..
India	166	339	443	944	2 617	3 009	2 939	1 611	1 028	665	629	..
Nigeria	319	454	1 012	1 204	5 689	5 792	3 293	1 360	776	509	479	..
Pakistan	196	201	306	428	1 288	1 807	1 244	732	419	341	364	..
Philippines	84	410	630	1 755	3 830	2 486	2 184	1 167	729	362	320	..
Latvia	9	16	22	19	98	150	226	327	379	392	308	..
China	102	131	258	403	798	656	576	494	304	225	234	..
Brazil	14	21	31	86	203	245	459	393	304	264	220	..
United States	875	156	112	148	263	217	304	246	233	177	195	..
South Africa	205	318	343	418	708	489	563	0	213	140	143	..
Hungary	2	4	2	1	38	77	137	172	216	163	142	..
Lithuania	1	8	15	13	45	79	103	126	168	166	133	..
Ukraine	97	153	202	432	815	695	536	323	200	130	99	..
Other countries	2 124	2 221	2 780	4 670	7 747	7 434	6 507	4 498	2 895	2 012	1 989	..
Total	4 350	4 594	6 387	10 749	25 039	24 263	21 090	13 565	10 044	8 195	8 225	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Italy

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Albania	4 546	9 523	9 129	8 101	9 493	13 671	21 148	35 134	36 920	27 112	21 841	52
Morocco	9 156	9 096	11 350	10 732	14 728	25 421	29 025	32 448	35 212	22 645	15 496	55
Brazil	1 930	1 579	2 099	1 960	1 442	1 786	1 579	1 458	5 799	9 936	10 660	49
Romania	2 857	2 735	4 707	3 921	3 272	4 386	6 442	14 403	12 967	8 042	6 542	64
India	672	894	1 261	1 051	2 366	4 863	5 015	6 176	9 527	8 200	5 425	46
North Macedonia	697	954	923	1 141	1 219	2 089	2 847	5 455	6 771	3 845	3 487	47
Moldova	707	580	1 060	846	1 222	1 430	1 475	2 464	5 605	3 827	3 068	..
Senegal	289	592	689	797	1 070	2 263	4 037	4 144	5 091	4 489	2 918	42
Tunisia	1 666	2 066	2 003	2 067	2 555	3 521	4 411	5 585	4 882	3 187	2 484	49
Ukraine	1 601	1 131	1 820	1 199	1 580	1 806	1 443	1 822	2 890	2 698	2 423	77
Peru	1 064	1 947	2 235	1 726	1 589	2 055	3 136	5 503	5 783	3 689	2 421	..
Ecuador	714	746	951	599	677	854	1 182	2 660	4 604	3 426	2 306	..
Pakistan	219	349	535	601	1 522	3 532	4 216	5 617	7 678	6 170	1 974	..
Bangladesh	405	839	822	972	1 460	3 511	5 323	5 953	8 442	4 411	1 873	..
Philippines	521	584	842	1 039	894	1 048	1 937	3 050	2 737	1 964	1 856	..
Other countries	26 652	25 754	25 512	19 401	20 294	28 476	36 671	46 163	46 683	32 964	27 749	..
Total	53 696	59 369	65 938	56 153	65 383	100 712	129 887	178 035	201 591	146 605	112 523	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Japan

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Korea	7 412	7 637	6 668	5 656	5 581	4 331	4 744	5 247	5 434	5 631	4 357	..
China	4 322	5 392	4 816	3 259	3 598	2 845	3 060	2 813	2 626	3 088	3 025	..
Other countries	1 484	1 756	1 588	1 444	1 443	1 470	1 473	1 409	1 494	1 596	1 692	..
Total	13 218	14 785	13 072	10 359	10 622	8 646	9 277	9 469	9 554	10 315	9 074	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Korea

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
China	12 545	6 282	5 801	7 052	6 753	5 328	5 095	5 089	..
Viet Nam	1 147	3 011	4 034	3 044	2 834	3 429	3 894	4 988	..
United States	1 414	1 587	1 764	1 681	1 498	1 667	1 694	..
Philippines	579	339	532	400	412	476	496	750	..
Cambodia	362	509	404	427	503	418	464	..
Canada	158	226	250	305	289	359	339	..
Chinese Taipei	224	274	286	479	303	249	279	..
Mongolia	134	110	123	133	119	125	121	125	..
Australia	53	87	95	96	102	112	116	..
Thailand	73	72	91	84	81	75	94	99	..
Uzbekistan	80	75	110	96	120	87	82	86	..
Nepal	34	60	66	71	65	68	85	..
Russia	99	125	93	134	138	100	77	..
Japan	57	84	82	95	68	68	71	..
Pakistan	27	17	33	40	25	34	51	44	..
Other countries	673	220	280	311	302	334	419	452	..
Total	15 258	26 756	17 323	18 400	12 527	13 956	14 200	13 934	12 854	13 293	14 758	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Latvia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Russia	93	54	67	49	82	71	109	70	127	53	50	..
Belarus	13	10	10	12	14	12	15	12	14	5	13	..
Ukraine	24	41	34	13	8	51	54	32	39	9	8	..
Uzbekistan	0	2	1	..	0	0	1	4	1	1	5	..
Moldova	0	2	2	..	1	1	4	2	9	1	3	..
Lithuania	6	8	5	3	7	5	5	9	13	9	3	..
Kazakhstan	0	1	0	2	1	2	0	0	1	0	3	..
Armenia	1	2	2	4	6	3	4	5	5	3	3	..
Other countries	4 093	3 115	3 539	2 384	3 665	2 938	1 949	1 763	1 748	881	842	..
Total	4 230	3 235	3 660	2 467	3 784	3 083	2 141	1 897	1 957	962	930	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Lithuania

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Russia	54	49	43	97	39	53	49	38	49	43	39	..
Belarus	10	12	11	17	14	14	12	14	16	22	29	..
Ukraine	31	27	19	44	19	19	26	28	36	29	26	..
Turkey	1	1	1	4	2	..	2	6	8	..
Egypt	1	1	1	2	3	1	7	..
Armenia	2	4	2	6	7	8	6	9	5	8	7	..
Viet Nam	1	2	4	1	2	4	..
Morocco	1	1	3	..
Georgia	1	1	1	..	1	3	1	2	5	1	3	..
Other countries	142	121	85	146	101	70	80	80	55	53	70	..
Total	240	214	162	311	183	173	179	177	173	166	196	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Luxembourg

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
France	76	277	342	314	462	639	860	1 205	2 262	2 468	2 784	50
Belgium	77	224	258	450	1 581	1 577	1 346	1 264	1 836	1 624	1 598	48
Portugal	293	1 242	1 351	1 085	1 155	982	1 211	1 168	1 089	1 328	1 594	52
Brazil	8	7	3	7	12	18	15	30	100	280	931	52
United States	3	47	44	32	42	48	80	100	233	412	665	52
Italy	109	362	665	425	411	314	418	313	304	379	461	50
United Kingdom	0	62	53	44	56	37	66	75	128	384	440	46
Bosnia and Herzegovina	76	270	202	114	74	60	56	70	71	161	394	50
Germany	76	322	333	208	201	195	209	279	246	288	364	53
Cabo Verde	49	77	40	60	41	44	27	47	33	142	220	54
Spain	10	48	58	35	38	30	48	42	44	85	124	53
Poland	4	30	27	27	25	23	17	30	30	47	102	62
Greece	0	6	14	11	14	15	21	23	33	59	99	54
Russia	10	40	50	30	17	22	30	40	31	60	77	75
China	42	33	11	15	10	12	16	27	21	41	74	59
Other countries	382	975	860	548	541	395	571	593	679	1 272	1 937	
Total	1 215	4 022	4 311	3 405	4 680	4 411	4 991	5 306	7 140	9 030	11 864	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Mexico

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Venezuela	309	159	126	162	279	334	259	484	580	725	1 245	53
Cuba	459	307	240	408	579	531	287	305	341	403	467	49
Colombia	690	390	305	486	634	601	397	378	358	346	364	54
United States	246	266	117	79	108	119	120	136	119	127	189	46
Spain	251	227	121	152	180	163	119	169	166	165	173	30
Argentina	400	265	170	178	271	304	130	126	172	141	147	48
El Salvador	118	163	81	82	99	109	66	66	75	73	100	45
Honduras	98	131	55	92	143	129	60	74	89	66	94	52
Ecuador	63	41	41	46	63	59	40	62	56	63	78	42
Guatemala	141	209	95	117	196	141	62	57	98	84	75	49
Peru	213	166	107	138	182	159	100	93	79	79	72	50
Dominican Republic	48	50	29	22	75	59	53	63	81	72	69	38
Italy	108	76	39	45	53	66	31	38	59	60	61	36
Nigeria	2	0	0	7	8	3	5	39	63	56	59	15
France	77	82	37	41	48	63	46	28	42	31	45	51
Other countries	1 248	957	587	578	672	741	566	618	562	576	634	
Total	4 471	3 489	2 150	2 633	3 590	3 581	2 341	2 736	2 940	3 067	3 872	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Netherlands

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Morocco	5 034	5 508	5 797	6 824	6 238	3 886	4 251	3 272	3 364	2 944	3 005	55
Turkey	3 147	4 167	4 984	5 029	4 292	2 872	3 119	2 824	2 764	2 947	2 675	52
United Kingdom	150	211	208	207	198	165	162	166	636	1 241	1 250	45
Iraq	866	674	288	289	525	929	1 331	909	922	738	761	54
India	153	263	193	292	406	415	794	638	574	616	661	43
Suriname	1 006	1 142	967	934	875	659	828	594	601	536	560	58
Somalia	76	73	69	108	105	64	86	249	440	468	517	54
China	539	559	490	..	437	494	628	745	499	289	455	58
Iran	273	279	217	281	361	848	690	464	449	492	443	59
Russia	436	400	275	..	427	291	446	355	403	376	399	76
Afghanistan	584	596	402	371	567	1 341	1 027	510	477	453	392	54
Ghana	283	411	367	519	540	435	575	503	507	393	374	56
Thailand	220	383	413	571	602	371	534	443	414	357	364	85
Poland	237	271	202	296	360	237	421	313	329	401	357	70
Philippines	209	308	263	330	381	263	457	319	331	349	334	81
Other countries	15 016	14 509	11 140	12 547	14 641	12 612	17 229	15 573	15 824	15 063	15 304	
Total	28 229	29 754	26 275	28 598	30 955	25 882	32 578	27 877	28 534	27 663	27 851	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – New Zealand

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
United Kingdom	3 847	3 254	2 814	4 808	6 039	5 299	4 883	4 382	5 405	6 552	6 074	50
India	3 519	2 283	1 573	1 664	2 249	2 225	2 235	2 429	3 412	4 745	4 948	42
Samoa	1 456	1 583	1 946	2 074	3 018	2 988	2 647	2 776	3 086	3 008	3 291	48
Philippines	727	697	852	676	2 240	2 822	2 757	3 048	3 060	3 633	3 164	56
South Africa	2 462	1 829	1 375	2 156	2 910	3 389	3 871	3 713	3 819	3 051	2 830	51
Fiji	1 969	1 553	1 309	1 219	2 097	2 124	2 270	2 422	2 752	3 307	2 583	53
China	1 946	1 137	693	852	1 158	1 190	1 239	922	1 138	1 209	1 092	57
United States	414	340	324	448	587	605	602	558	659	830	889	56
Australia	113	111	118	116	179	232	287	317	564	764	881	56
Tonga	282	314	384	328	466	531	500	516	783	705	865	51
Sri Lanka	406	300	242	164	204	271	350	445	537	704	654	48
Korea	887	588	459	445	564	406	374	349	437	592	623	44
Malaysia	412	445	464	398	467	398	392	386	477	495	472	53
Thailand	154	166	128	198	205	264	264	269	290	339	424	73
Russia	167	110	102	150	191	244	225	235	311	325	417	59
Other countries	5 020	3 430	2 548	3 817	5 033	5 480	5 863	5 701	6 132	7 205	7 633	
Total	23 781	18 140	15 331	19 513	27 607	28 468	28 759	28 468	32 862	37 464	36 840	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Norway

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Somalia	1 315	1 737	1 528	2 131	1 571	1 667	1 138	451	1 250	1 746	1 879	47
Eritrea	67	63	248	254	199	323	563	1 114	1 911	2 971	1 089	44
Iraq	1 072	1 267	1 338	947	1 642	1 663	1 418	817	833	1 175	602	44
Afghanistan	877	857	1 054	1 281	1 013	1 005	1 371	1 088	1 004	1 264	448	41
Pakistan	773	469	430	526	478	424	503	714	482	592	437	51
Philippines	233	445	322	421	341	479	851	704	603	1 389	410	74
Iran	495	785	554	539	297	307	336	353	420	626	365	51
Russia	515	622	673	644	629	418	401	444	482	464	351	66
Thailand	247	483	267	380	265	346	547	683	707	1 666	300	77
Sweden	211	184	248	300	213	229	253	300	483	257	209	59
Ethiopia	341	216	225	341	236	195	362	336	440	709	191	51
India	141	185	152	209	130	132	313	382	391	636	167	44
Ukraine	86	75	68	119	112	107	243	171	233	339	145	79
Syria	50	39	49	61	54	57	65	84	112	289	141	43
Sudan	42	43	90	122	72	58	80	57	180	293	125	37
Other countries	3 847	3 972	4 657	6 362	5 132	5 813	6 892	4 734	5 145	7 232	3 409	
Total	10 312	11 442	11 903	14 637	12 384	13 223	15 336	12 432	14 676	21 648	10 268	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Poland

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	369	877	992	800	1 196	908	1 911	2 010	1 432	900	2 608	25
Belarus	152	357	418	320	456	390	741	527	512	229	833	21
Russia	64	162	215	200	244	171	370	251	112	63	219	20
Viet Nam	12	64	97	104	150	105	289	222	68	120	136	21
Armenia	16	79	101	103	163	111	367	285	160	113	119	40
Kazakhstan	18	41	38	42	44	41	36	36	17	13	40	20
Germany	37	47	92	106	171	389	38	17	31	34	39	56
Turkey	1	35	33	12	72	17	33	36	34	22	33	12
Egypt	0	37	38	4	76	11	5	15	9	2	30	0
United Kingdom	2	6	9	7	9	16	7	8	6	7	29	28
Tunisia	4	19	35	3	61	8	16	19	7	6	27	0
Israel	33	10	3	3	7	29	8	1	12	7	25	56
Syria	5	22	18	22	43	20	33	16	12	7	23	9
India	3	35	24	12	55	12	14	36	6	10	23	4
Nigeria	2	35	45	4	68	8	8	26	18	12	20	10
Other countries	336	677	768	583	977	1 226	642	543	1 650	2 714	389	
Total	1 054	2 503	2 926	2 325	3 792	3 462	4 518	4 048	4 086	4 259	4 593	24

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfjg>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Portugal

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Brazil	4 080	3 993	4 007	5 352	4 596	5 102	4 656	6 394	7 804	6 084	6 928	62
Cabo Verde	6 013	5 368	3 982	3 502	3 230	3 821	3 200	2 854	3 607	2 591	3 640	61
Ukraine	484	978	1 358	2 336	3 322	4 007	3 310	2 895	3 240	1 909	1 752	53
Guinea-Bissau	2 754	2 442	1 847	1 815	1 753	2 082	1 915	1 676	1 884	1 226	1 542	44
Angola	2 075	2 113	1 953	1 870	1 857	2 131	1 630	1 316	1 507	1 225	1 438	55
Sao Tome and Principe	1 391	1 289	1 097	1 156	869	1 027	938	809	1 061	753	1 006	52
India	417	1 055	919	860	628	539	490	454	1 002	693	855	38
Romania	209	258	303	469	492	796	687	515	621	412	434	54
Nepal	51	36	33	53	102	293	319	426	45
Moldova	2 230	2 896	2 675	2 324	2 043	1 816	1 363	964	815	453	400	52
Pakistan	74	200	388	476	443	346	333	189	407	239	285	41
Bangladesh	316	404	340	193	110	93	71	98	230	189	284	23
Russia	259	535	580	590	506	515	395	327	359	194	272	66
Venezuela	111	91	76	87	68	45	80	51	127	90	188	70
Mozambique	262	253	208	204	193	199	148	148	206	158	175	66
Other countries	1 733	2 307	2 017	1 953	1 673	1 924	1 855	1 604	1 941	1 487	1 708	
Total	22 408	24 182	21 750	23 238	21 819	24 476	21 124	20 396	25 104	18 022	21 333	56

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Russia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	58 500	62 025	5 715	7 783	12 803	15 646	22 167	67 400	100 696	85 119	83 081	..
Kazakhstan	58 736	50 628	27 130	29 986	14 585	20 582	28 350	32 070	37 837	40 718	45 362	..
Tajikistan	21 891	39 214	4 393	6 152	9 773	12 476	13 743	16 758	23 012	29 039	35 732	..
Armenia	45 253	54 828	6 261	7 847	13 176	16 550	17 894	18 653	22 264	25 144	27 134	..
Uzbekistan	43 982	49 784	4 788	7 906	13 409	17 937	20 385	22 557	23 216	23 334	21 067	..
Moldova	15 782	20 429	1 992	2 802	5 252	8 878	9 953	14 086	17 397	15 473	17 071	..
Azerbaijan	29 643	34 627	5 265	5 635	6 440	6 856	7 513	7 177	9 885	10 394	12 152	..
Kyrgyzstan	51 210	48 720	37 348	52 362	8 415	7 177	9 037	9 041	9 316	8 777	8 793	..
Belarus	7 099	6 062	3 888	3 993	1 547	2 559	3 346	3 257	3 582	4 092	4 708	..
Georgia	11 110	9 876	2 513	2 405	3 082	2 849	2 347	2 239	2 623	2 535	2 502	..
Turkmenistan	4 444	4 026	482	544	753	825	817	950	774	729	1 044	..
Turkey	105	129	144	146	201	218	252	292	500	475	485	..
Afghanistan	153	124	188	153	135	204	173	272	300	441	461	..
Viet Nam	94	75	90	112	105	170	240	265	287	331	401	..
Syria	62	53	79	90	130	170	145	271	334	386	395	..
Other countries	2 179	2 094	1 855	1 886	2 109	1 830	2 216	2 091	2 260	2 212	2 505	
Total	350 243	382 694	102 131	129 802	91 915	114 927	138 578	197 379	254 283	249 199	262 893	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Slovak Republic

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Ukraine	181	77	44	61	60	63	62	73	66	129	127	70
Czech Republic	90	48	45	45	36	24	37	70	106	91	119	51
United Kingdom	..	1	2	15	33	60	57
Viet Nam	37	11	15	5	11	15	49	20	26	53	54	41
Germany	2	5	3	3	2	1	1	11	37	35	41	66
United States	8	5	7	6	6	2	5	31	33	16	39	38
Russia	26	11	8	8	3	20	5	5	7	6	27	63
Romania	19	14	10	18	25	9	7	5	26	24	25	48
Canada	12	3	..	2	..	1	..	5	19	47
Hungary	13	17	12	9	8	5	1	4	8	13	15	40
Bulgaria	7	1	3	3	3	2	3	1	2	3	12	50
Belarus	9	1	..	4	4	3	5	1	2	5	10	90
Australia	3	5	12	10	50
Switzerland	1	2	4	3	9	9	78
Poland	7	3	5	4	4	4	2	4	4	6	9	78
Other countries	63	66	87	103	93	57	57	77	69	205	145	
Total	478	262	239	272	255	207	234	309	409	645	721	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Slovenia

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	445	488	565	635	587	545	570	741	724	918	1321	41
North Macedonia	..	154	197	165	155	122	117	145	166	208	222	46
Italy	116	188	206	204	156	186	11	23	18	27	13	219
Ukraine	6	23	25	31	30	35	17	21	29	23	24	61
Croatia	203	198	154	164	134	93	34	30	30	22	40	55
Russia	7	20	6	19	13	12	26	8	11	17	7	65
Moldova	1	5	4	10	9	7	10	6	6	7	3	43
Poland	..	2	2	3	1	0	0	1	3	5	2	100
Bulgaria	2	0	3	2	5	1	1	4	1	5	3	60
Philippines	..	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	4	1	50
Germany	12	7	10	12	17	14	0	3	3	4	3	100
Belarus	2	1	7	3	0	1	2	0	0	4	7	75
Afghanistan	..	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	4	1	..
Venezuela	1	2	2	6	8	9	0	1	1	3	0	200
Pakistan	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	33
Other countries	672	702	659	519	374	444	266	270	303	309	331	
Total	1468	1792	1840	1775	1490	1470	1057	1255	1297	1563	1978	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Spain

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Morocco	8 615	6 683	10 703	14 427	16 163	31 674	34 806	24 286	37 010	17 082	25 372	42
Bolivia	1 103	1 813	4 778	5 333	7 424	19 278	20 895	11 164	15 802	6 124	8 157	64
Ecuador	25 536	25 769	43 091	32 026	23 763	39 226	32 756	13 950	15 255	7 301	7 988	55
Colombia	15 409	16 527	23 995	19 803	19 396	39 332	25 114	11 881	14 299	5 647	6 826	60
Dominican Republic	3 496	2 766	3 801	4 985	6 028	14 611	14 110	8 171	9 176	4 107	4 940	58
Peru	8 206	6 368	8 291	9 255	12 008	19 225	16 601	6 954	6 933	3 224	3 273	58
Cuba	2 870	2 696	3 546	3 088	2 921	7 026	5 618	3 072	4 353	1 429	2 688	57
Paraguay	179	298	766	864	1 297	2 958	3 003	1 935	3 358	1 265	2 500	77
Brazil	1 049	943	1 738	1 854	2 540	4 698	4 017	2 273	3 427	1 294	2 153	71
Pakistan	208	262	375	491	596	1 949	3 326	2 798	3 148	1 708	2 054	32
Argentina	5 188	4 629	6 395	5 482	5 217	8 843	7 059	3 054	3 716	1 445	2 043	54
Venezuela	1 581	1 744	2 730	2 596	2 823	6 217	4 302	2 332	3 127	1 068	2 034	59
Honduras	185	241	473	440	578	1 702	2 142	1 632	2 525	1 267	1 783	72
Algeria	320	235	372	544	684	1 908	1 918	1 483	2 236	979	1 451	39
Senegal	407	287	403	577	614	1 877	1 957	1 643	2 287	1 176	1 408	33
Other countries	9 818	8 336	12 264	12 834	13 505	25 269	28 256	17 723	24 292	11 382	16 161	
Total	84 170	79 597	123 721	114 599	115 557	225 793	205 880	114 351	150 944	66 498	90 828	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Sweden

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Syria	504	498	418	675	666	540	495	1 370	4 479	8 635	10 626	44
Somalia	783	882	1 075	1 087	1 547	2 482	2 925	4 776	9 069	8 140	6 746	51
Iraq	4 211	3 170	4 354	6 164	16 582	14 317	7 271	4 955	3 694	3 272	2 579	49
Finland	2 535	2 429	2 966	2 227	2 245	2 255	3 023	2 133	2 182	1 974	2 522	64
Denmark	404	409	483	391	475	564	603	1 510	1 942	1 720	2 052	46
Afghanistan	811	1 180	848	636	851	776	785	1 198	2 330	2 316	1 912	39
Eritrea	251	350	326	396	743	836	997	1 113	1 451	1 677	1 836	49
Poland	679	819	1 477	1 787	1 645	2 473	2 417	2 333	2 702	2 083	1 783	56
Iran	1 103	1 097	958	1 021	1 392	1 305	1 128	1 331	1 420	1 788	1 736	53
Thailand	1 255	1 307	1 426	1 537	1 903	2 038	2 070	2 928	2 675	2 517	1 620	81
United Kingdom	165	212	392	277	296	288	424	444	960	1 228	1 340	27
Pakistan	154	173	174	220	328	412	330	552	748	1 108	1 145	43
Germany	597	681	912	770	654	837	920	918	858	854	893	50
India	205	207	192	174	234	325	306	457	470	724	816	40
Turkey	1 117	1 179	1 036	1 322	1 303	1 124	1 005	1 182	1 320	1 488	796	45
Other countries	15 480	14 725	15 160	17 644	18 882	19 060	18 219	21 049	24 043	22 302	19 787	
Total	30 254	29 318	32 197	36 328	49 746	49 632	42 918	48 249	60 343	61 826	58 189	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Switzerland

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Germany	3 022	4 035	3 617	3 544	3 401	3 835	4 120	5 255	4 658	6 021	6 212	52
Italy	4 921	4 804	4 111	4 109	4 045	4 401	4 495	5 496	5 134	5 863	5 233	44
Portugal	1 761	2 336	2 217	2 298	2 110	2 201	2 458	3 626	3 941	3 920	3 352	54
France	1 110	1 314	1 084	1 325	1 229	1 580	1 750	2 598	3 134	2 964	2 699	49
Turkey	2 866	2 593	2 091	1 886	1 662	1 628	1 399	1 808	1 729	1 796	1 678	47
North Macedonia	2 287	1 831	1 586	1 337	1 223	1 272	1 288	1 306	1 554	1 721	1 626	49
Spain	1 096	1 245	1 120	1 091	1 055	1 054	1 071	1 501	1 564	1 585	1 491	50
United Kingdom	319	365	298	351	396	328	449	617	665	883	1 006	47
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 855	2 408	1 924	1 628	1 163	1 173	966	1 103	965	972	995	52
Sri Lanka	781	768	761	825	793	50
Croatia	2 046	1 599	1 483	1 273	1 201	1 126	838	904	737	730	649	57
Brazil	455	596	538	618	595	73
Russia	397	397	562	614	589	514	74
United States	364	390	436	383	456	57
Belgium	153	173	209	156	218	222	219	247	367	421	359	55
Other countries	21 929	20 737	19 574	17 759	16 418	15 115	12 275	14 111	14 790	15 224	14 972	
Total	44 365	43 440	39 314	36 757	34 121	34 332	33 325	40 888	41 587	44 515	42 630	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – United Kingdom

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
India	11 835	26 541	29 405	26 290	28 352	36 353	22 425	18 398	24 616	16 687	15 105	..
Pakistan	9 442	20 945	22 054	17 641	18 445	21 655	13 000	13 088	16 740	10 379	11 803	..
Poland	251	458	1 419	1 863	3 043	6 066	3 166	3 777	4 437	7 113	9 629	..
Nigeria	4 531	6 953	7 873	7 933	8 882	9 276	8 077	8 054	9 811	6 941	8 696	..
Romania	385	993	1 009	566	679	2 488	1 501	1 674	1 980	3 022	5 527	..
Italy	241	310	356	297	556	810	479	846	1 282	3 515	5 255	..
Germany	302	400	339	400	479	570	311	584	994	2 635	4 759	..
France	368	496	511	491	631	744	411	728	1 163	2 824	4 103	..
South Africa	5 266	8 367	7 449	6 355	6 925	6 448	5 294	4 772	5 064	3 103	3 582	..
Bangladesh	3 633	12 041	7 966	5 149	5 702	8 902	3 892	3 612	4 648	3 080	3 572	..
Jamaica	2 715	3 148	2 958	2 515	3 007	2 874	2 372	1 778	2 313	1 651	3 561	..
United States	2 205	3 116	2 926	2 591	3 350	3 120	3 765	2 963	4 029	3 182	3 270	..
Ghana	3 134	4 662	4 552	3 937	4 748	4 682	3 138	2 980	3 562	2 592	3 179	..
Zimbabwe	5 707	7 703	6 301	4 879	5 649	4 413	3 103	3 385	4 412	2 850	3 127	..
Sri Lanka	3 284	4 762	4 945	5 886	6 163	3 855	2 335	2 289	3 432	2 465	2 907	..
Other countries	76 078	102 894	95 031	91 141	97 759	95 839	52 485	49 181	60 938	51 174	68 948	
Total	129 377	203 789	195 094	177 934	194 370	208 095	125 754	118 109	149 421	123 213	157 023	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – United States

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Of which: Women 2018 (%)
Mexico	231 815	111 630	67 062	94 783	102 181	99 385	94 889	105 958	103 550	118 559	131 977	55
India	65 971	52 889	61 142	45 985	42 928	49 897	37 854	42 213	46 188	50 802	52 194	50
China	40 017	37 130	33 969	32 864	31 868	35 387	30 284	31 241	35 794	37 674	39 600	58
Philippines	58 792	38 934	35 465	42 520	44 958	43 489	34 591	40 815	41 285	36 828	38 816	65
Cuba	39 871	24 891	14 050	21 071	31 244	30 482	24 092	25 770	32 101	25 961	32 089	53
Dominican Republic	35 251	20 778	15 451	20 508	33 351	39 590	23 775	26 665	31 320	29 734	22 970	58
Viet Nam	39 584	31 168	19 313	20 922	23 490	24 277	18 837	21 976	24 848	19 323	21 082	62
Colombia	22 926	16 593	18 417	22 693	23 972	22 196	16 478	17 207	18 601	16 184	17 564	61
El Salvador	35 796	18 927	10 343	13 834	16 685	18 401	15 598	16 930	17 213	16 941	17 300	56
Jamaica	21 324	15 098	12 070	14 591	15 531	16 442	13 547	16 566	16 772	15 087	17 213	58
Korea	22 759	17 576	11 170	12 664	13 790	15 786	13 587	14 230	14 347	14 643	16 031	57
Haiti	21 229	13 290	12 291	14 191	19 114	23 480	13 676	14 053	15 276	12 794	14 389	56
Iraq	5 057	4 197	3 489	3 360	3 523	7 771	12 377	14 899	12 130	7 875	12 448	49
Brazil	8 808	7 960	8 867	10 251	9 884	9 565	8 625	10 516	10 268	9 701	10 538	62
United Kingdom	12 095	10 060	8 401	9 246	9 145	9 459	8 906	10 095	9 562	9 049	10 530	45
Other countries	385 244	322 594	288 413	314 710	335 770	334 322	286 300	321 125	323 805	286 110	307 160	
Total	1 046 539	743 715	619 913	694 193	757 434	779 929	653 416	730 259	753 060	707 265	761 901	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t0yfgj>

Metadata related to Tables A.6. and B.6. Acquisitions of nationality

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Data from 2007 to 2010 are based on the former Reporting Assurance Section. Data from 2011 are sourced from Citizenship Programme Management. From 2014, figures inferior to 5 individuals are not shown.	Department of Immigration and Border Protection.
Austria	Data refer to persons living in Austria at the time of acquisition.	Statistics Austria and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
Belgium	Data refer to all acquisitions of Belgian nationality, irrespective of the type of procedure. Data only take into account those residing in Belgium at the time of the acquisition.	Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI) and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time if allowed by the country of previous nationality.	Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada.
Chile	Register of residence permits.	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Acquisitions of nationality by declaration or by naturalisation.	Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	The decrease in 2013 can be explained by the change in the naturalisation conditions that year.	Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Acquisitions of citizenship by naturalisation.	Police and Border Guard Board.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France		Ministry of the Interior and Ministry of Justice.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>).	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Data refer to all possible types of citizenship acquisition: naturalisation, declaration (for Greek descents), adoption by a Greek, etc.	Ministry of Interior and Administrative Reconstruction.
Hungary	Person naturalised in Hungary: naturalisation (the person was born foreign) or renaturalisation (his/her former Hungarian citizenship was abolished). The rules of naturalisation in Hungary were modified by the Act XLIV of 2010. The act introduced the simplified naturalisation procedure from 1 January 2011, and made it possible to obtain citizenship without residence in Hungary for the foreign citizens who have Hungarian ancestors. This data refer only to those new Hungarian citizens who have an address in Hungary.	Central Office Administrative and Electronic Public Services (Central Population Register), Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Includes children who receive Icelandic citizenship with their parents.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Figures include naturalisations and post nuptial citizenship figures.	Department of Justice and Equality.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Korea		Ministry of Justice.
Latvia	Acquisition of citizenship by naturalisation including children who receive Latvian citizenship with their parents.	Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs.
Lithuania		Eurostat.
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SRE).
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	Before 2016, the country of origin refers to 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	The statistics are based on population register data.	Statistics Norway.
Poland	Data include naturalisations by marriage and acknowledgment of persons of Polish descent, in addition to naturalisation by ordinary procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.

Country	Comments	Source
Portugal	Acquisition of nationality by foreigners living in Portugal. Until 2007, data exclude acquisitions of nationality due to marriage or adoption.	Institute of registers and notarial regulations, Directorate General for Justice Policy (DGPJ).
Russia	Naturalisations obtained through various simplified procedures benefiting mainly to participants to the Repatriation Programme of Compatriots; to persons who married a Russian citizen; to citizens from Belarus, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, countries which signed a bilateral agreement on naturalisations with Russia); plus a few persons who got their Russian citizenship restored (less than a thousand per year). Excludes citizenship acquired through consulates.	Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	Data refer to persons living in Slovak Republic at the time of acquisition.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	Include all grounds on which the citizenship was obtained.	Internal Administrative Affairs, Migration and Naturalisation Directorate, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Includes only naturalisations on the ground of residence in Spain. Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality. The large increase in the number of naturalisations in 2013 is due to the Intensive File Processing Nationality Plan (<i>Plan Intensivo de tramitación de expedientes de Nacionalidad</i>) carried out by the Ministry of Justice.	Ministry of Employment and Social Security, based on naturalisations registered by the Ministry of Justice.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey		General Directorate for population and citizenship, Ministry of the Interior.
United Kingdom	The increase in 2009 is partly due to the processing of a backlog of applications filled prior to 2009.	Home Office.
United States	Data by country of birth refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	Department of Homeland Security.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <http://stats.oecd.org/>.

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International Migration Outlook 2020

The 2020 edition of *International Migration Outlook* analyses recent developments in migration movements and policies in OECD countries and some non-member countries, and looks at the evolution of the labour market outcomes of immigrants in OECD countries. It includes a special chapter on the impact of migration on the structural composition of the economy. It also includes country notes and a statistical annex.



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