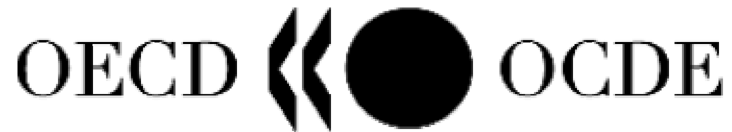


THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ASPECTS OF MIGRATION

Conference Jointly Organised
by
The European Commission and the OECD
Brussels, 21-22 January 2003

Changes and Challenges

Europe and Migration from 1950 to Present

by

Jean-Pierre Garson and Anaïs Loizillon

CHANGES AND CHALLENGES: EUROPE AND MIGRATION FROM 1950 TO PRESENT

Jean-Pierre Garson (OECD) and Anaïs Loizillon (Consultant, OECD)

Introduction

The Treaty of Rome, considered the foundation of the European Union, is based on a philosophy of the free movement of nationals from member countries within the European area. Since 1957, Europe has grown, and numerous Directives, recommendations, conventions or new treaties have contributed to facilitate the movement and settlement of nationals from the growing Europe. This topic is beyond the scope of this report and merits its own discussion, because, in the end, it is what distinguishes the European Union from other regional alliances, such as NAFTA, between OECD countries. Moreover, it will not be possible within the confines of this report to discuss the Association Agreements that the European Union has signed with numerous third countries, such as Turkey, the Maghreb countries or central European countries.[1] In this report, we will limit ourselves to present briefly the main migration periods in Europe since the early 1950s and to describe several aspects of the employment of migrants in the labour market. We continue by enumerating the challenges facing the European Union countries in the context of the harmonisation of migration policies and European Union enlargement. This document, which is based mostly on recent OECD work, aims to open the debate on migration in Europe by proposing a global approach, which would reflect upon steps towards the harmonisation of migration policies and the limits of such a process. The report also underscores the importance of incorporating current and future debates beyond the European context and of deepening partnerships between the European Union and the OECD in the context of international migration.

1. MAJOR CHANGES IN THE FIELD OF MIGRATION SINCE THE EARLY 1950s

A. The four main migration periods

Throughout the second half of the 20th century, European countries have experienced four main migration periods.

a) Employment-related migration and the reconstruction of Europe

Immediate post-war migration was characterised by the return of ethnic citizens and other displaced persons to their country of origin. Despite these mass migration flows across all of Europe, the reconstruction of post-war Europe generated large labour shortages. In response, government authorities of those concerned countries, firms and private agencies actively recruited migrant workers. These major migration movements within Europe and from developing countries contributed to the economic development and unparalleled growth which took place in Europe between 1945 and 1975, often referred to as the "Trente Glorieuses."

During the "Trente Glorieuses," European countries experienced strong economic growth supported by the development of heavy industry, manufacturing, building and public works sectors. Means

[1] See *Globalisation, Migration and Development*, OECD 2000.

of production were modernised and trade flows increased. The wave of migrants from Ireland and Southern Europe (Greece, Portugal, Spain and, to a lesser extent, Italy) - all countries which faced stagnating economies and high unemployment rates - at first met the labour market needs of Western Europe. The same can be said for migrants from North Africa, Turkey, the former Yugoslavia and, in the particular case of the United Kingdom, the former Commonwealth. The Treaty of Rome, which led to the creation of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957, was based on several principles, one of which allowed the free movement of persons between its six founding states (Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands). As of the late 1960s, a significant increase in intra-Community migration occurred, mostly due to the large wave of Italian workers moving to the other five member countries. Yet, even after the institutional implementation of the free movement and settlement of persons in 1968, intra-Community employment-related migration remained relatively small compared to the larger migration waves originating mostly from third countries. (See G. Tapinos, *Regional Economic Integration and its Effects on Employment and Migration* in Migration and Development: New Partnerships for Cooperation, OECD 1994).

During this period, numerous bilateral agreements were signed, for example, between Germany and the following countries: Italy (1955), Greece and Spain (1960), Turkey (1961), Morocco (1963), Portugal (1964), Tunisia (1965) and Yugoslavia (1968). Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Switzerland also signed agreements with most of these countries. The name « *Gastarbeiter* » given in Germany to immigrant "guest" workers became somewhat of a paradigm. As such, the host country could continue to maintain its rate of economic growth and its firms could obtain cheap labour. Immigrant workers had greater employment opportunities than in their home country and were able to send remittances home to their families. After a period of work abroad, there was an expectation that migrant workers would return home with newly acquired skills. Workers usually were afforded temporary work permits and work contracts, generally renewed on an annual basis.

Between the early 1960s and the early 1970s (see P. Stalker, *The Work of Strangers*, 1994), more than 30 million foreign workers entered the European Economic Community. These figures include temporary workers and multiple entries. By the early 1980s, the resident foreign population in Western Europe had effectively tripled since 1950, reaching 15 million. In 2000, more than 20 million foreigners lived in the European Economic Area (EEA), accounting for 5.4% of the total population, with small variations among countries (see Chart 1).

b) Economic crisis and new migration adjustments: increasing flows of family reunification and the permanent nature of migration

The beginning of the second period of migration was marked by the economic crisis of the mid-1970s due to the oil price increase in 1973. Several European countries reduced or tried to reduce immigration. Although employment-related migration fell dramatically until the late 1980s, other categories of migration entries increased significantly, especially family reunification flows.

The 1973 oil price increase brought the end of employment-related migration. Growing unemployment and increasing social tensions prompted governments to stop active recruitment policies. In some countries, the recruitment of new workers was made more difficult for employers by increasing the costs of recruitment, limiting the categories of workers and introducing annual quotas. Governments also implemented policies with the aim of encouraging migrant workers to return to their home countries.

In reality, the economic downturn did not lead to a massive return of immigrants to their home country. Many immigrants decided to remain in the host country to benefit from their social rights, which were similar to native workers. The economic situation in their home countries was markedly worse and,

finally, many feared not being able to re-enter the host country. According to some United Nations estimates, only 10% of immigrant workers returned to their country of origin in the two years that followed the 1973 crisis. As a result, European Community countries observed that migration was part of a process not only reflecting the needs of the labour market, but also including a strong family component and a social cost linked to the presence of second generations. In Germany, for example, despite the formal end of immigration in November 1973, the foreign population increased from 4 million in 1973 to 4.5 million in 1980 (see H. Werner, *From Guests to Permanent Visitors: From the German "Guestworker" Programmes of the Sixties to the Current "Green Card" Initiative for IT Specialists*, 1999). Moreover, intra-Community migration stagnated due to the economic crisis and the convergence of salaries among member countries of the European Community (which grew in 1974 with the adherence of the United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark).

c) Diversification of host and sending countries and the increase in the flows of asylum seekers, refugees and ethnic minorities

The third migration period, which began in the late 1980s, is characterised by the diversification of host and sending countries. The traditional emigration countries in Europe, such as Spain, Italy, Ireland, Greece and Portugal, gradually became countries of immigration. Moreover, immigrants were no longer only coming from former colonies, as was the case for the United Kingdom and France, but from a more diverse group of countries, notably from sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. Migrants' motivations changed, as did their migration entry channels. A net increase in asylum seekers and refugees was observed, partially amplified by the effects of the political changes occurring in Central and Eastern Europe and in the former Soviet Union. Regional conflicts, such as those in the former Yugoslavia and in Northern Iraq, led to large flows of asylum seekers and refugees from those areas.

The increase in asylum applications was particularly strong in the early 1990s and reached a new peak in 1997, mostly due to the civil war in the former Yugoslavia. In 1983, Western Europe registered about 70 000 asylum seekers. This number was ten times higher in 1992 (largely the result of an increase in applications in Germany that year before the Constitutional reform was implemented in 1993). Applications then fell until 1996 (at 245 000) and registered a small increase in 1997 (260 000). In 2001, European Union countries recorded more than 388 000 asylum applications of a total 612 000 applications in all OECD countries (see Table 1). The top five European countries, based on the absolute value of flows, are the United Kingdom, followed by Germany, France, the Netherlands and Austria. If one compares the number of asylum applications to the total foreign population, however, the order changes with Ireland as the highest, followed by Sweden, the Netherlands, Denmark and Austria.

In addition to regional conflicts, the increase in asylum applications stemmed from the fact that numerous migrants had recourse to this entry channel, which remained their only possibility due to increased restrictions in migration policies. Delays in responding to applications led some applicants to settle definitely in the host country even though the rates of accepted applications and of refugee status granted were low.

This third period is also characterised by the predominance of family reunification flows in several European countries of the OECD and by a renewed interest in employment-related migration, notably for skilled and highly skilled labour in the late 1990s (see *Employment Outlook*, OECD 2001).

After the collapse of the former USSR and the opening of frontiers, East-West migration and particularly movement of ethnic minorities increased. These flows were significant during the late 1980s and the early 1990s and were directed to a limited number of European Union countries, mainly Germany. In 1989 and 1990, Germany welcomed more than 620 000 people of German ethnic descent (*Ausslieder*)

originating from Poland, Romania and the former Soviet Union (see Table 2). Provisions in the German Constitution relating to ethnic German minorities encouraged these large flows. To a lesser extent, other countries such as Greece and Finland also recorded the return of ethnic minorities originating from the former Soviet Union and in the case of Finland, from the Baltic States. Moreover, the flow of the Roma people, mostly from Romania, Bulgaria, the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic, increased the ranks of other ethnic minorities in certain countries of Western Europe.

d) The return of employment–related migration with a "preference" for skilled workers and temporary migration

One striking change in the past few years concerns the increase in permanent migration and especially temporary employment-related migration (see below and the OECD document presented in the third session). In this fourth migration period, the observed increase in employment-related migration is the result of several factors: on the one hand, the intensity of the late 1990s expansion phase and, on the other, the development of information and communication technology, health and education, sectors which require skilled and highly-skilled labour in shortage in some countries. The increase in employment-related migration also includes unskilled foreign labour, especially in agriculture, building and public works, and domestic services; this is notably the case in Italy, Spain, Greece and Portugal.

All temporary labour migration categories are on the rise since 1998, especially in Germany, Australia, Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom. Recent policies implemented to facilitate the recruitment of foreign labour have the tendency to favour solutions with temporary foreign workers. Foreign students also can contribute to help reduce labour shortages in host countries. The number of foreign students is quite important in the United States, but also in several countries of the European Union (United Kingdom, Germany, France and Spain) and in Switzerland (see Table 3). Many OECD Member countries recently have brought about important changes concerning the possibilities of status changes and access to the labour market upon completion of training (see *International Mobility of the Highly Skilled*, OECD, 2002).

The 1990s have shown an increasing proportion of women among migrants, also known as the feminisation of migration flows. This trend is particularly visible in France, Greece, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Italy. The feminisation tendency in effect concerns all components of migration flows. Women have formed an increasing proportion of employment-related migration and refugee flows, while earlier female migration to OECD countries was limited mostly to family reunification channels.

This rapid overview of the main periods marking European migration since the mid-1950s is not intended to be exhaustive. It is important to complete it, however, by highlighting two events which in our minds are related to the general framework of the economic and social aspects of migration. The first involves the persistence during this entire period of irregular migration and the employment of undocumented workers. The second concerns naturalisations and mixed marriages, which in many European Union countries have led to an increasing number of foreigners who join the ranks of nationals. These processes reinforce the permanent and settlement nature of immigration (as is the case in Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand) and allow migrants the possibility of obtaining full citizenship.

B. The persistence of irregular migration and the employment of undocumented workers

During the period of the "Trente Glorieuses," the massive dependence on new foreign workers obscured or lowered the importance of irregular immigration. Although they benefited, as in France, from a slowly evolving regularisation or more discretionary measures, immigrants did not remain in an irregular

situation for a long time and finished by integrating into the labour market and society of the host countries. With the economic downturn of the mid-1970s and the rise of unemployment, the issue of combating irregular immigration became a priority in many European Union countries' migration policies. Irregular migration continued to develop, as did the hiring of foreign workers in an irregular situation. Unlike during the "Trente Glorieuses," however, the possibility of an eventual regularisation was less likely and the tendency to remain underground lasted longer. Special regularisation programmes were implemented in the 1980s and 1990s, especially in France, Spain and Italy and more recently in Portugal and Greece (see *Combating the Illegal Employment of Foreigners*, OECD 2000), but they have not put an end to this irregular migration. In fact, some purport that they have even fostered it.

Since the early 1990s, irregular immigration has taken on a greater dimension and has become more dangerous. International trafficking rings have taken advantage of the political changes occurring in Central and Eastern Europe and in the former Soviet Union to exploit people from those regions. International traffickers are also operating in Asia and to a lesser extent in Africa. Due to the increasing presence of these networks and their growing role in international labour movements, policies regarding illegal entries as well as the irregular stays and employment of foreigners have added repressive measures against traffickers, employers and even immigrants in an irregular situation. Information campaigns have warned the population on the risks and sanctions of undocumented employment, assistance or participation in trafficking networks. At the same time, national and international cooperation has appeared critical to an improved control and management of migration flows (for example, information exchanges between relevant authorities, coordinated control of frontiers, information exchanges on trafficking networks).

C. The evolution of the naturalisation rate

In the past few years, the means of acquiring and allocating the host country's nationality have been modified in several European countries of the OECD, generally by making the laws more liberal (for more detail, see the special chapter on the acquisition of nationality in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 1995). Obtaining the host country's nationality demonstrates a gradual process of foreigners' economic and social integration and can help increase their likelihood of settlement. The number of naturalisations depends mainly on the size and age of migration waves as well as the more or less liberal nature of the naturalisation legislation. It is also extremely dependent on how much importance the foreigner gives to obtaining the host country's nationality and to the consequences of potentially losing the native nationality.

Recent legislative changes in Germany are representative of shifts occurring in naturalisation legislation. Since 1 January, 2000, German nationality can be granted to foreign adults in a regular situation, who have resided in Germany for at least eight years, as opposed to the previous 15 years. Moreover, children of foreign-born parents can also obtain German nationality if one parent has lived legally in Germany for a minimum of eight years. In 2000, of the 91 000 children of foreign-born parents, 40 800 obtained German nationality under the new law. On a different note, the volume of French naturalisations in 2000, which amounts to approximately 150 000, is higher than the number of registered entries for legal immigration, that is, about 127 000 in the same year (see *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2002). Sweden, Denmark and Belgium have the highest naturalisation rates compared to those in Austria, the United States and Switzerland, as confirmed by the data in Chart 2, which follows several periods (1990-94, 1995-99) and 2000.

2. THE POSITION OF FOREIGNERS ON THE LABOUR MARKET

The increase in the proportion of immigrants or foreigners in the active population has paralleled the trend of their proportion in the total population (see above). Over the past five years, the number of foreign and immigrant workers has increased in the majority of OECD countries, and especially in the countries of southern Europe, as well as in certain Nordic countries (see Table 4 and Chart 3). Only in Germany and Switzerland did the foreign labour force diminish over the period in question. In Germany, there are nearly 3.4 million foreign workers, compared to 1.6 million in France and 1.2 million in the United Kingdom.

A. The role of immigrants in the labour market

Despite the recent improvement in the employment situation in the majority of OECD countries, there are still significant differences between nationals and immigrants in terms of labour market integration. Foreigners or immigrants generally have lower participation rates than nationals; such differences also exist between men and women (see Table 5) and among nationalities.

The participation rates of foreign women are systematically lower than those of men, the gender-based disparity even exceeding 30 percentage points in some host countries, such as in Italy, Greece and Belgium. The above observation usually also applies to the case of nationals, but in some countries the gap between male and female participation rates is at least twice the size for immigrants compared to nationals. In France, for example, the male participation rate for nationals is 12 points higher than for women, whereas the gap is 28 points where foreigners are concerned. In Finland, gender differences are even more marked, reaching 4.9 and 23%, respectively, for nationals and foreigners. Similarly large gaps are found in Denmark. Very low participation rates also are found among certain immigrant communities where female participation rates are low in the country of origin: this is the case of Turkish and North African communities and of people from the Middle East and Afghanistan.

In a number of OECD countries, foreign or immigrant men have higher participation rates than nationals. This is true in particular in host countries where employment-related migration predominates, as in the countries of southern Europe (Italy, Greece) and Hungary. On the contrary, in the Netherlands and northern European countries (notably Sweden and Denmark), which traditionally receive many refugees, foreigners have appreciably lower participation rates than natives.

B. Increase in the foreign labour force and its dispersal across economic sectors

Chart 4 compares the trend in foreign employment and total employment since the start of the economic upturn (first half of the 1990s). In the older European immigration countries (Belgium, France, Germany, Netherlands, United Kingdom), employment growth initially benefited mainly nationals. After 4 to 6 years, however, foreign employment increased sharply despite the strains appearing on the labour market and accelerating growth. In the new immigration countries such as Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain, the trend is very different in the sense that foreign employment has been on an upward slope since the beginning of the economic upturn.

Table 6 provides an overview of the sectoral breakdown of foreign labour in the OECD countries in 2000-2001. It is noticeable, in particular, that foreigners are over-represented in certain sectors, meaning that they account for a larger proportion of employment in those sectors than they do in the total labour force. In the majority of European OECD countries, over-representation occurs in secondary sector activities. In Germany and Italy, for example, more than a quarter of foreign employment is concentrated

in mining and manufacturing. Foreigners are also over-represented in the construction sector in Austria, Belgium, France and the countries of southern Europe.

The disparity indicator used in Table 7 enables one to synthesise the extent to which the sectoral distribution of foreigners' employment has converged with that of nationals over the past fifteen years. The lower this indicator (for its method of calculation, see note in Table 7), the closer is the sectoral distribution of foreigners' employment to that of nationals; this is notably the case in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and Spain.

The increasing similarity between the distributions of foreign workers compared to those of nationals implies that foreigners' labour market integration has been increasing. In the European OECD countries, for example, second-generation young people arriving on the labour market usually have higher levels of education and training than their parents. Thus, young foreign workers are increasingly working in jobs with a "national profile" as opposed to those typically held by first-generation immigrants.

In the specific case of the illegal employment of foreign workers, information obtained in the course of regularisation programmes indicates that they are on average younger than the remainder of the labour force and are widely distributed across the economy (see box below).

Where do undocumented immigrants work?

While it is difficult to compile a precise list of all the different occupations practised by undocumented immigrants, information from regularisation programmes shows a far wider range of sectors than might be expected. A study of six OECD countries (see *Combating the Illegal Employment of Foreigners,* OECD 2000) has identified the main sectors involved: agriculture; construction and civil engineering; small-scale industry; tourism, hotels and catering; and services to households and to business, including computer services.

Despite the declining share of agriculture and industry in the gross domestic product of most industrialised countries, illegal immigrants have become very much involved in the services sector where their presence has coincided with a rise in total employment. In countries such as France and Italy, undocumented skilled foreigners find work in science and language teaching though usually at much lower rates of pay than for nationals. Seasonal tourism, retail trading and catering, where long hours are expected, are other sources of employment. The growth in services to businesses (such as equipment maintenance and servicing, caretaking) and services to households (such as child minding and other domestic services) also has been favourable to undocumented workers.

The growth in outsourcing in most OECD countries is another recent trend that has favoured the recruitment of undocumented immigrants. It has enabled firms in several sectors to reduce their social security contributions as well as constraints imposed by labour legislation. The textile/clothing and building/civil engineering industries often use outsourcing, as do services. This practice has led to what might be termed "false" dependent employment, whereby employees of an outsourcing firm are effectively self-employed freelancers.

Illegal employment reflects to a certain degree the hiring difficulties encountered in the labour market. It also demonstrates the problems linked to the underground economy, in which illegal employment is held to a large degree by national workers.

C. Foreigners workers are more likely to face unemployment than native workers

Generally, foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals for a variety of reasons (see *Employment Outlook,* OECD 2001). In most European OECD countries, the share of foreign or immigrant workers in the total number of unemployed is greater than their share in the active labour force.

The disparities in the unemployment rates of foreigners and nationals (see Table 5) and the fact that foreigners are affected differently by unemployment depending on their nationality are particularly attributable to economic trends and the nature of jobs held by foreigners. These differences also depend on the demographic structure of the foreign population and when the different waves of migration arrived in the various host countries. Migrants' profiles also determine their employability. Variables such as age, gender, nationality, category at entry (refugee, family member or worker), skill level, professional experience and the length of stay in the country play an important role in explaining the degree of vulnerability to unemployment. Knowledge of the language of the host country also contributes significantly to integration in the labour market and in society as a whole.

To assess the scale of the effort needed to offset the specific problems faced by foreigners or immigrants in OECD labour markets, one can calculate the number of new jobs theoretically needed to bring the foreign unemployment rate into line with that of nationals, assuming no change in the latter. This would have the effect of balancing the share of foreign or immigrant workers in the total number of unemployed to their share in the active labour force. Results for 2001 are shown in Table 8. What emerges is that, even in countries where foreigners are hard hit by unemployment, such as in Belgium, Finland, Sweden and France, the theoretical number of jobs that should be created, in fact, remains relatively small. Nevertheless, achieving this objective in the medium term means thinking about strengthening active measures in favour of employment, developing specific measures and stepping up the campaign against discrimination.

3. MAIN MIGRATION CHALLENGES FOR AN ENLARGED EUROPE

A. The context: common concerns among a highly contrasted "migration landscape"

European Union countries share a certain number of common concerns in the field of international migration. They want to improve the control of migration flows, grant refugee status to migrants who truly meet the Geneva Convention criteria, and, finally, cooperate actively with each other and sending countries to reach these objectives. This convergence of concerns and objectives, however, should not obscure the reality: the "migration landscape" in the European Union is extremely contrasted and the imminent adhesion of the 10 candidate countries will only accentuate that difference.

Older immigration countries, such as France, Belgium and the Netherlands registered important migration waves of foreign workers, sometimes accompanied by their family members, in the 1950s, 1960s until the mid-1970s. Along with Germany and the United Kingdom, these countries are currently managing second generations of immigrants and are quite concerned with the integration of foreigners and their children in the labour market and society in general.

In the early 1950s, the Scandinavian countries created the Nordic market allowing the free movement of people, merchandise and capital in the geographic area created by its member countries. These countries have not turned to a recruitment policy of foreign workers, but have given priority in their annual inflows to refugees and other migrants accepted under humanitarian conditions. This priority explains the fact that migration flows to this region during the past 20 years have mostly been composed of

migrants from countries with civil wars or armed conflicts. The integration of these populations in the labour market and in Scandinavian society requires appropriate policies to respond to the need of displaced or uprooted persons.

From the 1850s to the 1950s, the Southern European countries and Ireland were categorised among the great countries of transatlantic emigration and later as the major purveyors of migrants to Europe. They have now become countries of immigration, facing for the most part (except Ireland) a large flow of undocumented workers. The imminent adhesion of Poland, Hungary and the Czech Republic to the European Union, for example, will help increase the contrast between the old and new countries of immigration.

It is in this extremely contrasted landscape (including the diversification of sending countries of new arrivals and settled migrants, see Table 9) that migration, employment of foreigners and a common migration policy will have to be determined in the European Union.

B. Harmonising migration policies constitutes one of the most difficult challenges because the European Union countries are at different development levels in terms of migration flows

A quick glance at the migration history of the European Union countries clearly shows that the stages of development of migration waves are different by country or groups of countries considered. For example, political changes in Central and Eastern Europe at the end of the 1980s (see above) had a greater effect for geopolitical and historical reasons on migration flows in the 1990s in Germany and Austria (as well as in the United States and Canada) compared to France or the United Kingdom. This is also similar to what has happened after the breakdown of the former Yugoslavia and the civil war in that region: large refugees flows fled from Bosnia, Kosovo and, more recently, Albania to Germany, Sweden, Austria, Italy and Greece.

Germany has welcomed a large number of ethnic German migrants since 1989; Greece has received Greek minorities from Pontis in the former USSR and Albanians of Greek origin; Spain has been the target for some nationals from its former colonies in Central and Latin American; and Portugal can hardly ignore its similar connections with African countries with Portuguese as the official language or with Brazil. In the future, the same experiences will be felt in Poland with its ethnic minorities in Ukraine or in Hungary with Romania, just as France, Belgium, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands experienced in their time with their former colonies.

Tomorrow, with the EU enlargement, these geopolitical constraints will continue their impact on migration movements and policies. The precedent already has been set with the enlargement of the European Community in 1981 with Greece and in 1986 with Portugal and Spain. These experiences certainly provide us with useful lessons on how to manage the transition period which runs between adhesion and the entry into force of free movement, on one hand, and the free settlement of communitarian nationals in each of the member countries. The upcoming enlargement contains two new factors: first, several candidate countries are having difficulty in managing their migration flows originating from the former Soviet Union and certain Asian countries and to a lesser extent Africa. Second, numerous ethnic minorities in Central and Eastern Europe continue to have a precarious political status and could feed into future migration flows to the European Union.

This group of factors clearly show that the European Union countries are facing very different situations with regards to migration: different migration histories, differing levels of economic dependency on immigration and varying concerns among countries about the flow of the past decade (composed mostly of asylum seekers, refugees and ethnic minorities). The Treaty of Amsterdam, which came into effect in

May 1999, underscores the importance of creating a common migration policy for all member states. This remains an ambitious goal considering the varied landscape described above and the heterogeneity of the immigrant population that is already settled in the European Union area. Thus, one of the first challenges for migration in Europe will be to find a common thread on the issue of migration management and the harmonisation of migration policies among European Union countries.

C. Towards statistical tools which are better utilised and adapted: another major challenge

Another major challenge lies in the possibility of equipping oneself with statistical tools better adapted to the multiple aspects of migration. Available migration data are developed unevenly among European Union countries and it is difficult to establish comparisons between the concerned countries (see Statistical Annex in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD 2002).

The hidden facets of the migration phenomenon include not only unregistered inflows, but also outflows, returns and multiple situations of irregularity concerning residence and/or work. The loss of information on migrants, resulting from their return to their home country or naturalisation in the host country, distorts to a large degree national or comparative analyses on the volume of net migration flows or the integration of immigrants and their family members in the host country. Such information disappears from the register due to the lack of appropriate concepts, as well as administrative or statistical tools.

Before even creating new statistical tools, one should first use those that already exist. One such tool is the EU Labour Force Survey which is currently underutilised in terms of analysing the immigration population, whether recently arrived or settled. In fact, this survey is nearly our only source of current information allowing a view on the labour market behaviours of first generation immigrants and on their integration from various points of view (presence or schooling in the country, naturalisation, mixed marriages, etc). To this end, a preliminary evaluation on the quality of information and on the analytical potential of this instrument would be a necessary step. The OECD Secretariat is ready to work together with the European Union to make better use of the existing data. In a second phase, it could be possible to suggest new statistical tools better adapted to the economic and social aspects of migration, based on the rich statistical information available in several non-European OECD countries.

D. Going beyond the current context to develop less simplistic approaches to the migration phenomenon

The mobilisation of certain EU member countries around the issue of asylum seekers and the importance taken by this category during the past decade have made it such that migration as a whole has been assimilated to economic and political refugee movements in certain OECD Member countries and in numerous debates. This mobilisation recently was translated into the creation of a European Fund aimed at helping countries faced with a large number of asylum seekers and at risk of seeing this channel strongly reactivated. As countries share the cost burden of asylum seekers, one also wonders whether this policy risks prompting the reduction of current efforts to curb the flows of fake asylum seekers. Moreover, resources allocated to this Fund could rise considerably with an increase in asylum applications in countries hitherto less concerned, such as Italy, Spain and Greece, as well as three of the new candidate countries (the Czech Republic, Hungary and the Slovak Republic).

Conversely, the varying degree of fear felt by each country that they will face a labour shortage now or in the near future has led some of them to "reduce" the migrant to his/her labour force dimension, even though past experience shows the complex character of different migration processes, from the arrival of the worker, to that of his/her family, to naturalisation (see above). Beyond the questions related to the

integration of immigrants in the host country society, migrants also retain more or less strong ties with their country of origin and this dimension should not be separated from the migration phenomenon.

Simplistic approaches to the migration phenomenon, sometimes communicated in messages to the public, have reinforced the perception of "Fortress Europe," during a period when immigration flows have increased throughout the 1990s (see Chart 5). Today, public opinion is not clear on whether one should continue to fight against irregular immigration and the employment of undocumented workers or if "Fortress Europe should transform itself into a more welcoming Europe."

In this context, various lobby groups (very powerful, but rarely representing immigrants), unresponsive sending countries and partisans of an increase in multiculturalism have led certain countries to adopt migration policies incoherent with other policies (e.g., policies favouring certain ethnic minorities or teaching the original language and culture, to the detriment of the acquisition of host country's language, a prerequisite for obtaining, keeping or regaining a job).

In their recent work, the OECD and the European Union already contributed to alleviate fears raised by the effects of EU enlargement on migration flows (see *Migration Policies and EU Enlargement*, OECD 2001). This research deserves to be extended and oriented toward the labour market aspects and the status of immigrants or foreigners in candidate countries. Moreover, it is hopeful that the EU/OECD Conference—the framework for this document—can bring about an in-depth study on the social and economic aspects of migration, similar to the one recently published by the British authorities (see *Migration: An Economic and Social Analysis,* Home Office 2001), who were concerned in delivering to the public a global message on migration linked with economic growth and the dynamic character of British society. Going beyond the economic and social aspects of migration, the challenge here is first of all human and political.

E. The employment of foreigners at the heart of future concerns

Theoretically, countries resorting to employment-related migration seek flexibility, especially adaptability to the current labour needs. In reality, we notice that countries with selective migration policies reconsider their strategy by seeking migrants with characteristics better adapted to the medium term needs of the labour market. This vision contrasts sharply with past approaches that focused on the temporary nature of employment-related migration. How can one reconcile employment-related migration policies with the changes occurring in the labour market?

In terms of migrants, the right to work mandates equal treatment as well as clear and non-discriminatory statutes reflecting equal pay and social protection. The conditions set by migrants are now systematically taken into consideration for skilled and highly skilled workers, while in the past this was not true for unskilled labour. The recent temporary programmes, however, are not sufficiently clear in terms of the status accorded to migrants. Future bilateral and multilateral agreements related to the labour force could be modified to provide better benefits to its various partners (the State, employers, migrants). The OECD Secretariat proposes to tackle this issue during a seminar in Montreux, hosted by the Swiss authorities in June 2003. The participation of the European Union is highly welcomed given the present context of a rekindled interest in employment-related migration (see above).

Immigrants are expected to play a role in alleviating the impact of population ageing and certain countries even hope to increase immigration as a way to reduce or balance the pension systems deficit. Before even considering their degree of realism, such perspectives presume the implementation of a permanent migration policy, which few European countries have supported officially. In this respect, it

would be beneficial to give serious thought to examples of such policies that have been in use for a long time in some non-European OECD countries (e.g., Canada, Australia).

In terms of labour shortage fears, which seem poorly identified for now (see OECD 2001 and the OECD Secretariat document presented in the third session of this conference), reliance on increased immigration is competing with and/or complementing goals to increase the participation rate of residents (including settled migrants), the possibility of increasing "labour saving" investments, relocations, etc. These challenges are tied to the future equilibrium of the labour market and deserve more in-depth analysis. Whatever the case, selective employment-related migration has several limits. In addition, the existence of old migration waves, the persistence of conflict in regions beyond the EU, close or far away, and the inequalities of development will continue to weigh on the volume of migration flows not "selected" by the host countries.

The fight against illegal inflows and the irregularity of entries and residence of foreigners will remain the core of migration policies in OECD Member countries. The effectiveness of these policies is a serious challenge because from these policies emanate the implementation of more active regular immigration policies.

Under the auspices of the OECD Working Party on Migration, particular attention was given to the prevention and fight against the employment of undocumented foreigners as well as to the comparative analysis of national methods used to reach these goals (see *Combating the Illegal Employment of Foreigners*, OECD 2000). One of the main recommendations from that work stated the need to aim measures generally at all undeclared work, not only at the employment of undocumented foreigners.

Sanctions against the illegal employment of foreigners must be directed at the principal actors involved in violating labour and immigration laws. Thus, they must apply to direct employers but also to indirect employers (the person in charge who calls for subcontractors for certain parts or phases of the work). Sanctions should also be directed to those who actively support illegal immigration and/or the employment of undocumented workers, whether this person is an intermediary making a profit on housing or a foreign labour trafficker. Finally, sanctions can target undocumented workers. Nonetheless, an effective strategy to combat the employment of undocumented workers must be based on a combination of sanctions and non-repressive prevention measures.

The OECD Working Party recommendations also focus on the improved coordination and coherence of actions made by the relevant authorities in the fight against the employment of undocumented workers at local and national levels. Finally, international cooperation is becoming more urgent, especially in the fight against labour trafficking networks.

European Union countries are aware of these needs and the Council of the European Union has recently adopted several recommendations related to the crackdown on the employment of undocumented workers. Similarly, the Commission of the European Union wrote a report on illegal employment. This report identifies four categories of undeclared workers: those engaged in various jobs, those who are "non-active" economically, the unemployed and third country residents living illegally in the European Union. In other OECD Member countries, such as the United States, Canada and Mexico, international cooperation activities, when they exist, are mostly bilateral and often very specific.

Conclusion

In this document, we first presented the main migration periods since the 1950s in Europe, followed by the brief description of the role of immigrants in the labour market. The last section focuses mostly on the complexity of the migration phenomenon and the situation which prevails in European

Union member countries in order to identify the main challenges as well as the steps and limits of the harmonisation of general migration policies and employment-related migration policies in particular. This last section, while underscoring several migration challenges for the enlarged European Union, aims to spark the debate. It also hopes to reinforce the cooperation between the OECD and the European Union on subjects such as migration and the labour market, the integration of immigrants and the international cooperation between host and sending countries for management of migration flows and economic development.

Beyond the challenges raised in this document, several questions related to migration policies remain to be discussed. What will be the nature of future migration policies that the European Union will advocate for and at what level will they be applied (by region, country, groups of countries, all of Europe)? Will active employment-related migration policies be more selective, consist of more quotas, and, if so, for what category of workers or countries supplying the labour force? Are the policy goals the same for old and new countries of immigration, for old and new EU members? Up to what degree can migration policies be harmonised? Can they be defined without taking into consideration the migration policies of other large non-European immigration countries in the OECD zone?

Clearly, the European Union, as well as the OECD, must broaden their work on migration.

TABLES AND CHARTS

Table 1. **Inflows of asylum seekers in OECD countries in 2001**

	Thousands	per 100 foreigners[1] at the beginning of the year	per 1000 inhabitants (2000)	Those with status recognised (as a % of all decisions taken in 2001) [2]
United Kingdom	92.0	3.9	1.5	26
Germany	88.4	1.2	1.1	25
United States	86.4	0.3	0.3	30
France	47.3	1.4	0.8	12
Canada	42.7	0.9	1.4	47
Netherlands	32.6	4.9	2.1	15
Austria	30.1	4.0	3.7	4
Belgium	24.5	2.8	2.4	27
Sweden	23.5	4.9	2.7	27
Switzerland	20.8	1.5	2.9	36
Czech Republic	18.0	9.0	1.8	1
Norway	14.8	8.0	3.3	33
Denmark	12.4	4.8	2.3	52
Australia	12.4	0.3	0.6	29
Ireland	10.3	8.2	2.7	4
Italy	9.8	0.7	0.2	20
Hungary	9.6	7.5	1.0	5
Spain	9.2	1.0	0.2	6
Slovak Republic	8.2	28.8	1.5	-
Greece	5.5	..	0.5	18
Turkey	5.0	..	0.1	47
Poland	4.5	10.6	0.1	5
Bulgaria	2.4	..	0.3	70
Romania	2.4	3.4	0.1	5
New Zealand	1.7	0.2	0.5	19
Finland	1.7	1.8	0.3	38
Luxembourg	0.7	0.4	1.6	22
Mexico	0.4	0.1	-	34
Japan	0.4	-	-	23
Portugal	0.2	0.1	-	23
EU	**388.1**			
Central and Eastern Europe	**45.1**			
North America	**129.1**			
OECD	**612.3**			

1. As a per cent of stocks of foreign-born citizens for Australia, Canada (1996), New Zealand and the United States.
2. Persons who obtained the refugee status plus those who were granted a "humanitarian" status as a per cent of total decisions taken in 2001 (including otherwise closed).

Sources: Refer to the Statistical Annex of *Trends in International Migration* (OECD, 2002 edition); United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

Table 2. **Inflows of ethnic Germans by country of origin to Germany, 1950-1998**

	Total	*of which:* former USSR	Romania	Poland	former CSFR	Others
1950 - 1965	551 634	18 900	15 410	356 659	31 085	129 580
1966 - 1980	516 041	66 790	91 522	275 491	59 517	22 721
1981 - 1989	932 016	169 611	135 394	606 166	10 994	9 851
1990 - 1995	1 509 010	1 120 816	178 419	201 291	3 386	5 098
1996	177 751	172 181	4 284	1 175	11	100
1997	134 419	131 895	1 777	687	10	50
1998	103 080	101 550	1 005	488	16	21
Cumulated total	3 923 951	1 781 743	427 811	1 441 957	105 019	167 421

Source: Ministry of the Interior.

Table 3. **Stock of foreign students in some OECD countries, 2000**

Thousands and percentages

		Of which:			
	Thousands	from an OECD country (%)	From an EU Member country	From another European country	Foreign students as a percentage of all students (foreign and domestic students)
United States	475.2	37.6	25.6	1.2	3.6
United Kingdom	222.9	60.6	28.4	2.4	11.0
Germany	187.0	53.1	35.5	6.2	9.1
France	137.1	30.2	21.8	1.8	6.8
Australia	105.8	22.4	8.6	0.4	12.5
Japan	59.7	36.1	6.5	0.1	1.5
Spain	40.7	61.6	47.9	3.7	2.2
Canada	40.0	42.9	8.2	0.5	3.3
Belgium	38.8	58.5	50.2	1.8	10.9
Austria	30.4	70.1	58.0	4.8	11.6
Switzerland	26.0	72.8	52.7	0.6	16.6
Italy	24.9	46.4	37.8	4.6	1.4
Sweden	20.8	72.3	37.9	6.1	6.0
Turkey	17.7	9.8	7.5	0.1	1.7
Netherlands	14.0	57.2	45.1	1.8	2.9
Denmark	12.9	38.2	25.1	5.3	6.8
Portugal	11.2	25.5	21.9	1.1	3.0
Hungary	9.9	..	..	..	3.2
New Zealand	8.2	29.2	3.1	0.1	4.8
Ireland	7.4	75.4	68.7	0.3	4.6
Norway	7.0	56.9	37.1	2.2	3.7
Poland	6.1	25.2	20.8	0.9	0.4
Czech Republic	5.7	51.8	23.2	11.7	2.2
Finland	5.6	35.6	30.4	1.3	2.1
Korea	3.4	28.4	3.8	0.1	0.1
Mexico	2.4	..	..	..	0.1
Slovak Republic	1.6	41.5	15.3	20.6	1.2
Iceland	0.4	82.1	55.4	8.5	4.2

Source: Database on Education, OECD.

Table 4. **Foreign or foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1995 and 2000**

Thousands and percentages

Foreign labour force

	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source
	1995	2000	1995	2000	data
Austria	366	377	9.7	9.8	LFS
Belgium	327	366	7.9	8.4	LFS
Czech Republic	..	28	..	0.5	LFS
Denmark	54	78	2.0	2.8	LFS
Finland	18	34	0.8	1.3	LFS
France	1 566	1 571	6.3	6.1	LFS
Germany	3 505	3 429	9.1	8.8	LFS
Greece	71	163	1.7	3.8	LFS
Hungary	21	30	0.5	0.7	WP
Ireland	42	60	3.0	3.5	LFS
Italy	100	246	0.5	1.1	LFS
Japan [1]	88	155	0.1	0.2	WP
Korea	52	123	0.3	0.6	R
Luxembourg [2]	65	77	39.1	42.0	LFS
Netherlands	281	298	3.9	3.7	LFS
Norway	59	75	2.7	3.2	LFS
Portugal	21	104	0.5	2.2	LFS
Slovak Republic	4	4	0.2	0.2	WP
Spain	121	227	0.8	1.4	LFS
Sweden	186	205	4.2	4.8	LFS
Switzerland	729	717	18.6	18.3	WP
United Kingdom	1 011	1 220	3.6	4.2	LFS

Foreign-born labour force

	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source
	1995	2000	1995	2000	data
Australia	2 139	2 365	23.9	24.5	LFS
Canada (1996)	2 839	..	19.2	..	C
United States	14 083	17 384	10.8	12.4	LFS

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

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

Sources:
C: Census;
E: Estimates by the National Statistical Institute;
LFS: Labour force survey;
R: Population register or register of foreigners;
WP: Work permits.

Table 5. **Participation rate and unemployment rate of nationals and foreigners by sex in selected OECD countries, 2000-2001 average**

	Participation rate				Unemployment rate			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	78.9	85.1	62.4	63.3	3.9	8.4	3.9	8.6
Belgium	73.3	72.4	57.0	41.0	4.6	14.2	7.0	16.5
Czech Republic	78.7	87.8	63.3	56.3	7.1	7.6	10.1	12.9
Denmark	84.1	71.2	76.2	53.0	3.6	12.2	4.9	7.2
Finland	79.4	83.1	74.6	60.2	10.0	24.2	11.2	29.9
France	75.1	76.6	63.3	48.6	7.1	17.1	10.7	23.9
Germany	78.9	77.6	64.7	50.7	7.2	13.4	7.8	11.7
Greece	76.2	89.2	49.0	56.0	7.2	7.6	16.2	17.6
Hungary (2001)	67.6	77.8	52.2	51.8	6.4	..	4.9	5.5
Ireland	79.2	77.0	55.9	56.2	4.1	5.1	3.8	6.2
Italy	73.6	87.7	46.6	50.7	8.0	7.4	13.9	21.3
Luxembourg	74.0	79.7	47.7	57.7	1.2	2.5	1.7	3.8
Netherlands	84.9	69.5	67.2	49.0	1.9	4.7	2.9	7.0
Norway	84.6	82.1	76.8	67.2	3.7	5.3	3.4	4.5
Portugal	79.0	81.5	64.0	65.3	3.1	8.4	5.1	9.6
Slovak Republic	76.9	79.4	63.2	51.8	19.8	26.2	18.6	17.0
Spain	77.3	85.4	50.9	59.1	9.3	12.9	19.8	17.2
Sweden	78.0	63.1	74.2	60.3	5.5	16.1	4.6	13.0
Switzerland	89.2	89.5	73.3	68.6	1.3	4.3	2.6	6.4
United Kingdom	83.1	75.6	68.4	55.8	5.5	9.8	4.4	7.9
Australia [1]	75.0	67.0	59.1	48.2	6.7	6.6	5.8	6.9
Canada (1996) [1]	73.8	68.4	60.2	52.9	10.3	9.9	9.5	11.6
United States [1]	80.7	85.6	71.4	61.7	4.9	4.4	4.1	5.6

Note: Data cover the labour force aged 15 to 64 with the exception of Australia and Canada (15 and over).

1. The data refer to the native and foreign-born populations.

Sources: Labour force surveys, results supplied by Eurostat (second quarter 2000 and 2001) and by Australian Bureau of Statistics (August 2000 and August 2001); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey March Supplement (2000 and 2001), US Bureau of the Census.

Table 6. **Employment of foreigners by sectors, 2000-2001 average**

Percentages of total foreign employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, Manufacturing and Energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.3	**26.5**	**12.2**	12.9	**10.7**	2.2	6.1	~	4.2	**23.3**
Belgium	1.2	**23.0**	**8.5**	13.8	**8.3**	3.6	6.9	**1.0**	9.0	**24.7**
Czech Rep.	~	24.9	**11.3**	**27.3**	**5.2**	~	~	~	~	**19.7**
Denmark	~	16.2	~	11.9	**9.5**	5.9	**18.5**	~	~	**30.1**
France	3.1	18.0	**17.4**	11.4	**7.4**	3.0	4.8	**6.5**	2.5	**25.8**
Germany	1.5	**32.8**	**9.2**	12.3	**10.6**	2.5	6.8	**0.5**	2.2	21.4
Greece	2.8	**17.5**	**27.1**	11.0	**9.5**	~	~	**18.1**	~	10.3
Ireland	~	17.6	8.1	9.3	**11.9**	**6.4**	**8.9**	~	~	**32.1**
Italy	4.5	**28.9**	**11.1**	9.7	**7.9**	2.8	4.6	**10.8**	2.4	17.4
Japan	0.4	**60.0**	2.2	8.3	(1)	..	..	..	..	**29.1**
Luxembourg	0.8	10.0	**15.9**	**14.1**	**8.9**	2.4	6.4	**3.6**	9.5	**28.3**
Netherlands	**3.8**	**22.3**	4.0	13.1	**7.2**	3.6	9.4	..	2.6	**34.0**
Norway	~	**17.8**	5.6	13.3	**6.4**	8.0	**20.0**	~	2.9	**24.2**
Spain	**7.8**	10.4	**13.0**	11.7	**15.9**	4.1	1.7	**15.7**	~	19.1
Sweden	~	**23.3**	~	9.2	**7.4**	**9.6**	14.8	~	~	**30.6**
Switzerland	1.2	**22.5**	**9.9**	**15.5**	**6.0**	5.2	11.6	**1.2**	2.3	24.8
United Kingdom	~	13.2	4.4	11.5	**9.9**	7.9	**13.9**	**1.5**	4.1	**33.2**
Australia [2]	2.1	**17.9**	**7.8**	16.5	**6.0**	6.2	**10.0**	3.2	3.3	**26.9**
Canada [2]	2.4	**19.6**	5.0	24.1	(1)	(3)	24.6	..	3.8	**20.4**
United States [2]	**3.5**	**18.0**	**7.7**	**22.0**	(1)	5.7	10.0	**1.9**	2.0	**29.3**

Notes: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreigners are over-represented (ie. the share of foreign employment in that sector is higher than the share of foreign employment in total employment). The sign ~ indicates that the figure calculated was not statistically significant.

1. The "Hotels and restaurants" category is included in the "Wholesale and retail trade" category.
2. The data refer to the foreign-born population.
3. The "Education" category is included in the "Health and other community services" category.

Sources: Labour force surveys, results supplied by Eurostat and by the Australian Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Labour (Japan); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey March Supplements, US Bureau of the Census.

Table 7. **Disparity of the foreign employment distribution by economic activity**[1]

	1983[2]	1994-95[3]	1998-99[4]
Austria	..	21.6	20.4
Belgium	21.7	21.1	14.4
Czech Republic	..	..	10.0
Denmark	16.3	13.9	10.4
Finland	..	21.1	16.7
France	24.2	19.9	18.4
Germany	22.9	25.0	19.3
Greece	...	28.3	37.4
Iceland	...	22.6	21.5
Ireland	22.4	17.3	15.0
Italy	..	11.3	9.9
Luxembourg	..	76.6	75.5
Netherlands	..	16.7	13.8
Norway	..	16.8	12.3
Portugal	..	20.9	23.0
Spain	..	25.4	18.5
Sweden	15.4	10.3	10.0
Switzerland	..	..	18.1
United Kingdom	11.3	11.7	12.6
Australia	12.8	9.8	9.5
Canada	11.9	8.7	..
Hungary	..	..	16.6
United States	8.9	6.5	6.2

Note: The disparity indicator is defined as the sum over all sectors of (|pi-qi|)/2, where pi and qi represent the share of sector i in foreign employment and national employment respectively. This indicator gives the percentage of foreign workers in "foreign" sectors who would have to be reallocated to the "national" sectors to make the distribution of employment by sector the same for foreigners as for nationals. A sector is considered "foreign" if the share of foreign employment in the sector is greater than that of foreign employment in total employment.

1. For Australia, Canada, Hungary and the United States, the data refer to the foreign-born population.
2. For Canada data refer to 1991, for Sweden 1982 and for the United States the data refer to 1980.
3. For Austria, Finland, Iceland and Sweden data refer to 1995. For Canada and Australia the data refer to 1996.
4. For Hungary data refer to 1999 and for Australia the data refer to 2000.

Sources: Employment Outlook, OECD, 2000.

Table 8. **Theoretical calculation of the number of jobs to be created to absorb the discrepancy between national and foreign unemployment rates in selected OECD countries, 2001**

	Number of jobs to be created for the unemployment rate of foreigners to equal the one for nationals (Thousands)	Number of jobs to be created as a % of total labour force
Austria	17.5	0.5
Belgium	31.7	0.7
Finland	4.9	0.2
France	167.9	0.7
Germany	183.7	0.5
Netherlands	6.5	0.1
Sweden	19.4	0.5
Switzerland	23.1	0.6
United Kingdom	44.9	0.2
United States	46.9	0.03

Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat); Current Population Survey March Supplement, US Bureau of the Census.

Table 9. **Relative importance of the top 5 countries in the total immigration flows and stocks of foreigners in selected OECD countries**

Main immigrants' countries of origin in 2000

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2000 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2000 [1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners in 1999 [2] % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2000 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2000 [1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners in 1999 [1] % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Australia				**Austria**			
New Zealand	21.9	8.1	*2.7*	Germany	11.6 ..		
United Kingdom	9.2	27.5	*0.3*	Turkey	10.6	18.2	*0.6*
China	6.8	3.6	*1.9*	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	9.6 ..		..
South Africa	5.7	1.7	*3.4*	Croatia	6.6 ..		..
India	4.6	2.4	*2.0*	Bosnia Herzegovina	6.3 ..		..
Total (in thousands)	*92.3*	*4 419.0*		*Total (in thousands)*	*66.0*	*748.2*	
Belgium				**Canada**			
France	8.1	12.0	*0.7*	China	16.2	4.6	*3.5*
Netherlands	7.2	9.6	*0.8*	India	11.5	4.7	*2.4*
Morocco	5.7	13.6	*0.4*	Pakistan	6.2 ..	..	
United Kingdom	3.2	2.9	*1.1*	Philippines	4.4	3.7	*1.2*
Germany	3.0	3.8	*0.8*	Korea	3.4	..	..
Total (in thousands)	*68.6*	*897.1*		*Total (in thousands)*	*227.2*	*4 971.1*	
Denmark				**Finland**			
Iraq	9.2	4.4	*2.1*	Russian Federation	27.6	24.6	*1.1*
Norway	5.8	4.8	*1.2*	Sweden	7.7	9.2	*0.8*
Turkey	5.2	14.8	*0.4*	Estonia	7.2	12.2	*0.6*
Sweden	4.9	4.1	*1.2*	Federal Republic of Yugoslavi	3.3	1.4	*2.4*
Germany	4.8	4.8	*1.0*	Iraq	2.7	3.1	*0.9*
Total (in thousands)	*20.3*	*256.3*		*Total (in thousands)*	*9.1*	*87.7*	
France				**Germany**			
Morocco	17.8	15.4	*1.2*	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	13.0	9.8	*1.3*
Algeria	13.0	14.6	*0.9*	Poland	10.7	3.9	*2.8*
Turkey	6.9	6.4	*1.1*	Turkey	7.0	28.8	*0.2*
Tunisia	5.8	4.7	*1.2*	Italy	5.2	8.4	*0.6*
United States	2.7	0.7	*4.0*	Russian Federation	4.1	1.1	*3.7*
Total (in thousands)	*95.2*	*3 263.2*		*Total (in thousands)*	*673.9*	7 319.6	
Hungary				**Italy**			
Romania	39.9	39.9	*1.0*	Albania	11.5	9.2	*1.2*
Former Yugoslavia	11.3	11.1	*1.0*	Morocco	9.1	11.9	*0.8*
Ukraine	11.0	8.5	*1.3*	Romania	7.6	4.1	*1.8*
China	6.4	5.5	*1.2*	China	5.7	3.8	*1.5*
Germany	4.5	5.9	*0.8*	Philippines	4.5	4.9	*0.9*
Total (in thousands)	*15.0*	*143.8*		*Total (in thousands)*	*271.5*	*1 252.0*	

Table 9. **Relative importance of the top 5 countries in the total immigration flows and stocks of foreigners in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*
Main immigrants' countries of origin in 2000

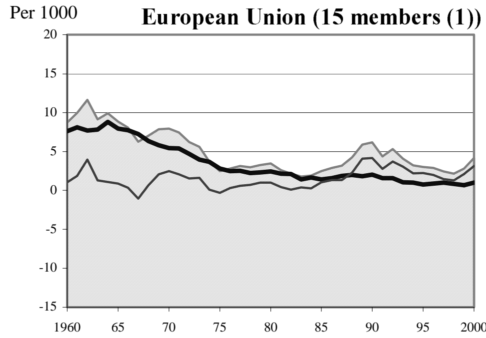
Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2000 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2000 [1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners in 1999 [2] % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2000 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2000 [1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners in 1999 [1] % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Japan				**Luxembourg**			
China	21.8	18.9	*1.2*	France	21.1	11.8	*1.8*
Philippines	21.5	7.4	*2.9*	Portugal	20.4	35.8	*0.6*
Brazil	13.2	14.4	*0.9*	Belgium	12.0	9.1	*1.3*
United States	7.0	2.8	*2.6*	Germany	5.9	6.6	*0.9*
Korea	6.9	40.9	*0.2*	Italy	5.7	12.6	*0.5*
Total (in thousands)	*345.8*	*1 556.1*		*Total (in thousands)*	*10.8*	*159.4*	
Netherlands				**New Zealand**			
United Kingdom	6.4	6.1	*1.1*	United Kingdom	16.1	31.3	*0.5*
Germany	5.3	8.3	*0.6*	China	12.7	5.6	*2.3*
Turkey	4.9	15.5	*0.3*	Australia	9.6	8.1	*1.2*
Morocco	4.6	18.4	*0.2*	Japan	9.4	1.2	*7.6*
United States	3.7	2.2	*1.7*	India	6.0	3.0	*2.0*
Total (in thousands)	*91.4*	*651.5*		*Total (in thousands)*	*38.8*	*698.6*	
Norway				**Portugal**			
Iraq	16.1	3.2	*5.0*	Ukraine	32.1	12.9	*2.5*
Sweden	12.6	14.1	*0.9*	Brazil	17.8	13.5	*1.3*
Denmark	7.0	10.7	*0.6*	Rep. of Moldova	6.4	2.6	*2.5*
Somalia	5.5	2.7	*2.0*	Romania	5.3	2.1	*2.5*
Germany	3.6	3.8	*1.0*	Cape Verde	5.1	15.8	*0.3*
Total (in thousands)	*27.8*	*178.7*		*Total (in thousands)*	*141.1*	*350.5*	
Sweden				**Switzerland**			
Iraq	19.7	6.2	*3.2*	Germany	14.3	7.5	*1.9*
Norway	11.5	6.4	*1.8*	Former Yugoslavia	7.7	24.2	*0.3*
Finland	10.6	20.3	*0.5*	France	7.6	4.2	*1.8*
Denmark	5.9	5.1	*1.1*	Italy	6.2	23.9	*0.3*
Germany	4.3	3.2	*1.4*	Portugal	5.6	9.9	*0.6*
Total (in thousands)	*33.8*	*487.2*		*Total (in thousands)*	*87.4*	*1 368.7*	
United Kingdom				**United States**			
United States	16.3	5.6	*2.9*	Mexico	20.5	29.5	*0.7*
Australia	10.8	2.5	*4.4*	China	5.4	4.9	*1.1*
India	6.9	6.7	*1.0*	Philippines	5.0	4.4	*1.1*
South Africa	6.7	2.3	*3.0*	India	4.9	3.3	*1.5*
New Zealand	4.8	1.5	*3.2*	Vietnam	3.1	3.2	*1.0*
Total (in thousands)	*288.8*	*2 208.0*		*Total (in thousands)*	*849.8*	*31 107.9*	

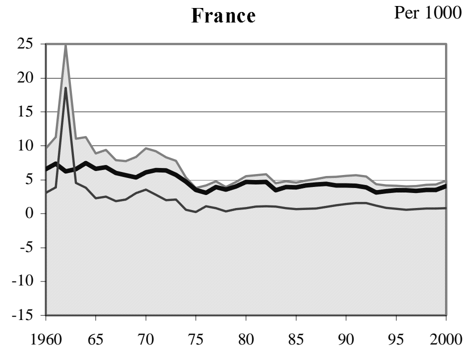
1. 2000 except for Denmark, Germany and Hungary (1999).
2. Stocks of foreign-born population for Australia, Canada (1996 Census), New Zealand and the United States (2000 Census); 1998 for Denmark, Germany and Hungary; Stock of US citizens in France is issued from 1990 Census.

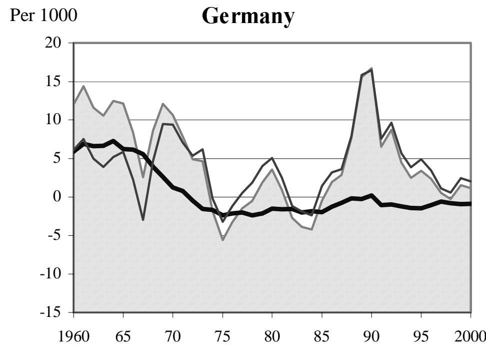
Source: Trends in International Migration, OECD, 2002 edition.

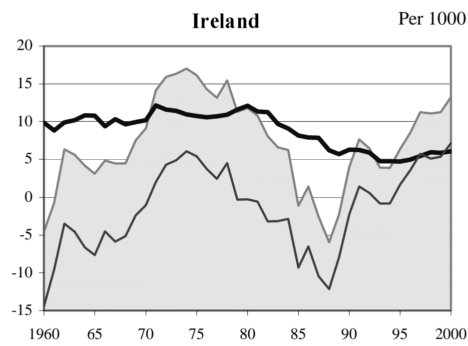
Chart 1. **Components of total population growth in selected OECD countries and in the European Union, 1960-2000**

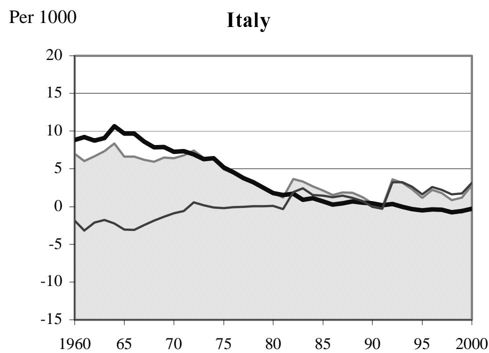
Per 1000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year

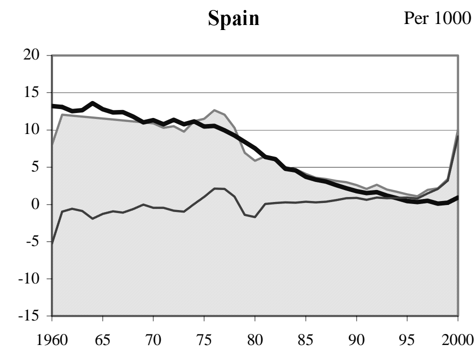


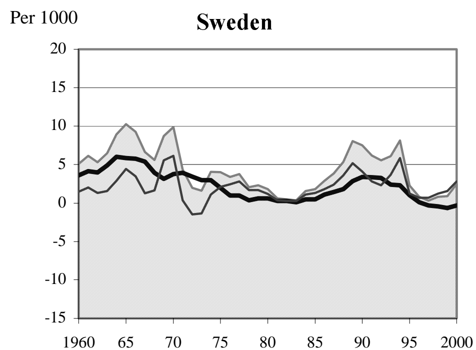












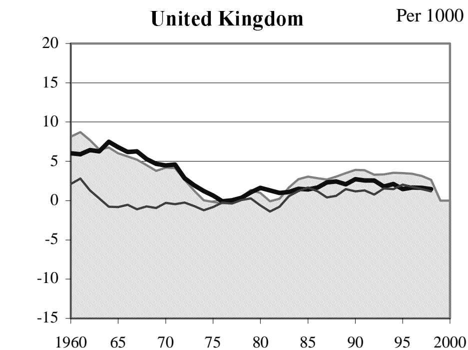


Chart 1. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and in selected OECD countries, 1960-2000** *(cont.)*

Per 1000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year

Australia

Canada

Czech Republic

Japan

Poland

Switzerland

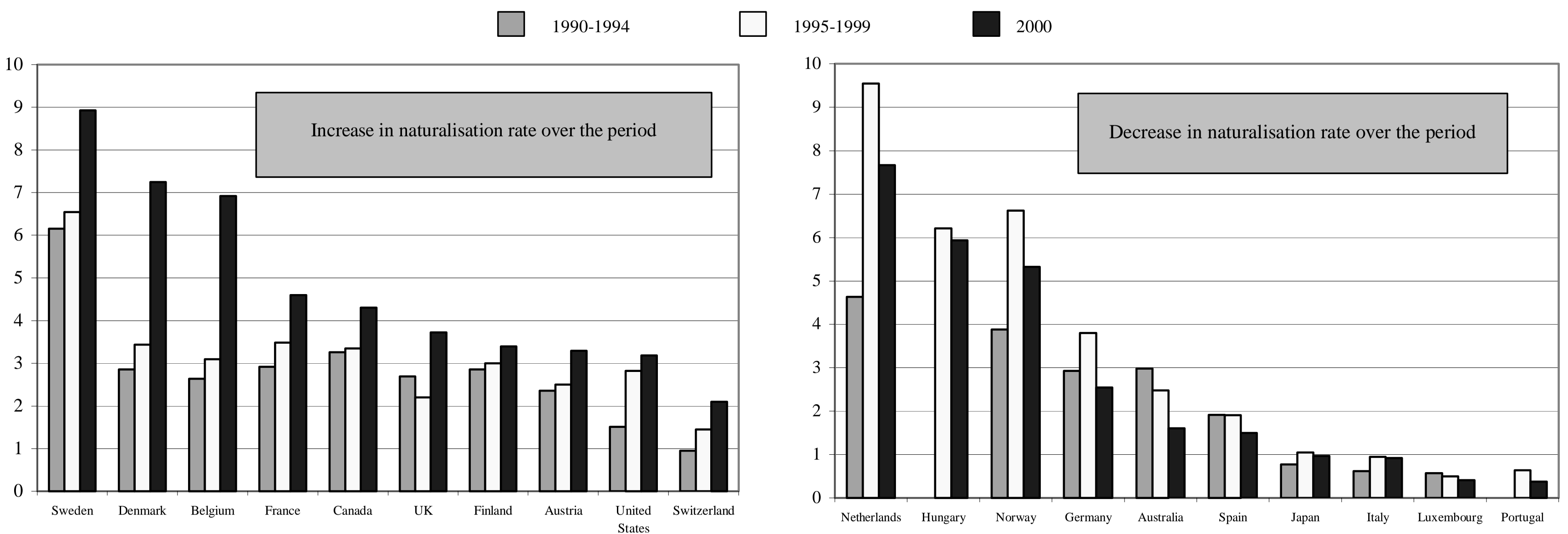
Turkey

United States

1. Excluding Portugal and Greece for all years and the United Kingdom from 1999 on.

Source: *Labour force statistics,* OECD, 2001.

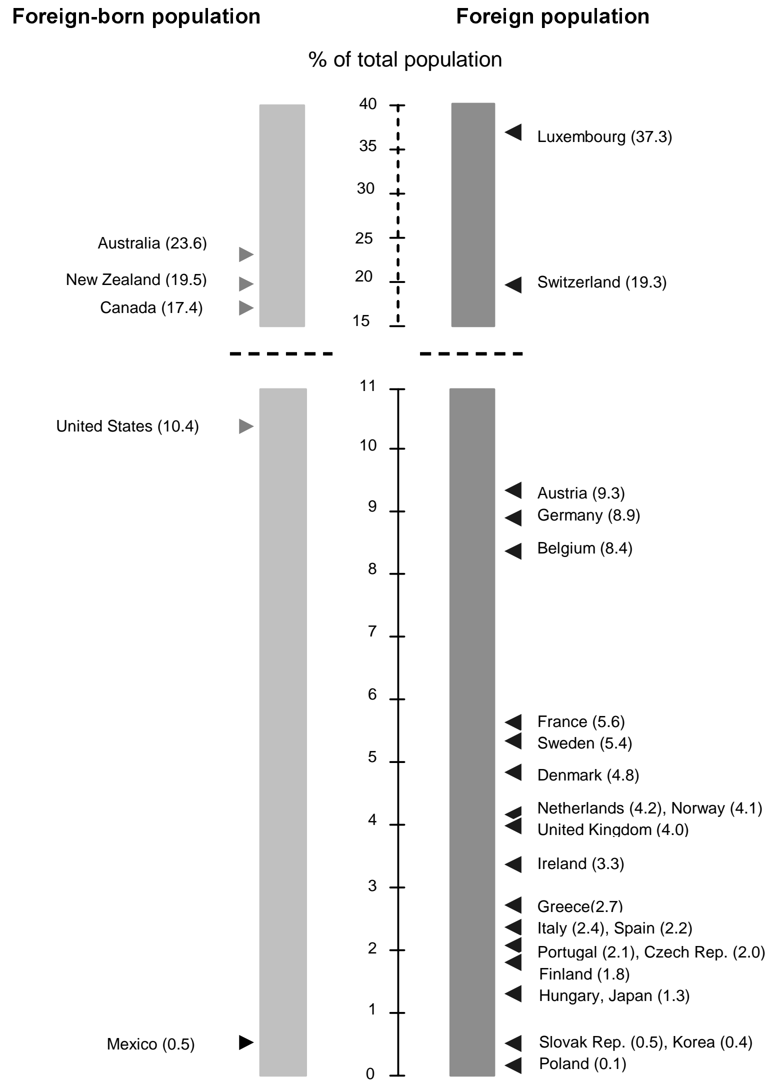
Chart 2. **Naturalisation rate in selected OECD countries, 1990-2000**
Annual average, per 100 foreigners at the beginning of the year



Note: Number of naturalised persons as a per cent of stocks of foreigners (stocks of foreign-born for Australia, Canada and the United States) at the beginning of the year.

Source: *Trends in International Migration,* OECD, 2002 edition.

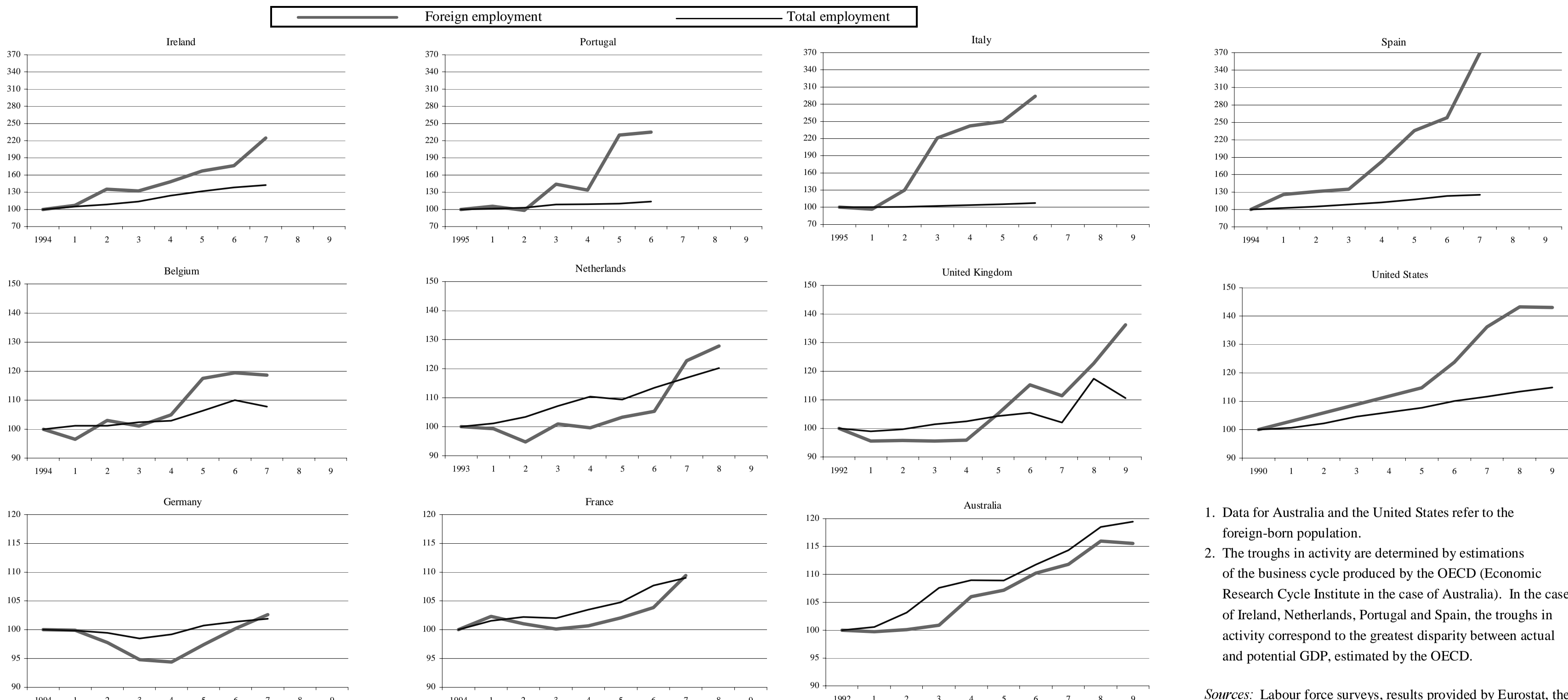
Chart 3. **Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2000**



Note: 1996 for Canada, 1999 for France, Hungary, the Netherlands and Norway.
Sources: *Trends in International Migration,* OECD, 2002 edition.

Chart 4. **Changes in foreign and total employment during economic recoveries in selected OECD countries**

Index: trough=100[1,2]

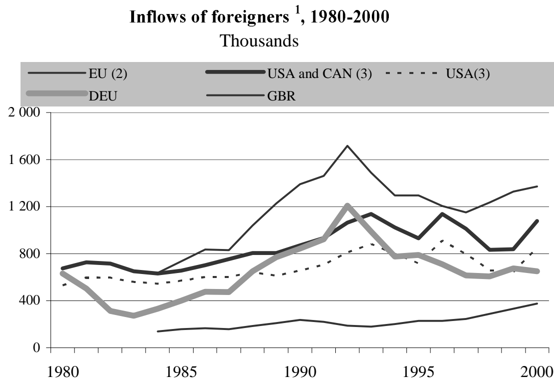


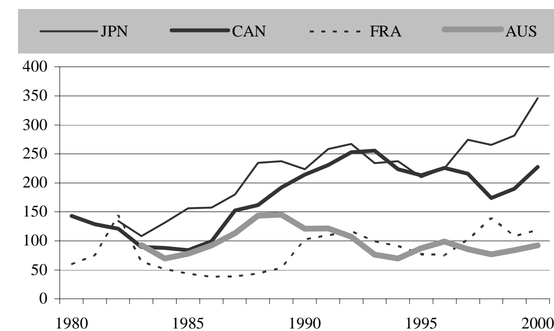
1. Data for Australia and the United States refer to the foreign-born population.
2. The troughs in activity are determined by estimations of the business cycle produced by the OECD (Economic Research Cycle Institute in the case of Australia). In the case of Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal and Spain, the troughs in activity correspond to the greatest disparity between actual and potential GDP, estimated by the OECD.

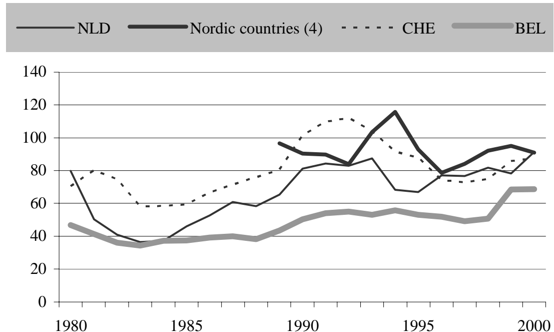
Sources: Labour force surveys, results provided by Eurostat, the Australian Bureau of Statistics and the US Bureau of the Census.

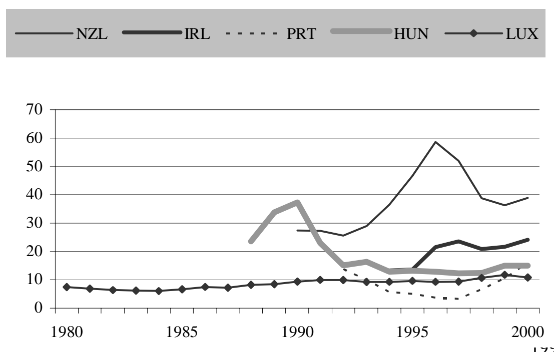
Chart 5. **Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-2000**
Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners

Inflows of foreigners [1], 1980-2000
Thousands

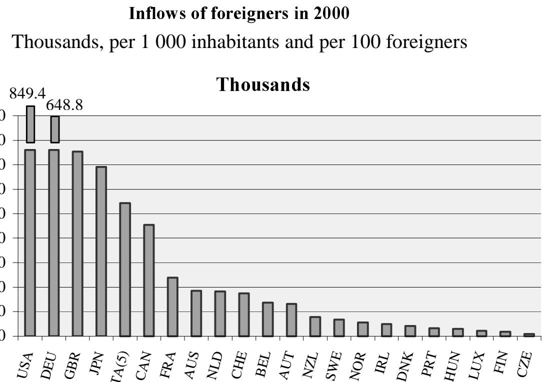


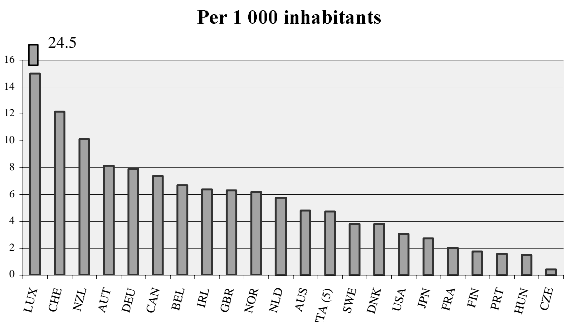


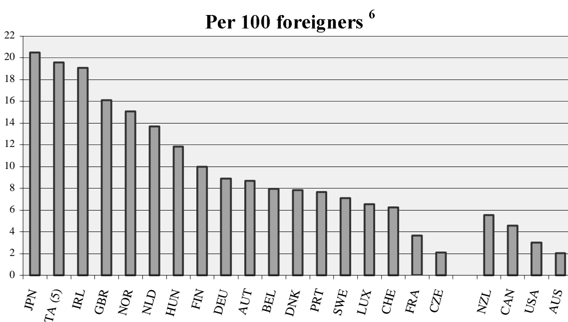




Inflows of foreigners in 2000
Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners







Note: Data for the United Kingdom are from the International Passenger Survey; for New Zealand, data are based on arrival cards. For Australia, Canada and the United States, data relate to new permanent immigrants; for France and South European countries, data are issued from residence permits. For all other countries, data are based on Population Registers.

1. The host countries have been split into 4 groups according to the volume of inflows in 2000. No series are available for Austria, Czech Republic and Italy.
2. Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.
3. Excluding immigrants legalised in the United States under IRCA regularisation programme.
4. Excluding Iceland.
5. Including foreigners who benefited from the 1998 regularisation programme.
6. For Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, inflows in 2000 are related to the stocks of foreign-born residents (1996 Census for Canada).

Sources: Trends in International Migration, OECD, 2002 edition.

AUS	Australia	CZE	Czech Rep.	GBR	United Kingdom	LUX	Luxembourg	SWE	Sweden
AUT	Austria	DEU	Germany	HUN	Hungary	NLD	Netherlands	USA	United States
BEL	Belgium	DNK	Denmark	IRL	Ireland	NZL	New Zealand		
CAN	Canada	FIN	Finland	ITA	Italy	NOR	Norway		
CHE	Switzerland	FRA	France	JPN	Japan	PRT	Portugal		