SOPEMI

Trends in International Migration

Continuous Reporting System on Migration

ANNUAL REPORT

2001 EDITION

OECD

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Part I

MAIN TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The analysis of the main trends in international migration is presented in four sections. The first looks at changes in migration movements and in the foreign population of OECD Member countries. The second section considers the position of immigrants and foreigners in the labour market. The following section focuses on two regions, Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Finally, an overview of migration policies is provided. It reviews policies to regulate and control flows and the whole range of measures to promote the integration of immigrants in host countries. It also describes recent moves to enhance co-operation between host countries and countries of origin in the spheres of migration and development.

A. MIGRATION AND POPULATION TRENDS

Since the mid-1990s, there has been a gradual upturn in migration flows in most OECD Member countries. Owing to regional conflicts, but also to the restrictions placed on other immigration channels, the number of asylum seekers and refugees has risen substantially, particularly in some European countries. Immigration for employment reasons, permanent but in particular temporary, also increased sharply in 1999-2000 in response to economic trends in Member countries and the resulting labour shortages in certain sectors. Nevertheless, immigration for family reasons continues to predominate, especially in the longer-standing countries of immigration. Lastly, the persistence of illegal migration, the volume of which is by definition impossible to determine, indicates clearly the difficulties that host and origin countries are encountering in their attempts to control migration flows.

Immigration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of certain OECD countries. They have a high proportion of foreign births in total births, and the foreign or foreign-born population is growing and diversifying. The importance of migration inflows is sometimes emphasised in connection with the ageing of the population. Without denying their potential contribution to reducing demographic imbalances, their impact in this regard should not be overestimated.

1. Trends in migration movements and changes in the foreign population

Although the 1980s were characterised by an increase in immigration flows in most OECD countries, a substantial decline in the number of entries was perceptible by 1992-93. This downturn continued until 1997-98, after which immigration started to rise again, particularly in Europe and Japan.

Over the entire period 1980-99, there was also a diversification of migration movements and an increase in the range of nationalities involved, although the traditional flows and regional movements persisted. The volume of the foreign population shows a trend similar to that for flows. There is a trend increase in numbers, together with a wider range of countries of origin and greater heterogeneity in demographic terms.

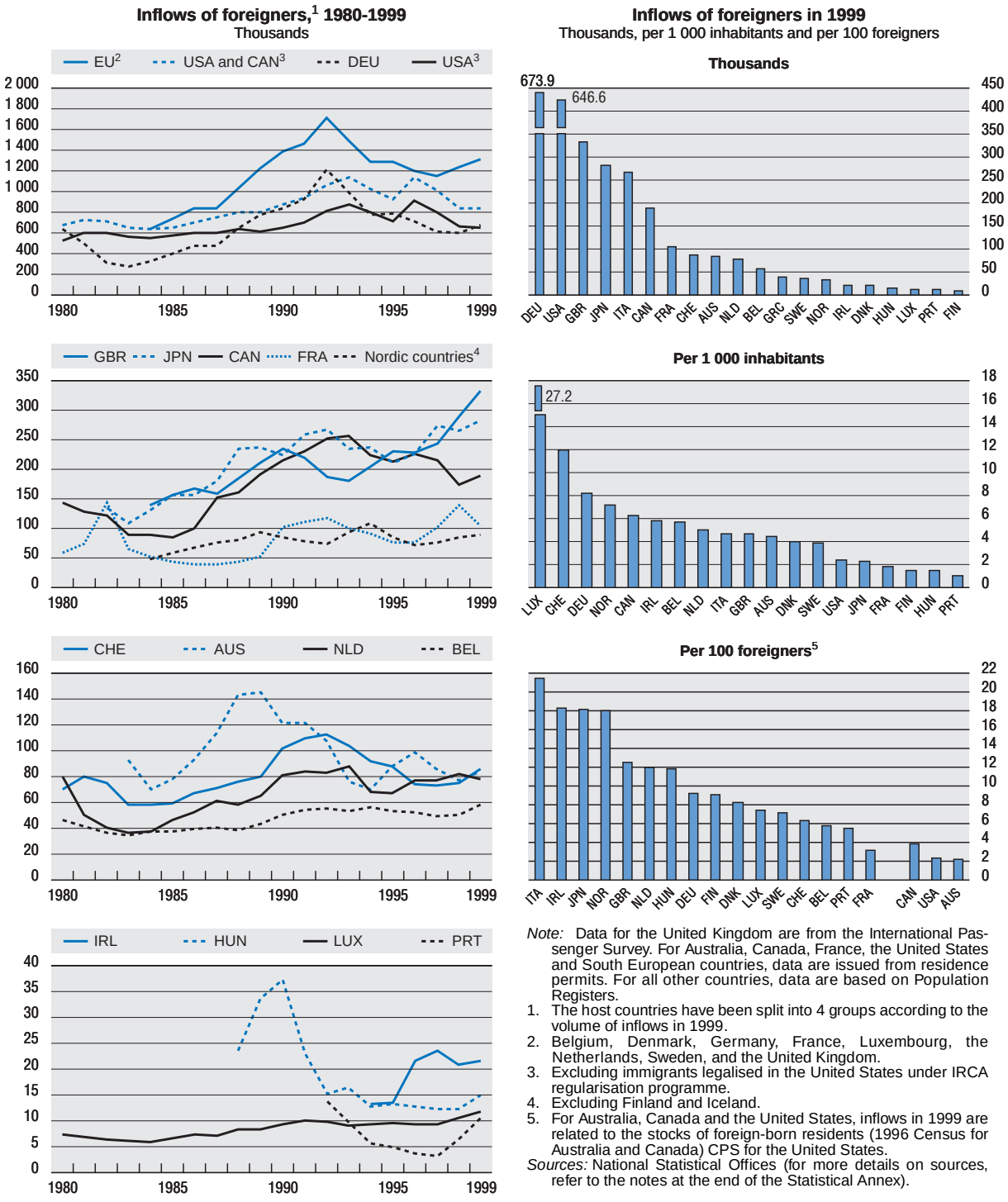
a) Upward but contrasting migration trends

During the 1980s and above all at the beginning of the 1990s, inflows increased in almost all OECD countries (see Chart I.1). This trend peaked in 1992-93 for the main immigration countries such as Canada, Germany, Japan and the United States, while in others, notably Australia and the United Kingdom, the peak had come earlier. Since then, as the result of restrictions, the flows of legal entries have fallen sharply. In 1999 they represented around three-quarters of the volume of entries reported for all European Union countries in 1992 and for North America in 1993.

The left-hand side of Chart I.1 presents the post-1980 time-series for foreign migrant inflows. The host countries are divided into four groups in

Chart I.1. **Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-1999**

Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners



Note: Data for the United Kingdom are from the International Passenger Survey. For Australia, Canada, France, the United States 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 1999.
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 Finland and Iceland.
5. For Australia, Canada and the United States, inflows in 1999 are related to the stocks of foreign-born residents (1996 Census for Australia and Canada) CPS for the United States.

Sources: National Statistical Offices (for more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex).

AUS	Australia	DEU	Germany	GBR	United Kingdom	ITA	Italy	NOR	Norway
BEL	Belgium	DNK	Denmark	GRC	Greece	JPN	Japan	PRT	Portugal
CAN	Canada	FIN	Finland	HUN	Hungary	LUX	Luxembourg	SWE	Sweden
CHE	Switzerland	FRA	France	IRL	Ireland	NLD	Netherlands	USA	United States

decreasing order of the volume of their 1999 inflows. The right-hand side of this chart shows the volume of 1999 inflows in absolute terms, and as a proportion of the total population and the stock of foreigners in each country. The trend reversal mentioned in previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* continued in more marked fashion in 1999. In the European Union and Japan total inflows rose by over 6% between 1998 and 1999, whereas in North America the rise was more modest, around 0.3%. There are a number of exceptions, however, such as the United States or a few countries in Europe where immigration flows remained steady, or fell back slightly. Other countries report a very marked increase, well above the average trend.

OECD countries can be placed in three groups on the basis of their recent migration trends. First is a group of countries where inflows held steady or showed a modest fall between 1998 and 1999, notably the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, all countries where immigration is relatively stable. France showed a marked decline in inflows, of around 24%, though this is accounted for by a technical adjustment following the documentation process in 1997-98. In the United States permanent immigration fell for the third consecutive year, though at a much more modest rate. The decline can be partly attributed to the increase in the backlog of persons waiting to change their status from temporary "non-immigrant" (or illegal) to permanent (1998: 809 000; 1999: 951 000). The decline in permanent inflows is accompanied, however, by a marked increase in the number of temporary visas issued, in particular to skilled workers (see below).

The second group is made up of countries where immigration flows are moving upwards, in contrast to the trend over the preceding period. Australia, Canada, Germany and Japan come into this category. For the Asian countries, the change marks a return to the trends which had prevailed prior to the financial crisis of 1997. In Korea the increase has gone hand in hand with the resumption of growth and improving conditions in the labour market, while in Japan the trend seems largely attributable to entries of foreign students. In the cases of Canada and Germany, the trend reversal follows a steady fall in immigration since the beginning of the 1990s. Switzerland's situation is a similar one.

The last group of countries display a spectacular and sustained rise in immigration. That is particularly so in the United Kingdom, where following a

Box I.1. Migration statistics: definitions and comparability*

International migration statistics are scattered, of varying degrees of reliability, and subject to problems of comparability. These difficulties largely stem from the diversity of migration systems and legislation on nationality and naturalisation, which reflect the individual history and circumstances of each country. For example, in settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) immigrants are classified by their place of birth ("foreign-born"), while in the other OECD Member countries the criterion of nationality is applied ("foreigners"). Some international organisations, in particular the UN, have recommended adopting a common definition of the concept of international migrant, but implementing these recommendations is fraught with numerous difficulties.

The main sources of information on migration vary across countries, which poses difficulties for the comparability of available data. Some countries have population registers (notably northern European countries), while others base their statistics on records covering residents and work permits issued to foreign nationals. There are also data from censuses and from surveys on the various characteristics of the population. In some cases, other sources may be used, for example specific surveys on migrants, border-crossing records, disembarkation cards, studies on staff mobility in multinational enterprises, etc.

Despite these difficulties, this report and more generally all OECD activities in the field of international migration are aimed precisely at improving the availability, comparability and reliability of data. These activities are based largely on a network of national correspondents in thirty countries (see the list of correspondents in the annex) and seek to enhance analysis and understanding of migration issues in the light of the socio-economic challenges facing OECD Member countries.

* For further details on migration statistics, see the Statistical Annex.

rise of nearly 19% between 1997 and 1998 immigration flows rose by around 14% in 1999. It is also the case of Norway which, for the second consecutive year, showed a rise in inflows of over 20%. Yet the rise in immigration was most sustained in Portugal, and above all in Italy. The latter country stands out, with inflows growing by some 140% between 1998 and 1999. Although the figure needs to be treated with caution, given that it includes recently documented persons who in fact had been in the country for some time, it does reflect a spectacular rise in immigration there. It should be noted that Belgium and Luxembourg also report a substantial increase in entries of immigrants for the second consecutive year.

Recent migration trends have brought little change to the ranking of the main immigration countries, though some differences have widened slightly (see the right-hand part of Chart I.1). For example, in 1999 the United Kingdom received some 50 000 persons more than Japan, and 140 000 more than Canada (1998: 25 000 and 115 000 more, respectively). However, Germany (674 000) and the United States (647 000) continued to be the two main immigration countries. For France, the Netherlands, Australia and Switzerland, the number of entries ranged between 105 000 and 78 000. Italy is the only new entrant in this ranking, coming between Canada and Japan with 268 000 "new" entries in 1999.

If these legal entry flows are compared to the total foreign or foreign-born population at the beginning of the year, the ranking changes somewhat. Italy ranks first, ahead of Ireland, Japan and Norway with ratios of between 21 and 18%, followed by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Hungary (around 12%), and Germany (9%).

It is particularly hard to predict whether these trends will continue, given that since the beginning of 2001 economic activity has experienced cyclical shocks of varying scales. The data available for 2000, however, confirm the rise reported in 1999. In Southern Europe it can be expected that Italy, Spain and Portugal, on the basis of demographic trends and labour requirements, will experience steady migration pressure over coming years. In the medium term, settlement by recent waves of migrants may generate further inflows of immigrants for family reasons in all three countries, and probably in Greece too, thereby making them more significant immigration countries. At the same time the main immigration countries, such as Australia, Canada and Germany, are increasingly openly adopting policies aimed at attracting new migrants in order to meet labour market needs and/or offset the effects of the ageing of their populations.

Nevertheless, controlling migration flows remains a priority common to all OECD countries. Special emphasis is placed on curbing illegal immigration and the growing number of asylum seekers. On the whole, the trends of migration flows, classified by the main categories, have been marked over the last two years by the continuing preponderance of family-linked immigration, greater numbers of asylum seekers and an increase in employment-related migration.

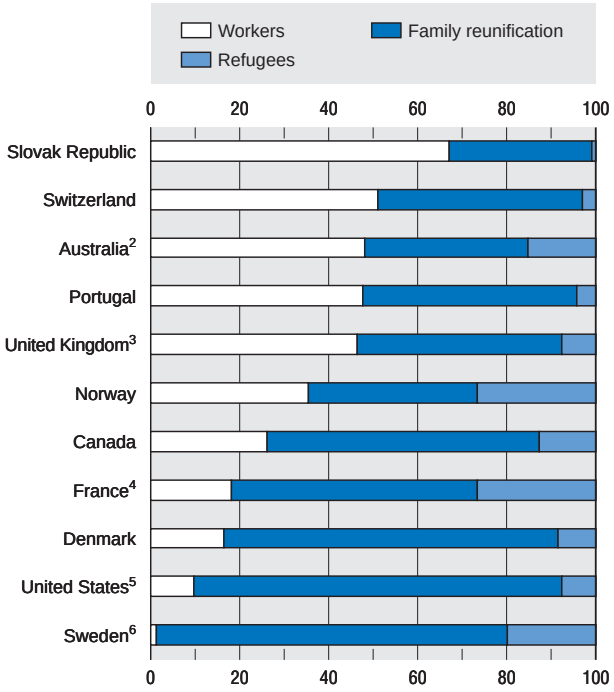
b) The continuing predominance of family-linked migration...

Previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* have pointed out that since the beginning of the 1990s the changes in the volumes of immigration have been accompanied by changes in their breakdown by categoriesIn particular, family-linked immigration (accompanying families and family reunion) has increased in Australia, France, Sweden and the United States, while employment-related immigration has risen in Canada and the United Kingdom. Recently, however, the salient features have been the rise in worker migration, temporary workers in particular, and to a lesser extent the upturn in asylum requests.

Although it varied considerably across countries, the family component predominated in many OECD countries in 1999, especially in Canada, France and the United States (see Chart I.2). The proportion taken by this category is continuing to rise in some countries where the other official channels of immigration still remain limited. In France, family-linked immigration represented 75% of inflows in 1999, the highest level ever and an increase of nearly 23% over 1995. In the Nordic countries this component of migration is also increasingly significant, partly due to the fall in refugee inflows.

During the same year, amongst the selected countries, work-related migration accounted for the highest percentage of total entries in the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Australia and Portugal. This component is likely to have assumed greater importance in 2000, according to the initial data to hand. In addition, it should be said that family members who obtain permanent resident status are often granted the right to work.

Chart I.2. **Permanent or long-term immigration flows into selected OECD countries by main categories[1] in 1999**
Percentages of total inflows



Note: Countries are ranked by decreasing order of the percentage of workers in total inflows. Categories give the legal reason for entering the country. A worker who has benefitted from the family reunification procedure is regrouped into this latter category even if he has a job in the host country while entering. Family members who join a refugee are counted among other refugees.

1. For Australia, Canada, the United States, Norway and Sweden, data concern acceptances for settlement. For Denmark, France, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland, entries correspond to residence permits usually delivered for a period longer than one year. For the United Kingdom, data are based on entry control at ports of certain categories of migrants (excluding EEA citizens). For Australia, "Workers" include accompanying dependents who are included in the category "family reunification" for all other countries.
2. Data refer to fiscal year (July 1998 to June 1999). Category "Workers" includes accompanying dependents. Excluding citizens from New Zealand who don't need a visa to enter the country.
3. Passengers, excluding EEA citizens, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees.
4. Entries of EU family members are estimated. Excluding visitors. Among those who benefitted from the regularisation programme, only those who received a permit under the family reunification procedure are counted. The "family" category also includes spouses of French citizens who received the new permit "vie privée et familiale".
5. Data refer to fiscal year (October 1998 to September 1999). Excluding immigrants who obtained a permanent residence permit following the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA).
6. Excluding nordic and EEA citizens.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

It was in Denmark and Norway that refugee flows accounted for the greatest proportion of total inflows (27%). Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that the data shown in Chart I.2 only concern asylum seekers who obtained refugee status in the given year; they do not include asylum seekers whose application is pending.

c) … despite the greater inflow of asylum seekers…

In many OECD countries refugees and asylum seekers do not arrive in quite the same way. Refugees generally arrive within in the framework of government programmes negotiated either with specialised international organisations or with countries that are sheltering the refugees. Asylum seekers, on the other hand, most often apply for refugee status (which they do not necessarily obtain) either on arrival at the border or once they are inside the country. In addition, OECD countries authorise certain persons, for humanitarian reasons, to remain either temporarily or on a more permanent basis.

From the middle of the 1980s through to the beginning of the 1990s (see Statistical Annex, Table A.1.3), applications for asylum rose appreciably, sometimes spectacularly (this was the case in Austria, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States). Faced with an increasing number of asylum seekers, OECD countries reacted by speeding up the processing of applications and by introducing restrictive measures, among them the extension of visa requirements to a larger number of countries (see Section I.D below on migration policy). Most OECD countries also decided to restrict asylum applications, except for special cases, to persons from countries that have not signed the United Nations Conventions on refugees and on human rights, provided they have not previously passed through a country that is a signatory.

In spite of these measures, after declining generally in the early 1990s, flows of new asylum seekers again started to rise, in most OECD countries, from 1997 onwards, due to the combined effect of numerous regional conflicts and continuing entry restrictions, in particular for employment-related immigration.

Between 1999 and 2000, the total number of asylum requests filed in OECD Member countries

remained relatively unchanged. In 2000, in descending order, the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States received the largest number of asylum requests (see Table I.1). The United Kingdom reported 97 900 asylum requests in 2000, or nearly 20 000 more than Germany (78 600) and just under twice the number for the United States (52 400). The Netherlands and Belgium follow, with 43 900 and 42 700 applications respectively in 2000.

For some countries, however, the rise in asylum requests between 1999 and 2000 is quite spectacular, even if the numbers concerned are still small. That is the case in particular for Greece (+101.5%, 3 100 requests in 2000) and to a lesser extent for Denmark (+55.7%), Sweden (+45%) and Ireland (+41.5%). Two countries are outstanding in reporting a significant fall in applications between 1999 and 2000 (largely from the former Yugoslavia): Luxembourg (–78.6%) and Switzerland (–61.8%).

These trends stem partly from the Kosovo crisis of 1999. Between March and June of that year, numerous OECD Member countries took in displaced people from Kosovo – a total of over 200 000 – either with temporary refugee status or as asylum seekers. In July 1999 the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) published official recommendations on the return of Kosovars who had found refuge elsewhere than in the adjoining countries and regions: Albania, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina. By early August 1999, around 22 000 people had voluntarily left Australia, Canada, the United States and countries in Western Europe. Returns subsequently continued and by the end of 2000 the great majority of Kosovars had returned home (see Box I.2 below).

Analysis of trends in asylum requests since the start of the 1990s (see Chart I.3) highlights significant differences among the fourteen main receiving countries. Some have experienced a steady increase in applications, which have become even more marked since 1995, while others report a falling number.

Germany and the United States, which were still among the leading receivers of asylum seekers in 2000, show a decline in applications, from 1992 and 1995

Table I.1. **Inflows of asylum seekers in 2000**

Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	Per 100 foreigners[1] at the beginning of the year	1999-2000 % change
Australia	11.9	0.26	41.2
Austria	18.3	2.44	–9.2
Belgium	42.7	4.79	19.3
Bulgaria	1.8	. .	30.1
Canada	34.3	0.69	16.5
Czech Republic	8.8	3.83	21.6
Denmark	10.1	3.89	55.7
Finland	3.2	3.62	2.1
France	38.6	1.18	24.8
Germany	78.6	1.07	–17.4
Greece	3.1	. .	101.5
Hungary	7.8	6.14	–32.2
Ireland	10.9	9.27	41.5
Italy	18.0	1.44	–46.0
Luxembourg	0.6	0.39	–78.6
Netherlands	43.9	6.74	2.7
New Zealand	2.2	. .	6.4
Norway	10.8	6.07	6.7
Poland	4.4	. .	48.5
Portugal	0.2	0.11	–25.8
Romania	1.4	. .	–18.2
Slovak Republic	1.5	5.25	78.7
Spain	7.2	0.90	–13.9
Sweden	16.3	3.34	45.0
Switzerland	17.6	1.29	–61.8
United Kingdom	97.9	4.43	7.3
United States	52.4	0.19	23.2

1. As a per cent of stocks of foreign-born citizens for Australia, Canada (1996) and the United States.
Source: Please refer to the notes for Table A.I.3. at the end of the Statistical Annex.

Box I.2. The Kosovar refugees

In 1999 the Kosovo crisis resulted in substantial population movements, chiefly to the adjoining countries and regions but also to some more distant OECD Member countries. These movements compounded the effects of earlier crises in the Balkans which had greatly contributed to the increase in asylum applications and inflows of refugees under the Geneva Convention or with temporary protection status, in particular into OECD countries in Europe.

Several hundred thousand people were received on this basis, chiefly in Austria, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, the Nordic countries, the United States, Canada and Australia. UNHCR estimated that in all 841 000 Kosovars had returned by June 2000, chiefly from the adjoining areas. While voluntary return from Western Europe was generally promoted by programmes of assistance for returnees, as from the first quarter of 2000 some countries adopted more coercive measures. Switzerland, which had taken around 50 000 Kosovar refugees with temporary status, promoted the voluntary return of around 38 000 through substantial financial support and logistical assistance. All persons whose last domicile had been in Kosovo (with the exception of people from the Rom ethnic minority, and Serbs) were required to leave the country by 31 May 2000, or face expulsion.

The Nordic countries were also very active during the Kosovo crisis. Denmark took in nearly 3 000 refugees and Norway 6 000 (along with Sweden – 4 000 and Finland – 1 000). By the end of 2000, around 2 800 Kosovars had left Denmark and 4 600 had left Norway. Of those who left the latter country, a little over 500 subsequently returned. In all, 95% of the 4 000 Kosovar refugees admitted to Australia returned home. For the United States and Canada, which had taken in 14 000 and 8 000 Kosovars respectively in 1999, the rates of return are markedly lower since it is estimated that around 75% of them remain in the host countries.

Germany took in over around 150 000 Kosovars and Austria and Italy between 5 000 and 10 000 each. In the absence of detailed information, the rate of return from these three countries cannot be determined at present.

onwards respectively. Other countries, including Italy, Norway, Finland, France and Switzerland, report two peaks over the period, with the second in 1999 corresponding to the Kosovo crisis. A third group, made up of Australia, Canada, Denmark and the Netherlands, is exceptional in that the peak in the early 1990s, after a sharp downwards adjustment, was followed by a trend upswing in flows. A final group consisting of Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom experienced a steady acceleration in asylum applications over the whole period.

Lastly, if inflows of asylum seekers are expressed as a proportion of the total foreign population (see Table I.1), Ireland, the Netherlands, Hungary and Norway rank high with over 6%, followed by the United Kingdom and Belgium where asylum applicants account for between 4 and 5% of the total foreign population. In the United States there were only 2 new asylum seekers per thousand of the foreign-born population in 2000.

d) … and the growth in employment-related immigration

One of the salient features of recent years has been the rise in migration for employment purposes, both permanent and more particularly temporary. Between 1999 and 2000 this trend continued and was in some cases accentuated. But it may be reversed in 2001 if the prospects of an economic slowdown in the United States materialise and if such a slowdown spreads rapidly, as some fear, to the other OECD Member countries.

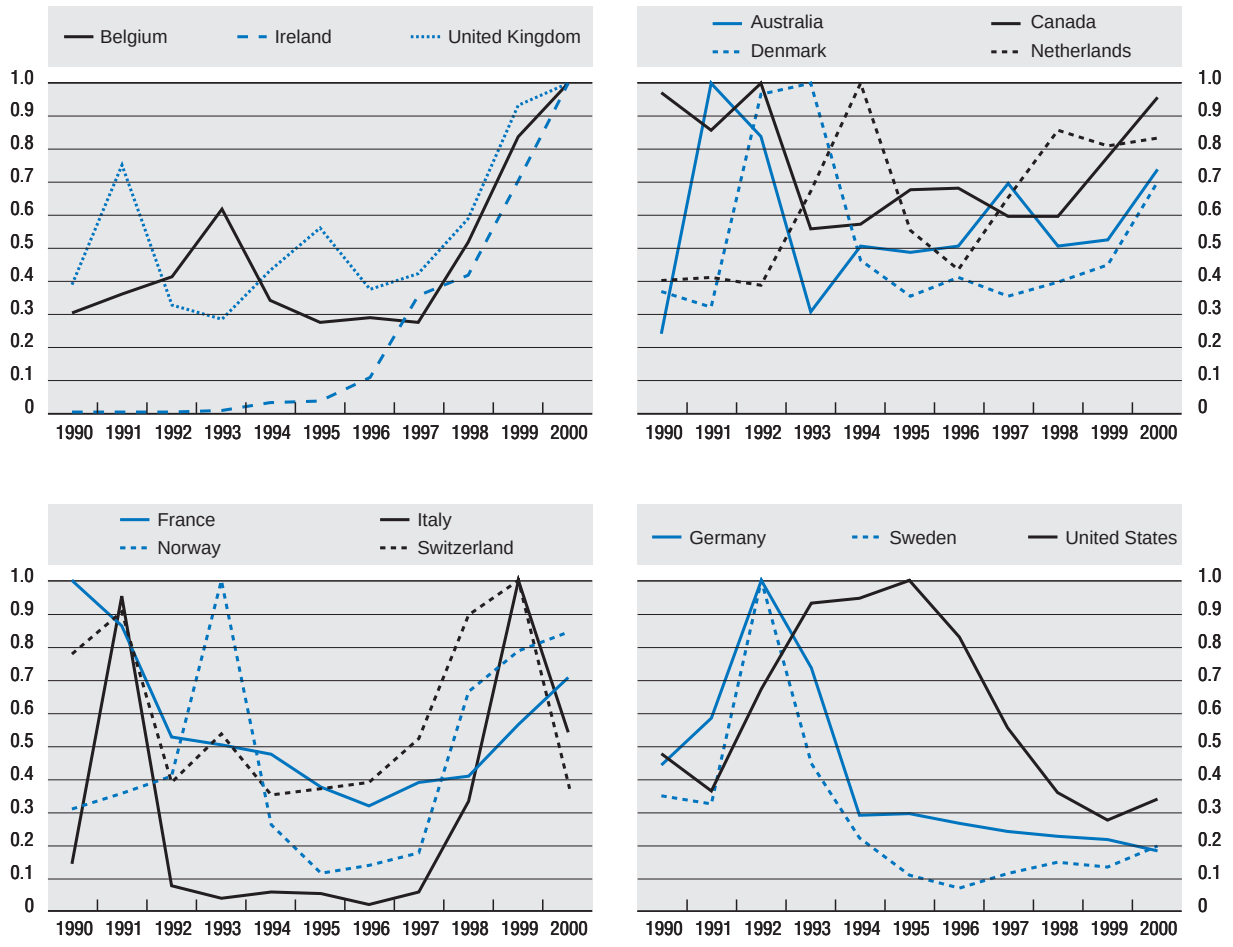
The observed increase in worker migration is the outcome of a combination of factors relating, on the one hand, to the strong period of expansion at the end of the 1990s and, on the other hand, to the development of the information technology sector where some countries have experienced shortages of skilled and highly skilled labour.

According to some estimates, there is a shortfall of some 850 000 IT technicians in the United States and nearly 2 million in Europe. Against this background, countries are competing more keenly to attract the human resources that they lack and to keep those likely to emigrate. Many countries have thus adjusted their rules in order to assist the admission of skilled foreign workers (see Appendix at the end of Part I). Although these measures particularly concern new technology specialists, they also apply to other categories of skilled workers, more specifically doctors, nurses and nursing assistants.

That is particularly the case in the United States where the quota for H1B visas, issued only to professionals and skilled workers, was increased by

Chart I.3. **Trends in flows of asylum seekers from 1990 to 2000**

Inflows of asylum seekers during the given year relative to the biggest annual inflows during the period



Source: Refer to the notes for Table A.1.3 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

over 70% in 2000, to cover the next three fiscal years, with the annual quota for these visas rising from 115 000 to 195 000. In Germany a special green card programme was instituted to assist the temporary recruitment of 20 000 computer and IT specialists. The German authorities had initially announced the intention of recruiting Indian nationals, but at the end of the first year it turned out that most applications were from nationals of central and eastern European countries. At that point, only 8 700 of the 20 000 visas potentially available had been issued.

Since 1998 France has been applying a simplified system for computer specialists, enabling regional labour authorities to issue work permits to this category of foreign labour without reference to the employment situation. The United Kingdom has simplified and speeded up the work permit procedure for a number of occupations, and has extended the list of shortage occupations list. Australia has adjusted its points system for selection and placed greater emphasis in particular on new technology specialists. Canada is considering reforming its selection system, one purpose being to identify and rate the skills of immigration applicants more effectively.

There are some limitations, however, to this wider use of foreign skills. The remuneration of foreign workers must be the same as that of nationals with the same qualifications. Reference to the employment situation is waived in only a few cases.

There are minimum salary thresholds to be complied with, as in France and Germany for instance. Reforms to the education and training systems are also under discussion in a number of OECD countries affected by labour shortages in the new technology sectors. Measures being set in train are designed to increase the supply of resident labour with skills in this field over the medium term.

The rise in employment-related migration does not concern skilled workers alone and some OECD Member countries make extensive use of unskilled foreign labour, chiefly in agriculture, building and construction, and domestic services. That is the case in particular in Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece and the United States. In certain countries, a substantial proportion of these foreign workers are illegals. Visas for seasonal workers are also common and on the increase in some Member countries, including Germany (223 400 seasonal workers hired in 1999), Switzerland and the United States (46 100 and 32 400 respectively. Lastly, Japan and Korea issue a large number of temporary work visas to trainees, generally employed in industry and Australia and the United Kingdom an increasing number of Working Holiday Makers permits.

In fact, all categories of temporary employment migration rose between 1998 and 1999 (see Table I.2). Overall, the United States, where permanent admissions continue to fall, shows the sharpest increase in temporary employment visas. The rises are also significant in Australia and the United Kingdom.

e) **Migration: *a multi-faceted panorama***

Along with the traditional triptych of family immigration, refugees and asylum seekers and employment-related movements, whose main trends were presented above, some more specific forms of mobility are developing. Aside from tourist visits, which do not constitute migration in the proper sense, and the seasonal and cross-border movements mentioned earlier, reference may be made to transfers of staff within multinational firms, the temporary movements of skilled workers to provide services, and the mobility of students, and retired persons electing to live abroad.

Student mobility is discussed in the special section in this report (see Part II). It is tending to increase with the expansion of trade and is part of the globalisation process. Partly it is occuring because knowledge of languages is increasingly an essential for posts of responsibility and skilled jobs; in addition, cultural experience acquired abroad is frequently viewed as an additional advantage by employers. What is more, higher education courses such as MBAs are more and more openly promoted on the world market and colleges and universities seek to attract a larger number of foreign students in order to bring in funds and raise their profile. Governments themselves sometimes foster the admission of foreign students, in particular via scholarships and grants. Apart from the direct financial benefit that enrolment fees bring to places of higher education, foreign students constitute a potential reserve of highly skilled labour that is familiar with the rules and practices prevailing in the host country. A number of countries, including Switzerland, Germany and Australia, have recently relaxed the rules for foreign students applying for different visas in order to enter the labour market at the end of their courses.

Numbers of foreign students are very high in some OECD Member countries. That is the case in the United States in particular, but in the United Kingdom and Germany too: they had 430 000, 210 000 and 171 000 foreign students respectively in 1998, tajubg all courses and levels together (see Table I.4). France and Australia each had over 100 000 foreign students as well. The proportion of OECD nationals, however, varies substantially from one country to another (18% in Australia and 27% in France, as against 60% in the United Kingdom and 73% in Switzerland). These disparities are partly due to the geographical position of the host countries and their history of migration, but also to strategies to attract foreign students (grants and scholarships, possibility of entering the labour market, etc.) and some specialisation in particular sectors of education.

In North America the mobility of retired people has been a long-standing feature, and in regions such as Florida the elderly are heavily over-represented. This trend is much less advanced in Europe, though it is on the increase and the mobility of retired people is increasingly assuming an international dimension. For example it is estimated that, of the nearly 6 million European citizens resident in an EU country other than their own, around 900 000 are over age 60. A very high proportion of these are French (250 000), British (200 000), German (180 000) or Belgian (100 000). The majority of them settle in Spain, Portugal, Greece or, to a lesser degree, France. This development would be even more pronounced if we are able to include citizens returning to their home country, in particular for

Table I.2. **Inflows of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 1996-1999**

Thousands

	1992	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia					
Skilled temporary resident programme (Offshore and onshore)[1]	14.6	15.4 |	31.7	37.3	37.0
Working Holiday Makers (Offshore)	25.9	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6
Total	**40.5**	**55.7**	**81.7**	**92.9**	**99.7**
	(40.3)	(20.0)	(19.7)	(26.0)	(28.0)
Canada[2]					
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**74.3**	**78.0**	**82.0**
	(252.8)	(226.1)	(216.0)	(174.1)	(189.8)
France					
Employees on secondment	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.8
Researchers	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0
Other holders of an APT[3]	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.2	3.1
Seasonal workers	13.6	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.6
Total	**18.1**	**13.6**	**12.9**	**11.8**	**13.4**
	(42.3)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.3)	(12.2)
Germany					
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	45.8	38.5	33.0	40.0
Seasonal workers	212.4	220.9	226.0	201.6	223.4
Trainees	5.1	4.3	3.2	3.1	3.7
Total	**332.6**	**271.0**	**267.7**	**237.7**	**267.1**
	(408.9)	(262.5)	(285.4)	(275.5)	. .

	1992	1996	1997	1998	1999
Japan					
Highly skilled workers	108.1	78.5	93.9	101.9	108.0
Trainees	. .	45.5	49.6	49.8	48.0
Total	. .	**124.1**	**143.5**	**151.7**	**156.0**
Korea					
Highly skilled workers	3.4	13.4	14.7	11.1	12.6
Trainees[4]	4.9	68.0	90.4	64.2	98.4
Total	**8.3**	**81.4**	**105.0**	**75.4**	**111.0**
Switzerland					
Seasonal workers	126.1	62.7	46.7	39.6	45.3
Trainees	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
Total	**127.8**	**63.4**	**47.4**	**40.3**	**46.1**
	(39.7)	(24.5)	(25.4)	(26.8)	(31.5)
United Kingdom					
Long-term permit holders (one year and over)[5]	12.7	19.1	22.0	25.0	30.6
Short-term permit holders[5]	14.0	17.0	20.4	23.5	21.8
Working Holiday Makers	24.0	33.0	33.3	40.8	45.8
Trainees[6]	3.4	4.0	4.7	. .	. .
Seasonal agricultural workers[7]	3.6	5.5	9.3	9.4	9.8
Total	**57.6**	**78.7**	**89.7**	**98.8**	**107.9**
United States[8]					
Highly skilled workers					
Specialists (visa H-1B)	110.2	144.5	. .	240.9	302.3
Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN)[9]	12.5	27.0	. .	59.1	68.4
Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O)	0.5	7.2	. .	12.2	15.9
Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	16.4	9.6	. .	27.3	32.4
Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	3.4	3.0	. .	3.2	3.5
Total	**143.0**	**191.2**	. .	**342.7**	**422.5**
	(116.2)	(117.5)	(90.6)	(77.5)	(56.8)

Note: The categories of temporary workers differ from one country to another. Only the principal categories of temporay worker are presented in this table. The figures in brackets indicate the number of entries of permanent workers. The symbol "|" indicates a break in the series.

1. The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. From 1996/1997 onwards, the data are on and offshore and include Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
2. Total of persons issued employment authorisations to work in Canada temporarily excluding persons issued employment authorisations on humanitarian grounds. Persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit.
3. Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
4. Refer to the note for Korea (Part III of this report) to explain the huge increase in figures.
5. Both long-term and short-term permits are now dedicated to highly skilled workers or those where skills are in short supply. Most of short-term permit holders are entertainers and sports people. Data include changes of employment and extensions.
6. The new data-recording system no longer allows identification of trainees.
7. Students in full time education aged between 18 and 25.
8. The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). A person is counted as many times as he/she enters the country over the course of the same year. The data may therefore be over-estimates.
9. The figures include family members.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales, Annuaire des migrations 99; Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: United States Department of Justice, 1999 Statistical Yearbook of Immigration and Naturalization Service, forthcoming.

Box I.3. More women in all forms of migration

Statistics on international migration by gender that make it possible to identify the characteristics of migrants are scarce and hard to obtain. However, they can be evaluated with varying degrees of accuracy and consistency using census data and employment statistics. For example, on the basis of various censuses conducted in 1990, the United Nations Population Division estimated the total number of women living outside their country of birth at 57 million, or 48% of all migrants.

It appears that recently there has been a trend towards the feminisation of migration. This is particularly obvious from changes in the proportion of women in total immigration flows between 1990 and 1999 (see Table I.3). The trend is particularly market in Portugal and, to a lesser degree, in the Netherlands, Finland and Switzerland, where the proportion of women in inflows has risen by over 1% a year since 1990. In 1999 the share of women in the overall immigration flow (nationals and foreigners) ranged between 41.3% for Germany and 56.8% for Greece. For most of the countries studied, however, the percentage was close to 50%. It was slightly higher than that for the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, the Nordic countries and Belgium, and somewhat lower for Austria, the Netherlands, Denmark and Switzerland.

The trend towards feminisation in fact affects all components of migration flows. In recent years women have formed an increasing proportion of employment-related migration and refugee flows, whereas earlier female migration to OECD countries was largely via family reunion. But reunion still remains the chief vector of female immigration in most of the OECD countries (between 50 and 80% of the total for this category of flow).

Japan and Korea show the most significant volume of female migration related to employment. In some non-Asian OECD countries, foreign women are employed in increasing numbers, especially in the health sector and household services. These women are largely from the Philippines, Indonesia, Peru, some countries in Central and Eastern Europe, and to a lesser degree from Sri Lanka and Thailand. They are as yet only a small component in flows from countries in the Middle East and North Africa.

Refugee flows, on average, consist largely of equal numbers of men and women. But in countries which, like the United States, Canada and Australia, have adjusted their legislation to take account of persecution specifically directed at women, the proportion of women in refugee and asylum seeker flows may be more significant.

A trend of concern to OECD countries is the trafficking in women from developing and transition countries. Organised prostitution networks and illicit immigration rackets are at the root of a modern form of slavery, affecting women in particular. International measures of co-operation need to be stepped up to counter and prevent such exploitation.

Table I.3. **Proportion of women in immigration flows in selected OECD countries, 1999 (unless otherwise indicated)**

	Proportion of women in immigration flows, % of total	Average annual growth since 1990[1]
Australia (1999-2000)[2]	48.2	–0.4
Austria (1998)	46.5	. .
Belgium	50.7	0.9
Canada	51.0	–0.5
Denmark (1998)	49.7	0.4
Finland	50.3	1.4
France[3]	52.8	0.4
Germany	41.3	–0.1
Greece (1998)[4]	56.8	0.3
Luxembourg	46.4	–1.1
Netherlands	49.1	1.7
Norway (1998)	50.1	0.1
Portugal[4]	48.6	4.3
Spain (1998)	50.1	0.4
Sweden	51.6	0.9
Switzerland	49.8	1.2
United Kingdom	50.6	0.2
United States (1997-98)[5]	53.5	0.4

Note: For Canada and the United States, data refer to the number of permanent resident permits delivered to immigrants; for Australia, to effective entries of permanent and long-term residents. For the European countries, data refer to people (excluding nationals for France, Greece and Portugal) who wish to settle permanently in the country.

1. 1992 for Portugal; 1993-94 for Australia; 1994 for Luxembourg; 1995 for Canada.
2. Data refer to fiscal year (July 1999 to June 2000).
3. Data relate only to entries of foreigners (excluding refugees and people who benefitted from the regularisation programme).
4. Data relate only to entries of foreigners (excluding returns of nationals).
5. Data refer to fiscal year (October 1997 to September 1998). Annual average growth is calculated without taking into account people who benefitted from the IRCA regularisation procedure.

Sources: Eurostat (New Cronos database); Australian Bureau of Statistics; Citizenship and Immigration Canada; Office des migrations internationales (France) and US Department of Justice.

Table I.4. **Stock of foreign students in some OECD countries, 1998**

Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	*of which*: from an OECD country (%)
Australia	109.4	18.4
Austria	28.4	65.6
Belgium	7.3	63.2
Canada	32.9	42.1
Czech Republic	4.1	27.6
Denmark	11.0	42.0
Finland	4.3	35.9
France	148.0	26.8
Germany	171.2	56.3
Hungary	6.7	35.8
Iceland	0.2	81.4
Ireland	6.9	72.3
Italy	23.2	64.5
Japan	55.8	38.2
Korea	2.5	31.2
Luxembourg	0.6	84.3
New Zealand	5.9	21.5
Norway	5.8	54.5
Poland	5.4	17.7
Spain	29.0	65.7
Sweden	12.6	63.1
Switzerland	24.4	72.7
Turkey	18.7	8.9
United Kingdom	209.6	59.8
United States	430.8	39.0
Total OECD	**1 327.2**	**44.5**

Source: Database on Education, OECD.

Portugal whose expatriate community is substantial and has generally retained strong ties with the homeland. Although to our knowledge there has been no research on the reasons for senior citizens' mobility, it is clear that climate and living conditions are probably one of the main factors at work. The introduction of the Euro, easier transfers of pensions, and above all the coming retirement of the baby-boom generation (probably more mobile than previous ones), are likely to accentuate this trend, though today it is still marginal.

The other types of mobility mentioned above relate to workers, more specifically skilled workers. In particular, transfers of staff within multinational companies have increased appreciably over the recent period. That is so in the United States, where they almost doubled between 1995 and 1998 (see Table I.5). But over a longer period similar findings can be seen for virtually all OECD countries. This process is part of a more general one linked to the internationalisation of trade and business (either horizontal through takeovers or joint ventures, or vertical through relocation).

The international mobility of skilled workers within the framework of service provision, although not yet studied in depth, is another form of labour migration that is increasing sharply. The movements are usually for short periods, though they may extend for several months or recur at frequent intervals. The fall in transport costs, and technical specialisation, account for this trend. The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), signed by more than 130 countries, provides for the introduction of simplified procedures to assist temporary mobility of professionals in various sectors. However the statistics generally combine these movements with the movements of business people (business trips), making them very hard to identify. Ultimately, the development of electronic communications may well curb this development, as it will be superseded by new forms of distance working.

f) Traditional flows and new migration movements

Chart I.4 presents a comparison for selected OECD countries of the structure and changes of

Table I.5. **Intracompany transferees in selected OECD countries, 1995-1999**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Canada[1]	. .	. .	2.1	2.8	2.9
France	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.8
Japan	3.1	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.8
Netherlands	. .	1.6	2.3	2.7	2.5
United Kingdom	14.0	13.0	18.0	22.0	15.0
United States (visa L1)	112.1	140.5	. .	203.3	. .

1. Including Mexican and American intracompany transferees who enter under the NAFTA agreement.

Sources: Canada : Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Japan : Ministry of Justice, Immigration Service; Netherlands: Employment Office; United Kingdom : Labour Force survey; United States : US Department of Justice.

Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1998 and 1999**

1999 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows[1]

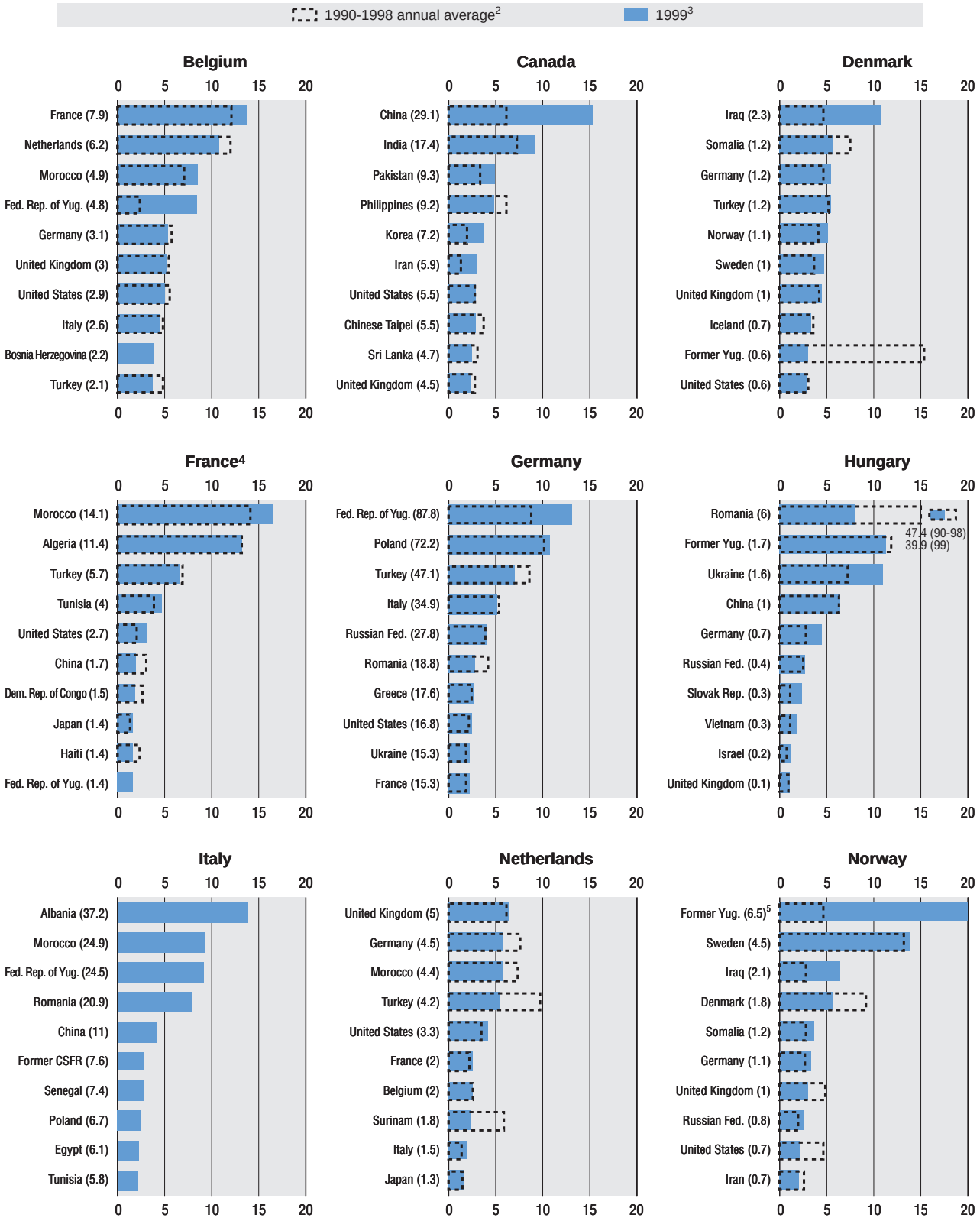
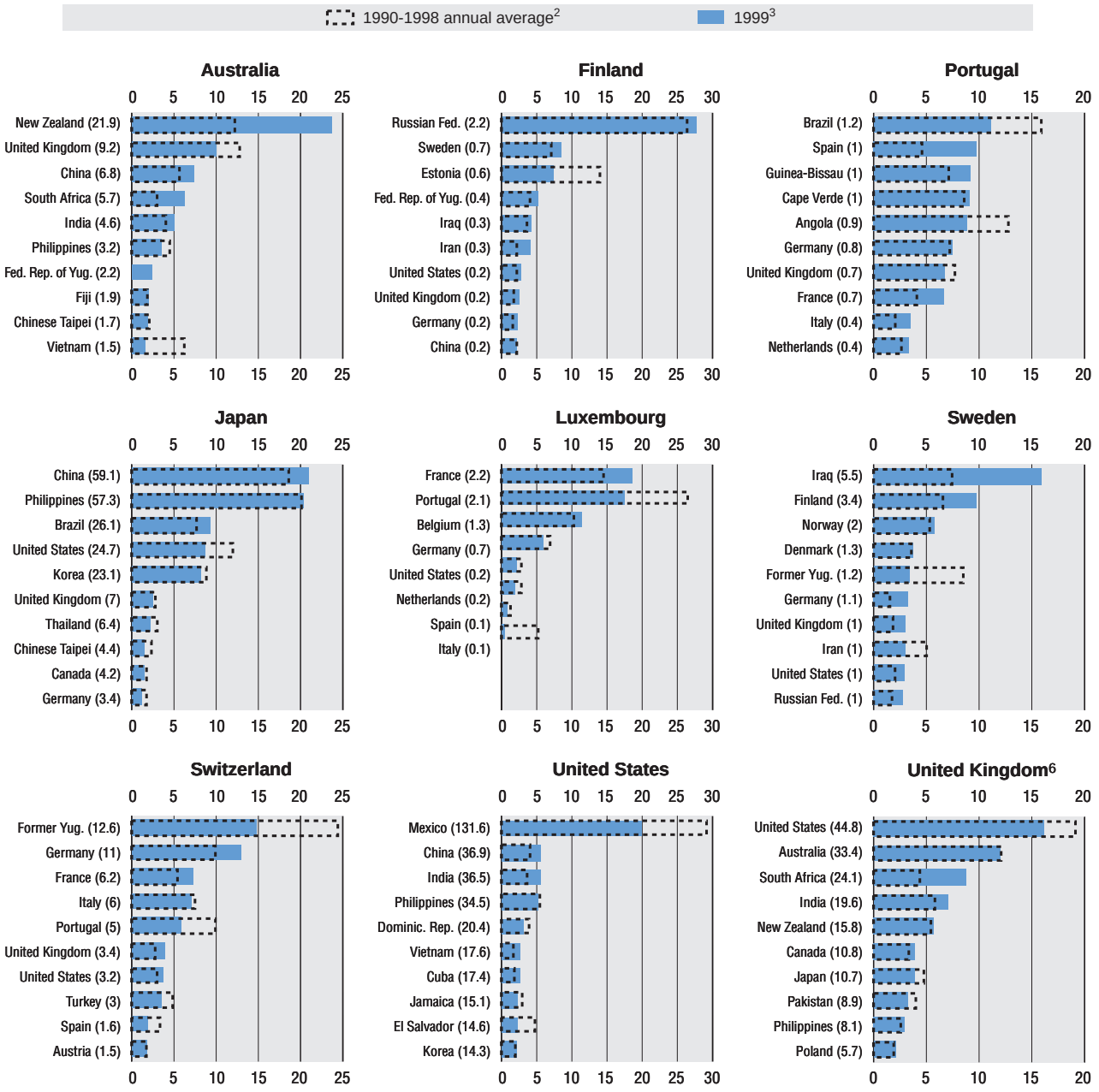


Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1998 and 1999** *(cont.)*
1999 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows[1]



Note: The top 10 source countries are presented by decreasing order. Data for Australia, Canada and the United States refer to inflows of permanent settlers by country of birth, for France, Italy and Portugal to issues of certain types of permits. For the United Kingdom, the data are based on entry control at ports of certain categories of migrants. For all other countries, figures are from Population registers or Registers of foreigners. The figures for the Netherlands, Norway and especially Germany include substantial numbers of asylum seekers.

1. The figures in brackets are inflows in thousands in 1999.
2. Annual average flows for the period 1990-1998 except for Australia (1990-1999), Denmark and the United States (1990-1997), Finland, Portugal and the United Kingdom (1992-1998).
3. 1998 for Denmark and the United States; 2000 for Australia.
4. Data do not include EU citizens.
5. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina from 1993 onwards.
6. Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees (excluding residents returning on limiting leave or who previously settled).

Source: National Statistical Offices. For more details on sources, refer to the introduction to the Statistical Annex.

inflows from the principal countries of origin. Three distinctive trends can be observed in 1999. The first is the predominance of one or two origin countries. They are often neighbouring countries (New Zealand for Australia, France and the Netherlands for Belgium, Mexico for the United States, Russia for Finland, Romania for Hungary, Albania for Italy, China and the Philippines for Japan, and Sweden for Norway). They may also be countries from which large numbers of refugees have come (Iraq in the case of Sweden and Denmark, and the former Yugoslavia for Germany, Switzerland and Norway). In 1999, the five main sending countries accounted for more than 60% of all flows in Hungary and Japan, but less than one-third in Denmark and the Netherlands.

In the case of Germany, Finland, Italy and Hungary, and to a lesser extent Switzerland and Norway, East-West flows account for the greater part of the total flows, with nationals of the former Yugoslavia (including large numbers of Kosovars in 1999, see above) and Poland in Germany, Romanians in Hungary, Albanians in Italy and nationals of the former Soviet Union in Finland. Elsewhere, as in Australia, Canada, Japan and the United States, the long-standing predominance of migration flows from Asian countries is also worthy of note.

The second trend concerns the diversity of situations across OECD countries as regards the main origin countries of immigrants. French and Portuguese form by far the largest groups in Luxembourg, nationals of the Maghreb countries in France, Mexicans in the United States, nationals of the former Yugoslavia in Switzerland, those of the United States in the United Kingdom and New Zealanders in Australia. However, in the ranking of the top ten origin countries, some nationalities are present in a large number of the host countries considered, such as – in descending order – nationals of the United States (found in the classification of main entries by nationality in 13 of the 17 host countries), the United Kingdom (12), Germany (11), the former Yugoslavia (11) and China (8).

The third distinctive characteristic concerns the persistence of traditional flows and the continuing growth of recently emerging flows. Chart I.4 shows average inflows over the 1990s (dotted) together with those for the last available year (shaded), making it possible to compare these two trends. For a given host country, when an unshaded area is shown, this indicates that the share attributed to this origin countries in overall flows is lower for the last available year than it was on average during the decade. For example, while Brazil continues to be the leading source of immigration to Portugal, the proportion of Brazilians in overall flows has fallen by nearly 30%. A similar trend is observed for Vietnamese and British nationals in Australia, Estonians in Finland, nationals of Surinam and Turks in the Netherlands, United States citizens in Japan and the United Kingdom, Portuguese in Switzerland and Mexicans in the United States.

Leaving aside nationals of the former Yugoslavia, the nationality breakdown of immigration has been relatively stable in Belgium, France, Finland, Japan and Luxembourg. But other countries, including Australia, Canada and Portugal, report substantial changes in the make-up of immigrants.

Table I.6 illustrates the emergence of new migration flows. A specific indicator has been constructed for this purpose. It is calculated by dividing, for each host country considered, the five main sending countries' share in total inflows of 1999 by their share of the total of foreigners or foreign-born. Thus, a value of 1 for a given sending country means that its share in inflows is the same as its share in the number of foreigners as a whole. This is the case for nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in Germany and for nationals of Brazil in Portugal. If the value is greater than 1, this can be due either to immigrants from an emerging source country, or to previous waves of immigration which though persistent have had little impact on the total number of foreigners from this country. In the case of Australia and the United Kingdom, for example, the indicator is especially high for South African nationals since their share of inflows is over four times their share in the total number of foreigners. The presence of New Zealanders in Australia and Swedes in Norway is not the result of a recent wave of immigration but probably indicates sizeable new inflows accompanied by larger outflows, and thus the indicator in the range of 3 in these two cases corresponds to an old wave of migration that has a significant to-and-fro component or a high turnover. It seems that the same reasoning can be applied to the case of Poles in Germany, for whom the indicator is 2.8.

Four countries of origin stand out and illustrate the emergence of new migration routes into OECD countries. They are China, India, Iraq and the United States. In the flows of immigrants to the Nordic countries (chiefly Denmark, Norway and Sweden) Iraq systematically figures with an indicator of over 2, meaning that its nationals are represented at least twice as much in immigration flows as in the total of

Table I.6. **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 1999

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 1999[1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners[2] in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Australia			
New Zealand	23.7	7.5	3.2
United Kingdom	10.0	27.4	0.4
China	7.4	2.8	2.6
South Africa	6.2	1.4	4.3
India	5.0	2.0	2.5
Total (in thousands)	(92.3)	(3 908.3)	
Belgium			
France	13.7	11.8	1.2
Netherlands	10.7	9.4	1.1
Morocco	8.5	14.0	0.6
Former Yugoslavia	8.8	0.7	12.6
Germany	5.3	3.8	1.4
Total (in thousands)	(57.8)	(892.0)	
Canada			
China	15.3	4.6	3.3
India	9.2	4.7	1.9
Pakistan	4.9	. .	. .
Philippines	4.8	3.7	1.3
Korea	3.8	. .	. .
Total (in thousands)	(189.8)	(4 971.1)	
Denmark			
Iraq	10.7	3.8	2.8
Somalia	5.7	4.8	1.2
Germany	5.5	4.8	1.1
Turkey	5.4	15.0	0.4
Norway	5.1	4.8	1.1
Total (in thousands)	(21.3)	(249.6)	
Finland			
Russian Federation	27.7	24.1	1.1
Sweden	8.5	9.2	0.9
Estonia	7.4	12.2	0.6
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	5.1	3.5	1.5
Iraq	4.2	3.1	1.3
Total (in thousands)	(7.9)	(85.1)	
France[3]			
Morocco	16.4	15.4	1.1
Algeria	13.2	14.6	0.9
Turkey	6.6	6.4	1.0
Tunisia	4.7	4.7	1.0
United States	3.1	0.7	4.6
Total (in thousands)	(86.3)	(3 263.2)	
Germany			
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	13.0	9.8	1.3
Poland	10.7	3.9	2.8
Turkey	7.0	28.8	0.2
Italy	5.2	8.4	0.6
Russian Federation	4.1	1.1	3.7
Total (in thousands)	(673.9)	(7 319.6)	
Hungary			
Romania	39.9	39.9	1.0
Former Yugoslavia	11.3	11.1	1.0
Ukraine	11.0	8.5	1.3
China	6.4	5.5	1.2
Germany	4.5	5.9	0.8
Total (in thousands)	(15.0)	(143.8)	

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners[1] in 1999 % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners[2] in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Japan			
China	21.0	18.0	1.2
Philippines	20.3	7.0	2.9
Brazil	9.3	14.7	0.6
United States	8.7	2.8	3.1
Korea	8.2	42.2	0.2
Total (in thousands)	(281.9)	(1 512.1)	
Luxembourg			
France	18.5	11.5	1.6
Portugal	17.5	36.5	0.5
Belgium	11.4	9.0	1.3
Germany	5.9	6.7	0.9
United States	2.1	. .	
Total (in thousands)	(11.8)	(152.9)	
Netherlands			
United Kingdom	6.4	5.9	1.1
Germany	5.7	8.2	0.7
Morocco	5.6	19.4	0.3
Turkey	5.4	15.4	0.3
United States	4.3	2.0	2.1
Total (in thousands)	(78.4)	(662.4)	
Norway			
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	20.0	. .	. .
Sweden	13.9	14.6	1.0
Iraq	6.4	2.5	2.5
Denmark	5.5	11.6	0.5
Somalia	3.6	2.5	1.4
Total (in thousands)	(32.2)	(165.1)	
Portugal			
Brazil	11.2	11.2	1.0
Spain	9.7	5.7	1.7
Guinea-Bissau	9.2	7.3	1.3
Cape Verde	9.1	22.6	0.4
Angola	8.9	9.3	1.0
Total (in thousands)	(10.5)	(177.8)	
Sweden			
Iraq	16.0	4.5	3.4
Finland	9.8	18.4	0.5
Norway	5.8	6.1	0.9
Denmark	3.7	5.6	0.8
Former Yugoslavia	3.4	4.8	0.9
Total (in thousands)	(34.6)	(499.9)	
Switzerland			
Former Yugoslavia	14.7	23.8	0.6
Germany	12.9	7.3	1.8
France	7.3	4.2	1.7
Italy	7.0	24.9	0.3
Portugal	5.8	10.1	0.6
Total (in thousands)	(85.8)	(1 347.9)	
United Kingdom			
United States	16.2	5.4	3.0
Australia	12.0	2.3	5.3
South Africa	8.7	1.8	4.9
India	7.1	6.3	1.1
New Zealand	5.7	1.7	3.3
Total (in thousands)	(276.9)	(2 207)	

Table I.6. **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 1999

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 1999[1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners[2] in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners[1] in 1999 % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners[2] in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Italy				**United States**			
Albania	13.9	7.3	1.9	Mexico	19.9	21.7	0.9
Morocco	9.3	11.7	0.8	China	5.6	2.7	2.1
Former Yugoslavia	9.1	3.3	2.8	India	5.5	2.3	2.4
Romania	7.8	3.0	2.6	Philippines	5.2	4.6	1.1
China	4.1	3.0	1.3	Dominican Republic	3.1	1.8	1.8
Total (in thousands)	(268.1)	(1 250.2)		*Total (in thousands)*	(660.5)	(19 767.3)	

1. 1999 except for Australia (2000) and Denmark and the United States (1998).
2. Stocks of foreign-born population for Australia, Canada and the United States. 1996 for Australia and Canada; 1997 for Denmark, Hungary and the United States; 1999 for Australia and France (except for the stock of US citizens, 1990 Census).
3. Excluding estimates by the Ministry of the Interior of unregistered flows (mainly family members of EEA citizens).

Source: National Statistical Offices (see notes for Tables A.I.1. and A.I.5. at the end of the Statistical Annex).

Table I.7. **Minimum number of countries of origin which represent a cumulative 25 and 50% of the total inflows of foreigners, 1990 and 1999**

	1990		1999	
	25%	50%	25%	50%
Australia	**2**	**6**	**2**	**5**
	(28.6)	(54.8)	(33.7)	(52.3)
Belgium	**3**	**7**	**2**	**4**
	(29.7)	(51.6)	(34.4)	(50.6)
Canada	**3**	**9**	**3**	**10**
	(27.2)	(53.3)	(29.4)	(51.8)
Denmark	**5**	**11**	**4**	**10**
	(28.6)	(50.8)	(27.3)	(50.9)
Finland	**1**	**5**	**1**	**5**
	(29.0)	(50.9)	(27.7)	(52.9)
France	**2**	**6**	**2**	**9**
	(31.0)	(51.4)	(29.6)	(51.0)
Germany	**2**	**5**	**3**	9
	(33.8)	(55.3)	(28.7)	(50.1)
Hungary	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**
	(79.5)	(79.5)	(39.9)	(51.2)
Italy	**. .**	**. .**	**3**	**8**
	. .	. .	(32.3)	(52.3)
Japan	**2**	**4**	**2**	**3**
	(35.6)	(59.2)	(41.3)	(50.6)
Luxembourg	**1**	**3**	**2**	**4**
	(36.4)	(58.5)	(36.0)	(53.3)
Netherlands	**2**	**6**	**5**	**+15**
	(27.2)	(52.2)	(27.4)	. .
Norway	**4**	**9**	**2**	**6**
	(30.3)	(52.2)	(34.0)	(52.8)
Portugal	**. .**	**. .**	**3**	**6**
	. .	. .	(30.1)	(55.6)
Sweden	**3**	**8**	**2**	**9**
	(29.9)	(51.1)	(25.8)	(50.7)
Switzerland	**2**	**4**	**2**	**6**
	(35.2)	(53.5)	(27.6)	(51.6)
United Kingdom	**2**	**6**	**2**	**6**
	(33.8)	(52.7)	(28.2)	(53.6)
United States	**1**	**2**	**2**	**10**
	(44.2)	(51.7)	(25.5)	(51.3)

Note: Numbers in brackets give the exact percentage of the number of countries indicated (cumulative flows as a percent of total flows).
Source: See the notes for Tables B.I.1. at the end of the Statistical Annex.

foreigners. China and India figure similarly in Australia, Canada and the United States, although their shares of total immigrant numbers there are already high, reflecting both the continuing nature of the flows and their acceleration. Lastly, and more surprisingly, inflows from the United States to four European countries (France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Belgium – not reported) and Japan stand out with very high indicators (generally over 3), which appear to indicate a reversal of transoceanic migration.

It may be asked whether the emergence of new source countries in immigration flows points to diversification of nationalities of origin or more simply to a renewal of migration trends. Table I.7 seeks to answer this question by comparing the number of nationalities making up 25 to 50% of immigration flows, in 1990 and 1999.

Migration flows can be seen to be highly diversified in 1999 (the chief exceptions being Japan and Hungary) since for all the other countries selected more than five sources make up half the total flow. But this finding is nothing really new, except for Germany, the United States and the Netherlands. In the Netherlands, for example, while just six countries represented around half the inflow in 1990, more than fifteen had to be considered in 1999 to reach the same figure. In the United States, inflows from ten source countries had to be combined in 1999 to reach a similar figure to that attained in 1990 with just two sources. Other countries whose inflows are diversifying include France and Switzerland and, to a lesser degree, Canada and Luxembourg. These findings are all indicative of the diversification of migration movements that is accompanying economic globalisation.

Box I.4. Intra-European mobility

Since the Treaty of Rome (1957), the principle of free movement for nationals of EU member countries in the context of taking up employment has been recognised within the area formed by the signatory countries. More recently, various measures have been implemented with the aim of facilitating intra-European mobility: a Directive on the free movement of those outside the labour force, students and the retired, a series of Directives on the mutual recognition of qualifications and the opening up of certain public sector jobs which were previously reserved for nationals.

Nevertheless, intra-European mobility is not great, especially having regard to the differences between EU labour markets. Intra-European migration represents less than 0.2% of the total population of the Union, whereas movements between the nine major census areas in the United States affect 1.5% of those regions' total population (Eichengreen 1993). The low mobility within Europe seems to be related to fundamental structural problems in the labour markets of individual EU countries. In fact, though higher than inter-country migration, inter-regional mobility within EU countries is quite low as well, with 1.2% of people in work changing residence in 1999 (Gros and Hefeker, 1999, and European Commission, 2001).

The numbers of EU nationals in immigration inflows has risen slightly, however, in recent years. Table I.8 shows movements of EU nationals, by nationality, for fourteen EU countries. The penultimate line in the table shows the proportion of foreigners from other EU countries in the total population. The five countries with the highest proportions of EU nationals in their foreign population are Luxembourg (89%), Belgium (62.2%), Spain (42.7%) and France (36.6%).

Ranking countries by the proportion of EU nationals in overall inflows produces very similar findings, and indicates other destinations as well. In 1999 the proportion was around 70% for Luxembourg, 51% for Portugal, 48.5% for Belgium, 47.5% for the United Kingdom and 39% for Spain. The remaining EU countries have considerably lower proportions of other EU nationals in their inflows, ranging from around 28% in the case of Denmark to 6% for France. Over 40% of EU nationals living in another Member country were in Germany, as against 20% in the United Kingdom. Compared to the situation prevailing in 1997 (see the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2000), in 1998 the United Kingdom received far more immigrants from EU countries (up 15.5%), while Luxembourg, Portugal and Belgium received markedly fewer. The proportion of intra-European immigration also rose in Finland, Greece and Sweden; in Denmark and Austria it remained virtually unchanged.

The analysis of intra-European mobility by nationality shows great diversity, reflecting above all cultural and linguistic affinities (Germans in Austria, French and Dutch in Belgium, Finns in Sweden and Swedes in Finland). Historical ties also play a role in this mobility, as is the case of Portuguese and Italians in France, and of Italians in Austria.

European pensioners also frequently choose to settle in certain Southern European countries; this is notably the case of UK nationals in Spain and Portugal, and Germans in Greece.

Table I.8. **Intra-European mobility of EU citizens, latest available year**

Immigration flows by nationality in per cent of total inflows of EU citizens

	Receiving country														
	Luxembourg	Portugal	Belgium	United Kingdom	Spain	Denmark	Netherlands	Sweden	Greece	Austria	Germany	Finland	France	Italy	Total
EU foreigners by nationality	1999	1998	1999	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1999	1999	1998	1999	
Austria	0.5	1.2	0.9	0.1	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.1	3.6	–	8.8	1.8	1.0	4.6	4.2
Belgium	16.4	3.7	–	1.2	5.8	1.9	9.7	1.1	3.2	1.4	1.5	1.1	6.7	3.5	2.6
Germany	8.5	22.0	11.0	13.3	31.9	20.9	23.8	13.7	26.2	52.7	–	12.4	10.7	24.2	11.5
Denmark	2.0	0.9	1.4	3.8	1.4	–	2.0	13.4	3.6	1.7	1.8	4.5	1.4	2.1	2.4
Spain	1.3	18.7	4.2	9.8	–	6.4	5.8	3.4	0.9	2.4	6.1	3.1	9.2	10.6	6.2
Finland	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.4	3.3	5.0	2.5	35.9	4.1	2.6	2.1	–	1.1	2.0	3.1
France	26.6	15.7	28.3	22.0	12.1	9.6	10.3	7.2	14.7	5.1	11.3	7.0	–	19.6	15.0
Greece	1.0	0.4	2.2	18.3	0.2	1.5	3.4	2.4	–	4.0	13.0	2.0	1.4	7.3	9.9
Ireland	1.3	0.7	1.2	2.8	0.9	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.0	0.9	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.6	2.0
Italy	6.7	7.6	9.3	14.2	8.9	6.8	6.9	3.5	9.1	10.4	25.8	4.9	13.8	–	16.4
Luxembourg	–	0.3	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3
Denmark	2.7	6.9	22.1	4.2	4.9	7.6	–	4.2	6.6	4.2	4.8	3.8	3.1	4.5	5.8
Portugal	25.1	–	4.7	3.6	6.4	1.2	3.7	0.8	0.3	3.2	10.9	0.3	31.9	3.6	7.7
Sweden	1.7	2.3	2.0	4.4	2.4	18.4	3.3	–	7.1	3.4	2.5	44.6	2.5	3.0	3.5
United Kingdom	5.2	18.7	10.8	–	20.4	16.8	23.8	11.8	19.5	7.6	8.9	12.9	15.1	13.3	9.5
Total EU citizens	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
% in row	2.5	0.9	8.4	20.5	6.7	2.4	6.0	2.5	0.9	3.6	40.6	0.5	1.8	2.8	100.0
In per cent of total inflows of foreigners	69.7	50.9	48.5	47.5	38.8	27.7	24.4	23.4	22.9	20.2	20.1	19.2	6.1	. .	26.2
Stocks (in 1998):															
EU *foreigners* (% *of total foreigners*)	89.0	26.3	62.2	18.5	42.7	20.5	28.0	33.9	. .	13.0	25.1	18.7	36.6	13.7	. .
EU *foreigners* (% *of total population*)	31.0	0.5	5.5	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.2	2.0	. .	1.2	2.3	0.3	2.0	0.3	. .

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos database.

g) The foreign or immigrant population is increasing and diversifying...

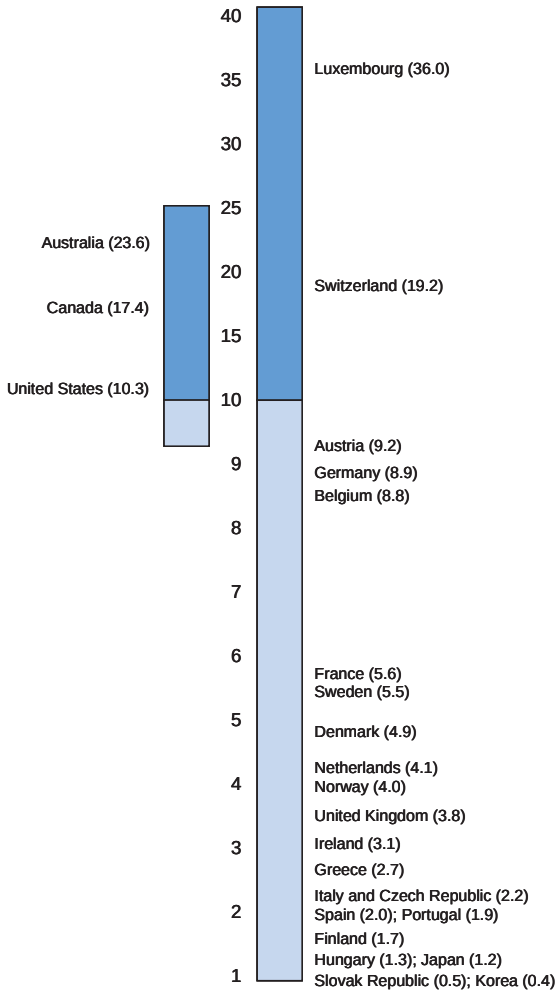
In Australia and Canada immigrants represent a particularly high proportion of the resident population: 23.6% in 1999 for Australia, and over 17% in 1996 for Canada (see Chart I.5). According to data from the 1999 CPS, the proportion in the United States is 10.3%. Between 1994 and 1999 the immigrant population there rose by nearly 6 million. In Canada, in the period between the last two censuses (1986-96), the immigrant population rose by a million, while in Australia between 1994 and 1999 immigration increased the population by 400 000.

The foreign presence in the total population varies widely across the European OECD countries. It was relatively high in Luxembourg (36%) and Switzerland (19.2%) in 1999. In the other traditional immigration countries, the proportion of foreigners in the total population varied between 3.8% (the United Kingdom) and 9.2% (Austria). The percentage was close to 9% in Belgium and Germany, as against 5.6% in France and 4.1% in the Netherlands. In the new immigration countries such as Finland, Italy, Portugal and Spain the proportion of foreigners remains small (between 1.7 and 2.2%), the increase in entries over the last decade notwithstanding.

The changes in the numbers of immigrants or foreign-born persons vary across countries and depend on their migration policies, their inflows and outflows, the demographic dynamics of their foreign populations, and the number of naturalisations which correspondingly reduce the foreigner totals.

Chart I.5. **Stock of foreign population in selected OECD countries, 1999**

Percentages of total population



Note: Foreign-born population for Australia, Canada and the United States; 1996 for Canada.
Source: National Statistical Offices. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex.

In most OECD countries, numbers of foreign or foreign-born people rose over the last five years (see Table I.9). Belgium, France and the Netherlands are exceptions here, partly because of the relatively large number of naturalisations there. In Sweden the number of foreign nationals also fell between 1994 and 1999, particularly due to Finns returning home. In the case of France, the trend is a long-term one which first appeared in the early 1980s.

During the 1990s the foreign populations increased considerably in Austria, Germany and Switzerland, chiefly as the result of higher inflows from Central and Eastern Europe. Over the last five years, the countries of Southern Europe and the Czech and Slovak Republics have experienced the largest rises in foreign numbers. Much the same is true in the United States and, to a lesser degree, in Japan and the United Kingdom. The proportion of foreigners in Japan's total population remains low (1.2% in 1999). Similarly, although the number of foreigners resident in Korea more than tripled between 1988 and 1998, their share of the total population remains one of the lowest of the OECD Member countries.

Generally speaking, the relative proportions of foreigners or foreign-born people by nationality (see Statistical Annex, Tables B.1.4 and B.1.6) vary across host countries depending on migration traditions, networks built up by communities already there, employment prospects in the labour market and geographical proximity to the source country.

The changes that have occurred over the last ten years, and in particular the freer movement of people in Central and Eastern Europe, have broadened the geographical framework of international migration (see Section I.C). In particular, they have contributed to the emergence of new flows and to a diversification of source countries. They have also modified the composition by nationality of the foreign population within host countries and the dispersion of migrants of the same origin across different host countries.

In the countries of the European Union, despite the recent upturn in intra-European migration (see Box 4 above), the proportion of foreigners from non-EU countries has increased. As part of this trend, certain origin countries have emerged or gained in importance relative to others of longer standing in the region (see Table I.10). In Germany, for example, this observation applies to nationals of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, in the Nordic countries to Middle East nationals, and in Italy and Spain to Moroccans and, to a lesser degree, Tunisians. These transformations reflect not only the changes in the origins of the flows but also the changes in their nature (for example, an increase in the number of asylum seekers and in employment-related movements).

Recently there has been an influx of Asian nationals, and more particularly Chinese and Vietnamese nationals, into European OECD countries. This trend is still too recent in some countries to be

Table I.9. **Foreign or foreign-born population in selected OECD countries, 1994 and 1999**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1994	1999		
Austria	714	748	0.95	R
Belgium	922	897	–0.55	R
Czech Republic	104	229	17.16	R
Denmark	197	259	5.69	R
Finland	62	88	7.18	R
France	3 597[1]	3 263	–1.08	C
Germany	6 991	7 344	0.99	R
Greece[2]	106	238	17.69	LFS
Hungary	138	127	–1.64	R
Ireland	91	118	5.28	LFS
Italy	923	1 252	6.29	P
Japan	1 354	1 556	2.82	R
Korea	85	189	17.39	R
Luxembourg	133	159	3.77	R
Netherlands	757	652	–2.96	R
Norway	164	179	1.73	R
Portugal	157	191	3.98	P
Slovak Republic	17	29	11.83	R
Spain	461	801	11.67	P
Sweden	537	487	–1.94	R
Switzerland	1 300	1 369	1.03	R
United Kingdom	2 032	2 208	1.68	LFS
	Foreign-born population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1994	1999		
Australia	4 094	4 482	1.83	E
Canada (1996)	4 971	. .	. .	C
United States	22 600	28 180	4.51	LFS

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex.
1. 1990.
2. Population aged 15 and over.
Sources: C: Census;
E: Estimates by the national Statistical Institute;
LFS: Labour force survey;
P: Residence permits;
R: Population register or register of foreigners.

clearly reflected in the numbers of foreigners by nationality, because of the predominant share taken by other migration flows. Nevertheless, it can be expected that, given its volume, the importance of this category of immigrants will emerge rapidly, and its relative share in the total stock of foreign residents will grow steadily. This process is in fact already perceptible in the new immigration countries. For example, Chinese immigrants rank among the top ten nationalities settled in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy and Spain (and among the top fifteen in Portugal). Filipinos now constitute the third largest foreign community in Italy, and the thirteenth in Spain. Vietnamese rank third in the Czech Republic, and Indians eighth in Hungary.

In the countries of Southern Europe, two characteristics of immigration stand out: there is a sizeable group of immigrants from a few developing countries in Africa and Asia, and another of foreign residents from Europe, North America and Latin America. These flows differ markedly in nature: the former, partly illegal, is essentially unskilled labour migration; the latter is linked to multinational firms and to foreign direct investment, together with flows of retired persons and of skilled and highly skilled workers. In Portugal, for example, the largest foreign community is African, originating from Portugal's former colonies and from other countries of Portuguese language and culture, such as Cape Verde, Brazil, Angola, Mozambique and Guinea Bissau. The second

Table I.10. **Maghrebian, Turkish, former Yugoslavian, Chinese, Vietnamese and Indian people residing in selected OECD countries, 1999**

Thousands and percentages

	Total foreign population	Algeria	% of total foreign population	Morocco	% of total foreign population	Tunisia	% of total foreign population	Turkey	% of total foreign population	Former Yug.	% of total foreign population	China	% of total foreign population	India	% of total foreign population	Vietnam	% of total foreign population
Australia[1]	4 482.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	32.0	0.7	208.4	4.6	156.8	3.5	100.7	2.2	175.2	3.9
Belgium	897.1	8.3	0.9	122.0	13.6	4.2	0.5	69.2	7.7	6.0[2]	0.7	3.5[2]	0.4	3.3	0.4	. .	. .
Canada (1996)[1]	4 971.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	122.0	2.5	231.1	4.6	235.9	4.7	139.3	2.8
Denmark	259.4	. .	. .	3.6	1.4	. .	. .	36.6	14.1	35.1	13.5	2.5	1.0	1.3	0.5	5.0	1.9
France	3 263.2	477.5	14.6	504.1	15.4	154.4	4.7	208.0	6.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	33.7	1.0	. .	. .
Germany	7 343.6	17.2	0.2	81.5	1.1	24.3	0.3	2 053.6	28.0	1 118.8[3]	15.2	42.9	0.6	34.3	0.5	85.4	1.2
Italy	1 252.0	. .	. .	149.5	11.9	44.0	3.5	. .	. .	99.6	8.0	47.1	3.8	25.6	2.0	. .	. .
Netherlands	651.5	0.9	0.1	119.7	18.4	1.3	0.2	100.7	15.5	15.6	2.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Norway	178.7	. .	. .	1.4	0.8	. .	. .	3.5	1.9	22.4	12.6	1.3	0.7	2.2	1.2	2.5	1.4
Spain	801.3	. .	. .	161.9	20.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	24.7	3.1	8.5	1.1	. .	. .
Sweden	487.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	16.4	3.4	64.1	13.2	4.2	0.9	. .	. .	2.6	0.5
Switzerland	1 368.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	79.9	5.8	331.5	24.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.7	0.3
United Kingdom (2000)	2 342.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	38.0	1.6	. .	. .	22.0	0.9	153.0	6.5	. .	. .
United States (1990)[1]	19 767.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	141.5	0.7	529.8	2.7	450.4	2.3	543.3	2.7

Note: Data are from population registers except for France (1999 census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).

1. Foreign-born persons.
2. Figures are for 1998.
3. Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia Herzegovina and Croatia.

Source: National Statistical Offices.

largest group is made up of European Union (France, Germany and Spain) and United States nationals.

Among the European countries of the OECD (see Box I.4 above, and Table I.8), the highest percentages of nationals of the fifteen-Member European Unionwere to be found in 1998 or 1999 – in decreasing order of importance – in Luxembourg, Belgium and Spain (statistics are not available for Ireland, though it too hosts a large number of EU nationals). At the opposite end of the scale, Austria was among the countries with the lowest proportion of foreign residents from other EU members in its total foreign population and in its foreign labour force.

In Australia, Canada and the United States the proportion of European residents has declined in favour of immigrants from the developing countries (see Statistical Annex, Table B.1.4). In the United States the stock of European residents has held steady while that of immigrants from Asia and from the American continent has increased. Between 1980 and 1990 the numbers of Mexican, Vietnamese and Chinese nationals almost doubled; those from India and the Dominican Republic more than doubled. Between 1990 and 2000 these trends continued, in fact at a faster pace. The 2000 census recorded nearly 9 million Mexicans and around 8.5 million Asian nationals, but only 4.8 million people born in Europe. Numbers from Africa, although smaller, are increasing among the immigrant population (800 000 in 2000). To some extent, these trends reflect demographics worldwide.

With the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), whose provisions enhance mobility for business people and skilled workers between the United States and Canada, inflows of Canadians to the United States are again rising and in 2000 returned to the levels found in 1980.

In Canada the number of Europeans (notably from Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) fell slightly between 1986 and 1996, while the immigrant population of Asian provenance doubled. The same trend has been observed in Australia, with conspicuous growth in immigration flows from Asia, New Zealand and Africa, while those of European provenance remained stable.

The foreigners and foreign-born persons resident in OECD countries include nationals of Member countries. Although analysis rarely singles them out, their number is relatively high. For example, 73% of the people from the ten main immigrant groups present in the United States in 1998 (and 66% of those in Canada in 1996) were from OECD Member countries. In 1999, in Germany and the United Kingdom, the figure was also very high, being 77% in the former and over 65% in the latter. The proportion of foreign nationals coming from OECD Member countries was close to 50% in France and in Japan, given the size of the communities coming from Southern Europe in the former and from Korea in the latter.

The recent accession of further countries to the OECD (the Slovak Republic in 2000, Hungary, Poland and Korea in 1996, the Czech Republic in 1995 and Mexico in 1994) has helped to accentuate this trend. In 1999, Turks topped the ranking by nationality of foreigners resident in European OECD countries. Italians and Portuguese were third and fourth respectively, after nationals of the former Yugoslavia. Mexicans and Koreans make up the leading foreign communities in the United States and Japan respectively.

Demographic characteristics of the foreign or foreign-born population

The demographic structure of the foreign or foreign-born population differs from that of nationals in its age and gender composition. But specific features vary considerably across countries and in fact depend on the nature of migration flows, in particular the size of the family component, and on the dates of migration waves and the features of the main groups of migrants themselves.

In some of the major immigration countries in Europe, such as France, but also Belgium and Switzerland, and to a lesser extend Sweden and the Netherlands, the age structure for foreigners is relatively close to that for nationals and the sole distinction is that foreigners are under-represented in the 65 and over age groups (see Chart I.6). Long-standing migration and the fact that immigrants have tended to settle permanently in these countries partly explain this finding. Under-representation in the higher age groups, moreover, may be due to the numbers of naturalisations.

In Austria and Germany the recent waves of migration, following the opening up of Eastern Europe (see Section I.C), have injected a younger element into the age structure of the foreign population, at a time when low fertility rates give the age pyramids for nationals there the typical aspect of an ageing population.

Chart I.6. **Foreign and national populations[1] by age group and by sex, latest available year**

Percentage of total foreign or national population

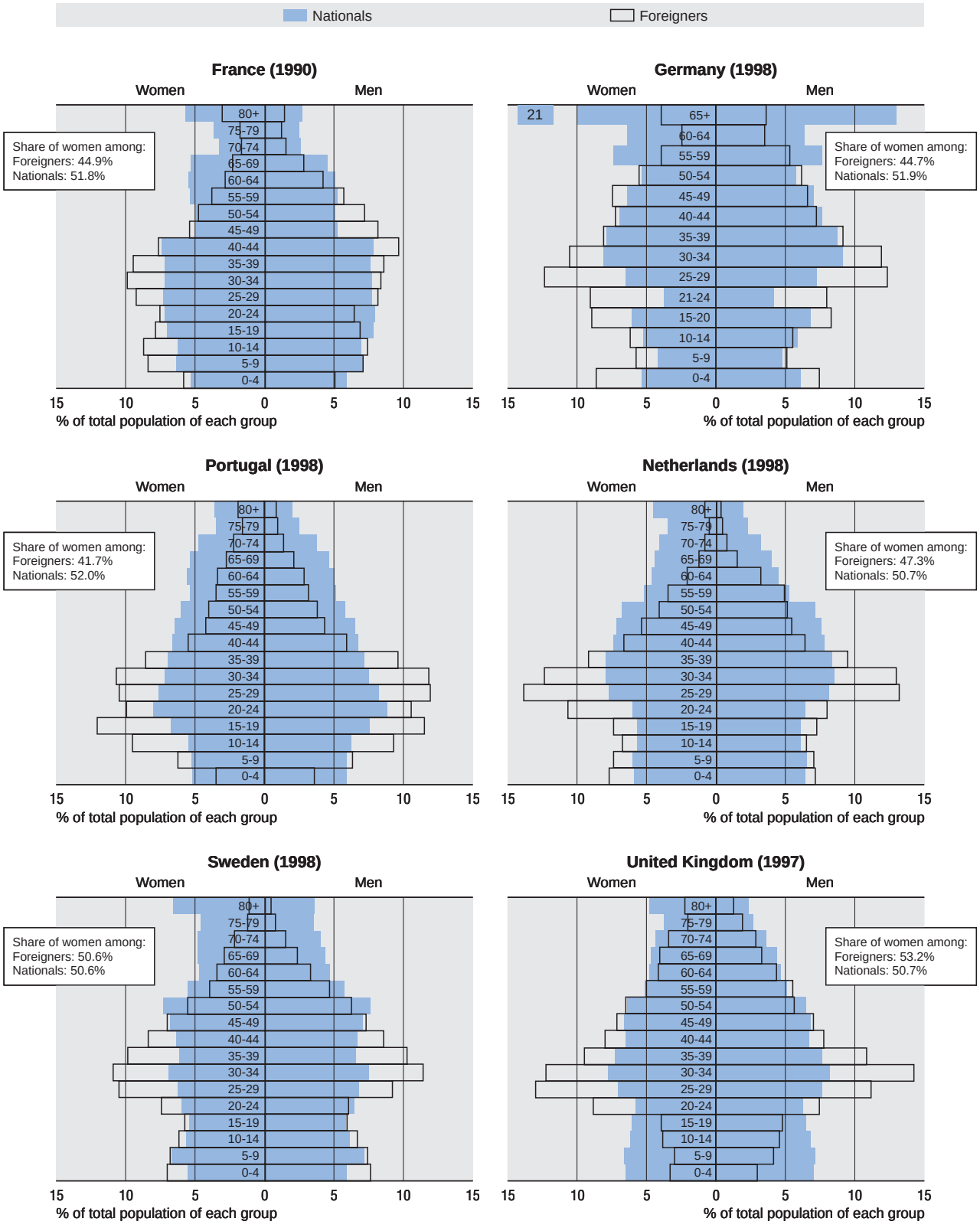
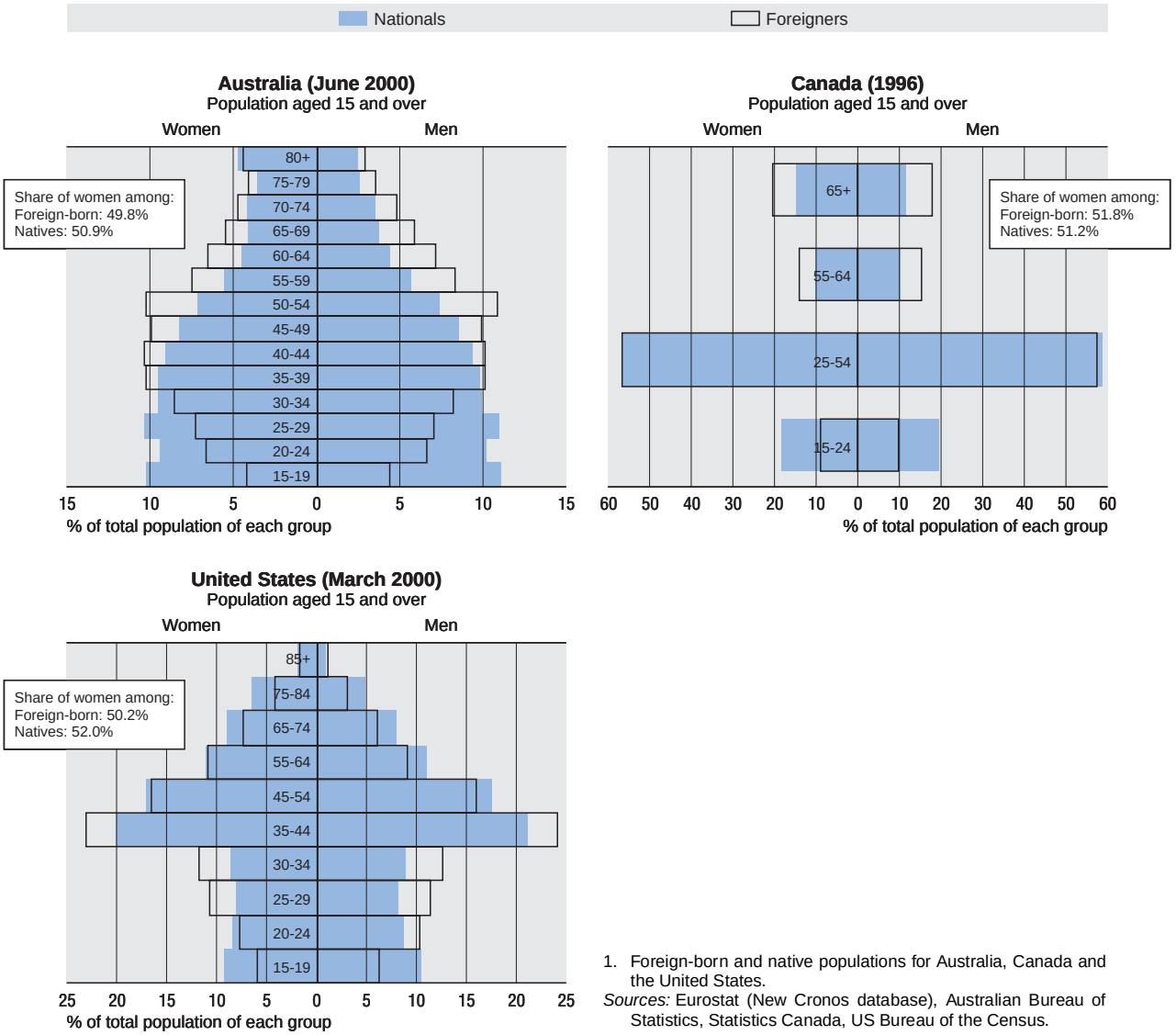


Chart I.6. **Foreign and national populations[1] by age group and by sex, latest available year** *(cont.)*
Percentage of total foreign or national population



1. Foreign-born and native populations for Australia, Canada and the United States.

Sources: Eurostat (New Cronos database), Australian Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Canada, US Bureau of the Census.

More recent countries of immigration, such as those in Southern Europe and some of the Nordic countries (Finland and Norway), present a distinctive age structure for their foreign population. There is a clear preponderance of groups of working age (25-34, 35-44 and to a lesser extent 15-24), and very marked under-representation of older groups. This pattern is also visible in the United Kingdom.

The findings are more mixed in the countries of settlement (Australia, Canada and the United States). The scale of family reunion helps to ensure that the proportion of elderly people in the immigrant population is little different from that for nationals (in fact it is appreciably higher in Canada).

Apart from a few exceptions, women are under-represented in the foreign or foreign-born population (see Chart I.6). In Switzerland, Portugal and Germany, where employment-related immigration remains predominant, the disparity between foreigners and nationals is considerable (over 5%). But some other countries, the United Kingdom and Canada, stand out with a higher percentage of women in the foreign

population. A similar finding can be made for some Nordic countries, where refugees and asylum seekers make up a substantial proportion of total flows and where employment-related movements often involve women, especially in the health care sector.

Last, Table I.11 reflects differences in levels of education between nationals and foreigners or immigrants aged between 15 and 65, as observed in 1999-2000. In a number of OECD countries, over half the foreign population has not pursued education beyond the first cycle of secondary school. The proportion is as much as 66% in France. With the exception of Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, foreigners (or foreign-born people) seem on average to have lesser levels of education than nationals. But the gap is less significant in the main countries of settlement, which apply a selective policy on immigration (Canada, for example).

The duality of migration flows by level of education stands out sharply in the case of some Member countries where foreigners or foreign-born persons are over-represented at both the highest and lowest levels of education. This is particularly the case in the United Kingdom and Canada, but also in Austria and the Nordic countries. The main immigration countries in Europe (Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland) show signs of the older waves of migration in the 1960s and 1970s, largely made up of low-skilled labour employed in the manufacturing sector.

If recent immigration flows were to be broken down by skill level, however, a trend increase in migrants' levels of education in most of the OECD Member countries, including those chiefly taking in asylum seekers, would probably be observed.

h) ... but remain very concentrated around urban areas

There is a high concentration of foreigners in urban areas, and most particularly in the economic and/or administrative centres of each host country, as is shown by Maps I.1, I.2 and I.3. These maps

Table I.11. **Foreign and national adult populations classified by level of education in selected OECD countries**[1]

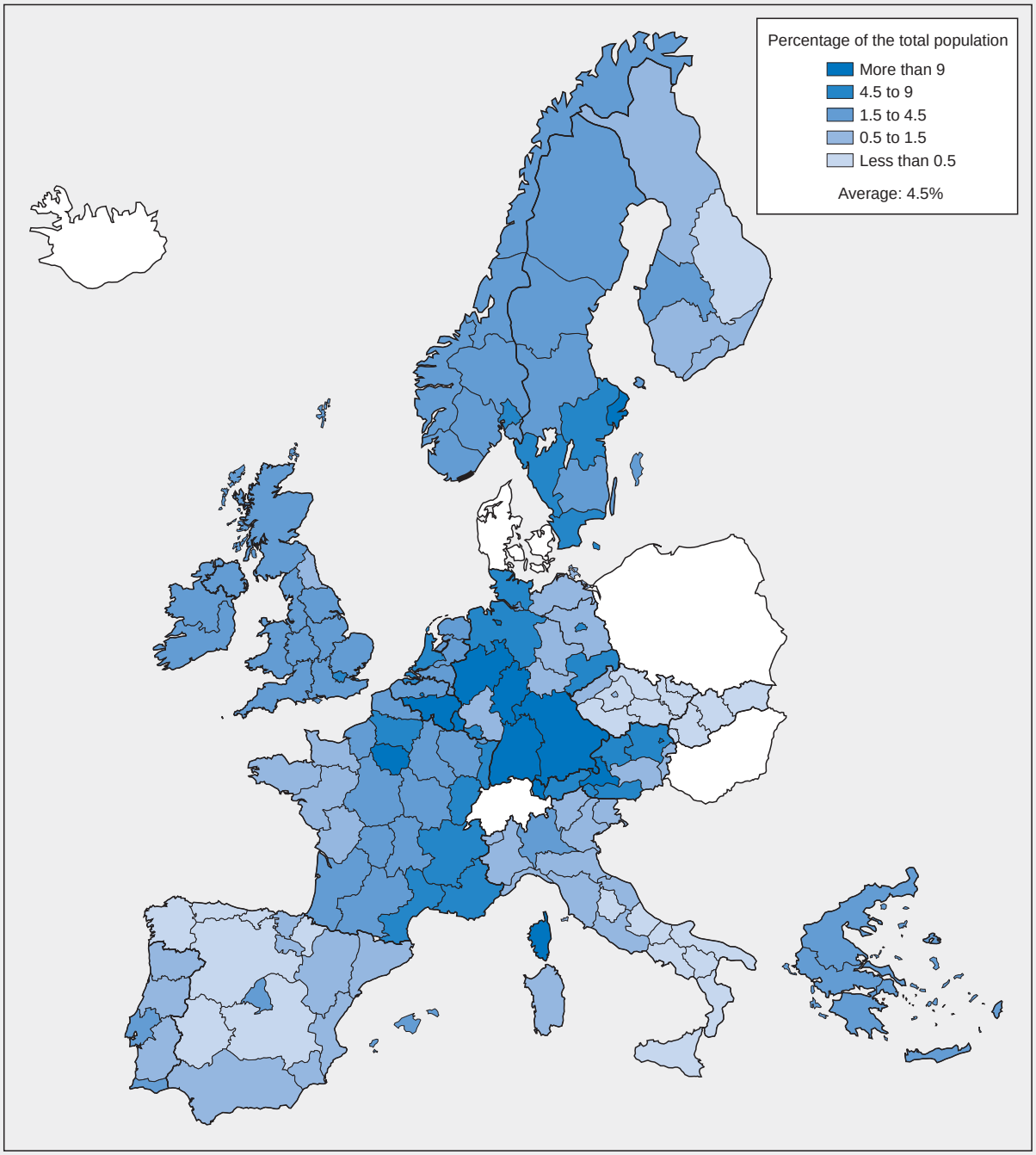
1999-2000 average, percentages

	Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Third level	
	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals
Austria	43.1	22.6	43.7	64.9	13.3	12.5
Belgium	54.5	40.8	25.2	31.6	20.2	27.6
Czech Republic	24.0	13.9	52.6	74.9	23.4	11.2
Denmark	26.1	20.1	46.2	53.8	27.7	26.1
Finland	26.2	27.7	45.2	40.3	28.6	32.0
France	66.4	36.2	19.7	42.0	13.9	21.8
Germany	49.4	16.5	35.4	59.3	15.2	24.2
Greece	39.8	49.8	40.6	33.5	19.6	16.8
Hungary	16.7	29.0	55.2	57.1	28.1	13.9
Italy	49.8	55.8	37.2	34.6	13.0	9.5
Luxembourg	48.1	32.2	30.2	51.7	21.7	16.1
Netherlands	50.2	33.8	28.2	42.3	21.6	23.9
Norway	17.2	14.8	46.3	54.8	36.5	30.4
Portugal	64.8	78.8	20.9	11.5	14.3	9.7
Slovak Republic	25.2	17.1	59.4	72.9	15.4	10.0
Spain	48.6	64.2	22.6	14.8	28.8	21.0
Sweden	30.1	22.5	40.0	48.5	29.9	29.1
Switzerland	36.4	13.3	39.9	62.7	23.7	24.0
United Kingdom	30.3	19.4	30.5	53.3	39.3	27.3
United States[2]	35.0	15.7	24.1	35.0	40.9	49.3
Canada[3]	22.2	23.1	54.9	60.3	22.9	16.6

1. The educational attainment classification is defined as follows: lower secondary refers to pre-primary education or none, primary or lower secondary; upper secondary refers to upper secondary education or post-secondary non tertiary education; third level refers to tertiary education. Data refer to individuals aged 25 to 64.
2. Foreign-born and native populations aged 25 and over. Lower secondary refers to less than high school diploma, upper secondary refers to high school diploma and third level refers to some college or more.
3. Foreign-born and native populations aged 25 to 44. Lower secondary refers to below grade 9, upper secondary refers to grades 9 to 13 and third level refers to some post-secondary education plus university degrees.

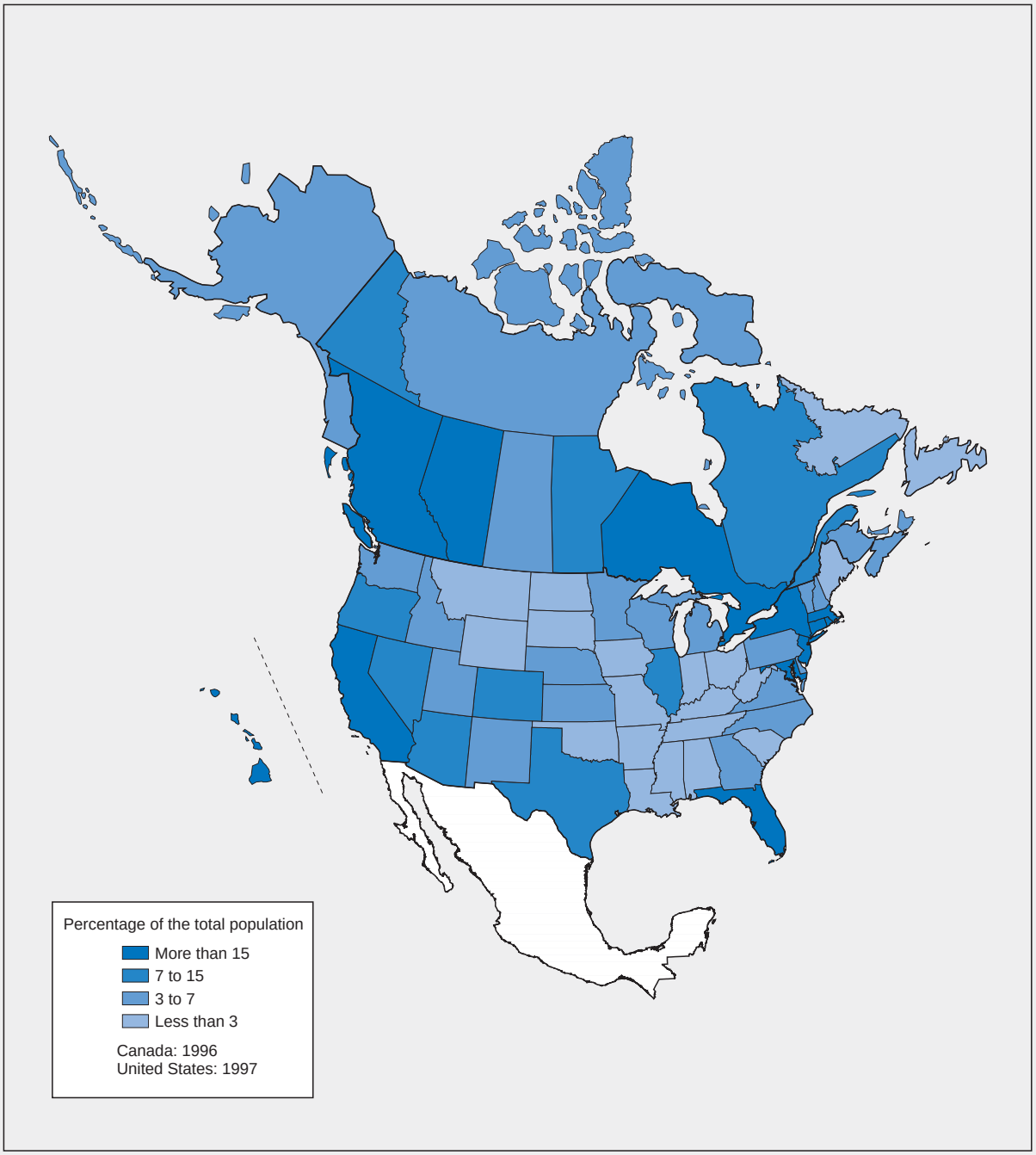
Sources: Labour force survey, data provided by Eurostat; Statistics Canada; US Bureau of the Census.

Map I.1. **Foreign population in the European regions, 2000**



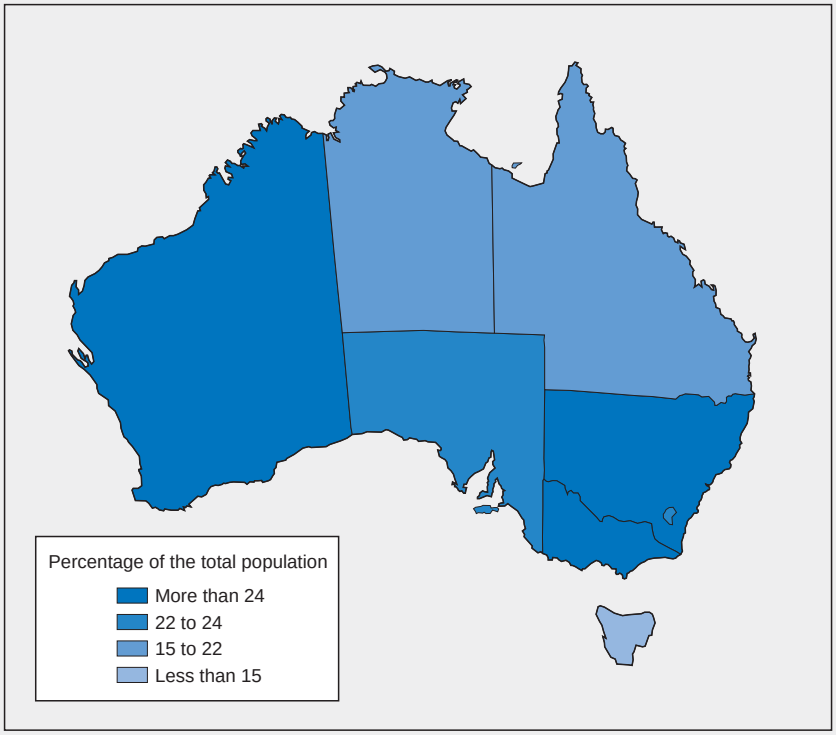
Note: Population aged 15 and over.
Data are not available for Denmark, Iceland, Hungary, Poland and Switzerland.
Source: Labour force survey, figures provided by Eurostat.

Map I.2. **Foreign-born population in Canada and the United States by region, latest available year**



Data for Mexico are not available.
Source: Statistics Canada; US Census Bureau.

Map I.3. **Foreign-born population in Australia by region, 1996**



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics.

show the distribution of foreign populations by large regions in Europe, as well as in the United States, in Canada and in Australia.

In certain European member countries of the OECD (see Map I.1), the level of this concentration is relatively important. The percentage of foreigners in the total population reaches almost 27% in the Brussels area, 23% in that of London, 16% in the western area of Berlin and almost 16% in Vienna. Furthermore, this percentage is at least twice as high as the average in the total population of the country under review, 13% in the Paris region against 6% for France as a whole. This tendency can be observed for the city of Stockholm and her suburbs (9.6% against 4% for Sweden). Likewise, for Madrid and her suburbs (more than 2% against 1% for Spain) and for Lisbon (more than 3.3% against 1.8% for the whole of Portugal). In the case of North America (see Map I.2), one can observe the same nuance, alongside the influence of the particular attraction of certain important economic areas, such as British Colombia to Canada or California and Florida to the United States. In other countries, such as Australia (see Map I.3) or Italy, the capital and her surrounding areas does not particularly illustrate a higher concentration of the foreign population, which is mainly concentrated in the vital economic centres.

Another feature of the characteristics revealed by these maps, concern the distribution of the population beyond the capital and its surrounding areas. One can in this regard identify two groups of countries. The first, comprising Ireland, Greece, Norway, The Netherlands, the Czech and Slovak Republics and the United Kingdom are all characterised by a relatively balanced regional distribution. The majority of the other OECD countries differ by a more unequal regional distribution of immigrants or foreigners. On the American continent, a slight density in the central part of the territory creates this disparity; in Germany, it reflects for the most part

the dichotomy between east and west, while in Italy it is entirely superposed in the principal geographical production areas.

Economic conditions and local manpower needs are certainly among the principal determinants in the choice of location of migrants. At the same time family and community links as well as the geographical proximity of the country of origin, could be considered significant influential factors. This would permit in part an explanation, in the case of the United States, the concentration of Asians from the Hawaiian archipelago, the Mexicans in California and Texas and the Cubans in Florida. The same applies to Canada, for the Asians in British Colombia and the French in Quebec, as it does for France, for the North Africans in Corsica and in the region of the South of France, or in the area of Andalusia in Spain.

The high concentration of immigrant population in certain areas poses particular difficulties in terms of the accessibility of public services, the availability of housing and more generally the social integration of new arrivals. In order to even out these problems, certain countries, having received numerous requests from political asylum seekers, have put in place measures with the intention of favouring, more or less compulsorily, the dispersal of the latter throughout the territory (*e.g.* Germany, the United Kingdom and Sweden). Nevertheless, policies such as these have a limited impact, essentially because they only concern a section of new arrivals and have no impact on the foreign population already installed.

In this perspective, the case of Canada deserves to be mentioned. The majority of provinces have negotiated with the Federal State the possibility of managing migrant flows which directly concerns them and even in certain cases to determine clear individual elements of migration policies (criteria of admission, or quota, if any, etc.). Once they are installed, migrants would be permitted to move about as they please on the territory. In the long term, including the case of Canada, only active policies of regional development could significantly influence the locating of foreigners or immigrants and, even more generally, the local population.

2. Immigration and population growth in OECD countries

Migration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of many OECD countries. First of all, the presence of a foreign or foreign-born population contributes to the natural increase in the population (excess of births over deaths). The higher the fertility of foreign women relative to that of native women, the more significant this contribution is. Secondly, when net migration is positive, the population of the host country grows by the same amount.

In the following section the contribution of migration is examined from the perspective of its impact on total population growth in OECD countries. The demographic characteristics of the foreign or foreign-born population are then described. Particular attention is then given to births to foreigners and to persons of foreign origin and to the relationship between population ageing and migration.

a) Growth in the total and foreign populations

In order to explain the respective contributions of net migration and the rate of natural increase to total population growth in OECD countries, the evolution of these components over the past three decades in the principal OECD geographic regions will be examined and a description of the current situation in Member countries will be presented.

Chart I.7 covers the period 1960-99. It shows the relative contributions of net migration (nationals and foreigners) and of natural increase (excess of births over deaths) to the total population growth of the countries of the European Union and other Member countries of the OECD. This comparative analysis illustrates the general trend of a slowdown in demographic growth. However, this trend is more or less marked across countries. For example, Australia and the United States, which had a very high rate of natural increase in 1960, experienced marked declines thereafter before stabilising in the mid-1970s at a relatively high rate, and then settling at five per thousand at the end of the period. Japan, Poland and Spain, which also initially enjoyed rapid demographic growth, underwent a considerable adjustment in their birth rates, with their natural increase rate approaching nil in the second half of the 1990s. In Germany and Sweden the natural increase in the population was very low at the end of the period, but the transition was less sudden (for a detailed presentation of the situation of most of these countries, see the 1999 edition of Trends in International Migration).

In the countries of the European Union, at the beginning of the 1960s, the relative share of natural increase in total population growth was larger than

Chart I.7. **Components of total population growth in selected OECD countries and in the European Union, 1960-1999**

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year

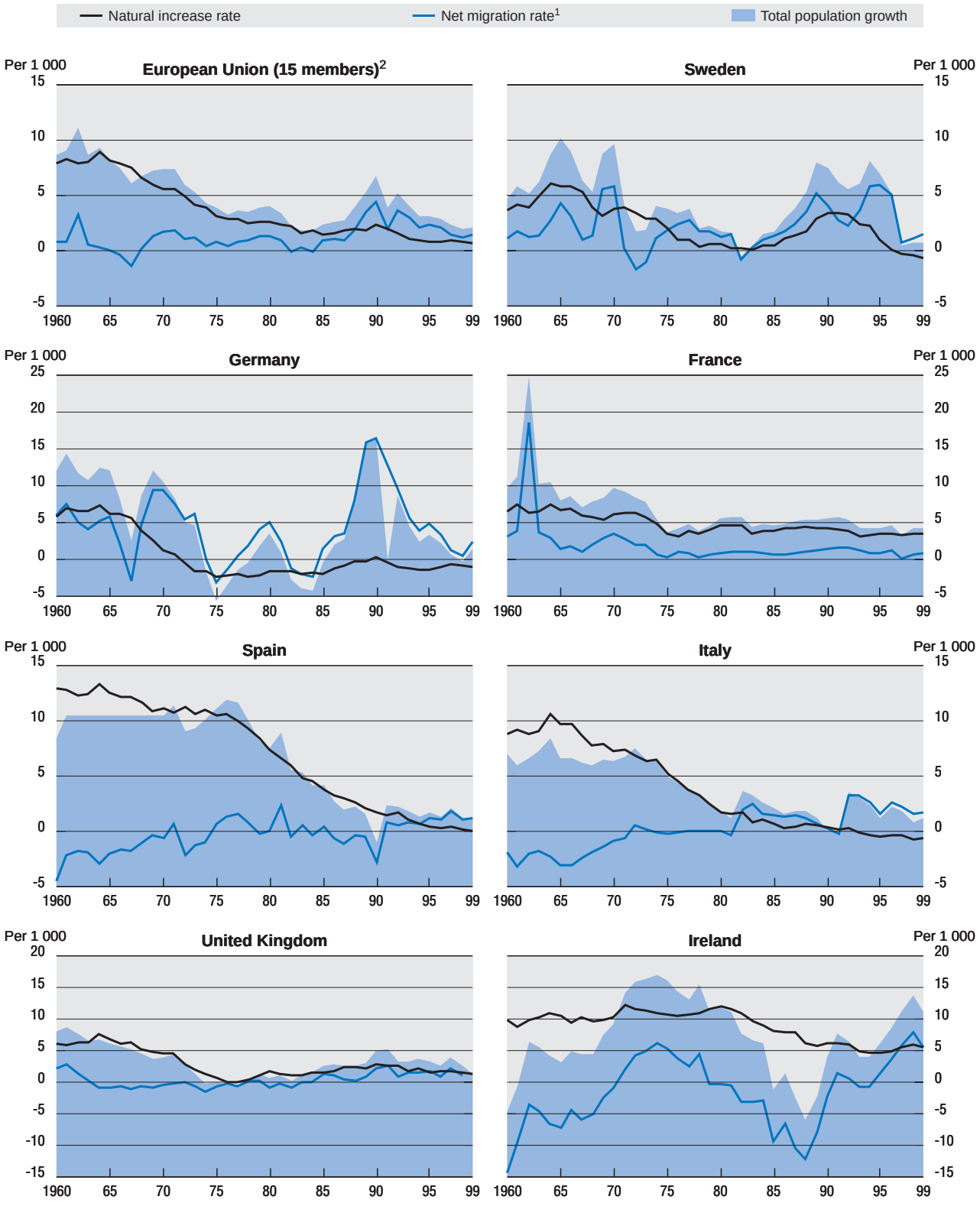
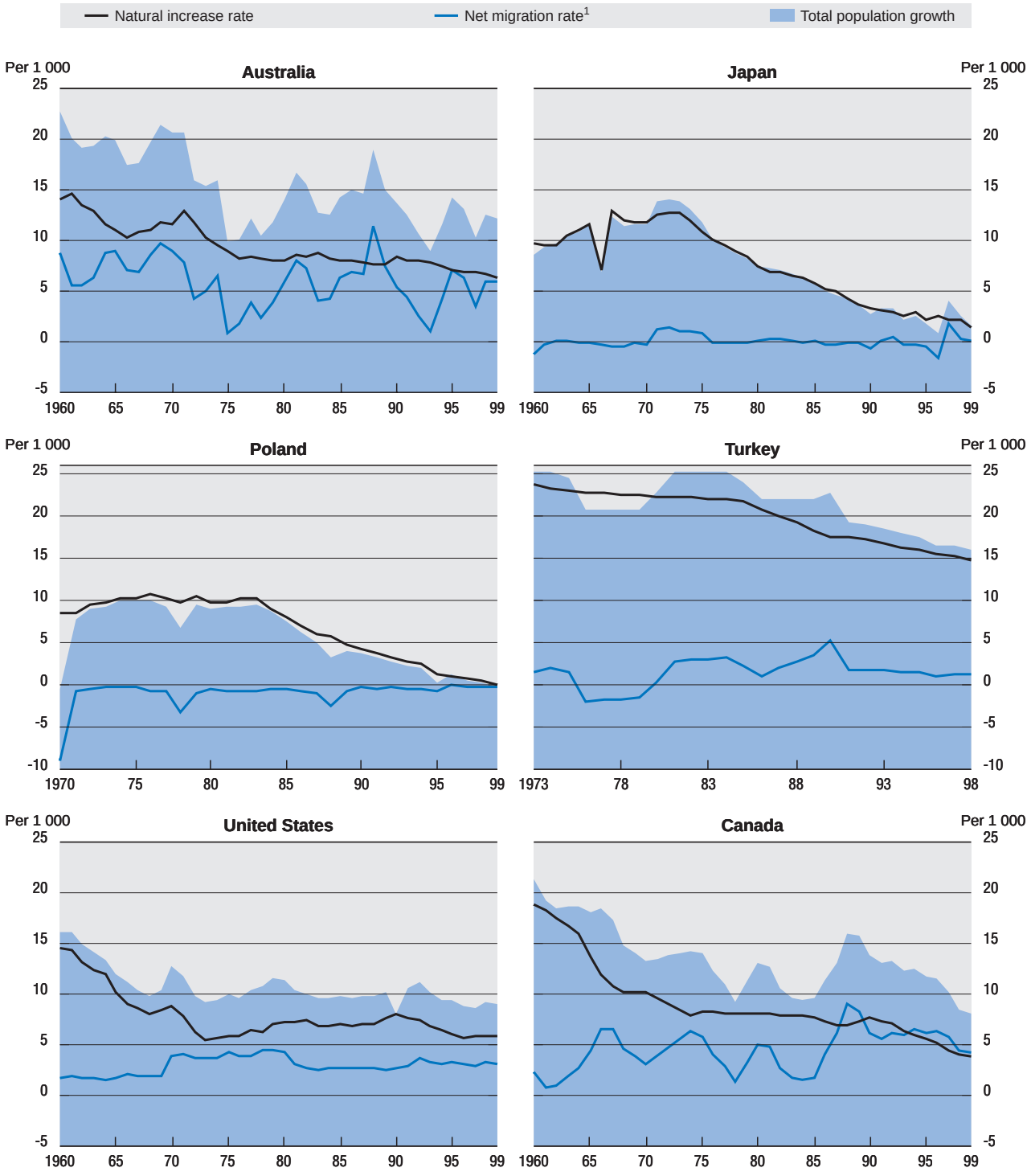


Chart I.7. **Components of total population growth in selected OECD countries and in the European Union, 1960-1999** *(cont.)*

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



1. The net migration figures are calculated residually using annual population estimates and data on births and deaths.
2. Excluding Belgium, Portugal and the United Kingdom in 1999. Excluding Austria for all years.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2000.

that of net migration (except in France due to the mass inflows of repatriates from Algeria). From 1967 onwards, net migration grew while the natural increase continuously declined. Between 1987 and 1991, the relative contribution of net migration grew rapidly following an acceleration in immigration flows, but was not sufficient to stem the demographic decline. If the trend was then reversed, the contribution of migration continues to be higher than natural increase throughout the entire European Union.

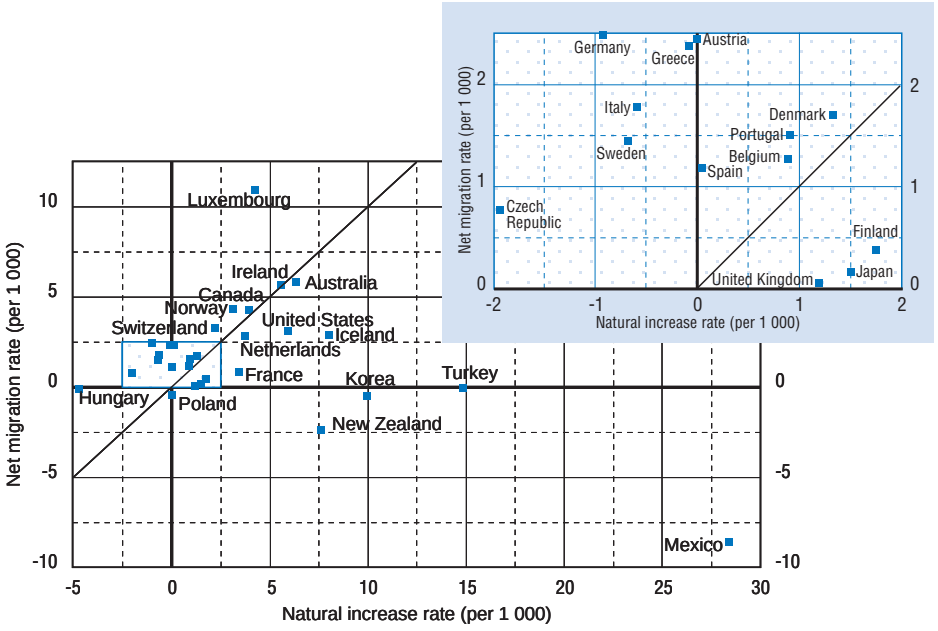
Following a very different pattern, Turkey is experiencing a relatively high natural rate of population growth, but one which is considerably lower than the 1970s figure. At the same time, net migration is slightly positive, indicating the return of former emigrants and an upward trend in foreign immigration.

A more detailed analysis for 1999 (see Chart I.8) reveals that Mexico, New Zealand and, to a lesser degree, Korea and Turkey, registered negative net migration, which was nevertheless broadly offset by natural increase. In the case of the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, the rate of natural increase does not offset the negative migration balance, explaining the falls in the total populations of these countries.

Austria, Germany, Greece, Italy and Sweden have in common a negative rate of natural increase and positive net migration. It was due to the migration balance that their populations increased in 1999. In Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland demographic growth was also primarily due to immigration, although the natural increase remained positive. On the other hand, in France, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States natural increase remains the principal component of population growth. This component is largest in Mexico and Turkey (at 28.3 in 1990 and 14.8 per thousand in 1999, respectively). Last we have Australia, Canada and Ireland, where demographic growth is relatively sustained (12.2, 8 and 11.2 per thousand respectively) and evenly distributed between natural increase and net migration.

Chart I.8. **Natural increase and net migration rates in OECD countries, 1999**[1]

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



Note: Net migration figures are calculated residually using annual population estimates and data on births and deaths.
1. 1998 for Belgium, Korea, Portugal and Turkey; 1990 for Mexico.
Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2000.

This analysis points to the conclusion that over a long period (be it by region or by country, 1960-99) or by cross-section (by country, in 1999), natural increase is more important than net migration in total population growth in many OECD countries. The trend is all the more marked in those countries where fertility rates are low (Austria, Germany, Greece and Italy). In settlement countries, such as Australia, Canada and the United States, which continue to receive substantial numbers of new immigrants each year, the predominance of family-linked immigration in total inflows and the younger age structure of the new arrivals exert a marked effect, over the medium and long term, on the natural rate of increase in the population. At the same time, in some countries such as Mexico and Turkey where emigration is substantial, natural increase still plays a decisive role in population growth. The same is true in the United States and in a few countries where the birth rate has fallen less, France and the Netherlands for example. In both these countries the long-term settlement of immigrants and members of their families has helped, by means of foreign births, to enhance the contribution of natural increase.

b) Foreign births: a brake on demographic ageing

In a number of European OECD countries, births to foreign nationals and to persons of foreign origin account for a sizeable percentage of total births (see Box I.5 for the measurement of these births), often greater than the proportion of foreigners in the total population. Foreign births contribute to the natural increase in the population and can therefore act as a brake on demographic ageing. This is not an inevitable result, however, and it depends essentially on a continuing succession of migration waves. A prolonged halt to new immigration could eventually lead to a marked reduction in these beneficial effects insofar as the fertility rate of foreign women tends to converge with that of nationals.

The share of foreign births is, in some OECD Member countries, high (see Chart I.9). This was the case, for example, in Luxembourg (48.5%) and Switzerland (22.9%) in 1999. However, in the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Germany and France, foreign births accounted for between 10 and 13% of all births. Nevertheless, Italy, Finland and especially Japan and Hungary all have significantly lower levels, which can be explained, *inter alia*, by the relatively small share of foreigners in their total population.

It was in Portugal, the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Italy and France that the proportion of foreign births in all births as compared with the proportion of foreigners in the total population was greatest in 1999 (over 1.5). It is particularly low (under 1), on the other hand, in Japan where immigration is above all temporary and in Belgium where Europeans represent a substantial proportion of non-naturalised immigrants.

A number of explanations can be put forward to account for the variations observed over the past two decades, the relative importance of which depends on the country concerned: higher or lower

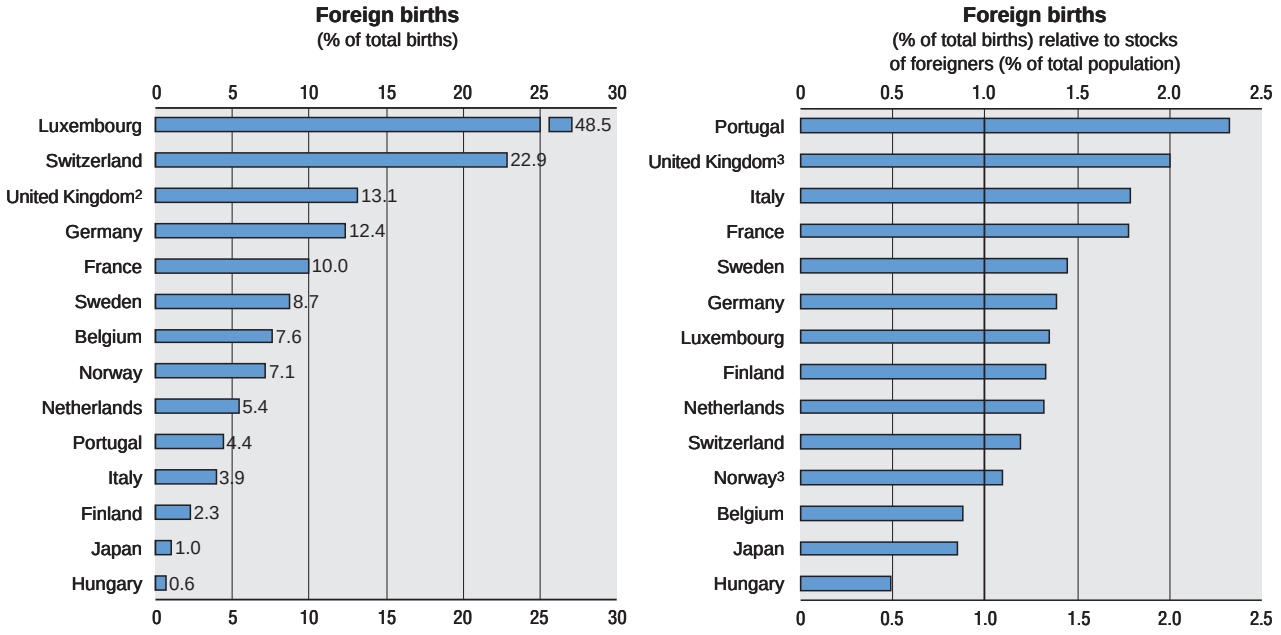
Box I.5. **Measuring foreign births**

It is difficult to obtain comparable data on foreign births as the term "foreign" may apply to the child or to the parents. If it applies to the parents, the number of foreign births will vary according to whether the criterion adopted is the nationality of both parents, of the mother or of the father.

Generally, since fertility is studied in relation to women, the nationality of reference chosen is that of the mother. In Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland foreign births are those of children possessing foreign nationality. In France and Sweden, for example, foreign births are those to female foreign nationals, in Japan those where both parents are foreign nationals, and in England and Wales they are those to mothers born outside the United Kingdom.

Data based solely on births to foreign mothers do not adequately reflect the contribution to total births linked to the presence of the foreign population or that of foreign origin. Moreover, in general, the degree to which the legislation on naturalisations is more or less liberal can either speed up or slow down the process of absorption of foreigners into the national population and thereby reduce or increase the number of foreign births.

Chart I.9. **Foreign births in 1999**[1]



Note: For Finland, France and Sweden, foreign births are births to a foreign mother, for Japan, to foreign parents. For England and Wales and Norway, foreign births refer to those to mothers born outside the country. For Canada, foreign births refer to those to foreign-born mothers who have been granted immigrant status. For all other countries, foreign births are those of children of foreign nationality.

1. 1996 for Canada; 1997 for Sweden and the United Kingdom; 1998 for Belgium and France.
2. Data refer to England and Wales.
3. The share of foreign births is relative to the share of foreign-born persons in the total population.

Sources: Data on births are from civil registers; data on population are from population registers for all countries except for France (1999 Census), Canada (1996 Census), the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey), Portugal and Italy (residence permits).

levels of net migration; differences in fertility rates between nationals and foreigners; differences in distribution by age and by sex of the foreign and national populations; and changes to laws concerning the acquisition of nationality.

c) *Ageing populations and migration*

The combination of the demographic effects of the baby boom that marked the immediate post-war period, the fall in fertility rates which began in OECD countries from the late 1960s, and longer life expectancy, has led to a striking acceleration in population ageing in virtually all OECD countries.

A detailed examination of the current demographic situation in OECD countries shows that the ageing of the population is much more marked in Europe and Japan than in North America, and that it is in these countries that global labour shortages will be strongest over the next 25 years, even if, during the transition period, improved productivity and the use of surplus labour temporarily ease labour demand.

According to demographic projections by the United Nations, the populations of the European Union and Japan are expected, between 2000 and 2050, to fall by 10 and 14% respectively, representing in all some 55 million people (see Table I.12). For the United States the projections point to an increase in the total population, going together with an increase in the proportion of elderly persons and the dependency ratio (in other words, population aged 65 and over has a percentage of active age population – 20-64).

A number of research projects run by the OECD have considered the economic and fiscal impact of coming demographic trends (OECD 2001, 2000, 1998, Visco 2001). The research generally concludes that decisions are required over the medium and long term to tackle the population challenge and safeguard balance in the social

Table I.12. **Change in total population in OECD countries, 1950, 2000 and 2050**

		EU 15	United States	Japan	OECD countries[1]
		Thousands			
Total population	1950	296 400	157 800	83 600	683 300
	2000	377 200	283 200	127 000	1 125 300
	2050	340 300	397 000	109 200	1 275 300
		Percentages			
Dependency ratio[2]	1950	15.5	13.3	8.1	13.1
	2000	27.9	15.6	20.3	21.0
	2050	55.7	26.8	43.1	40.8

1. The dependency ratio is calculated without taking into account figures for Greece, Iceland, Luxembourg, Mexico, Switzerland and Turkey.
2. Population aged 65 and over as a percentage of active age population (20-64).
Sources: *Total population*: *World Population prospects: the 2000 revision*, United Nations; dependency ratio: OECD.

protection systems which are linked to the determination of the length of working life, fertility trends, the level of contributions and benefits and also to productivity advances. One solution that is sometimes mentioned, but less frequently evaluated, could also be to turn to immigration in order to modify population structure and alleviate the effects of ageing.

Can immigration relieve the effects of population ageing?

Turning to immigration possesses the advantage of having an immediate and relatively strong impact on the economically active population because of the characteristics of new immigrants, who are younger and more mobile. In addition, fertility rates amongst immigrant women are often relatively high, which can help to boost population growth, albeit to a limited extent. There are, however, practical and political constraints that make it difficult to develop and implement migration policies aimed at changing the demographic structure. Just four points will be mentioned here:

- Most OECD countries have the same demographic patterns, so immigration could basically only come from countries outside the OECD area.
- This approach considers migration as a control variable, in other words it assumes that it will be possible to control the volume and age distribution of inflows and outflows. Migration policy might give greater importance to age-linked criteria, which already exist explicitly or implicitly, in admitting immigrants. However, there are many factors that both limit and complicate the ability to control immigration: agreements on free movement of persons, humanitarian commitments and other obligations, such as that to grant admission for residence on the basis of family ties, as well as the persistence of illegal immigration. Furthermore, immigration policies focusing primarily on immigrants' age or fertility may be seen as a form of discrimination.
- Experience shows that migration policies can have an impact on the number and characteristics of immigrants, but that they can have virtually no effect on returns, hence the difficulty of controlling the volume and composition of net migration.
- The simulations produced by the United Nations Population Division in the report entitled *Replacement Migration: Is it a Solution to Declining and Ageing Populations?* (United Nations, 2000) demonstrate that immigration cannot on its own provide an answer to population ageing. The simulations most frequently cited, where the aim is to keep the dependency ratio steady until 2050, entail a considerable increase in migration. For instance, the migration balances for the United States and the European Union countries would have to be at least ten times the annual average of inflows calculated on the basis of data available for the 1990s. They also entail an extraordinary increase in the total population and in the proportion of immigrants in that population.

So should the idea of using immigration to alleviate the imbalance in the age structure be rejected?

There can be no doubt that immigration can help to prevent a decrease in population for a limited time, although it can only be expected to have a marginal impact on the anticipated imbalance in the age structure. To achieve a more significant impact, migration policy would have to be adjusted significantly so as to contribute, *inter alia*, to the objective of labour market adjustment and a more balanced age structure.

Even if a desire for change clearly exists (as has been perceptible recently in Germany, and perhaps within the European Union as well), immigration policy is often politically sensitive. In many countries there is usually some flexibility within existing legislation that allows variations in the volume and composition of immigration intakes as well as choice in the distribution of resources across the range of activities related to migration policy (control of flows, selective recruitment and integration). Some countries already have a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach towards immigration (notably Australia and Canada) including age-related selection criteria for some categories of immigrant. Other countries do not use age-linked criteria explicitly, but their migration system and the way it is implemented affects the age distribution of inflows. This is the case with the preference system in the United States. It is also the case in Europe, in particular, via the regularisation programmes that primar ily benefit only economically active immigrants. Lastly, other countries, if they decided to shift to a permanent immigration policy, may find that new immigration programmes and a change in approach to immigration policy would be required.

One of the questions still unresolved, however, is the scope for shaping a migration policy that will reconcile the long-term demographic objective and the need to safeguard labour market equilibrium over the short and medium term. While this raises relatively few problems against a backdrop of economic expansion, it is far more problematic in a period of recession. In addition, such migration policy should be openly based on convergent strategic interests between countries affected by demographic decline and those experiencing population growth. Such policies are available, but the motivation for putting them into practice is as yet insufficient.

B. IMMIGRANTS AND THE LABOUR MARKET

In general, trends in the foreign labour force and its labour market characteristics (participation, sectoral distribution, unemployment) are not only the result of the profile of new migration flows, but also of the economic and institutional changes that have taken place during the period under consideration. In particular, changes in the conditions required to obtain naturalisation and the demographic contribution of new generations of foreigners entering the labour market can have a considerable impact on the size of the foreign labour force. Similarly, the history of immigration and changes in the characteristics of the production system and the legislation on the status of immigrants and their labour market access all affect the trend of the participation rate and the sectoral distribution of jobs.

The upturn in economic activity in the OECD area has had a major impact on employment in Member countries in recent years, particularly in the EU countries and Korea. For example, between 1999 and 2000 the overall unemployment rate fell by four-tenths of a point (and by nine-tenths of a point for the European Union). Over the same period total employment rose by 1.3% in the United States and by 2% in the European Union, falling by 0.2% in Japan. According to OECD forecasts (OECD, 2001*a*), these trends should continue in 2001 and 2002, but at a more moderate pace.

1. Foreigners' contribution to the labour force is increasing

Over the last five years, the proportion of foreigners or the foreign-born in the total labour force has increased significantly in a number of OECD countries, notably in Southern Europe, Luxembourg and the United States (see Table I.13). By contrast, the proportion declined slightly in France, Germany and the Netherlands between 1994 and 1999.

Classified by the size of the foreign or foreign-born share of total employment, three groups of countries could be distinguished in 1999: a first group made up (in descending order) of Luxembourg, Australia, Canada and Switzerland, with shares of between 57 and 18%; a second group, made up of the United States, Austria, Germany, Belgium and France where the shares were at an intermediate level, between about 12 and 6%; and a third group made up of the United Kingdom, Ireland, the Netherlands and the Nordic and Southern European countries with the foreign shares of total employment at less than 5%.

Table I.13. **Foreign or foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1994 and 1999**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign labour force				
	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source data
	1994[1]	1999	1994	1999	
Austria	368	368	9.6	9.5	LFS
Belgium	335	382	8.1	8.7	LFS
Czech Republic	91	152	1.7	2.9	WP
Denmark	48	72	1.7	2.5	LFS
Finland	18	31	0.7	1.2	LFS
France	1 590	1 592	6.4	6.1	LFS
Germany	3 543	3 460	9.0	8.7	LFS
Greece	66	171	1.6	3.8	LFS
Hungary	20	28	0.5	0.7	WP
Ireland	41	58	2.9	3.4	LFS
Italy	307	748	1.5	3.6	WP
Japan[2]	600	670	0.9	1.0	E
Korea	31	93	0.2	0.4	R
Luxembourg[3]	106	146	51.0	57.3	WP
Netherlands	290	268	4.0	3.4	LFS
Norway	59	68	2.7	2.9	LFS
Portugal	78	92	1.6	1.8	WP
Slovak Republic	4	4	. .	. .	WP
Spain	122	173	0.8	1.0	WP
Sweden	186	181	4.1	4.1	LFS
Switzerland	740	701	18.9	18.1	R
United Kingdom	1 030	1 132	3.6	3.9	LFS
	Foreign-born labour force				
	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source data
	1994[1]	1999	1994	1999	
Australia	2 164	2 310	24.8	24.6	LFS
Canada	2 839	. .	19.2	. .	C
United States	12 900	16 114	9.8	11.7	LFS

1. Data for Austria, Finland, Norway and Sweden refer to 1995; to 1996 for Canada.
2. Including overstayers; excluding permanent workers.
3. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included.

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

For Japan and Korea, less than 1% of the total labour force is of foreign origin.

On the whole, this classification mirrors foreigners' share in the total population, with some differences due to the relative importance of naturalisations and the family component in migration flows across countries.

Although the admission of permanent foreign workers is currently very limited, particularly into the European Member countries of the OECD, the use of temporary foreign labour seems to be expanding and countries are implementing policies to facilitate it (see Table I.2 above). The use of temporary foreign labour enhances host countries' labour market flexibility and may help to alleviate sectoral labour shortages. This is particularly true in the new technology sectors, in which many countries are experiencing shortages of skilled and highly skilled workers. An increase in temporary labour migration may also encourage some employers, particularly those engaged in seasonal activities, to make less use of undocumented foreigners.

2. Participation rates of foreigners by gender and place of birth: persistent imbalances

In 1999-2000, as in previous years, the participation rates of foreigners varied markedly by gender (see Table I.14). The participation rate of

Table I.14. **Participation rate and unemployment rate of nationals and foreigners by sex in selected OECD countries, 1999-2000 average**

	Participation rate				Unemployment rate			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	80.5	86.1	63.1	63.4	4.3	8.3	4.2	9.2
Belgium	74.1	73.0	58.2	40.7	5.3	16.6	8.5	20.1
Czech Republic	80.4	88.6	64.4	61.6	7.2	8.2	10.3	10.1
Denmark	85.6	73.2	77.2	53.8	4.0	13.0	5.4	8.5
Finland	79.8	81.1	74.4	58.0	10.4	27.0	12.1	28.0
France	75.6	76.4	63.5	48.5	8.7	19.7	12.5	25.7
Germany	80.1	77.9	64.8	49.9	7.3	14.9	8.4	13.2
Greece	78.9	89.3	50.3	57.6	7.4	7.6	17.2	18.5
Ireland	81.1	76.1	55.7	54.4	5.0	6.3	4.7	7.7
Italy	74.8	89.0	46.3	52.1	8.6	5.3	15.5	16.9
Luxembourg	75.5	77.9	47.3	56.7	1.2	2.8	2.3	4.3
Netherlands	84.8	67.2	66.4	44.6	2.2	7.7	3.9	10.5
Norway	86.0	84.5	77.7	70.7	3.4	5.9	3.2	3.6
Portugal	83.7	81.3	66.7	68.5	3.5	9.6	4.9	11.2
Slovak Republic	76.6	79.5	62.6	63.9	17.7	24.4	17.3	8.5
Spain	77.2	83.8	49.8	57.3	10.3	13.2	21.7	17.7
Sweden	80.5	65.1	75.3	59.4	6.6	17.5	5.5	14.9
Switzerland	93.0	89.6	74.8	68.4	1.6	5.6	2.5	7.0
United Kingdom	84.9	76.2	69.2	56.0	6.3	10.9	4.9	8.3
Australia (August 2000)[1]	75.3	67.3	58.9	49.1	6.6	6.4	5.6	6.7
Canada (1996)[1]	73.8	68.4	60.2	52.9	10.3	9.9	9.5	11.6
Hungary[1]	67.9	73.0	52.5	53.2	7.4	5.5	6.0	5.6
United States (March 2000)[1]	73.4	79.6	61.6	53.7	4.4	4.5	4.2	5.5

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

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

foreign or foreign-born women was systematically lower than for men, and also generally lower than for nationals. The differences were particularly marked in Italy, Greece and Belgium, and in the Czech Republic. The position is similar for nationals, but the gap is often far smaller. In France, for example, the discrepancy between male and female participation rates is 12 points for nationals and 28 points for foreigners; the figures are 16 and 32% in Belgium, and 15 and 28% in Germany. The gap may be still greater for some communities where female participation rates are also low in the country of origin. That is the case, for example, with communities from Turkey, from North Africa and the Middle East, and from Afghanistan.

The discrepancy between participation rates for native and foreign females is greatest (over 20%) in Denmark and the Netherlands, probably on account of the comparatively large numbers of refugees. Conversely, in the Southern European countries (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain), which are new immigration countries, and in Luxembourg, where employment-related immigration is predominant, the activity rate of foreign women was higher than for nationals.

For men, on the whole, the activity rate is also higher for nationals than for foreigners, but the differences are smaller. The gap is over 10 points in just two countries, Sweden and the Netherlands. In addition, in a number of OECD countries the activity rate of foreigners is higher than for nationals, notably in Austria, France, Finland and the Southern European countries. In the European OECD countries, the activity rate of foreign EU nationals is closer to that of nationals, and generally slightly higher.

It is important to bear in mind that a cross-section analysis does not take into account the fact that participation rates also depend on the length of stay. Indeed, the differences according to place of birth, nationality, and gender, generally tend to reduce considerably beyond a period of stay of ten years (see Box I.6).

Box I.6. Labour market integration of immigrants: some case studies

Research performed in Australia on the basis of longitudinal surveys of immigrants shows that their labour market integration improves as their stay becomes longer (Vandenheuvel and Wooden,2000; Richardson, Robertson and Ilsley, 2001). The degree of employability within the various waves of migration reviewed rose very markedly. For instance, after three and a half years in Australia, around six immigrants in ten were in employment; and the initial unemployment rate fell sharply, halving after 18 months' stay.

There is very little similar research on European countries. In the United Kingdom, recent research (Home Office 2001, RDS Occasional Paper No. 67) confirms the same trend towards labour market integration, but although immigrant activity rates rose they were still lower than those for nationals. It also shows that the average earnings of immigrants aged 25-30 were lower than for natives in the same age group, but after ten years were higher than for natives, with the gap increasing thereafter. The paper concludes that in the short term immigrants face difficulties in entering the labour market, but over the long term migration has beneficial effects.

In Denmark, Husted and others (2000) show, using data from population registers (1984-95) and an employment-wage model to control selection bias, that the probability of obtaining a job rises sharply with length of stay, even for refugees. After five to ten years, other things being equal, refugees, immigrants and people born in Denmark have virtually the same probability of being in work. Significant differences remain, however, by nationality and in terms of earnings.

Research based on US data, mostly from the census, yields rather more ambiguous findings. This work, launched by Chiswick (1978), focuses on relative trends in immigrant earnings, but identifies several distinct indicators of assimilation. Borjas (1999) presents an overview which shows *i*) that earnings are positively dependent on length of stay (around +10% over 10 years and +18% over 20 years) and *ii*) that the earnings gap between nationals and immigrants declines by about six percentage points over the first ten years and by 9.9 points over the first twenty. Recent research, employing data from other sources, indicates however that the degree of assimilation is heavily over-estimated in the cross-section work and that the growth of immigrant earnings is not in fact more than 10-12% over the first twenty years (Johannsson and Weiler, 2001). In fact, Borjas (1996) also finds, from examining the earnings of Mexican immigrants between 1970 and 1990, that the process of assimilation does not enable Mexicans to reach levels of earnings comparable to US nationals, including those with minimal education.

3. Recent developments in the employment of foreigners and the increasing presence of foreign labour in the service sector

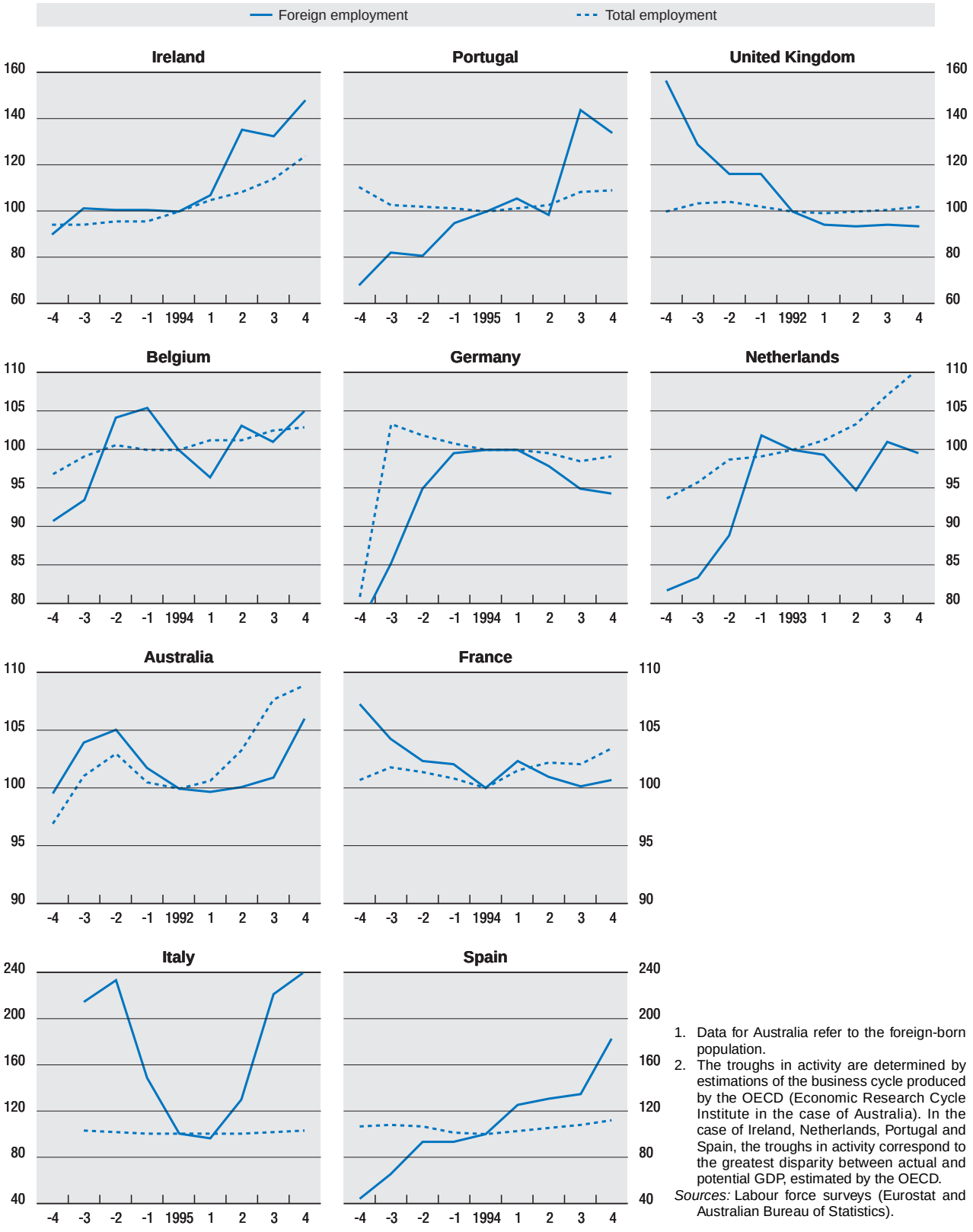
Chart I.10 makes it possible to compare developments in the employment of foreigners with those in total employment over a period of eight years, centred on the year marking the start of the economic upturn in the countries reviewed. Foreigners' employment fluctuates more markedly than total employment. Specifically, the upturns in Spain, Italy, Portugal and Ireland were accompanied by comparatively stronger growth in the employment of foreigners. Over the last decade the last two countries have experienced a reversal in migration flows and, in the second half of the period, steady growth in labour demand. In Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom the upturns in economic activity appear to have been less favourable to foreigners. In the case of France the number of foreign workers continued to decline throughout the period, with the exception of 1995. In Australia the trend in foreigners' employment has followed that of the economic cycle.

Table I.15 presents an overview of the sectoral distribution of foreign workers in 1999-2000. In particular foreigners are over-represented in some areas, in the sense that they account for a higher proportion in the sector than they do in the country's total labour force. Over-representation is found in mining and manufacturing in Austria, Germany, Italy, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, and in Australia and Canada too. Foreigners are also over-represented in the construction sector – for example, in Austria, Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal.

Foreign labour is concentrated in the service sector; its use there is widespread but most notable in commerce, catering, education, health care, services to households and "other services". The lowest proportion is usually found in public administration, since most posts in this sector are open only to nationals. In the specific case of illegal employment of foreign workers, the information obtained in the course of regularisation programmes indicates that on average undocumented migrants are younger than the rest of the labour force and are widely distributed across the economy (see Box I.7).

Chart I.10. **Changes in foreign and total employment during economic recoveries**

Index: trough = 100[1, 2]



1. Data for Australia 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 (Eurostat and Australian Bureau of Statistics).

Table I.15. **Employment of foreigners by sectors, 1999-2000 average**

Percentages of total foreign employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining and manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.4	**27.5**	**12.0**	12.5	**11.6**	2.7	11.3	**0.8**	1.4	**19.0**
Belgium	1.7	**23.6**	**8.0**	**15.3**	**6.9**	3.3	12.4	**0.8**	9.2	18.9
Czech Republic	1.9	24.3	8.8	**27.4**	4.3	6.3	**10.4**	**0.9**	3.4	12.3
Denmark	3.1	19.5	2.4	12.8	**7.1**	5.4	**26.8**	…	3.8	19.2
Finland	4.3	16.8	3.6	**14.3**	**10.2**	**10.0**	19.0	**0.5**	0.6	**20.8**
France	3.0	19.6	**17.3**	11.9	**6.9**	3.1	8.7	**7.1**	2.6	19.7
Germany	1.5	**33.7**	9.0	12.5	**10.6**	2.7	12.3	**0.6**	2.1	15.0
Greece	3.4	**18.4**	**27.2**	10.9	**8.6**	2.0	4.2	**19.6**	0.8	5.0
Hungary	2.7	24.5	6.1	20.4	3.5	**10.8**	**13.5**	…	3.9	14.6
Ireland	2.5	18.8	7.6	8.8	**12.3**	**7.3**	**15.2**	**1.4**	1.7	**24.4**
Italy	5.4	**30.3**	**9.4**	11.0	**8.5**	3.2	6.7	**10.9**	2.5	12.0
Japan (June 1999)	0.3	59.8	2.2	8.0	[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	**29.6**
Luxembourg	0.8	10.3	**15.6**	13.1	**8.0**	2.5	9.3	**4.0**	11.2	25.2
Netherlands	2.4	**24.4**	4.3	13.9	**6.1**	5.9	12.4	0.2	4.1	**26.3**
Norway	1.8	**18.2**	4.8	13.3	**7.1**	7.7	**25.4**	**0.5**	2.9	18.3
Portugal	2.7	17.3	**25.2**	10.0	**9.6**	5.8	**10.3**	**6.8**	1.7	**10.5**
Slovak Republic	**7.6**	22.7	3.5	**13.8**	…	**12.9**	**17.0**	…	4.9	**17.6**
Spain	**7.8**	10.9	9.4	12.6	**14.9**	5.1	8.1	**18.0**	0.9	12.3
Sweden	1.8	**21.4**	1.9	12.7	**8.5**	**9.5**	23.1	…	2.1	19.1
Switzerland	1.4	**23.1**	**9.8**	16.5	**5.5**	4.6	**17.1**	**1.6**	3.3	17.2
United Kingdom	0.3	13.8	5.1	11.6	**9.9**	8.3	**20.2**	**1.6**	4.2	**25.1**
Australia (August 2000)[2]	2.1	**18.8**	7.9	16.2	**6.2**	6.1	12.0	3.2	3.1	**24.4**
Canada (1996)[2]	2.4	**19.6**	5.0	24.1	[1]	[3]	24.6	. .	3.8	**20.4**
United States (1998-99)[2]	**3.6**	**18.6**	6.1	**22.9**	[1]	[3]	2.2	**2.0**	20.8	23.7

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreigners are over-represented.

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

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, US Bureau of the Census.

Box I.7. 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 OECD, 2000) has identified the main sectors involved. These are agriculture, construction and civil engineering, small-scale industry, tourism, hotels and catering, and services to households and to business, including computer services.

Accompanying the declining share of agriculture and industry in gross domestic product in most of the industrialised countries, illegal immigrants have become very much involved in the services sector, where their presence has coincided with a rise in total employment. Seasonal tourism, retail trading and catering, where long hours have to be worked, are key 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 provides openings for undocumented workers, as does undeclared work in science and language teaching by skilled undocumented foreigners (the case notably in Italy and France).

The growth in outsourcing in most OECD countries may also favour the recruitment of undocumented immigrants. It has enabled firms in many sectors to evade their social security contributions as well as the 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 free-lancers.

Illegal employment of foreigners reflects to a certain degree rigidities in the labour market, particularly in terms of the flexibility and adjustment of production structures. It also reflects the problems of dealing with the underground economy.

A sectoral analysis of the trend in total and foreign employment between 1994-95 and 1998-99 for selected European and other OECD Member countries supplements this overview (see Chart I.11). We find an initial group of countries, including the new immigration countries in Southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) and Ireland, where the employment of foreigners has risen across all sectors. The United Kingdom could also be placed in this group, though it shows more marked growth in foreign employment in services. A second group contains countries with a longer-standing tradition of migration such as Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands. Here foreign labour is being reallocated towards sectors where it had previously been less strongly represented. This is particularly so in agriculture in Belgium and the Netherlands and services to households and "other services" in Austria, France and Germany. The process is going hand in hand with a higher concentration of national labour in sales, the development of new technologies, and social services.

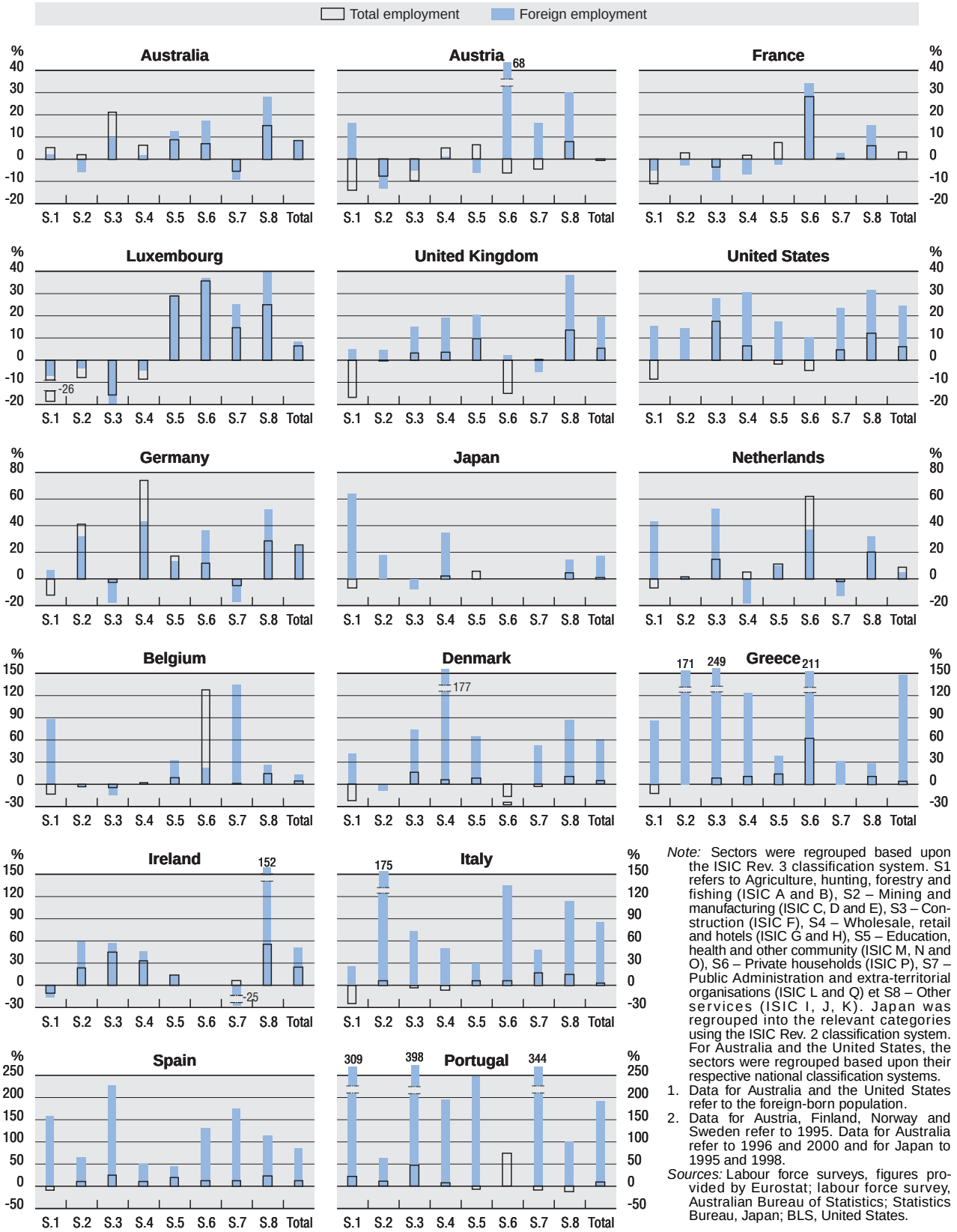
On the whole, the distribution of foreign and national employment is moving closer together. This trend means that the integration of foreigners into the labour market is tending to increase. In the European OECD countries, for example, with the arrival of second-generation young people on the labour market, generally with higher levels of education and training than their parents, the jobs available to young foreigners are moving closer to "national-profile" jobs, different from those held by first-generation immigrants.

4. Foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals

In general, foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals. The sources of this greater vulnerability are multiple. In almost all of the European Member countries of the OECD (except in Italy, Hungary and the Slovak Republic) the extent of unemployment among the foreign-born population is greater than the proportion of the labour force for which they account. Chart I.12 shows that the discrepancy was greatest in the Netherlands in 1999-2000. It is also substantial in Sweden, Portugal, Finland, Belgium, Denmark and Switzerland. In each of these countries unemployment among foreigners is twice or more that among the total labour force.

The rate of unemployment among foreign women (see Table I.14) is, in general, higher than that of their male counterparts; the exceptions are

Chart I.11. **Growth of foreign and total employment by economic activity between 1994-1995 and 1998-1999**[1, 2]

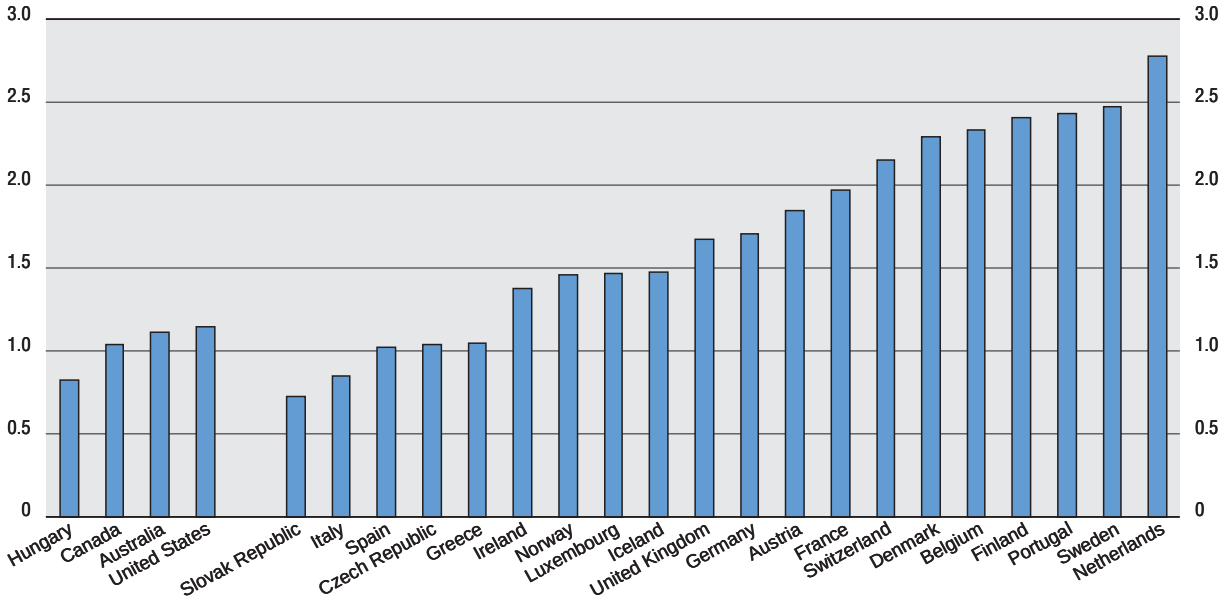


Note: Sectors were regrouped based upon the ISIC Rev. 3 classification system. S1 refers to Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (ISIC A and B), S2 – Mining and manufacturing (ISIC C, D and E), S3 – Construction (ISIC F), S4 – Wholesale, retail and hotels (ISIC G and H), S5 – Education, health and other community (ISIC M, N and O), S6 – Private households (ISIC P), S7 – Public Administration and extra-territorial organisations (ISIC L and Q) et S8 – Other services (ISIC I, J, K). Japan was regrouped into the relevant categories using the ISIC Rev. 2 classification system. For Australia and the United States, the sectors were regrouped based upon their respective national classification systems.

1. Data for Australia and the United States refer to the foreign-born population.
2. Data for Austria, Finland, Norway and Sweden refer to 1995. Data for Australia refer to 1996 and 2000 and for Japan to 1995 and 1998.

Sources: Labour force surveys, figures provided by Eurostat; labour force survey, Australian Bureau of Statistics; Statistics Bureau, Japan; BLS, United States.

Chart I.12. **Proportion of foreigners in total unemployment relative to their share in the labour force**
1999-2000 average



Note: Foreign-born population for Australia, Canada, Hungary and the United States.
August 1999 for Australia; 1996 for Canada; March 1998 for the United States; 1999 for Hungary and 1998 for the Slovak Republic.
Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat and Australian Bureau of Statistics); 1996 Census (Statistics Canada); Current population survey (US Bureau of the Census).

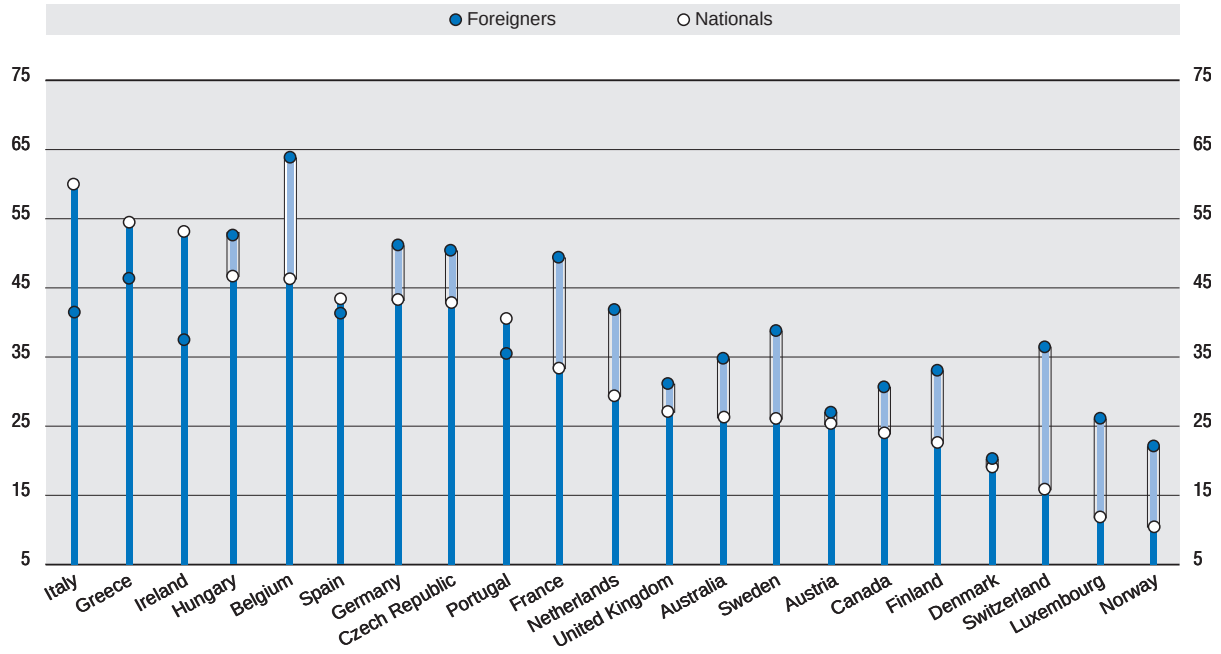
Denmark, Germany, Norway, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, the differential between the unemployment rates of foreign men and their native counterparts is greater than that between foreign and native women. In the settlement countries (Australia, Canada and the United States), the discrepancy between the unemployment rates of those born inside and those born outside the country is considerably lower than that observed between foreigners and nationals in Europe.

Foreigners are also heavily represented in long-term unemployment (see Chart I.13). In Belgium, for example, nearly 65% of unemployed foreigners have been without work for more than a year, as against 45% for nationals. The observation is also applicable, although to a lesser extend, to Australia and Canada. In the countries of recent immigration in Southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) where employment-related migration predominates, foreigners are less represented than nationals in long-term unemployment.

The differences between the unemployment rates of foreigners and nationals (see Table I.14), and the fact that foreigners are affected by unemployment in differing degrees according to their national origins, are due to a series of factors. They include, most notably, changes in economic performance and the nature of the posts occupied by foreigners. They also depend on the demographic structure of the foreign population and the order of the various waves of migration into the host country. The profile of the immigrants has an important bearing on their degree of employability: variables such as age, gender, nationality, level of education, training and experience, mastery of the host country's language and length of stay in the host country play a non unimportant role among the factors which explain the degree of vulnerability to unemployment.

The possibility for family members, under certain conditions, to enter host country labour markets means that some of them swell the numbers of new entries onto the labour market, and sometimes have difficulty in finding an initial job or re-entering the

Chart I.13. **Percentage of long-term unemployment according to nationality**
1999-2000 average[1, 2]



1. Data for Australia and Canada refer to foreign-born and native populations.
2. Population aged 15 and over with the exception of Australia (15-64).
Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat and the Australian Bureau of Statistics); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada.

labour market. Furthermore, those who have entered as refugees or as asylum seekers have, when they are permitted to work, considerable difficulties (notably linguistic) in some host countries in finding employment during the early years of their stay.

5. Foreign employment and labour market equilibrium

Foreign labour plays a special role in the equilibrium of labour markets in OECD countries. This role has been analysed more fully in the 2001 edition of the OECD *Employment Outlook*. It can be understood only by bearing in mind the characteristics of the migrants and the economic circumstances prevailing in the host country. Foreign employment also has a different role to play over the economic cycle.

During periods of marked labour market imbalances, as have occurred over the past two decades in some European countries, some people have at times sought to establish a causal link between immigration and unemployment. Classifying OECD countries in terms of their unemployment rates and the relative sizes of their foreign population, shows in countries such as Finland, Italy and Spain, where unemployment rates are relatively high, that foreigners account for very low proportions of the total population. Conversely, countries such as Luxembourg, Switzerland and the United States, where the foreign population forms a relatively high percentage of the total population, have low unemployment rates. The chart presentation, though no proof in itself, does seem to be confirmed by the findings of more detailed empirical studies which indicate that no link between immigration and unemployment can be established (see OECD, 2001*b*).

There are several reasons for this. Firstly, new immigrants are also consumers and the satisfaction of their needs entails expanded employment. They accordingly raise the demand for goods and services (notably accommodation and food) whether or not

they subsequently raise the labour supply. Secondly, except in very special circumstances such as the repatriations from Algeria to France in 1962 and from Angola to Portugal in the early 1970s and the arrivals of Cubans in Miami in 1980, the inflows are extremely small compared to the labour force already in the country. Finally, most of the research which has made empirical estimates generally concludes that immigrant or foreign labour is complementary to, rather than a substitute for, that of nationals.

Most of the econometric studies undertaken in the United States, Australia and Europe have concluded that immigration does not lead to a decrease in the incomes of nationals. These conclusions are all the more robust for having been based on a wide variety of data sources and methodological approaches. Studies show that the impact of foreigners on the labour market is always positive for all categories of labour with the exception in the case of the United States of earlier migrant waves and in Europe of some low-skilled groups. Given that the labour market characteristics of those groups are similar, they are in direct competition. Nevertheless, though the impact can be negative it is very small. Accordingly, immigration cannot be held responsible for labour market disequilibria, although foreign workers in some OECD Member countries do seem relatively more vulnerable to cyclical downturns.

In periods of expansion, foreign labour seems to have a twofold impact on the equilibrium and dynamics of the labour market. It provides a response to greater demand for labour, in particular at periods when it is rising very strongly. Further, it assists the reassignment of nationals' employment to more dynamic and attractive sectors. The latter effect ties in with the theory of labour market segmentation, under which activities at the bottom of the social scale exert little attraction and display chronic labour shortages, which foreign workers are ready to fill. In countries where the geographical and sectoral mobility of the native population is limited, foreign workers may also introduce greater flexibility to the labour market and hence assist its development. There are, however difficulties in establishing a migration policy principally designed to respond to short-term labour market requirements.

The contribution of immigration to long-term growth is not confined to its quantitative impact on increases in the labour force; it is also reflected in its qualitative impact in terms of human capital accumulation. In the present context of growth in OECD Member countries, labour shortages are particularly marked in information and communications technologies. Most OECD Member countries have in fact already amended their legislation in order to facilitate the admission of skilled and highly skilled workers (see Appendix at the end of Part I).

C. RECENT TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN ASIA AND CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

The 2000 edition of *Trends in International Migration* focused mainly on migration flows in Asia. In the current report, particular attention is accorded to migration flows of Asian origin to OECD countries. Many OECD Member countries count among their population a significant number of immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe (CEEC) and other countries of the East. The pending membership of certain CEECs to the European Union is arousing concern over increasing flows from the CEECs and towards Member countries of the European Union. However, this apprehension seems unjustified as demonstrated by the majority of studies analysing the prospective migratory flows as a result of the enlargement of the European Union. Moreover, certain CEECs have become progressively migration countries. The present report will examine in detail these two themes.

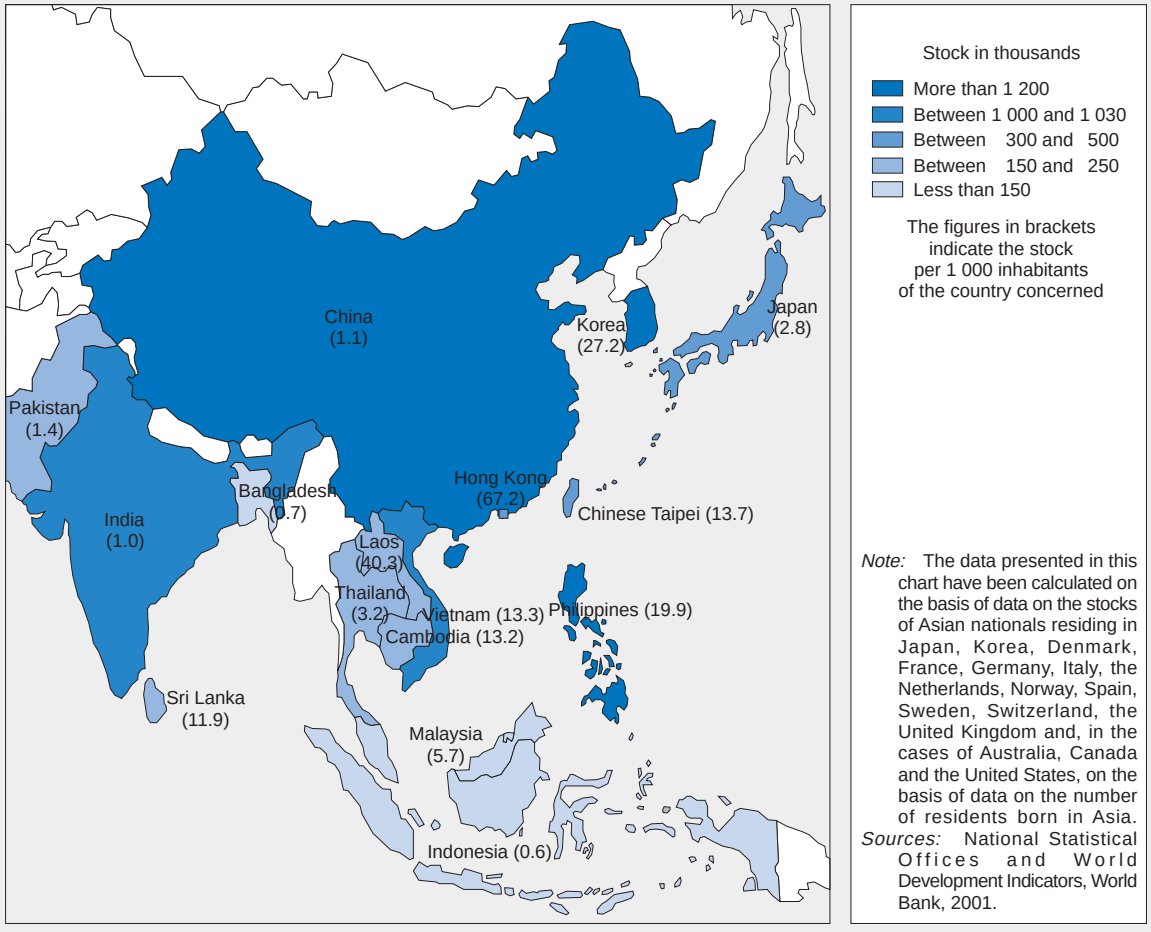
1. Recent developments in Asian migration to OECD countries[1]

a) Asian migration to OECD countries is following a rising trend and an increasing diversification in the categories of entries

Asia has for some time been one of the chief sources of immigration towards the OECD area (see Map I.4). Recent migration movements from the region to OECD countries have been characterised by two clear trends: on the one hand, a strengthening of the traditional steady flows, and on the other, a widening of the range of destination countries, immigrant nationalities and the categories under which they enter.

Several OECD countries, in particular the United States, Canada, Australia, France and the United Kingdom, have for many years received flows of immigrants or refugees from Asia. In the case of the United Kingdom these are principally from the Indian sub-continent and are strongly linked to the country's colonial past. Similarly, the ex-French colonies supply large communities of immigrants from South-East Asian origin. Since the early 1960s, East and South-

Map I.4. **Asia: main countries of origin of immigrants residing in OECD countries in 1999**



East Asian migration flows to the United States, Canada and Australia has regularly increased, gradually supplanting the importance of those from Europe.

Immigration flows from Asia towards North America and Australia surpass those from Europe

From the early 1980s onwards, flows from Asia to the United States, Canada, Australia and several European countries began to intensify. In North America and in Australia, the increase in flows of Asian provenance has gone hand in hand with the reduction in the numbers of those coming from Europe. Emigration from Hong Kong (China) was an important initial source of this intensification: between 1984 and 1997, some 600 000 people left the province motivated largely by fear of Chinese rule. The majority took up residence in Canada, Australia and the United States. In the years immediately prior to the handover in 1997, the figure fell reflecting that most of those who were worried about Hong Kong's political stability had already left; the smooth handover has had the effect of limiting further emigration.

In Australia, residents born in Asia accounted for less than 6% of the total foreign-born population in 1971; the corresponding figure for those born in Europe was 85%. Over the last fifteen years, the foreign population of Asian provenance (including the Middle East) has more than doubled, passing from close to 400 000 in 1981 to reach a figure of nearly one million in 1996. Although those of European origin continue to account for the majority of the foreign population (almost two thirds), those of Asian origin now account for just over a quarter of the total (see Table I.16). The increase in Asia's importance as

Table I.16. **A. Stock of Asian nationals[1] in selected OECD countries in 1999**

Thousands and percentages

	Japan[2]		Denmark		France (1990)		Germany		Italy		Korea	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreigners	**1 556.1**	**100.0**	**259.4**	**100.0**	**3 596.6**	**100.0**	**7 343.6**	**100.0**	**1 252.0**	**100.0**	**189.3**	100.0
of which:												
Bangladesh	6.6	0.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.5	0.1	14.8	1.2	6.7	3.6
China	294.2	18.9	2.5	1.0	14.1	0.4	42.9	0.6	47.1	3.8	39.7	21.0
India	9.1	0.6	1.3	0.5	4.6	0.1	34.3	0.5	25.6	2.0	. .	. .
Indonesia	16.4	1.1	. .	. .	1.3	–	10.8	0.1	0.7	0.1	13.6	7.2
Malaysia	7.1	0.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.2	–	0.3	–	. .	. .
Korea	636.5	40.9	. .	. .	4.3	0.1	21.5	0.3	3.7	0.3	–	–
Pakistan	6.6	0.4	7.1	2.7	9.8	0.3	38.3	0.5	13.7	1.1	1.8	0.9
Philippines	115.7	7.4	2.1	0.8	1.9	0.1	24.7	0.3	61.0	4.9	10.8	5.7
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	4.9	1.9	10.3	0.3	55.1	0.8	29.9	2.4	2.2	1.2
Thailand	25.3	1.6	4.1	1.6	. .	. .	34.9	0.5	2.1	0.2	1.8	1.0
Vietnam	14.9	1.0	5.0	1.9	33.7	0.9	85.4	1.2	1.1	0.1	10.0	5.3
Total for the above 11 countries	**1 132.3**	**72.8**	**27.0**	**8.8**	**80.0**	**2.2**	**357.6**	**4.9**	**199.9**	**16.0**	**86.8**	**45.8**

	Netherlands		Norway		Spain		Sweden		Switzerland		United Kingdom	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreigners	**651.5**	**100.0**	**178.7**	**100.0**	**801.3**	**100.0**	**487.2**	**100.0**	**1 368.7**	**100.0**	**2 342**	**100.0**
of which:												
Bangladesh	0.3	0.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1	0.2	0.5	–	55	2.3
China	8.2	1.3	1.3	0.7	24.7	3.1	4.2	0.9	5.9	0.4	22	0.9
India	3.2	0.5	2.2	1.2	8.5	1.1	1.6	0.3	5.4	0.4	153	6.5
Indonesia	8.7	1.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.1	1.1	0.1	. .	. .
Malaysia	1.1	0.2	. .	. .	. .		0.7	0.1	0.9	0.1	22	0.9
Korea	1.1	0.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.1	1.1	0.1	. .	. .
Pakistan	2.9	0.4	7.4	4.1	. .	. .	0.8	0.2	1.7	0.1	94	4.0
Philippines	2.4	0.4	1.8	1.0	13.8	1.7	1.8	0.4	5.0	0.4	20	0.9
Sri Lanka	1.5	0.2	3.4	1.9	. .	. .	0.9	0.2	18.0	1.3	43	1.8
Thailand	2.5	0.4	. .	. .	. .		5.5	1.1	5.1	0.4	. .	. .
Vietnam	1.5	0.2	2.5	1.4	. .	. .	2.6	0.5	4.8	0.4	. .	. .
Total for the above 11 countries	**33.5**	**5.0**	**18.5**	**10.3**	**47.0**	**4.8**	**20.1**	**4.1**	**49.5**	**3.6**	**409**	**17.5**

B. Stock of immigrants born in an Asian country in Australia, Canada and the United States

Thousands and percentages

	Australia (1999)[3]		Canada (1996)[4]		United States (1990)[4]	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreign-born	**4 482.0**	**100.0**	**4 971.1**	**100.0**	**19 767.3**	**100.0**
of which:						
China	156.8	3.5	231.1	4.6	529.8	2.7
Hong Kong (China)	62.0	1.4	241.1	4.8	147.1	0.7
India	100.7	2.2	235.9	4.7	450.4	2.3
Indonesia	65.8	1.5	. .	. .	. .	. .
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	290.1	1.5
Korea	40.2	0.9	. .	. .	568.4	2.9
Malaysia	94.8	2.1	. .	. .	. .	. .
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Philippines	116.9	2.6	184.6	3.7	912.7	4.6
Sri Lanka	56.4	1.3	. .	. .	. .	. .
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	49.3	1.0	244.1	1.2
Vietnam	175.2	3.9	139.3	2.8	543.3	2.7
Total for the above 12 countries	**868.8**	**19.4**	**1 081.2**	**21.8**	**3 685.9**	**18.6**

1. Data are from population registers (or registers of foreigners) except for France (census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).
2. Data for China include Chinese Taipei.
3. Estimates.
4. Census data.

Source: National Statistical Institutes and New Cronos database (Eurostat).

a region of origin is brought into sharp relief by an examination of the composition of the inflows. Whereas in the 1982/83 fiscal year approximately 30% of the immigrants authorised to settle in Australia were Asian, by 1991/92 that figure had reached 50%. This upward trend was then moderated slightly by increased inflows from Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union; having fallen back to just over 32% in 1998/99, the proportion increased once more in 1999/00 to just under 34%.

Immigration from Asia has also increased in Canada: from 1993 to 1997, more than half of immigrant entries were from Asian countries; having dipped below that proportion in 1998 (a fall linked to the non-use of roughly 15 000 immigrant visas for investors) it rose above 50% once more in 1999. Between 1995 and 1998, the six most important source countries of new immigrants were Asian [China, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), India, Pakistan and the Philippines]; in 1999 they were joined by a seventh, Korea the inflows of whose nationals have more than doubled since 1996. The increasing importance of Asian countries, which has accompanied declines in the flows from Europe and the United States, has been such that whereas in 1981 the number of immigrants born in Asia (including the Middle East) stood at close to 540 000, *i.e.*, 14% of the total immigrant population, by the 1996 census they accounted for almost a third of the total; that proportion is certainly even higher now.

The same phenomenon – a decline in European migration and an increase in flows from Asia – is clearly in evidence in the United States. The immigrant population of Asian origin (including the Middle East) numbered approximately 7 million in March 2000, an increase of 40% on 1990 and almost three times the 1980 figure. Since 1992 Asia has consistently accounted for nearly one third of new immigrants. In 1998, five Asian countries (in decreasing order of importance, China, India, the Philippines, Vietnam and Korea) were among the top ten source countries for permanent immigrants.

The intensification of traditional flows from Asia is also apparent in the United Kingdom and, to a lesser degree, France. In the latter country, the proportion of Asian residents increased between the two censuses of 1982 and 1990 from 4 to 6% of the total foreign population. Cambodia, Vietnam and Laos are the principal sending countries. Over the same period, the number of Asians possessing French nationality doubled. As for the inflows by nationality, in 1993 only Vietnam featured in the top ten countries of origin; though by 1995 Vietnam had diminished in importance but Japan was now also represented, as China has been since 1997. In the United Kingdom, despite the stabilisation of their inflows for settlement at historically modest levels (primarily under the category of family reunion), India and Pakistan are still the principal source countries of Asia followed by Sri Lanka. Indians continue to constitute the second largest foreign community after the Irish (see above Chart I.4). Noteworthy has been the steady rise in the inflow from mainland China; having been almost negligible in the mid-1980s the inflow places it at present just outside the top 15 source countries.

The diversification of Asian migration flows

Alongside the overall intensification of immigration flows from Asia, the trend of the origin countries' increasing diversification is confirming itself as is the enlargement in the range of receiving countries.

In the United States, since the late-1980s, immigration flows from Cambodia, Laos and Thailand have steadily declined. Flows from Chinese Taipei and Hong Kong (China) have experienced a similar trend since the early 1990s, while those from Burma, Indonesia and Malaysia have been stable at approximately 1 000 per year. Conversely, flows from Bangladesh, India and Pakistan have experienced strong variations on a rising trend. Through to 1993, the inflow from mainland China grew strongly to reach almost 66 000 persons. Since this time it has diminished somewhat though it remains the second most important source country after Mexico.

In Canada, accompanying the declining importance of flows from Hong Kong (China), the importance of China has been increasing steadily since the opening of an immigration office in Beijing in 1995. Moreover, Iran and, most recently, Korea have been gaining in importance; both countries were again in the top ten in 1999 (see above Chart I.4). In Australia, whilst in 1999/00 the numbers of new settlers of Vietnamese and of Hong Kong (China) origin were approximately one tenth of the numbers at the start of the decade, and those from the Philippines and from Chinese Taipei were about one half of the start-of-decade figure, that from China was almost twice as high making it the third most important source country after New Zealand and the United Kingdom. As for the stocks, the num-

ber of residents of Chinese origin more than doubled between 1990 and 1999 to reach over 155 000 (Table B.1.5 of the Statistical Annex), those of Filipino origin numbered 117 000 in 1999 (against 71 500 in 1990). Over the same period, the number of migrants from Vietnam showed a slower progression but remained in absolute value the most important, reaching nearly 176 000 in 1999. In the same year in Malaysia, immigrants of Indian origin, represented a figure approaching 100 000 while those originating from Indonesia, from Hong Kong (China) and from Macao were close to 60 000.

The evolution of recent Asian migration to OECD countries is also characterised by increased diversity in the means of entry. The desire on the part of Member countries to increase the number of qualified and highly qualified entrants, to reflect the policy of the United States, Canada and Australia to offer entry opportunities other than family reunion (such as employment-related permanent immigration as well as entry for temporary work or study) has contributed to this diversification. In the United States, according to the latest available data, Asians make up one-third of new immigrants, but they account for a much higher proportion of the skilled migrant entries. In the 1998 fiscal year they made up half of immigrants receiving employment-related visas, almost 80% of those admitted for investment purposes and nearly 70% of those who were admitted as workers with the required skills, holding at least a bachelor's degree. They dominate student admissions and are an important component of the temporary foreign worker inflow, especially that of HI-B visa professionals. Moreover, many of the students and temporary foreign workers are "immigrants in waiting" since many apply for immigrant status after a period in the United States. In Australia too, the main modes of intake of skilled employees are dominated by Asians: they currently comprise 41% of the skilled immigrant intake, 57 % of overseas student visas and 32 % of those admitted with temporary business visas.

At the other end of the labour market, in OECD Member countries a significant number of low skilled jobs have been created. Such jobs tend to be rejected by the native workforce, even by those who have limited skills. The context in Asia is such that it would be able to supply the demands created this end of the labour market too, if the formalities of entry into OECD Member countries were to be put in place. This explains in large part the increase in illegal immigration from Asia to OECD countries; the rise in the illegal flows from mainland China being particularly perceptible. Most recently these flows appear to have been directed primarily (though by no means exclusively) towards Canada and the United States; there is strong evidence to suggest that a sizeable proportion of those illegally entering Canada are doing so with a view to crossing into the United States. The number of asylum applications lodged by Chinese citizens has been increasing across the OECD area and is a consequence of illegal immigration. Together with those from Afghanistan, Iraq and Sri Lanka, they account for a large proportion of the asylum requests currently being lodged in some OECD countries.

The diversification in migration flows of Asian provenance is also illustrated by the broadening of the range of destination countries. These now include a wider group of European countries. Intra-European migration, notably from Spain, Italy, Greece and Portugal, has declined since the 1970s, while flows from Asia have increased. Thus, Germany receives a large number of refugees from Indo-China (though lower than France and the United Kingdom). In 1999, of the 7.3 million foreigners residing in Germany, 85 400 were from Vietnam, 55 100 from Sri Lanka, 42 900 from China, 38 300 from Pakistan, 34 900 from Thailand and approximately the same number from India (see Table I.16). The 1980s saw an increase in the number of immigrants of Pakistani and Sri Lankan origin received by the Netherlands. In 1999, the Indonesians (despite the fact that most of them possess Dutch nationality) remained the largest Asian community, followed closely by the Chinese.

Asian migration to the Nordic countries, almost negligible until the 1970s, increased considerably during the second half of the 1980s, largely through requests for asylum. In Denmark, this immigration is primarily from Pakistan, Vietnam and Sri Lanka; in Finland, from Malaysia, India, Vietnam, China and Bangladesh. Immigration from Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Vietnam has also developed in Norway. In Sweden, immigration from Asia involves above all the Thais, the Vietnamese and the Chinese (see Table I.16).

In Southern Europe, Asian immigration is mainly from the Philippines and China. In Italy and Spain, these migration flows, essentially of females, are linked to the development of the domestic service and health-care sectors. In 1986, Italy had 65 000 foreign residents of Asian origin (including the Middle East). By 1999 this number had more than tripled and continues to increase. The most

numerous national groups of Asian origin, in decreasing order of size, were Filipinos (61 000), Chinese (47 100), Sri Lankans (29 900) and Indians (25 600). In Spain, the Chinese comprise the largest Asian community, followed by Filipinos and Indians.

Since the beginning of the 1980s, migration to Japan has increased significantly. Although non-Asian immigration has also grown in importance, migration movements to Japan are principally intra-regional. Indeed, an analysis of its 1999 immigration figures reveals that of the ten leading countries of origin, five were Asian (see above Chart I.4). Whereas in 1980, over three quarters of the foreigners settled in Japan were Korean, by the end of 1999 this proportion represented more than 40%. During the intervening period, the Chinese and Filipino communities in particular have developed; in all, Asians account for three quarters of the foreign population (a further 18% are South American, the overwhelming majority of whom of Japanese descent). Illegal immigration to Japan is also mostly from Asia (Korea, Thailand, China, the Philippines and Malaysia). In Korea, the number of registered foreign nationals has increased considerably since 1991, a development largely attributable to the normalisation of diplomatic relations with China. Notwithstanding, composed principally of Chinese, Taipei Chinese, Japanese, Filipino and Vietnamese nationals, the registered foreign population and the slightly smaller number of visa overstayers still accounted for less than 1% of the total population in 1999.

2. Trends in migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe[2]

Ten years after the political changes in Central and Eastern Europe, we can take stock of migration trends in the region. Analysing migration there is particularly relevant since a number of these countries will shortly be joining the European Union. They currently form a buffer zone on the margins of the EU, but will have a different role to play when EU borders shift eastwards. Analysis is complicated by the difficulty of collecting reliable data in countries undergoing far-reaching economic and administrative reforms, and also by the diversity of economic and social conditions in the region, including the countries of the former Yugoslavia and the NIS.

This diversity accounts to a considerable degree for the nature and scale of East-West movements and those within and towards the region. The analysis brings out a number of trends with regard both to East-West movements and to the characteristics of flows within the zone. The political and economic changes in 1990 led to sizeable migration movements and to concerns over the possibility of large-scale population transfers. These concerns have not been realised. Although emigration flows continue, notably towards Western Europe, it would appear that the central and eastern European countries (CEECs) are becoming the theatre of much more complex movements than a straightforward westward flow towards the European Union and North America.

Initially, between 1990 and 1992 there were significant movements of ethnic minorities. The opening of the borders also gave rise to movements by asylum seekers, which peaked between 1992 and 1993. Lastly, temporary migration became more significant than permanent migration.

Within the region there is currently an increase in the transit flows of people coming from elsewhere and seeking to enter Western Europe, and an increase in the flows of temporary workers. Irregular flows are also substantial and represent a major challenge to countries in the region. Refugee movements, which had fallen back since the early 1990s, rose again with the Kosovo crisis. Finally, permanent immigration is increasing in most of the CEECs.

An overview of migration trends in Central and Eastern Europe will first illustrate the development of East-West migration flows since 1990. An attempt will then be made to analyse emigration and immigration flows, and the characteristics of intra-regional migration.

a) *Development of migration flows towards the European OECD countries, the United States, Canada and Australia since* 1990

Increase in East-West flows following the opening of the borders

Central and Eastern Europe has traditionally been an area of emigration. Border changes and successive economic crises have given rise, since the 19th century, to population movements towards Western Europe and North America. After the second world war, emigration movements persisted despite the very restrictive border controls.

The largest emigration flows during the 1980s were from Poland (with some 800 000 people leaving

the country, chiefly for Germany) and Romania (300 000 Romanians left, chiefly to Hungary and the United States). With the exception of inter-German migration, flows from other countries in the region were on a lesser scale. These movements largely concerned ethnic minorities: around 500 000 people of German ethnic origin (*Aussiedler*) and Hungarian minorities were involved here.

A number of countries in Western Europe and North America have been longstanding hosts for most of the communities of Central and Eastern Europe (see Table I.17). Links with established emigrant communities may accordingly explain the direction, nature and size of the post-1989 East-West flows.

Shortly after the opening of the borders, East-West migration flows motivated by economic, political or ethnic reasons intensified (see Map I.5). Throughout the 1990s, flows of ethnic minorities into Western Europe largely went to Germany (around 620 000 *Aussiedler* from Poland, Russia and Romania), Turkey (over 100 000 Bulgarian nationals), Finland (around 20 000 persons of Finnish origin from Russia and Estonia since 1989) and Hungary (over 100 000 Hungarians from Romania, Slovakia, Ukraine and Voivodina since 1990).

Table I.17. **Top five nationalities of citizens from Central and Eastern Europe in selected OECD countries, 1999**

Thousands

Foreign citizens from Central and Eastern Europe in some European OECD countries

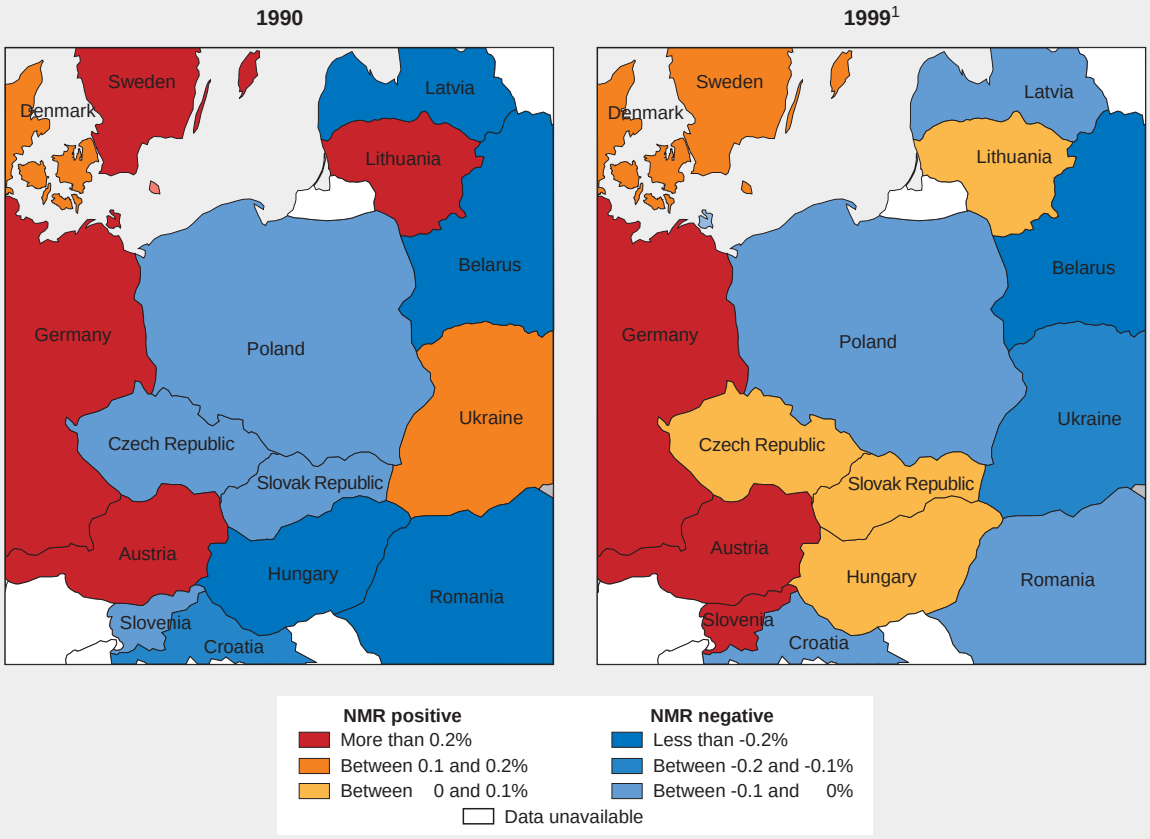
Austria (foreign workers)		Czech Republic		Germany	
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	77.1	Ukraine	65.9	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	737.2
Bosnia Herzegovina	34.2	Slovak Republic	40.4	Poland	291.7
Croatia	23.2	Poland	18.3	Croatia	214.0
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	4.0	Russian Federation	16.9	Bosnia Herzegovina	167.7
		Bulgaria	5.0	Russian Federation	98.4
Total foreigners	**239.1**	**Total foreigners**	**228.9**	**Total foreigners**	**7 343.6**
Above countries (% of total foreigners)	57.9	*Above countries (% of total foreigners)*	64.0	*Above countries (% of total foreigners)*	20.5
Hungary		**Italy**		**Netherlands**	
Romania	48.6	Albania	115.8	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	7.2
Russian Federation	3.8	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	54.7	Bosnia Herzegovina	6.1
Poland	2.5	Romania	51.6	Poland	5.6
Ukraine	1.8	Poland	27.7	Russian Federation	3.3
Slovak Republic	1.3	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	18.6	Croatia	1.6
Total foreigners	**127.0**	**Total foreigners**	**1 252.0**	**Total foreigners**	**651.5**
Above countries (% of total foreigners)	45.6	*Above countries (% of total foreigners)*	21.4	*Above countries (% of total foreigners)*	3.7
Sweden		**Switzerland**			
Bosnia Herzegovina	34.2	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	193.7		
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	22.7	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	54.0		
Poland	16.3	Croatia	43.8		
Croatia	7.2	Bosnia Herzegovina	42.7		
Russian Federation	5.1	Russian Federation	5.4		
Total foreigners	**487.2**	**Total foreigners**	**1 368.7**		
Above countries (% of total foreigners)	17.5	*Above countries (% of total foreigners)*	24.8		

Immigrants born in Central and Eastern Europe in some OECD countries

Australia		Canada (1996)		United States (1990)	
Former Yugoslavia	208.4	Poland	193.4	Former USSR	389.9
Poland	69.5	Former Yugoslavia	122.0	Poland	388.3
Former USSR	55.2	Former USSR	108.4	Former Yugoslavia	141.5
Hungary	26.6	Hungary	54.2	Hungary	110.3
		Former CSFR	41.2	Romania	91.1
Total foreign-born	**4 482.1**	**Total foreign-born**	**4 971.1**	**Total foreign-born**	**19 767.3**
Above countries (% of total foreign-born)	8.0	*Above countries (% of total foreign-born)*	10.4	*Above countries (% of total foreign-born)*	5.7

Sources: Austrian Labour Market Service; Census for Canada and the United States, residence permits for Italy and population registers for the other countries.

Map I.5. **Net migration rate (NMR) in Central Europe and bordering countries, 1990 and 1999**
Percentage of the total population



Note: The net migration rate is the volume of net migration as a proportion of the total population at the beginning of the year (%).
1. 1998 for Croatia and Ukraine.
Sources: *Recent demographic developments in Europe*, Council of Europe, and National Statistical Offices.

The flows of asylum seekers to all of Western Europe have not been insignificant, particularly to Germany, which since 1989 has recorded over 272 000 asylum applications from Romanians and 81 000 from Bulgarians. These flows were at the root of significant restrictions introduced into asylum law in most Western countries between 1993 and 1997 and led to the signature of readmission agreements between Western European countries and CEECs, with the latter accepting responsibility for readmitting their nationals apprehended attempting to cross Western borders.

Permanent employment of CEEC nationals in OECD Member countries did not increase significantly, except in Germany which takes in 3 000 contract workers and 40 000 temporary workers from CEEC countries every year, under bilateral agreements. It should be noted that irregular immigration into EU countries has not declined, with a few nationalities being chiefly concerned (Romanians in Germany). Irregular immigration by nationals of Albania, the former Yugoslavia and the NIS is also substantial. In Portugal, for instance, significant numbers of Ukrainians and Moldavians were found to be working without papers in the construction sector.

Development of temporary labour emigration

As from 1993 onwards, permanent emigration by CEEC nationals fell back and temporary emigration came to the fore, chiefly on account of the restrictive policies applied in the main receiving countries.

Total entries of permanent immigrants from CEECs, as a percentage of total immigration flows, have fallen since 1991 in Denmark, France, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden. The fall in emigration to OECD countries is very marked for Poles, Romanians and Bulgarians. The nature of emigration seems to be changing. Its chief feature is now short and frequent movements, with more frequent returns.

The number of refugees and asylum seekers originating from the CEECs has also declined, since the OECD Member countries now consider most of the CEECs to be "safe" countries, the citizens of which are not eligible, in principle, to lodge asylum requests. However, the number of migrants granted temporary resident status on humanitarian grounds increased across all Western countries on account of the conflict in the former Yugoslavia. In 1999 numerous refugees from the former Yugoslavia went to Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Norway and Canada. Many migrants from Kosovo returned home at the end of the conflict, to a greater degree than refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina after the Dayton Agreements of 1995, since the conflict was not so prolonged.

Whereas permanent emigration to OECD countries is declining, the temporary migration of workers is developing. Labour movements predominate, facilitated by the suspension of the requirement for a short-stay visa for nationals of some CEECs going to EU countries. In 1999 Poles were still the most numerous group working in Germany (nearly 200 000 seasonal workers). Many temporary jobs held by CEEC nationals are within the framework of intergovernmental agreements for seasonal work and subcontracted employment. In Italy, among seasonal workers, Czechs, Slovaks and Poles predominate; in Greece, Albanians and Bulgarians; in Finland, Russians and Estonians. As a rule, movements of temporary workers are fostered by regional proximity and regulated by bilateral agreements (principally between Germany and Poland, and between Austria on the one hand and Hungary and the Slovak and Czech Republics on the other).

Increasing presence of CEE *nationals in* OECD *countries*

Today, the majority of countries in Western Europe and North America, together with Australia, have in their population a significant number of immigrants from the CEECs and the countries to their South and East. Nationals of the former Yugoslavia, followed by Poles, are the most numerous groups in Australia. In the United States, Poles are slightly outnumbered by nationals of the former Soviet Union, while in Canada the latter are only half as numerous as Poles (see Table I.17).

Among the European member countries of the OECD, Germany is the principal host country for nationals of the CEECs, the former Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union. With a total of 1.8 million, they represented 25% of the resident foreign population in 1999. They are also very numerous in Austria (around 370 000, or nearly 70% of the resident foreign population), and to a lesser degree in Italy (over 295 000, or nearly 24% of the total). A. very large number of nationals of the former Yugoslavia are resident in Western Europe (nearly 1.2 million in Germany, over 300 000 in Switzerland), as are the Poles (nearly 300 000 in Germany, over 50 000 in France).

Some CEECs are making estimates of the numbers of their nationals resident abroad, and are developing programmes to encourage the return of these groups, who may represent significant investment potential. Around 100 000 people of Hungarian nationality have been enumerated in the United States, 50 000 in Canada, and 30 000 in Australia.

The forthcoming accession of some CEECs *to the* European Union *is raising concern over the future of westward migration flows*

Five CEECs are currently candidates for the next stage of European Union enlargement in 2005: the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia. The other countries in the region will be included in subsequent waves of enlargement. Two points deserve attention in this respect.

First, as when Greece joined the European Community in 1981, and then Spain and Portugal in 1986, enlargement will have a marked effect on the stability and the economic growth of the candidate countries, which are already the most dynamic ones in the region. They are accordingly becoming very attractive to migration from adjoining countries to the South and East (see below) and need to align their policies to regulate flows with those in force in the European Union, and more particularly the Schengen area.

Second, recent discussions on enlargement among current EU members show that a number of them are apprehensive about inflows of CEEC workers after enlargement, under the principle of free movement. Accordingly, the accession treaties for the countries in the first wave are likely to include a

transitional clause meaning that workers from CEEC countries cannot freely enter the labour market throughout the Union. Some estimates, however, indicate that the countries joining the European Union may well experience return movements by their nationals resident in the West. Net East-West flows could accordingly be smaller, or indeed reverse, after the CEECs join the European Union (see Box I.8).

b) Main characteristics of inflows and outflows in the CEECs

Since 1990, migration trends in the region differ considerably. Some countries have chiefly experienced outflows since 1989 (Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, the former Yugoslavia, the former Soviet Union, Albania). Elsewhere (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania), emigration has fallen back considerably and the predominant trend is for permanent immigration. But some trends do seem to apply across the area, particularly "transit" migration.

Emigration flows no longer concern the whole area

Permanent outflows are trending downwards. The main areas of departure are the former Soviet Union, Romania, Poland, the former Yugoslavia, Albania and Bulgaria. While flows from Poland have stabilised over the last few years at around 20 000 a

Box I.8. EU enlargement and research on its impact on flows of CEE workers

In 1993 the Copenhagen European Council agreed on the principles of enlarging the European Union, in particular to a number of central and eastern European countries (CEECs). In 1998 negotiations were launched with the five most economically advanced countries (Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Slovenia – the Luxembourg Group) and in February 2000 with a further five (Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania, the Slovak Republic – the Helsinki Group). An initial wave of accessions may accordingly take place in 2005, and a second as from 2007.

Enlargement raises some apprehension in EU Member countries such as Germany and Austria, which fear large-scale inflows of workers from the CEECs under the principle of free movement. In June 2001 the European Commission signed agreements with three candidate countries (Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Latvia) which precluded free access to the labour market of EU countries for a maximum period of seven years after accession. The negotiation of similar treaties is under way with the other countries, but they are reluctant to see their nationals being treated as "second-class citizens". Recent research to assess the impact of EU enlargement on worker migration all concludes, however, that East-West flows will not have a major impact on the labour markets of the current fifteen EU countries, and that over the long term they could dwindle or possibly reverse.

The report for the European Commission, published by the European Integration Consortium,[1] employs variables such as income differentials and unemployment rates in host and departure countries, etc. The research is based on a number of assumptions, including per capita GDP convergence of 2% a year between East and West, and no change in unemployment rates in the EU and the CEECs. The findings suggest that the groups of CEEC nationals will increase substantially in most of the countries concerned, but the increase will be spread over a number of years. Were accession to take place today, around 335 000 additional people would settle in the fifteen-country EU, with the numbers falling in subsequent years. According to these estimates, in 30 years' time the population of CEEC origin would represent no more than 3.5% of the population of the European Union. Another research paper estimates the flows at between 267 000 and 336 000 a year.[2] Assuming accession by Hungary, Poland and the Czech Republic in 2005, the Austrian research institute WIFO[3] forecasts that the number of migrants from those three countries would be 144 000 in that year and then fall off.

The immigration of workers from the CEECs would have different effects on individual EU countries and for different categories of labour. According to the European Integration Consortium, immigration is expected to go chiefly to Germany (65%) and Austria (12%). In addition, the inflows would not raise competition for most workers apart from the unskilled, who could be affected both by lower remuneration and by higher unemployment.

1. Boeri, T., Brücker, H. and others: *The Impact of Eastern European Enlargement on Employment and Labour Markets in the* EU *Member States*, DIW, CEPR, FIEF, IGIER, HIS, Berlin and Milan, 2001.
2. Hille, H. and Straubhaar, T.: *The impact of* EU *enlargement on migration movements and economic integration: results of recent studies, in* Migration Policies and EU Enlargement, Paris: OECD, 2001.
3. Breuss, F.: *Macroeconomic Effects of* EU *Enlargement for Old and New Members*, WIFO Working Papers, No. 143, April 2001.

year, the total number of "permanent" emigrants from Romania has fallen steadily over recent years (with the exception of irregular movements). The figure in 1999 was 12 500, barely 15% of the 1990 level. This downward trend in emigration is also found in Estonia and Latvia, where the migration balance, still negative, is some 4% of the 1992 level. In 1999 Lithuania had a positive migration balance.

In other countries in the region, not covered in detail in this report, notably Albania and the countries of the former Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union, emigration is still substantial. In 1999 37 000 arrivals of Albanian nationals were reported in Italy (over three times more than in 1998), and around 2 000 Russians in Finland. In the same year, the largest groups of immigrants to Germany were nationals of the former Yugoslavia (nearly 88 000) and Poland (around 72 000). Fresh destinations for employment-related migration are appearing, including Italy, Portugal and Ireland. The latter saw a ninefold increase in entries of CEEC workers between 1998 and 2000, although the numbers involved are still relatively small (2 400).

Trend towards longer-term immigration in the CEECs

A trend towards longer-term immigration can be observed in most countries in the region, but few of them as yet have a positive migration balance. Immigration to the CEECs comes largely from adjoining countries; at the same time, inflows from Western Europe and more distant areas are also developing.

A number of factors have assisted entries and residence by new migrants in the central and eastern European countries. As part of the reforms during the 1990s, they amended their nationality legislation, in particular allowing expatriates who had been stripped of nationality to recover it. A further stage was the introduction of short and long-term residence permits for foreigners, signature of the Geneva Convention on Refugees, and abolition of the requirement for short-stay entry visas for nationals of most OECD countries.

The scale of the immigration which is developing in most CEECs varies from one country to another. In Hungary, over 15 000 foreigners had settled on a lasting basis in 1999. In the Czech Republic and Poland permanent entries include returning nationals and in 1999 stood at 9 900 and 7 500 respectively. In Hungary and the Czech Republic the stocks of permanent and long-term residents stood at 127 000 and 229 000 respectively in the last year for which data are available (see Table I.18). In Bulgaria a little over 63 600 people held long-term residence permits in 1999, and some 39 000 held permanent residence permits. The proportion of foreign residents in the CEECs is, however, generally less than 2% of the total population (0.1% for Poland, 2% for the Czech Republic).

In 1999, inflows into Central and Eastern Europe were largely from adjoining countries. In Hungary, for example, 6 000 Romanians, followed by 1 700 nationals of the former Yugoslavia, outstripped the 1 000 or so Chinese settled there permanently. Vietnamese and Chinese are found in a number of countries (24 900 Vietnamese residents, and 4 300 Chinese, in the Czech Republic), with the Vietnamese dating from before 1990 and the latter arriving more recently. Nationals of Western Europe (chiefly Germany, France, the United Kingdom and Italy) and the United States are also present, usually holding skilled or highly skilled jobs. The Czech Republic, for instance, in 1999 had 6 100 Germans and 3 800 Americans; in Romania, Italians (4 600) and Germans (2 700) were most strongly represented. The proportion of EU nationals is over 11% in Hungary, and close to 15% in Poland and 18% in Bulgaria. In the first two countries, CEEC nationals take a predominant share of permanent immigration.

Persistence of transit migration to Western Europe

For many migrants seeking to enter Western Europe or North America, the CEECs constitute a stage on their journey. Most of these migrants are documented, having entered as tourists or as businessmen or students. Due to their common border with Germany, the countries most affected by this are Poland and the Czech Republic. Hungary is also a transit country, on account of its borders with Austria. Bulgaria is a transit country for migrants seeking to enter Greece, as well as those seeking to reach other parts of Western Europe.

Transit migration encourages the development of illegal immigration and undocumented employment in a number of the CEECs. The migrants come from neighbouring countries such as Turkey, Albania or the former Yugoslavia, but also from Asia (Bangladesh, India, Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq). In 1999 Hungary reported some 11 000 attempts to leave the country illegally, chiefly in the direction of Austria and the Slovak Republic, and 4 000 attempts to enter illegally, demonstrating the difficulty of entering

Table I.18. **Foreigners residing in some central and eastern European countries, by major nationality, latest available year**

	Bulgaria (1999)			Czech Republic (1999)			Hungary (1999)	
	Thousands	%		Thousands	%		Thousands	%
CIS	35.2	34.4	Ukraine	65.9	28.8	Romania	48.6	38.2
EU	18.4	18.0	Slovak Republic	40.4	17.6	Former Yugoslavia	15.3	12.0
Europe (other)	10.7	10.5	Vietnam	24.8	10.8	Germany	8.5	6.7
Middle East	10.3	10.0	Poland	18.3	8.0	China	7.7	6.0
Asia	6.2	6.1	Russian Federation	16.9	7.4	Ukraine	7.6	6.0
Africa	6.0	5.9	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.1	1.8	Russian Federation	3.8	3.0
America	3.4	3.4	Bulgaria	5.0	2.2	Poland	2.5	2.0
Central Europe	2.5	2.5	Germany	6.1	2.7	Vietnam	2.2	1.7
Australia	0.1	0.1	China	4.3	1.9	Slovak Republic	1.3	1.0
			United States	3.8	1.7	Greece	1.0	0.8
Others	9.4	9.2	Others	39.2	17.1	Others	34.5	27.1
Total	**102.3**	100.0	**Total**	**228.9**	**100.0**	**Total**	**127.0**	**100.0**
% of total population		1.2	*% of total population*		2.2	*% of total population*		1.3

	Poland (1999)			Romania (1999)			Slovak Republic (1997)	
	Thousands	%		Thousands	%		Thousands	%
Ukraine	7.0	16.4	Republic of Moldova	6.9	11.1	Czech Republic	5.8	23.3
Russian Federation	4.4	10.4	China	6.7	10.9	Ukraine	3.5	14.1
Vietnam	3.3	7.6	Turkey	5.2	8.4	Poland	2.8	11.3
Belarus	2.3	5.4	Greece	5.1	8.3	Former Yugoslavia	2.0	8.2
Germany	1.9	4.5	Italy	4.6	7.4			
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.6	3.8	Syria	3.4	5.4			
United States	1.4	3.2						
Armenia	1.3	3.1						
Bulgaria	1.2	2.8						
France	0.8	2.0						
Others	17.5	40.9	Others	30.0	48.5	Others	10.7	43.1
Total	**42.8**	**100.0**	**Total**	**61.9**	**100.0**	**Total**	**24.8**	**100.0**
% of total population		0.1	*% of total population*		0.3	*% of total population*		0.5

Sources: Data for Poland are estimates on the basis of the Ministry of the Interior's Registers; figures for Romania correspond to the number of persons who hold a temporary residence visa (valid for at least 120 days). For the other countries, data are issued from population registers and are the number of foreigners who hold a permanent or a long-term residence permit.

Western Europe. Measures for bilateral co-operation with Western European countries have been taken to regulate movements more effectively.

c) Trends in intra-regional migration

One of the characteristics of migration movements in Eastern Europe is the persistence of significant intra-regional flows. Some trends stem from the liberalisation of trade in 1990 and border readjustments (movements of ethnic minorities), while others highlight the economic dimension of migration flows within the region (movements of labour, irregular flows).

Reduction in movements by ethnic minorities

As in the case of East-West migration flows, those within the CEECs, brought about by the opening of the borders in 1990, were initially composed of persons with family links with the host country and movements of ethnic minorities, largely Hungarian (originating from Romania and the Slovak Republic), Polish (from Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Siberia), and Bulgarian (from the former Soviet Union). The readjustment of the borders in the region (in the former Yugoslavia, CSFR and Soviet Union) also led to population movements. The split of the Czech and Slovak Republics in 1993 led to substantial exchanges (around 20 000 people entered the Czech Republic from the new Slovak Republic between 1994 and 1999, and 8 000 moved in the other direction). Emigration of Russian nationals continues to be observed today in the Baltic countries.

Hungary reports an increase in flows of Hungarian ethnic minorities. The flows reached a high level

in 1999, particularly for people from Romania and the Ukraine. The increase may be explained by the apprehension that Hungary will shortly introduce the admission rules applied in the EU, which are highly restrictive for Romanian and Ukrainian nationals.

Gypsy minorities are present in most countries in the region, and flows both to Western Europe and within Central Europe were very substantial once borders opened; they have since fallen considerably overall. At the same time, countries such as Finland saw numbers of gypsy migrants rise in 1999 (1 500 from Slovakia and 300 from Poland). A number of countries (the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Bulgaria, Hungary) are conducting active programmes to integrate Gypsies socially and economically, often with funding under programmes by the European Union (PHARE) and/or the Council of Europe, which may, over the long term, mean that they become sedentary. But Gypsies are frequently marginalised and their living conditions deplorable. They often live on the edges of larger towns (Romania, Hungary, Bulgaria, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, the Czech Republic) or in villages entirely inhabited by Gypsies (Bulgaria, Romania)[3]. In the majority of cases, Gypsies have a level of education much lower than the rest of the population and are more vulnerable to unemployment. A degree of rejection by the rest of the population renders the success of active policies targeted towards this group more difficult. As a result, these minorities are still much inclined to emigrate.

Temporary labour migration

- Trends in labour migration flows

The existence of free-trade areas has an important effect on emigration. The data available show a slight increase in labour migration due to the implementation in the member States of the Central European Free Trade Area (CEFTA),[4] since economic co-operation between countries in transition favours such migration. The available information points to a significant increase in the temporary employment of foreign labour, particularly in the business categories. In those countries which have experienced the highest growth rates in recent years, the number of work permits issued to foreigners each year is substantial.

In Hungary, the number of newly issued work permits has continued to rise since 1996, to reach nearly 30 000 in 1999. In Poland around 20 000 permits are issued each year. In the Czech Republic, after peaking in 1995-96, the temporary immigration of foreign workers has declined continually due to the deterioration in the labour market situation. Immigration by business people has tended to increase since 1996, however. Unlike these three countries, Romania and Bulgaria attract fewer foreign workers, but numbers are increasing there as well.

Combating illegal employment is a priority for governments. The CEECs are introducing increasingly strict arrangements. These include penalties for employers illegally recruiting foreigners (the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, Latvia) and inspections by the Labour and Interior Ministries (the Czech Republic, Poland). In some countries the informal sector accounts for approximately 30% of GDP (Hungary), and the participation of foreigners in this sector is understood to be important. In Poland, according to estimates by the country's Ministry of Labour, between 100 000 and 150 000 undocumented foreigners are thought to be working every year in the construction sector.

- Origins of foreign labour

The available statistics on the numbers of foreign workers show that in the CEECs immigrants from adjoining countries are most numerous, although the number of EU nationals and people from other countries is rising steadily. In the Czech Republic, in addition to the Slovak workers who are permitted free access to the labour market, there are sizeable numbers of Ukrainians and Poles (41 300 foreigners held work permits in 1999 and around 53 200 Slovaks had jobs). In Hungary work permits are generally granted for those sectors experiencing labour shortages or to persons with particular expertise or specific experience. Most foreign workers come from the NIS (2 300) and Romania (10 600).

A number of people from Asia and the Middle East have settled on a long-term basis in the region. Chinese and Vietnamese are prominent in catering and retailing in Poland and the Czech Republic. Numerous nationals of Turkey and Middle Eastern countries settled in 1999 in Romania (Turkey 5 200, Syria 3 300, Iran 2 000 and Iraq 2 000) and in Bulgaria (a total of over 10 000 permanent and long-term residents).

The numbers of EU nationals are not large, but are on the increase (nearly 15% of foreigners with

work permits in Hungary). A fairly large group of Western Europeans working in Hungary consist of senior managers in foreign firms who, under the current regulations, do not require work permits. In Poland, EU nationals mostly hold skilled jobs: while the British predominate in education, most nationalities are broadly represented among executives in foreign firms.

Conclusion

At the conclusion of this overview of migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe, a number of trends emerge. First of all, East-West migration flows persist but inflows into most CEECs have increased and diversified. Most of these countries are becoming a prime destination for migrants from the East and South (the NIS and the former Yugoslavia).

It is still too early to say that flows in the region have become globalised. Apart from the Czech Republic and Hungary, which stand out as new host countries for foreigners from more distant regions, immigration is usually from Western Europe and from adjoining countries. The migration balances in Albania, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, the Baltic countries, the NIS and the former Yugoslavia are still negative, although the number of foreigners settling there is trending upwards.

More generally, we cannot limit the study to permanent and long-term movements because this group of countries is defined less as an area of settlement than as an area of transit, trade and economic activity. It would appear that very short-term, indeed "pendular", migration is quite common in a number of countries and that cultural and historical ties make short-term cross-border movements "natural". These factors demonstrate how important it is for governments in the region to clarify and harmonise the status of the resident foreign population and foreign migrant workers, which would make it easier to regulate flows. Such reforms are also required for their accession to the European Union.[5]

D. AN OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION POLICIES[6]

Migration policies of OECD Member countries can be divided into four sections. The first consists of measures adopted at national and international level to strengthen the control of flows, including those of asylum seekers. The second category concerns the fight against irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreign workers. The third category covers all measures that aim to ensure a better integration of migrants in the host country. The last category concerns co-operation at international level in the area of migration.

1. Policies for regulating and controlling flows

a) New laws concerning immigration

Several OECD Member countries have recently modified their legislation and implemented new provisions governing the entry, residence and employment of foreigners. While some reforms have led to improvements in the status of foreigners already settled in the host country, most of them have been aimed essentially at tightening border controls, simplifying and speeding up the procedure for examining asylum applications, as well as amending the conditions for entry, residence and employment.

In November 2000, the Spanish Parliament passed Spain's new Immigration Act after the first reading of the Bill. In many areas, it is much more restrictive than the previous Act, which came into force in January 2000. The new Act provides for the immediate expulsion of foreigners resident in Spain illegally, while the previous legislation had simply introduced a system of fines. Permanent residence permits can now be obtained only after five years residing and working in Spain, instead of two under the previous legislation. There are now three criteria for entry into Spain: the possession of valid identity papers, proof of sufficient means of support for the duration of the stay and proof of the purpose and conditions of stay. Except in special circumstances, the government will no longer be required to explicitly state or justify the reasons for refusing to grant an entry visa. What is more, the text restricts to legal residents only, some of the constitutional rights that had formerly been granted to all foreigners under the January 2000 Act, such as the right to work, the right to strike and join unions and the right of association and demonstration. Lastly, foreigners have the right to vote in municipal elections in Spain only if Spanish nationals are accorded reciprocal rights in the foreigner's country of origin.

In Portugal, a new Immigration and Foreigners' Work Act was adopted by Parliament in July 2000. It alters the process for granting visas and creates categories of people who cannot be expelled (people born in Portugal and habitually residing there, people who have resided in Portugal since the age of ten, and the parents of minors). This Act also creates

a new residence permit, valid for one year and renewable for up to five years. It is linked to the performance of paid employment and may be granted to undocumented foreigners who can provide proof of a contract of employment. In practice, this measure facilitates the regularisation of a large number of foreign workers employed in the construction sector, where there is a heavy reliance on this workforce. A report published in August 2001 and prepared at the request of the Government by the Institute for Employment and Professional Training, forecasts that Portugal will probably require approximately 20 000 additional immigrant workers by the end of 2001, notably in the domain of agriculture, the construction sector and cleaning services as well as in hotel and catering. A similar report will be published annually which should allow an estimation of foreign labour requirements in order to assist the Government in distributing new residence and work permits to foreigners.

A new Act came into force in the Netherlands in the first half of 2001. It focuses mainly on asylum policy; in particular it provides for asylum application procedures to be simplified and shortened, and introduces new conditions for the granting of refugee status and related rights. The Act also establishes new rules relating to residence permits, as well as the control and expulsion of undocumented foreigners. However, it remits to secondary legislation the circumstances under which a foreigner may obtain an ordinary permit for the purposes of employment, study, occupation as an *au pair*, and for the reason of family reunion. After five years' residence in the Netherlands on a fixed-term permit, a foreigner may obtain an ordinary residence permit as long as, *inter alia*, he/she has sufficient means of subsistence. Lastly, the Act makes changes to the system whereby asylum seekers may enter the labour market. Three types of work permit are introduced for this category of foreigner: for a work period of indefinite length, for a fixed period, and a temporary permit. These permits grant the holders different rights.

In September 2000, the German Ministry of the Interior set up a Cross-party Committee with the task of formulating proposals regarding the legislative framework surrounding immigration and bringing it into line with the needs of the German economy. The project (the Süssmuth Report) was submitted in August 2001 and contains proposals that could give rise to a new law on immigration in 2002 and which have sparked off an intense debate in Germany. The proposals concern, on one hand, the immigration of foreign workers, which would be facilitated in the case of skilled workers with good knowledge of German and whose skills match the needs of the German economy – as assessed by a future Federal Office. Such workers would be awarded a permanent residence permit. An annual immigration quota for employment is the subject of a debate in the framework of this same project. This quota of approximately 50 000 people would not affect solely highly qualified workers selected on the basis of the points system. Inversely, residence of asylum seekers could initially be limited to a duration of three months and the entry of children for family reunion would be reserved exclusively to children under 12 years, against 16 years at the present time (although this measure does not concern, on the one hand, children over 12 years possessing a good knowledge of German, and on the other hand, highly qualified workers and their families whose children could join them in Germany on the condition that they under 18 years old).

In Greece, the government approved a new bill on immigration in November 2000. The bill delegates to local Prefectures the Ministry of Public Order's authority to issue residence permits. Under the new bill, residence permits will be issued for a period of 12 months, and have to be renewed six times before they can be issued for two years. A foreigner will only be able to obtain a permanent residence permit after ten years' residence in Greece. The bill also states that, before applying for a work permit on behalf of a foreigner, all employers must check that no available person in the local resident workforce, whether Greek or of foreign origin, matches the vacancy. The new bill introduces stringent measures against anyone giving aid or assistance to undocumented foreigners or employing them. Further, a foreigner may only be naturalised after 10 years' legal residence during the 12 years prior to lodging the application, and must pay 1 470 EUR. Lastly, the bill compels the public health services to report any undocumented person except in a case of emergency or of deteriorating health; it also removes the right of children of undocumented foreigners to attend state schools. Family reunion for spouse and children is subject to relatively strict conditions and almost exclusively reserved to "green card" holders. Asylum seekers, who have obtained humanitarian or political refugee status, may benefit from family reunion. There are no restrictions on family reunion on immigrants of Greek origin.

In Switzerland, the seven bilateral free trade agreements signed with the European Community

and its Member States, including the agreement on freedom of movement, were approved by referendum in May 2000. The agreement on the freedom of movement largely mirrors the provisions as defined by the Treaty on the European Community. Transitional periods have been fixed with regard to non-discriminatory access to the labour market. Application of the agreement's provisions as they affect nationals of EFTA member states is being examined. The Government also agreed to remove, during the summer of 2000, visa requirements for any foreigner holding a Schengen visa or a permanent residence permit from a member State of the European Union, EFTA, Canada or the United States.

A new Foreigners' Act drawn up during 2000 has reached the consultation stage. It focuses on nationals of third countries and on national of countries of the European Union at a subsidiary level, in situations that are not covered by the bilateral agreement on the freedom of movement. The bill allows labour market access to skilled migrants, and on the basis of annual quotas. The Act also provides for improvements in the legal status of foreigners, particularly insofar as it reduces obstacles linked to changing profession, company or canton, and grants the right to family reunion to all those in possession of a residence permit.

The Australian Government has created a temporary protection visa for migrants in an irregular situation who may acquire refugee status. It has also attached particular attention to border controls and the fight against human trafficking, in establishing a series of measures which permit the inspection and blockage of vessels beyond its territorial waters should there be suspicion of human trafficking or which would prevent anyone seeking asylum if he/she is also the beneficiary of such a protection in another country. A new sponsored visitor visa class for family and business visitors, which leaves open to the decision maker the option of requesting a security bond in respect of the visitor, was introduced on 1 July 2000. Australia has decided to restrict the rights of New Zealand residents to social benefits, particularly by imposing on them stricter conditions for entry into the country: the right to reside in Australia is no longer automatic. New Zealand nationals must now meet the same conditions as all other migrants to qualify for social benefits.

In February 2001, the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration tabled new legislation in the House of Commons. The legislative changes proposed in the new Immigration and Refugee Protection Act reintroduces severe penalties for people smugglers and traffickers, speeds up family reunification and maintains Canada's humanitarian tradition of providing safe haven to people in need of protection. Another Act recognising the rights and duties of cohabiting couples was enacted in 2000. It establishes the right of residence for a foreign national who is the partner of a Canadian national. The possibility of creating a system for selecting skilled workers, focusing on the ability of immigrants to work in an information economy is under review.

In Hungary, Poland, and the Czech and Slovak Republics, as well as in Bulgaria and Romania, legislation on residence and work of foreigners is the subject of an important revision intended to align existing measures with those presently applicable in the European Union. The modifications are principally concerned with entry and residence of foreigners (including asylum seekers and refugees), citizenship, the fight against illegal employment of foreigners and the signature of international agreements on readmission. In the Czech Republic, a new Foreigners' Residence Act came into force on 1 January 2000. It introduced new permanent and temporary residence permits, including permanent stay with no visa, with a short-term (maximum 90 days) visa, and with a long-term visa. A temporary protection system and a visa granting an exceptional leave to remain have also been created. Lastly, the Act states that visas are mandatory for nationals of several CIS Republics including Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kirgizstan, Turkmenistan and Moldavia, as well as for Cuban nationals. In Hungary, visa requirements for Moldavia, Belarus and Russia have been introduced in 2001. Similar measures have already been adopted for the countries of Central Asia and the Caucasus.

In the case of the Baltic States, Estonia introduced in September 2000 a mandatory visa scheme in respect of Russian nationals with a view to bringing its own legislation in line with that of member States of the European Union. This new scheme ends the simplified system previously available to Russian inhabitants of the bordering region. Lithuania, too, must adopt similar measures, particularly in respect of Belarussian, Russian and Bulgarian nationals.

b) Legislation aimed at dissuading false asylum seekers

Several OECD Member countries, including Ireland and the United Kingdom have, for over a

year, been experiencing a sharp rise in asylum applications; in 2000, the United Kingdom became the main destination European country for asylum seekers. In response to this the authorities have implemented a series of measures aimed at discouraging unfounded applications. In April 2000, a system of assistance in kind based on the distribution of vouchers was introduced, which replaced the previous regime of financial assistance. This system, which was designed to reduce fraud, is still very controversial, and is expected to be slackened. The government has also removed from asylum applicants the right to choose where they live; they are instead placed across the country.

The number of applications rejected in the first instance is rising sharply, mainly because of legal irregularities; the number of appeals against rejections is also rising as a result: almost 8 000 appeals were lodged in September 2000, that is to say eight times more than in January 2000. In November 2000, the government announced the introduction of a new strategy for integrating refugees. It will have a budget of GBP 1.5 m.

Ireland has also had to deal with a sharp increase in asylum applications. A new law on refugees came into force in November 2000. Most notably, this law introduces a control system involving the use of fingerprints, and accords additional authority to the police as part of the fight against the trafficking of asylum seekers.

In Finland, amendments to the Foreigners' Act designed to accelerate the examination of unfounded asylum applications came into force on 10 July 2000. This measure is mainly aimed at reducing the number of Gypsies entering the country: in 1999 they accounted for approximately one third of asylum applicants. In Norway, the Immigration Directorate is now responsible for interviewing asylum seekers; they had previously been conducted by police officers. From 1 January 2001 onwards, appeals against negative decisions will have to be addressed to a newly created Immigration Appeals Board.

In Poland, amendments to the 1997 Foreigners' Act, which are currently under review by Parliament, provide notably for the introduction of a system of temporary social protection, an accelerated procedure for examining manifestly fraudulent asylum applications, and a change in legal procedures for dealing with foreigners in custody. A new Refugees and Asylum Seekers' Act, providing in particular for accelerated procedures, and dealing with matters relating to manifestly fraudulent applications and unaccompanied minors, came into force in Lithuania in September 2000. New laws are also in the process of being adopted in Estonia and Latvia.

2. Reinforcement of legislation concerning the fight against irregular migration and illegal employment of foreigners

a) Combating irregular migration

In May 2000, following the signature of a similar agreement with Belgium, the United Kingdom and France initialled an agreement providing for joint action to prevent illegal immigration to the United Kingdom via the Eurostar train service. Drivers of vehicles will be held personally responsible if discovered trying to pass illegal immigrants into the United Kingdom. The imposition on lorry drivers of a non-criminal penalty of GBP 2 000 was introduced for each illegal entrant to the United Kingdom discovered in their vehicle.

In Japan, several amendments to the Immigration Act came into force in February 2000. Re-entry refusal was extended from one year to five years for overstayers who had illegally entered the territory.

New sanctions aimed at the employers of undocumented foreigners (two years in prison or fines up to AUD 66 000) are to be introduced by the Australian government in 2001.

In 1999 Austria reinforced legislation on legal action against smugglers of human cargo and multiplied border controls. As a consequence, the number of illegal entrants rejected at Austrian borders has declined (8 600 in the first half of 2000 compared with 9 800 during the same period one year earlier).

Among the changes in legislation proposed in February 2001 in the revision of the law on immigration and the protection of refugees, Canada had reintroduced severe penalties for people smugglers and traffickers.

In order to fight against the passage of illegal immigrants through its territory towards countries of the European Union, Estonia had set up in September 2000, a unilateral visa system which requires delivery of all necessary identity papers in order to cross the Russian-Estonian border. This measure puts an end to the more simplified system from which those living close to this border had previously benefited. The Lithuanian Minister of the Interior, after having set up the Centre for Registra-

tion of Foreigners in Pabrade, where all foreigners found to be in an irregular situation are held, had voted in 1998 a law relating to the expulsion of foreigners in an irregular situation. Since this time, there has been a reorganisation of the border police and its personnel have been redeployed in order to reinforce controls at the border with Belarus. Finally, the penal code has been amended to enable a maximum term of 15 years imprisonment for the smuggling of immigrants.

Due to her large areas of land and coastal borders, the Greek Government views the fight against illegal entries as a high priority. In 1999, almost 20 000 foreigners had been expulsed following an administrative decision (8 000 more than in 1998); the majority of which originated from the Balkan countries. Over the past five years, more than one million Albanians were also turned back at the border.

In Hungary, sanctions for employers employing illegal foreign labour have been recently reinforced but the severest penalties fall on the workers. If a foreigner is apprehended at his workplace without a valid work permit, he may be banished from Hungarian territory for a period of one to five years. The fine payable by the employer is five times the minimum wage. A work permit is necessary for the majority of jobs carried out by foreign workers. A work permit can only be delivered if there is no Hungarian available on the local labour market having the necessary qualifications demanded by the position. An employer must register a vacancy sixty days prior to the start of the contract (30 days in the case of seasonal or occasional employment). In Romania, the hiring of a foreigner without a work permit exposes the employer to a fine of 250 to 500 dollars.

Turkey is preparing new legal arrangements for work and residence permits. The aim of the intended legislation is combating illegal employment. Employers who hire illegal immigrant labour can be penalised (up to 2.5 billion Turkish Liras) as well as the illegal workers themselves (up to 500 million Turkish Liras).

Trafficking of migrants was also addressed in the last US Congress. The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act, signed into law in November 2000, created 5 000 new "T" non-immigrant visas annually for women and children who have been victims of "severe trafficking." An additional 10 000 new "U" non-immigrant visas were created for aliens who have suffered physical or mental abuse as victims of crimes such as rape, domestic violence and involuntary servitude. In February 2001, US President George Bush and Mexican President Vicente Fox met and pledged to engage in high-level negotiations to constructively address migration and labour issues between our two countries.

Italy has reinforced repressive measures to combat illegal immigration and the human trafficking. Between 1998 and 1999, the number of expulsions (escorted to the border and expelled) have almost tripled, passing from 9 000 to 25 000. A bill drafted in August 2001 which provides for prison sentences for foreigners attempting to illegally enter on Italian soil as well as for those who have failed to leave the country after an expulsion order, is presently being discussed. The latter group also runs the risk of being banned from Italian territory for a period of 10 years.

Following an official enquiry carried out early in 2000 in the horticultural sector of the Netherlands, it has been decided to penalise more severely those employers hiring illegal foreign workers, who have previously been condemned for so doing.

b) Recent regularisation programmes and their results

In Spain, a regularisation operation has been incorporated into the transitional provisions of the new Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners Act of January 2000. It applies to all foreigners permanently on Spanish soil on 1 June 1999 and who either held a work permit and/or a residence permit between 1 February 1997 and 1 February 2000, or requested such a permit before 31 March 2000, or lodged an asylum application before 1 February 2000 as well as to family members of nationals of third countries, nationals of Member States of the European Union or of Spanish nationals. Almost 245 000 applications for regularisation had been lodged; of these, almost one third had been filed by Moroccan nationals wishing to obtain residence and employment permits, mainly for agriculture, domestic services and construction. By the end of October 2000, almost 124 000 out of slightly over 185 000 applications examined had been accepted. Furthermore, almost 20 000 nationals of Ecuador had obtained in the same year a residents permit for Spain on humanitarian grounds.

Following the regularisation operation that took place in Greece during 1998, almost 371 000 undocu-

mented people received a white card' entitling them to enter the labour market and enjoy equal employment rights. Of these, nearly 212 000 filed applications for a green card' in February 2000 entitling them to work for 1-3 years and, in certain circumstances, to renew their work permits. By September 2000, this green card had been issued to over 147 700 people; the process of examining applications continues. A new operation for regularisation took place between 5th June and 7th September 2001 and, from the first available reports, more than 350 000 requests were registered.

The regularisation operation in Italy that began in 1998 was continued into 2000. A Decree of October 1998 established a quota of 38 000 workers who could be regularised in 1998, of whom 3 000 were Albanian, 1 500 Moroccan, and 1 500 Tunisian. Of the 250 000 applications lodged in 1998, some 39% of them were still being examined at mid-January 2000. In June 2000, the government announced that during 40 000 residence permits would be issued to undocumented migrants during that year, and 53 000 files would have been examined by the end of July.

In Belgium, the regularisation programme implemented in January 2000 looked at 35 000 cases (concerning approximately 52 000 people of whom 17 per cent came from the Democratic Republic of Congo and more than 12 per cent from Morocco). Regularisation gives entitlement to unlimited stay and access to the labour market. The regularisation procedure would end by October 2001.

In March 2000, Switzerland carried out a programme to regularise certain categories of foreigners who had entered the country before 31 December 1992 and were now in serious personal need. This operation, known as Humanitarian Action 2000', concerned almost 13 000 people, most of whom were Sri Lankan nationals.

In December 2000, the United States Congress adopted the *Legal Immigration and Family Equity Act* (LIFEA). In particular, it enables almost 400 000 undocumented migrants to apply for regularisation as long as they can prove that they entered the United States before 1 January 1982. The law also introduced V visas: these are reserved for about 500 000 family members of documented migrants who have been waiting for their green card applications to be processed for over three years.

In Mexico, a regularisation programme was conducted from February to May 2000. Over 2 600 applications, most of them filed by nationals of Guatemala, Salvador and Honduras, were processed.

New Zealand has adopted provisional measures concerning foreigners whose visas had expired but who are well integrated in the country. An expulsion process concerning persons having an illegal status in New Zealand came into full effect on 1st October 1999. From that date, anyone residing illegally in New Zealand has 42 days to appeal, after which they are liable to immediate removal. However, those overstayers who had become well settled (those with a New Zealand resident or citizen partner, New Zealand born children, or who had been in New Zealand for five years or more by 30 March 2001), would be subject to this new provision, and are therefore being given the opportunity to apply to regularise their immigration status between 1 October 2000 and 30 March 2001. Successful applicants will be granted an open work permit, and will be permitted to apply for New Zealand residence after a two-year period.

In July 2000, the Portuguese Government obtained a legislative permit from Parliament to amend the Act of August 1998 dealing with the admission, residence and departure of foreigners. Most notably, the amendment that came into force in 2001 allows undocumented foreigners in possession of a firm offer of employment to reside in the country. As of July 2001, almost 76 500 residence permits have been delivered (one-third to Ukrainians and almost one-fifth to Brazilians). Approximately 30 000 cases are still being considered.

As the review procedure launched in France in June 1997 is nearly complete, a provisional assessment can now be made: 75 600 foreigners have been regularised under this procedure. Three-quarters of the people regularised came from Africa (some 55 000), including 30 000 from sub-Saharan Africa and rather less than 25 000 from the Maghreb. The remaining one-fourth were from Asia (20%) and Europe (5%). The breakdown by nationality was highly concentrated, four nationalities accounting for 45% of regularisations: 12 000 Algerians, 8 800 Moroccans, 7 500 Chinese and 5 900 nationals of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

3. Policies for the integration of immigrants

OECD Member countries are increasingly concerned about the issue of integrating foreigners already present as well as those who plan to reside in the host country for an extended period. In this

report, the emphasis will be on measures of integration recently taken by Member countries concerned with the successful integration of foreigners in society and in the labour market.

a) *Defining the groups of people to be targeted by integration measures*

In several OECD European Member countries, the desire to implement genuine integration policies has recently brought up the problem of how to define the groups of people to be targeted by such measures, or more general measures relating to immigration, and has accordingly raised the issue of obtaining pertinent data on these different categories of foreigner. This has been the case not only in the Netherlands and France, but also in Denmark and Norway.

In 1999, the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) introduced the term allochtonous', defined as those persons of whom at least one of the parents was born abroad. The CBS then draws a distinction between first- and second-generation allochtonous' people: a first-generation "allochtonous" person is one who was born abroad of one or two parents born abroad'; a second-generation "allochtonous" person is one who was born in the Netherlands of one or two parents born abroad'. It follows that the CBS believes that a person will be described as native' (*i.e.* Dutch) if both parents were born in the Netherlands.

In France, the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) has established several statistical distinctions since the population census of 1999. It first of all distinguished those who are French from birth', from those who are French by acquisition of nationality. It then identified the concepts of the foreign population' and an immigrant population': the foreign population being made up of people who declared citizenship other than French citizenship in the recent census, while the immigrant population includes people born abroad who declared themselves to be of foreign nationality or French by acquisition. According to the INSEE, the foreign and immigrant populations do not overlap (not all immigrants are necessarily foreigners, and *vice versa* : immigrates may be French by acquisition, and foreigners may be born in France). Both categories do, however, include individuals born abroad holding foreign citizenship.

In Denmark, immigrants are defined for statistical purposes as people born abroad of two parents born abroad or who are foreign citizens. Descendants of immigrants are people born in Denmark whose parents are not Danish citizens born in Denmark. Immigrants who have obtained Danish citizenship are not included in the statistics on the foreign population. In Norway, immigrants are defined as people born abroad of parents with no Norwegian ancestors, or born in Norway of parents born abroad.

b) *Recent measures aiming at better integrating immigrants*

Several regulations relating to the integration of foreigners were adopted in France by the Directorate of Population and Migrations in 2000; these particularly concerned local contracts for reception and integration, the implementation of a sponsorship campaign to support young people having difficulty in entering employment, and the introduction of single education support measure (the Local Education Support Contract).

One of the aspects of the policy of integration recently endorsed by the German Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs aims to improve communications between administrations and immigrants. This can be achieved through a better understanding of social rights of foreigners, of professional training available to them and of their native language. Furthermore, another part of the integration programme is aimed at foreign women (German language classes, information on training possibilities, etc.).

Australia has recently adopted a new programme for a multicultural Australia. The programme rests on the principles of Australian society that guarantees liberty and equality to the population and enables the diverse components of the country's population to fully express itself in society. This programme also underlines a respect for cultures and religious beliefs while all at once emphasising social equality.

In Canada, the reception of migrants is managed at every level of administration. Agreements concerning the installation of immigrants have been reached between Citizenship and Immigration Canada and the different provinces of the country. Services offered abroad (advice for immigrants) has the double function of permitting future immigrants to find their way upon their arrival in Canada. Furthermore, there are a number of programmes aimed at facilitating the installation of immigrants, putting them on the right professional track and insertion in the labour market, and also assisting them in learning the official languages of Canada.

The new Integration of Foreigners Act that came into force in Denmark on 1 January 2000 transfers responsibility for integration policies to local municipal authorities. The Act establishes a Reception Programme for New Arrivals and Refugees over a three-year period: in particular, this includes an individual plan for each person, courses on the functioning of Danish society, and Danish lessons.

In Finland, since the adoption of a law in 1999, all immigrants resident in Finland can benefit from a programme to assist with integration into society and into the labour market. In the framework of this programme, an immigrant is given a subsistence allowance immediately on his installation in the area in which he resides. This indemnity, more often intended for asylum seekers or refugees, can be reduced by 20 per cent if the person refuses to participate in the integration programme and especially in professional training and Finnish language classes organised by the programme and in the case of persistent refusal, this penalty can be raised to 40 per cent.

In order to facilitate the integration and reintegration of children of migrants, the Greek Government has put in place three different schemes: reception classes, tutorials (doing supplementary hours in addition to regular hours in small classes of three to nine students) and multicultural classes. In 1999-2000, 500 reception classes and 700 groups of tutorials had been carried out at primary education level, essentially concentrated in the Athens region. Over the same period, almost 9 000 students were taught in the reception classes, that is to say approximately 13 per cent of the total number of migrant children of all categories and almost 5 000 students, *i.e.* 7.5 per cent of the total who had benefited from the tutorials. Twenty multicultural classes were opened in 1999-2000 in which almost 3 500 students, of all levels, were educated.

In 1999 Italy had recorded a total of almost 120 000 foreign children receiving schooling, a figure which reflects an increase of around 40 per cent in comparison to the previous year. This increase is an obvious indication of the stabilisation of the immigrant population in Italy. The majority of these children received elementary education, even if the figures for secondary education showed a strong increase (more than 54%) over those for 1998. Nevertheless, not all children who could be considered minors entered the school system, especially the thousands of non-accompanied minors.

Luxembourg also gives special attention to the integration of children of foreign origin into Luxembourg's schools. At present, one of the answers provided by the ministerial authorities has been the creation of a pilot early-education project made mandatory for communes as of this year.

A new policy on integration came into effect in 1998 and a new authority was established to implement it. Integration policies are particularly aimed at offering to immigrants the possibility to fulfil their own need and to integrate into society. The policies also aim to preserve fundamental democratic values and seek to ensure equal rights and opportunities for men and women as well as fighting against discrimination, xenophobia and racism.

c) Combating racism and discrimination

In Norway, the Immigration Directorate's first report on racism and discrimination and two other reports on the subject, one by the Centre for Combating Ethnic Discrimination, the other by the Anti-Racist Centre, were published during 2000. These reports establish that racism and discrimination exist in various sectors of Norwegian society, particularly in the labour market and the housing market.

A programme for combating racism and ethnic discrimination was drawn up by the Finnish Ministry of Labour during 2000, and was due for adoption by the government at the end of the year. In September 2000, the Irish Minister of Justice announced a re-examination of the 1989 law on racism with a view to making it more effective: since 1989 only one case of incitement to racial hatred had been brought before the courts. In France, the Group for Studying and Combating Discrimination, which was set up in 2000 following the Citizenship Conference (*Assises de la Citoyenneté*) was given, *inter alia*, responsibility for dealing with complaints received on the toll-free telephone number that had been put introduced as a means of combating racial discrimination. The introduction of follow-up measures to this call-centre was approved by the Directorate of Population and Migrations in summer 2000.

At the beginning of 2000, several initiatives have been taken in Denmark with a view to improving equal opportunities on the labour market, independently of the ethnic origin of the employed person. The guidelines concerning recruitment and personnel policies, established for the public sector, have been extended to the private sector in order

to have an impact on recruitment policies. Companies hiring foreign personnel benefit from financial assistance. In July 2001, a new law on citizenship was voted in Sweden that acknowledges double nationality. This law will facilitate the naturalisation of children born to unmarried parents (with a Swedish father), adopted children and stateless persons.

4. Migration, international co-operation and the enlargement of the European Union

International co-operation in the area of migration principally concerns the regulation and control of the flows. Mechanisms for bilateral or multilateral co-operation are in place, whether on the question of visa or border control and agreements also exist principally for the recruitment of highly skilled workers in order to attract foreign investors or simply to encourage the return of emigrants. Moreover, OECD Member countries are become progressively aware of the advantages to be gained from a collective examination of the question of controlling migratory flows in relation to the development of sending countries and their economic integration in the globalisation process.

Mechanisms for multilateral international co-operation in the field of immigration and asylum are still relatively limited, and Member countries of the OECD have a preference for bilateral agreements to deal, for example, with re-admission, and sometimes to establish programmes for the recruitment of workers. Bilateral re-admission agreements with a view to combating unauthorised immigration are being reached increasingly often.

A programme designed to attract foreign investors (Immigration Programme for Investors) has been in place since 1999 in Canada and nine other centres for immigration of business men located overseas Beijing, Berlin, Buffalo, Damascus, Hong Kong/China, London, Paris, Singapore and Seoul) have been operational since 1998.

In the framework of the Programme for Industrial and Technical Training (ITTP), Korea annually recruits trainees of which approximately one-third are taken from the network of affiliated Korean enterprises established overseas. Since 1997, a certain number of these trainees, of which the maximum period of stay could extend to three years, are permitted to legally engage in paid employment during the period of their training. Very often they carry out low-skilled jobs in the firms which brought them to Korea.

On 11 July 2001, the French and Algerian Governments signed an agreement on the status of Algerians in France aimed at bringing it in line with the status of other foreigners. This agreement is a protocol to the 1968 Franco-Algerian Agreement defining the conditions for the movement, employment and residence of Algerian nationals and their families. This protocol is aimed at extending the benefits of ordinary law to Algerians, since, due to various changes in the legislation, particularly in the Act of 1998, Algerians were governed by an agreement that was on the whole less favourable than the ordinary law applying to other foreigners.

For returning and ethnic Greeks the programme launched in the early 1990s, leading to the establishment of a National Foundation for the Reception and Settlement of Repatriated Greeks to assist with housing and economic integration, was deemed inadequate given the numbers involved. Consequently a new Act was passed in 2000 to step up the scheme and provide more accommodation, vocational training and job opportunities, social and cultural integration and public-sector jobs. Subsidies have also been granted to host regions. There is also an active promotion of Greek culture abroad by setting up cultural schemes and cultural centres in other countries, signing employment agreements, setting up Greek chambers of commerce abroad to strengthen economic ties with Greece, and providing assistance for Greek citizens abroad.

In Hungary, changes in migration legislation which seek to bring them in line with those in force in the European Union, raise the important question with neighbouring countries or countries with historical links whose citizens run the risk of no longer benefiting from a visa free entry system into Hungary. This is already the case for Moldavia, Belarus and countries of Central Asia and Caucus. A visa requirement for nationals of Romania, the Slovak Republic, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Ukraine and Croatia would therefore have a negative impact on family and cultural contacts with those communities.

Since 1997, Italy has concluded 22 readmission agreements, particularly with France, Spain, Greece, Austria, Switzerland and the majority of central and eastern European countries, as well as with Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Georgia and Nigeria. Other agreements are being negotiated, mainly with Malta, Senegal, Egypt, the Ukraine, Pakistan, the Philippines and China. Confronted with the problem of illegal immigration from the Southern Mediterranean banks, Italy has concluded bilateral agreements with certain sending countries, such as Tunisia, including the possibility of increasing the quota of legal entries.

One section of Portuguese migration policy is aimed at the Portuguese population living overseas. Portugal has recently adopted measures aimed at setting up a system for social aid in favour of its citizens of 65 years and over living legally overseas. This system would favour those who do not receive sufficient social protection to meet their needs, often as a result of not having contributed to the pension system of the country of residence for a number of years. These measures would grant a monthly payment equivalent to half of the difference between the amount of the pension which would have been paid by the Portuguese authorities according to the recipient's professional status and the social benefits offered in the host country.

Ireland signed a bilateral re-admission agreement with Romania in May 2000, and is due to conclude a similar agreement with Poland in the near future. These agreements should enable the Irish authorities to repatriate numerous asylum seekers from Romania and Poland whose claims have been dismissed by the courts; these include several hundred Gypsies who declared that they had suffered persecution and discrimination in Poland.

After signing agreements of readmission with Finland and Ireland, respectively in 1999 and 2000, the only Member states of the European Union not to have concluded this type of agreement with Romania are the United Kingdom and Portugal. The British authorities are presently considering a draft agreement. Moreover, a readmission agreement between Romania and Bulgaria was signed on 23 July 2000. Discussions are taking place with the authorities of Afghanistan, Albania, Bangladesh, China, Estonia, Macedonia, Mexico and Sri Lanka. Agreements concerning seasonal workers, the exchange of qualified workers, trainees and training contracts have been concluded in July and August 2000, with Switzerland and Germany respectively.

For almost 40 years, the "Scandinavian passport" has guaranteed a total freedom of movement within the borders that constitute the five Scandinavian countries. Nevertheless, it follows that freedom of movement between these countries could not be continually assured if, irrespective of whether or not they are members of the European Union, they did not establish regulations compatible with the Schengen Agreement. Following ratification in May 1999 of the Treaty of Amsterdam, Norway and Iceland signed co-operation agreements with member States of the Schengen area. These agreements came into force in Norway on 25 March 2001.

In Switzerland, a bilateral agreement on the circulation of individuals concluded with the European Union was accepted by referendum in May 2000, at the same time as the other bilateral agreements that had been negotiated, and which could come into force in 2001. Transitory periods have been fixed as far as access to the labour market is concerned.

Poland is pursuing with the institutions of the European Union and member States pre-membership negotiations relating to Polish people's access to the European labour market, and adaptation of its legislation to meet European standards. Romania has been receiving financial aid under the European Union PHARE Programme since autumn 2000; this will enable it to strengthen frontier controls and adopt a passport system that is compatible with the Schengen criteria.

In November 2000, the European Commission approved two reports relating to immigration and asylum policy. The Commission believes that a new approach needs to be put in place by the European Union, in particular to take account of Member States' economic and demographic needs. It has also suggested that the admission of economic migrants be institutionalised in order to respond quickly and effectively to national, regional and local market needs in respect of both highly skilled migrants and other categories of worker. In the Commission's view, responsibility for determining labour force needs ought to be devolved to each Member State given the difficulties in evaluating them and in fixing specific ceilings at European Union level. Several types of status might be drawn up, and the rights of migrants who have been admitted could be established on the basis of their length of stay. In parallel with this new policy on the admission of economic migrants, policies for combating illegal immigration and the trafficking of migrants, and policies for the integration of foreigners and the reception of asylum seekers could be pursued and contained in provisions applying across the whole of the European Union. Finally, a number of regulations are being prepared concerning the future status of workers from third countries residing in regular situation since several years in the European Union (see Box 9).

Mexico is implementing regional co-operation and consultation mechanisms, particularly as regards the re-admission of Mexican migrants, under both the *Puebla* Process and bilateral agreements with the United States. Proposals relating to authorised migration on a permanent basis and to the enlargement of programmes concerning temporary workers, border security and the regularisation of undocumented Mexicans in the United States are the subjects of current negotiations between the two countries.

Box I.9. Future status of workers from third countries in the European Union[1]

The status of workers from third countries in the European Union (EU) was long a secondary issue for the Community's authorities. Unlike nationals of EU Member countries, who enjoy rights laid down in the 1957 Treaty of Rome, particularly the part dealing with citizenship (equal treatment with nationals in host countries, freedom of movement), nationals of third countries are placed on a variety of footings. But moves to harmonise their status and extend their rights have emerged over recent years, and particularly since the Tampere European Council on 15-16 October 1999.

The European Union currently has over 12 million residents who are nationals of third countries. A number of statutory arrangements apply concurrently. Some of these residents have a privileged status, while others are subject to the ordinary law of individual countries.

The first category enjoys some of the rights reserved for European citizens. Nationals of Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, countries which form part of the European Economic Area (EEA), are entitled to equal treatment with EU nationals and to freedom of movement within the European Union. Family members who are not EU nationals may settle in another country on family reunion grounds, following the working family member as he or she moves. The provisions which apply to citizens of countries with association or co-operation agreements with the EU afford varying degrees of protection. Turkish nationals, for example, have status as defined by the Agreement of 12 September 1963 with Turkey and under the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Communities (CJCE) they enjoy a number of the rights of Community nationals.[2] In particular, free movement applies to them. Under the association agreements with Tunisia and Morocco,[3] workers from those two countries do not enjoy free movement but the conditions applying to their employment, remuneration, dismissal and social security arrangements are the same as for nationals. The agreements with the CEECs and the ACP countries do not provide for equality of treatment or free movement.

Non-EU nationals may also enjoy some Community provisions applying to EU nationals in the social sphere, notably those relating to gender equality, health and safety. They also come under the principle of equal treatment without distinction of race or ethnic origin, embodied in Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000. With regard to freedom of movement, they are entitled to move in the framework of intra-EU service provision, if they are in dependent employment. Apart from these specific cases, workers from non-EU countries are subject to the ordinary law of their host country.

At the same time, moves are being made to harmonise rules across the European Union and to extend the rights of non-EU nationals. There are humanitarian reasons for this, but legal ones as well (since the 1997 Amsterdam Treaty, Community law makes an explicit reference to fundamental human rights). From this standpoint, the Charter of Fundamental Rights signed in Nice in December 2000 devotes two clauses to non-EU nationals with long-stay residence or work permits and proposes eventually to accord them equal treatment with nationals and freedom of movement.

A number of regulations are being prepared, which will adjust rights in terms of length of residence. Under the Directive presented by the Commission on 1 December 1999, the right to family reunion would be aligned with the rules applying to EU citizens. Two proposed Directives concern freedom to provide services for non-EU nationals. The first, presented on 27 January 1999, concerns service provision by the self-employed. People in this category would receive an EC service provision card which exempts the holder from visa and permit requirements in other EU countries. Secondment of employees for service provision may also lead to a similar card being issued.

The most significant initiative without doubt concerns long-stay residents. They would have to meet two conditions, if they were not born in an EU country. They would need to show stable resources, and health insurance. Under the proposed Directive presented in early 2001, meeting those conditions would be sufficient for an EC long-stay residence permit, valid for ten years and renewable. Such status would ensure equal treatment with nationals of the host country, notably with regard to access to employment, conditions of employment, social protection, social and tax benefits, and recognition of qualifications. People holding such permits would be able to stay in other EU countries for a period of over three months, if they were carrying out economic activity as a dependent or self-employed worker or following training, or could show adequate resources. In the host country, these non-EU nationals would enjoy equal treatment as in the country of issue, except with regard to social assistance and student grants.

1. This box has been prepared by Frédéric Baron, Maître de conférences (Université de Paris-IX-Dauphine).
2. V.E. Tezcan: *Le droit du travail et de séjour des travailleurs turcs dans l'Union européenne à la lumière des arrêts récents de la Cour de Justice des Communautés européennes*, Rev. Marché commun, February 2001, p. 117 (French only).
3. The agreements concluded in 1976 between the European Community and Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco respectively were replaced by association agreements signed in 1995; they came into force in March 1998 (Tunisia) and March 2000 (Morocco).

NOTES

1. This subsection has been drafted with the co-operation of John Simpson, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.
2. This subsection has been drafted with the co-operation of Marin Sirakov, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.
3. Report by the Romeurope network, presented at the Symposium *Roms, Sintés, Kalés – Tsiganes en Europe: Promouvoir la santé et les droits d'une minorité en détresse*, 19-20 October 2000, Paris.
4. Founded in 1992 by the Visegrad countries, the Central European Free Trade Agreement comprised, at the middle of 1999, the founding Members (Hungary, Poland, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic) joined by Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia.
5. For further information, see *Migration Policies and EU Enlargement. The case of Central and Eastern Europe*, Paris, OECD, 2001 (English only).
6. Section D has been drafted with the co-operation of Lucile Barros, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.

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