

## D. AN OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION POLICIES

Migration policies of OECD member countries can be divided into four sub-sections. The first consists of measures adopted at national and international levels to strengthen the control of flows, including those of asylum seekers. The second concerns the fight against irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreign workers. The third sub-section covers all measures that aim to promote the employment of foreigners and to ensure a better integration of migrants in the host country. This also includes the main conclusions of a Seminar on the Integration of Young Migrants. The last sub-section concerns co-operation at international level in the

area of migration. Country notes (see Part III of this report) are particularly detailed this year, especially concerning migration policies. Consequently this section will focus on selected presentation of the main changes occurring in the countries participating in the SOPEMI network. In the 2001 edition of this annual report, a special chapter was devoted to the student mobility between and towards OECD countries. This year, we follow up with new development prospects for the exchanges of researchers, students and teachers.

### 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 and amending conditions for entry, residence and employment.

It remains difficult to measure the impact of the September 11 terrorist attacks in the United States on migration flows and policies. It seems, however, that entry procedures were more affected than migration policies. Several law proposals have been cancelled or postponed; border controls and international co-operation measures against irregular immigration were reinforced. Most OECD countries have already put in place stricter reviews of asylum applications and foreign student visas. In the long term, though, non-economic migration flows are more likely to be affected directly.

As part of the Government of Canada's Anti-Terrorism Plan, the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration announced the introduction of a permanent resident card. In addition, the Government of Canada amended the current Immigration Act in order to enhance the government's ability to deal with security concerns. Some of the main modifications related to the selection grid for skilled workers. The new selection system emphasises education, job experience and official language ability. Some of the changes introduced in the new Act intend to ease family reunification. In particular, a new "conjugal partners" category has been added to the Family Class to accommodate common-law partners who do not meet the one-year cohabitation requirement. The major change affecting the Refugee Class is the elimination of the Undocumented Protected Persons in Canada (UPPC) category: this allows a more strategic use of detention, which is expected to discourage claimants from destroying documents.

The Terrorist attacks of September 11 have had and will continue to have a significant impact on the operations of US immigrant admission systems although the focus is largely on anti-terrorism issues. The number of Immigration Naturalization Services (INS) Border Patrol Agents tripled and Customs inspectors along the Canadian border were reinforced. A new Act requires the implementation of a foreign student visa monitoring program and encourages the establishment of a co-ordinated entry and exit system. New aviation security legislation reinforces these policies by the in-depth review of the list of passengers flying to the United States.

In addition, there are increased security checks on all male non-immigrant visa applicants between ages 16 and 45 from Arab or Muslim countries. This has resulted in increased waiting periods to enable names to be checked against an FBI database.

In the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary and Romania, legislation on residence and work of foreigners is the subject of important revisions intended to align existing measures with those presently applicable in the European Union. In the Czech Republic, amendments to the Law of Stay of Foreigners introduced notably constrained visa applications. Visas are now required for visitors originating from Belarus, Russia and the Ukraine. New regulations also tightened the application procedure for long term visas, by introducing the requirement to submit the application abroad. Poland created the Office for Repatriation and Foreigners in July 2001. The responsibilities of this new office will include the co-ordination of migration activities among public entities responsible for granting visas. This office will also manage repatriation, family reunion, residency of and penalties to foreigners, the register of foreign residents and centres for refugees and asylum seekers.

Hungary has created a new administrative body within the Ministry of the Interior to be responsible for police, border guards and the refugee office. Moreover, a Status law was passed in 2001, granting preferential treatment to ethnic Hungarians living abroad (estimated at 3 million), by offering financial aid and other special benefits in education, employment, travel and culture. Several provisions of this law, however, are currently being reviewed by the EU in the context of Hungarian admission to determine whether they are discriminatory. In Romania, in addition creating policies to combat irregular migration (for example, training of border control personnel), the Government also aims to reduce the number of Romanians travelling abroad illegally. It decided to check travel agencies involved in the illegal trafficking of people and to introduce a system of certification for employment agencies sending Romanians abroad.

Central to the new German immigration law that is expected to come into effect on January 1, 2003 is the new definition about the rights of foreigners to remain and work in Germany. EU citizens can work and establish themselves freely anywhere in the country and are exempted from the need to obtain special residence permits. In addition, the distinction between residence and work permits has disappeared: a new single

document, replacing the two separate documents, will indicate whether or not the foreigner is allowed to work. The number of permits will be brought down to two: a temporary residence permit and a permanent residence permit. These documents will contain a description of the immigration motives, whether study, work, family reunion or asylum.

Conversion from a temporary to a permanent residence permit is possible after a minimum of five years of residence. However, this conversion is subject to certain conditions. For instance, foreign employees must have made sixty monthly contributions to the obligatory pension fund and must speak German. To promote the integration of foreigners, support in the form of language courses and integration training will be made available to all foreigners who reside legally in the country.

In June 2002, the Italian Parliament approved tougher immigration legislation. The new Italian law increases patrols of the Italy's coastlines and requires

non-EU citizens to be fingerprinted in order to remain in Italy. Residence permits will be linked to work permits, so that non-EU citizens would have to leave Italy within six months of unemployment, down from twelve months. Italian employers sponsoring foreign workers have to provide them with housing and post bail to cover the cost of removing their foreign workers in case of unemployment.

#### **b) Measures aimed at dissuading false asylum seekers**

Several OECD member countries, including Austria, France, Ireland, Norway, the United Kingdom, Sweden and Switzerland have been experiencing a sharp rise in asylum applications for more than a year. More recently, important inflows of asylum seekers have been registered in the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and, to a lesser extent, Hungary. In addition, unaccompanied minors are becoming a growing phenomenon and matter of concern (see Box I.10).

#### **Box I.10. Unaccompanied minors: an increasing phenomenon and matter of concern**

##### *Theme box on the Integration of Immigrants*

Data on immigration of unaccompanied minors or on separated-asylum-seeking children are not easy to obtain and appears to be incomplete although the phenomenon appears to be increasing in most OECD countries. This could be due to several reasons such as human trafficking, the disappearance or death of a family member in the home country as a result of war, pauperisation or aids. Only a few OECD countries report data on non-accompanied minors and they use quite different definitions and methods of measurement. In addition, trafficking and frequent disappearances from reception centres means that part of the problem is invisible. At any one time there may be up to 100 000 non-accompanied minors in Western Europe alone but only a fraction apply for asylum.

UNHCR estimates for 15 European countries show that the number of non-accompanied minors seeking asylum in these countries increased from 12 100 in 1998 to 16 100 in 2000; on average their share in the total number of applications has gone up from 3% to 4%. In the Netherlands the number of applications from unaccompanied minors has increased by 34% on 1999 and almost doubled in Hungary. With 15% of all asylum applications (6 700 in 2000) coming from unaccompanied minors, the Netherlands is a much more popular destination country than two other major host countries, the United Kingdom (2 750) and Hungary (1 200). Most of the inflow in the Netherlands comes from China (67%), whereas there are relatively few unaccompanied minors among Chinese asylum applications in the United Kingdom (3%). However, the Chinese account for only 3% of all asylum applications in the Netherlands but for 5% in the United Kingdom. This suggests that the trends in unaccompanied minors are quite distinct from general asylum patterns.

For other OECD countries, available statistics on unaccompanied minors also indicate that arrivals may be substantial. According to the INS, the number of unaccompanied juveniles arriving in the United States (mostly from China, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador) has more than doubled in the last five years, rising from 3 400 in 1997 to 5 400 in 2001. Almost a third of them are detained in secure facilities. Canada registers only few asylum applications from separated children (671 in 2000), mostly from China and Sri-Lanka, but the figure has increased significantly over the last couple of years and does not accurately reflect a much wider phenomenon linked to child trafficking. Australia reports that the number of unaccompanied minors decreased significantly in the 1990s but has increased steadily over the past few years. Most of these minors are boys from Afghanistan.

This phenomenon, besides being a source of serious humanitarian distress, creates concrete problems for receiving countries in terms of adaptation of their legislation and of the availability of reception facilities. When return is not an option, the integration into the host society of those children requires very specific handling and resources.

Several OECD member countries have adopted a set of measures aimed at dissuading false asylum applications, accelerating the application review process and distributing asylum seekers more evenly in accommodation centres across the country. In the United Kingdom, several measures were recently adopted within the framework of the Nationality Immigration and Asylum Act enacted in 2002. This law sets conditions to process applications more rapidly and shorten appeal processes. It also follows other EU member states by declaring that asylum applications received from EU candidate countries are unfounded. In addition, asylum seekers who have not registered their application immediately upon their arrival will encounter more barriers to application review.

In Ireland, steps have been taken to further augment the number of public service staff engaged in dealing with asylum applications (a total of 650 civil servants). In administrative terms, the aim is to attain as soon as possible a position whereby all applications are completed (including appeal process) within a period of six months. In Norway, the volume of social housing is insufficient to meet the needs of asylum seekers who have been granted refugee or humanitarian status or accepted for resettlement. As of January 2002, a new procedure established a quota-based distribution of refugees to each Norwegian county. Municipalities within each county are responsible for the distribution of the refugees amongst themselves.

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

### ***a) Combating irregular migration***

New legislation entered into force in September 2001 will significantly boost the fight against people smugglers and strengthen the integrity of Australia's borders. The main measures include minimum prison terms for people smugglers and increasing employers and labour suppliers' awareness of their obligation to combat the illegal employment of foreigners. The proposed penalties have been deferred until the measures are implemented, though an administrative warning system has been implemented.

In Spain, new legislation that came into force in July 2001 allows the possibility of immediately deporting foreigners in an irregular situation. Permanent residence permits now can be obtained only after 5 years of residence and work in Spain. The fight against the illegal employment of foreigners was strengthened as in Australia, Finland and New Zealand. In Japan, new stricter penalties can be imposed on illegal entrants and the period of refusal of landing was extended from one to five years. In addition the number of immigration officials was increased to fight against the resurgence of illegal entries and undocumented foreign workers. Greece has stepped up border controls, particularly in the north and east of the country, and has increased sanctions against employers hiring migrants in an irregular situation. Employers now face 3 to 6 months imprisonment and a fine ranging from € 2 940 to € 14 700. In Portugal, a new law was adopted on immigration and foreign workers. In particular, the legislation includes measures which will make it easier for employed immigrants to gain residency and allow illegal immigrants to regularise their situation. Korea, which registered an increasing number of visa overstayers in the country (mostly from China, Bangladesh, Mongolia and the Philippines), has also adopted restrictive measures regarding foreign workers in an irregular situation. In Spain, the strengthening of sanctions is mostly aimed at employers.

Combating illegal immigration is also on the agenda of Central and Eastern European countries. Legislation focuses specifically on sanctions against people smugglers and traffickers. In Lithuania, for example, the criminal code was amended to increase the maximum punishment for people smugglers to 15 years imprisonment (the most severe punishment in Europe). Romania has adopted two laws: one on the legal status of its national border and another on the organisation and functions of the Romanian border police. A programme for the training of border patrol personnel is scheduled through to 2004. Romania has drafted border-related agreements (based on the Schengen Agreement) with its neighbouring countries and initiated steps to align its visa policies with EU member states. Persons found to have been involved in creating a trafficking organisation can be imprisoned from 3 to 10 years.

Under the new Italian law (June 2002), non-EU foreigners found residing illegally in Italy will be

barred from legal re-entry for 10 years instead the current 5 years. Moreover, penalties for re-entering Italy illegally were increased, with 6 to 12 months of detention for the first illegal re-entry and 1 to 4 years for subsequent entries. Finally, legal migrants can be detained 60 days before renewal, up from 30 days. Foreigners who apply for asylum after being detained will remain in detention.

#### **b) Recent regularisation programmes and their results**

An increasing number of OECD countries have held regularisation programmes in the past decade and many are debating whether to either initiate or reinstall such programmes. Each country applies different criteria in order to define precisely the population who will benefit from regularisation programmes. Often, regularisation is granted based on prior work, sometimes restricted to a particular industry (for example, the current regularisation programme in Italy is restricted to healthcare workers and people providing services to the elderly). Other programmes cover persons who have been present in the country for a certain period of time; for example, the 1997 regularisation programme in France was based on family criteria. Still other programmes include asylum seekers who have faced delays in their processing or who did not qualify under existing asylum criteria (Belgium, Switzerland and Luxembourg).

The most common criterion for eligibility is the right acquired through employment, which may lead to a perverse effect insofar as it could encourage illegal employment in the hope of an amnesty. This is the case most recently in Italy, Spain and Portugal. Italy has conducted four regularisation operations in less than fifteen years and has experienced extensive fraud in its occupation-based amnesties with applicants submitting false job contracts.

Targeting particular nationalities is very rarely observed among regularisation programmes. It is, however, a practice in Mexico, which has recently regularised Guatemalans, and in the United States, which has undertaken different regularisation operations principally aimed at nationals from Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti and Nicaragua. Also, before the September 11 terrorist attacks, the United States were considering the implementation of a regularisation programme focusing solely on Mexican citi-

zens. Spain has recently proceeded with the regularisation of nationals from Ecuador.

Table I.26 describes the main regularisation programmes carried out recently in several OECD countries. Italy, Spain, Greece and Portugal are among the countries having implemented the most important regularisation programmes, especially in light of the relatively small number of foreign residents living in these countries in the early 1990s. Of significant interest is the diversity of nationalities benefiting from the various regularisation programmes, especially in the case of Italy and Portugal. These two countries also are noting a growing number of immigrants from the Balkan and Central Europe, for the former, and from the Ukraine and Moldavia, for the latter.

The decision to establish a regularisation programme is extremely complex, having a large number of very significant pros and cons. Such programmes bring persons out of the shadows and provide them with the status and rights necessary to become more successful members of society. Regularisation can also be viewed as a wise course of action from a public security perspective. It provides important information to governments on the numbers of persons in irregular status, their networks and their settlement patterns. Also, by opening up broader employment opportunities for migrants, these programmes may discourage the pursuit of unlawful activities.

There are, however, potential negative consequences in establishing a regularisation programme. The most frequently cited is that regularisation programmes often encourage future illegal migration, sometimes even at greater rates than those occurring before the programme. A second argument against regularisation, related to the previous one, is that such programmes reward law-breaking. For those countries having a legal immigration system – whether of a temporary or permanent nature – regularisation programmes can essentially result in queue-breaking, with irregular migrants entering before those who have been waiting their turn. Another possible drawback of establishing regularisation programmes is that they may prevent countries from creating formal admission systems, particularly those directed towards low skilled workers. Largely due to these negative consequences, a number of OECD countries (*e.g.*, Australia, Canada, Denmark, Norway, Switzerland) have had either extremely limited regularisation programmes or none at all.

Table I.26. **Main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in selected OECD countries, by nationality**  
Thousands

Belgium		France				Greece			
(2000) <sup>1</sup>		(1981-1982) <sup>2</sup>		(1997-1998)		(1997-1998) <sup>3</sup>		(2001) <sup>4</sup>	
Dem. Rep. of Congo	8.8	Tunisia	17.3	Algeria	12.5	Albania	239.9		
Morocco	6.2	Morocco	16.7	Morocco	9.2	Bulgaria	24.9		
		African countries	15.0	China	7.6	Romania	16.7		
		Portugal	12.7	Dem. Rep. of Congo	6.3	Pakistan	10.8		
		Algeria	11.7	Tunisia	4.1	Ukraine	9.8		
		Turkey	8.6			Poland	8.6		
Other	36.9	Other	39.1	Other	38.1	Other	60.3		
<b>Total</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>121.1</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>77.8</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>371.0</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>351.0</b>
Italy									
(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996) <sup>5</sup>		(1998) <sup>5</sup>			
Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	34.3	Albania	39.0		
Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	29.7	Romania	24.1		
Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	21.4	Morocco	23.9		
Tunisia	10.0	Former Yug.	11.3	China	14.4	China	16.8		
Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	12.8	Senegal	10.7		
Former Yug.	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	11.1	Egypt	9.5		
Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	120.8	Other	93.2		
<b>Total</b>	<b>118.7</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>217.7</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>244.5</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>217.1</b>		
Portugal									
(1992-1993)		(1996)		(2001) <sup>6</sup>					
Angola	12.5	Angola	6.8	Ukraine	42.6				
Guinea-Bissau	6.9	Cape Verde	5.0	Brazil	22.6				
Cape Verde	6.8	Guinea-Bissau	4.0	Moldova	8.5				
		Sao Tome and Principe	2.0	Romania	7.0				
Brazil	5.3			Cape Verde	5.2				
Sao Tome and Principe	1.4	Brazil	0.3	Russia	4.8				
Senegal	1.4	Other	3.7	Other	29.5				
Other	4.8								
<b>Total</b>	<b>39.2</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>120.2</b>				
Spain									
(1985-1986) <sup>7</sup>		(1991)		(1996)		(2000) <sup>8</sup>		(2001) <sup>9</sup>	
Morocco	7.9	Morocco	49.2	Morocco	7.0	Morocco	45.2	Ecuador	48.8
Portugal	3.8	Argentina	7.5	Peru	1.9	Ecuador	20.2	Colombia	36.4
Senegal	3.6	Peru	5.7	China	1.4	Colombia	12.5	Morocco	19.9
Argentina	2.9	Dominican Rep.	5.5	Argentina	1.3	China	8.8	Romania	18.8
United Kingdom	2.6	China	4.2	Poland	1.1	Pakistan	7.3	Ukraine	7.6
Philippines	1.9	Poland	3.3	Dominican Rep.	0.8	Romania	6.9	Bulgaria	6.4
Other	21.1	Other	34.7	Other	7.8	Other	63.1	Other	78.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>43.8</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>110.1</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>21.3</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>163.9</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>216.4</b>
Switzerland		United States							
(2000) <sup>10</sup>		(1986) <sup>11</sup>		(1997-1998) <sup>12</sup>		(2000) <sup>13</sup>			
Sri Lanka	8.9	Mexico	2 008.6	El Salvador / Guatemala	300.0				
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.9	El Salvador	152.3	Haiti	50.0				
Bosnia Herzegovina	0.6	Caribbean	110.5	Nicaragua	40.0				
Turkey	0.3	Guatemala	64.0	Eastern Europe	10.0				
		Colombia	30.3	Cuba	5.0				
		Philippines	25.7						
Other	0.5	Other	293.5						
<b>Total</b>	<b>15.2</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>2 684.9</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>405.0</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>400.0</b>		

Table I.26. **Main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in selected OECD countries, by nationality (cont.)**

1. A regularisation programme started in January 2000. Asylum seekers who were residing in Belgium in October 1999 and who fill in certain conditions could apply. Figures indicate the number of persons who applied (including dependents). A total of 35 000 dossiers have been received.
  2. Excluding seasonal workers (6 681 persons) and around 1 200 small traders not broken down by nationality.
  3. Persons who had been granted a white card (first stage of the regularisation). Data by nationality are preliminary.
  4. Number of applications of work and residence permits according to the October 2001 law.
  5. Number of permits granted based on estimates done by M. Carfagna, "I sommersi e i sanati. Le regolarizzazioni degli immigrati in Italia" in *Stranieri in Italia: Assimilati ed esclusi*, A Colombo and G Sciortino (eds.), Mulino, Bologna, 2002.
  6. The new foreigners act (January 2001) allowed the regularisation of undocumented Non-EU citizens in possession of registered work contracts. The process took place during 2001 and the data presented correspond to the permanence permits delivered between the 10th of January and the 4th of December 2001.
  7. Number of applications received.
  8. Regularisation programme held from 23rd March to 31st July 2000.
  9. "Arraigo" programme. Total number of permits granted by 15 April 2002.
  10. Programme called "Action humanitaire 2000". People accepted should have been in Switzerland since 31 December 1992 and have encountered big troubles.
  11. Data refer to all persons granted a permanent residence permit (excluding their dependents) during the period 1989-1996 following the 1986 Immigration and Reform Control Act. Data are broken down by country of birth.
  12. Including some estimates of foreigners who are eligible for the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (November 1997) and for the Haitian Refugee Immigration Fairness Act (October 1998).
  13. Estimates of applications for legalization under the Legal Immigration Family Equity (LIFE) Act.
- Sources: Switzerland: Office des étrangers; France: Office des migrations internationales; Greece: National Employment Observatory; Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal and Spain: Ministry of the Interior; United States: Immigration and Naturalization Service.

### 3. Policies for the integration of immigrants

In the previous edition of this annual report (see *Trends in International Migration*, OECD 2001) particular attention was given to the definition of population targeted by integration measures. This year's report will briefly summarise integration measures recently taken by member countries, such as those regarding the acquisition of the host country's language and the fight against discrimination. The main conclusions of a Seminar on the Integration of Young Migrants, organised in June 2002 by the OECD and the Belgium Authorities, are presented in Box I.11. Particular attention is also devoted to the evolution of the naturalisation rate in several OECD countries. Section A of Part I discusses measures taken to facilitate the recruitment of highly qualified foreign workers and relaxing the conditions for students to change their status at the end of their studies (see above and for more detail, *Trends in International Migration*, OECD 2001).

#### a) Measures regarding the fight against discrimination and the acquisition of the host country's language

An Act strengthening the legislation on racism and xenophobia and extending the prerogatives of the Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism was adopted on 15 July 2002 in Belgium. Another law prohibiting all forms discrimination was

also passed. In Canada, the Host Programme matches Canadian volunteers with arriving immigrants to facilitate their integration and settlement. There is also a programme aimed at providing arriving immigrants with instruction in the official languages of Canada. Citizenship and Immigration Canada is currently conducting a longitudinal study on immigrants in co-operation with Statistics Canada. This study is examining the economic and social aspects of integration and, in particular, newcomers' needs in this regard.

In January 1999, the New Act on Immigration came into force in Denmark and includes, among other measures, a new three-year introduction programme for newly arrived immigrants and refugees. Particular focus is given on compulsory language acquisition. A similar programme is expected in Austria and France has adopted this measure, though without the obligatory nature. In Spain, the Higher Council for Policy on the Regularisation and Co-ordination of Foreigners and Immigration (GRECO) is responsible for co-ordinating the three levels of government (central government, autonomous communities and municipal councils) with the aim of developing an overall immigration policy embracing social integration and employment. A consultative and advisory body, The Forum for Integration, makes recommendations to the government on questions relating to the integration of foreigners.

To reduce the unemployment rate of immigrants, Norway has introduced numerous programmes on job

training, reinforcing Norwegian language competencies and acquiring qualifications. In Sweden, the *Ombudsman* against Ethnic Discrimination has published and disseminated guides providing relevant advice for employers. Other initiatives include the use of anti-discrimination clauses in public procurement arrangements (which makes certain subsidies conditional upon anti-discrimination measures) and training the National Labour Market Board staff in discrimination issues.

In Switzerland, the Federal Council passed an ordinance, effective 1 October 2001, which primarily deals with providing Federal subsidies to assist the integration of foreigners. Among the main objectives of this law and the allocated budget for the various project are the promotion of linguistic competencies and work development and the training of key persons (*e.g.*, translators, mediators, youth workers, sports trainers) to promote an intercultural work environment.

**b) Main conclusions of the Seminar on the integration of young immigrants into the labour market**

The OECD Secretariat organised, with the support and co-operation of the Belgian authorities (Ministry of Employment and Labour), a seminar in Brussels on 6-7 June 2002 on the integration of young immigrants in the labour market (see Box I.11). The Seminar had three main objectives:

- To identify the obstacles to integration of young immigrant men and women into the labour market and particularly discrimination in recruitment and at work.
- To present the measures implemented by local or regional actors and the active public policies to help overcome these obstacles.
- To evaluate the impact of such measures with a view to improving the degree of employability of immigrants and to develop proposals and recommendations to policy makers.

In conclusion, the seminar made it possible to identify the different areas of responsibility – for enterprises in the social policy field and for the State and public services – in presenting a positive image of immigration and in highlighting its benefits both for the host country and countries of origin. Lastly, local and regional actors as well as migrants and members of their families have their own responsibility in improving integration into labour markets and society in general.

**c) The evolution of the naturalisation rate**

Acquiring the citizenship of a host country reflects a process of gradual economic and social integration and, in fact, may facilitate their integration. The number of naturalisations depends essentially on the magnitude and time of migration waves as well as the liberal characteristics of the legislation concerning citizenship. It is also linked to how much importance foreigners place on acquiring the citizenship of their host country and the consequences of the possible loss of their original citizenship. The basis on which countries determine how citizenship can be acquired and granted – being birth place, and/or duration of residence, kinship (for the first two the principal is *jus soli*, for the *latte jus sanguinis*) – plays a fundamental role in the distinctions drawn between foreign and national foreign populations. Changes in naturalisation procedures occurred in the past few years in several OECD countries with the liberalisation of laws considered too restrictive (see for more detail the special chapter on the acquisition of citizenship in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 1995).

In Germany almost 190 000 foreigners obtained German citizenship in 2000. Turks were over-represented, accounting for 44% of all naturalisations compared to their share in the foreign population. As of 1 January 2000, adult foreigners may obtain German citizenship after 8 years of legal residence, as compared to 15 years in previous conditions. This change in law explains part of the increase of the naturalisations; in 2000, about 40% of all naturalisations were on the basis of the new law. Also as of 1 January 2000, children born of foreign-born parents can obtain German citizenship if one of their parents legally resided in the country during the last 8 years; in 2000, of the 91 000 children that were born of foreign parents, 40 800 have obtained citizenship as a result of this new law.

The number of applications for Australian citizenship lodged in 2000/2001 concerned more than 77 000 persons, a small increase on the previous fiscal year. Persons holding British passports accounted for 17% of all naturalisations, followed by New Zealanders and Chinese nationals. In Austria, the number of naturalisations increased substantially between 1998 and 2000, from 18 300 to 24 700. Most naturalisations were former guest workers such as Yugoslavs (30%) and Turks (27%).

In Belgium, the revised Nationality Code which came into force on 1 May 2000 led to a substantial

**Box I.11. Seminar on the Integration of Young Immigrants in the Labour Market  
(Brussels, 6-7 June 2002)**

*Theme box on the Integration of Immigrants*

The documents presented at the Seminar and the discussions among the various participants show that the targeted population is very heterogeneous: recently arrived immigrant youth and second and even third generation youth, many of whom have obtained the nationality of their country of residence. It was also widely acknowledged that statistical tools were inadequate for identifying the populations concerned; the question was to know whether temporal monitoring supported by longitudinal surveys were required to ascertain the degree of integration or insertion of a given part of the population. Regarding integration, the vocabulary fluctuated between assimilation (acceptance of the value system of the host country and even renouncement of one's own culture) and insertion into the labour market and integration into society (a concept which acknowledges the respect of the host country's laws).

The fundamental issue, on which there was a consensus, was how to develop the human resources of an entire segment of the labour force (foreign or foreign-origin) which has difficulty integrating into the labour market. The aim should be to use most effectively the competencies of these young men and women, who are a source of potential wealth for both the economy and society at large. It is clear that a proportion of young job seekers lack skills, and some cases language skills, which are essential for integration into the labour market. Non-recognition of diplomas and training was also widely mentioned as a problem. Lastly, the critical role of the education system in the future insertion of immigrants into the labour market was underscored.

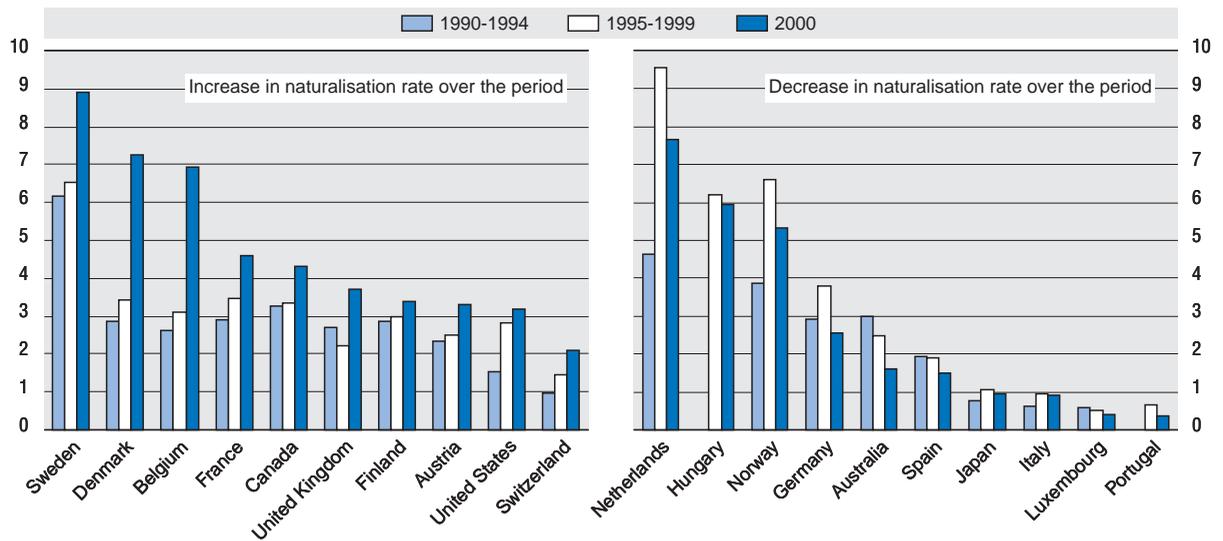
Concerning public policy measures, the bulk of the discussions focussed on whether across-the-board measures or more specific, targeted measures are most effective. Across-the-board measures are aimed at all disadvantaged categories and emphasise education, vocational guidance, training and policies to promote entrepreneurship and employment, similarly to those in force notably in France and Sweden. Specific measures implemented within the framework of public employment services essentially consist of policies to follow up and help young immigrants or the descendants of immigrants to integrate into the labour market. This is particularly the case in Belgium. The United Kingdom, for example, has placed an emphasis on vocational training, while others countries like the Netherlands have put in place "binding" partnerships with firms which oblige them to recruit a given percentage of immigrant youth in the event of job vacancies. With regards to discrimination, the State has a leading role to play in ensuring that the existence of discrimination is recognised and in devising an effective legal framework for combating it. Public employment services must also develop training initiatives to raise staff awareness of the existence of discrimination and to modify their attitudes in order for them to be able to convince firms to give young immigrants or the children of immigrants a chance. A whole new approach needs to be developed in terms of the relationships and partnerships with firms and especially with the heads of personnel departments. It is necessary to strengthen ties between the various actors – youth, the state, public employment services and other public services, firms and charitable organisations – and to improve co-ordination between the various levels (local, regional and national) in policy framing and implementation.

To form a better picture of the effectiveness of current policies and measures, it would be necessary to improve analytical tools and to reflect in more depth on the means of evaluation. In this respect, the example of the United Kingdom demonstrates how it is necessary that the means of evaluation be taken into account when measures to facilitate the insertion of youths into the labour market are being designed or implemented. Analyses aimed at measuring the effectiveness of policies should be budgeted at the outset. They are highly recommended in order to know and to make known which measures work, so as to exchange new measures that incorporate best practices.

growth in the number of naturalisations in 2000. Approximately 63% of all foreigners naturalised that year were Moroccans or Turks. In Denmark, after relative stability between 1991 and 1997, the number of naturalisations almost doubled in 1998 and grew by more than 51% from 12 400 to 18 800 between 1999 and 2000. People of Asian origin were more likely to request Danish citizenship than other immigrants. In 2001 the number of naturalisations declined to 12 000.

Some 12 000 people obtained Spanish nationality in 2000 which was about 25% down on the previous year. Three-fifths of those naturalised were from South America, mainly from the Dominican Republic and Peru, while 20% were of African origin. Preliminary statistics for 2000 and 2001 show that naturalisations in the United States were respectively around 900 000 and more than 610 000. In France, 150 000 acquisitions of French nationality were approved in 2000, which was the highest figure

Chart I.18. **Naturalisation rate in selected OECD countries, 1990-2000**  
Annual average, per 100 foreigners at the beginning of the year



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

Source: See the notes related to Table A-1-6 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

ever recorded. Applications by European nationals declined while applications by African and Asian nationals increased. Preliminary data for 2001, though, indicate a decrease in the number of naturalisations (around 128 000). In Hungary, more than half of the 7 600 naturalisations in 2000 were attributed to former Romanian citizens. Other naturalisations included citizens from the former Yugoslavia (22%) and the Ukraine (about 12%). In Italy, of the new citizens in 2000 (11 570), approximately 85% were naturalised following marriage with an Italian citizen. In Norway, more than 9 500 foreigners acquired Norwegian nationality. The number of naturalisations of Pakistani and Turkish nationals rose sharply.

In 2000, about 50 000 persons acquired Dutch nationality. The biggest group continues to be that of Moroccans (13 500). More than 4 200 foreigners acquired Slovak nationality in 2000 and the three leading nationalities receiving grants of citizenship were the Czech Republic, the Ukraine and the United States. In 2000, around 1 100 applicants were granted Czech citizenship, most of whom were originally from the Ukraine, Bulgaria, Vietnam or Russia. There were 43 500 naturalisations in 2000 in Sweden, an increase over the 1999 figure of 37 800. The three

leading nationalities receiving grants of citizenship are nationals from Bosnia Herzegovina, followed by Iraqis and Somalians.

The number of people acquiring Swiss nationality in 2000 increased by 40% on 1999, reaching 28 700, the largest annual increase recorded during the 1990/2000 period. Most naturalisations were nationals from EU and EFTA.

Chart I.18 describes the naturalisation rate in selected OECD countries. It covers the periods 1990-94 and 1993-99 as well as the year 2000. The left side of the chart concerns OECD member countries which have registered in 2000 a naturalisation rate higher than during the two previous periods. The rate of naturalisation is the highest in Sweden, Denmark and Belgium compared to those registered in Austria, the United States and Switzerland. On the right side of the chart, the rate of naturalisation, though being relatively high in the Netherlands, Hungary and Norway, remains lower compared to those registered during the period 1995-99.

#### 4. Migration and international co-operation

International co-operation in the area of migration principally concerns the regulation and control

of migration flows. Mechanisms for bilateral or multi-lateral co-operation are in place, whether on the question of visa or border control. Agreements also exist principally for the recruitment of highly skilled workers, to attract foreign investors or simply to encourage the return of emigrants (see for more detailed *International Mobility of the Highly Skilled*, OECD, 2002). New perspectives are in view for increasing exchanges of researchers, students and teachers in the context of European and international relations.

**a) International co-operation in the area of regulation and control of migration flows**

Mechanisms for multilateral international co-operation in the field of immigration and asylum are still relatively limited, except in the case of ongoing negotiations for EU enlargement (for more details, see *Migration Policies and EU Enlargement. The Case of Central and Eastern Europe*, OECD, 2001). OECD member countries have a preference for bilateral agreements to deal with the recruitment of foreign workers and the re-admission of foreigners in an irregular situation. Bilateral re-admission agreements aiming to combat unauthorised immigration are being reached increasingly often and sometimes are linked with worker recruitment programmes. Regional economic integration is also included in the area of international co-operation on migration as illustrated by the ongoing discussions between the United States and Mexico, on one hand, and Switzerland and the EU member countries on the other hand. Moreover, the OECD member countries which have an important number of their citizens living abroad continue to reinforce the links with the members of their own community. It is the case notably of Greece, Turkey and, more recently, Hungary (see above in this Section: 1.a).

In Australia, short-term business entry arrangements across APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation) have been improved as economies collectively agreed to issue multiple entry visas to frequent APEC business travellers. Under the Industrial and Technical Training Programme (ITTP), Korea annually recruits trainees of which approximately one-third are taken from the network of affiliated Korean enterprises established overseas. As of 1997, a certain number of these trainees with a maximum stay extendable to 3 years are permitted to legally engage in paid employment at the end of their training period. Very often, they carried out low-skilled jobs in the field that brought them to Korea. In 2000, the number of trainees was 127 000, of which two-thirds

had been recruited through the Korean Federation of Small Business. In 2001, more than 145 000 trainees had been recruited, a sharp increase, compared to the previous year.

During the fiscal year 2000/2001, New Zealand established a new Working Holiday Scheme with Germany, Italy, Hong Kong (China), Chile and China. This programme has been implemented with Australia and the United Kingdom for many years, and more recently with Norway. It allows young people of both countries to work while on holiday in the partnering countries. Commonwealth citizens aged between 17 and 27 wishing to work in the United Kingdom for limited periods are exempt of work permits and fall under the Working Holiday Makers Scheme (see above). The annual number employed in this category rose from 23 000 in 1990 to more than 38 000 in 2000. Australian nationals constitute the most important group followed by South Africans.

In the interest of economic co-operation and development, the Czech Republic concluded new reciprocal employment agreements with Hungary, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Mongolia. Romania reached a similar agreement with Portugal and plans to pursue an inter-governmental agreement on the status of Romanian workers in Israel to ensure their social protection.

In 2001, Spain signed three bilateral agreements with Ecuador, Colombia and Morocco and, more recently, with Romania, Poland and the Dominican Republic. These agreements are designed to "prevent illegal immigration and the economic exploitation of undocumented foreigners". They also serve to establish a procedure for the selection of foreign workers, with the following salient points: communicating job opportunities using Spanish embassies, specifying the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of labour requirements outlined in the framework of the quota system; selecting candidates with the participation of employers and determining living and residence conditions in Spain; guaranteeing that foreign workers enjoy the same rights and working conditions as nationals; drawing up special provisions for temporary workers; and helping temporary workers by means of voluntary return programmes. Italy signed recently re-admission agreements with Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Georgia and Nigeria. The agreements signed with Tunisia provide an increase in the legal channels for migrant workers in regular situation. Other agreements currently are being negotiated with Malta,

Senegal, Egypt, the Ukraine, Pakistan, the Philippines and China.

In 2000, Bulgaria signed several re-admission agreements, in particular with countries in the former USSR and the former Yugoslavia. A re-admission treaty with Turkey is currently being drafted. Bulgarian and Romanian nationals no longer require visas to enter the Schengen area since 2000 and 2002, respectively. Greece has signed a re-entry agreement with Turkey in November 2001, whereby illegal immigrants from Turkey are deported back to that country unless they have submitted asylum applications that are not visibly groundless. In order to facilitate the process of enforcing statutory deportation orders, the Irish Government has signed re-admission agreements with Romania, Nigeria, Poland and Bulgaria. These are designated to provide a structured repatriation procedure for the return of nationals from these countries who are residing without authorisation in Ireland.

The Baltic States have introduced various changes with the primary aim of bringing their laws and regulations into line with those prevailing in the European Union. Some problematic areas remain, one of which is the abolition of a simplified visa regime for border residence of Belarus and the Russian Federation. With the aim of preparing for the abolition of visa regime privileges for citizens of the Russian Federation and Belarus, an action plan has been drafted for expansion and strengthening of consular institutions in Belarus and the Kaliningrad region of the Russian Federation by the end of 2003. Romania has received since autumn 2000 financial aid from the European Union PHARE Programme, enabling it to strengthen frontier controls and adopt a passport system that is compatible with the Schengen criteria.

Mexico and the United States have been negotiating 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. The terrorist attacks of September 11, though, slowed down these discussions. Bilateral agreement between Switzerland and EU Member states for the free movements of persons (for residency and work purposes) came into force in June 2002. The Treaty will gradually lead to complete freedom of movements between Switzerland and the EU and is expected to pave the way for Switzerland's accession to the Schengen/Dublin agreements. Swiss nationals will be granted

full right to work and settle in a EU country from June 2004 but EU nationals will have to wait until sometime between 2004 and 2014.

In the early 1990s, a programme was launched for assisting returning and ethnic Greeks. The program led to the establishment of a National Foundation for the Reception and Settlement of Repatriated Greeks to assist with housing and economic integration; it was deemed inadequate, however, given the high numbers of returning and ethnic Greeks. 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. In addition, Greek culture has been promoted actively 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.

Turkey's 8th (2001-2005) Five-Year Plan focuses on the cases of Turkish citizens living abroad and pays particular attention to their social and economic problems as well as the safeguard of their rights and interests. One of the most emphasised issues in this Plan is the situation of Turkish workers who engaged in small and medium size entrepreneurs, mainly in Germany. Such Turkish workers are estimated at more than 47 000 in Germany and are responsible for creating more than 200 000 employment opportunities in that country. Another significant policy item in the Plan is the needed co-operation between main migration actors. Two Committees had been created since 1998 and both are chaired by the Prime Minister, the Supreme Committee on Turkish Citizens Living Abroad and the Consultancy Committee of Turkish Citizens Living Abroad.

**b) *New development prospects for exchanges of researchers, students and teachers in the framework of European and international relations***<sup>8</sup>

Technological changes have boosted international co-operation and accelerated the mobility of the highly skilled, researchers and knowledge (see *International Mobility of the Highly Skilled*, OECD 2002). Mobility programmes such as SCIENCE and LEONARDO DA VINCI have been developed specifically for research scientists and vocational trainees.

The success of European academic exchange programmes (ERASMUS student exchanges hit the one million mark in 2002) is now inspiring university mobility programmes in other parts of the world (UMAP was launched by the APEC countries in 1991 and an information network on academic mobility, RIMA, has been set up by the MERCOSUR countries).

For many years, the rules of international trade were seldom applied to economic activities in the field of research and education. Explanations for this situation relate less to the feared brain drain effect or to the social and cultural dimension of education, but reflect more the fact that these activities were deemed to be non-tradable services. Despite some reluctance during the Treaty of Rome negotiations and proposals for special arrangements that remained unheeded, EC rules on the free movement of persons and services eventually benefited researchers, students and teachers wishing to move around the Common Market.

Following the EU discourse, a period of greater freedom of economic movement between countries began for researchers, students and teachers and has continued with the expansion of international trade in services in other regions (*e.g.* NAFTA) and throughout the world with the Uruguay Round negotiations. Globalisation, together with the development of knowledge-based economies, is fostering migration policies that facilitate entry for researchers and students. It has led to greater co-operation on education and research matters, particularly within the framework of the European Union, and to new prospects for liberalisation in both sectors under the auspices of the World Trade Organisation (WTO).

*Development of co-operation on education and research with a view to setting up a European Knowledge Area (EKA)*

The determination to foster the development of a European knowledge-based society and economy has led to an increase in mobility-targeted funds mobility in Community programmes promoting education, training, research and organisational development. The SOCRATES II programme, adopted by the 24 January 2000 decision, has been given a budget of € 1 800 million, double the amount initially allocated to SOCRATES I. A proposal to attract students and teachers from third countries with a new ERASMUS WORLD programme was also submitted on 17 July 2002. This was supplemented with a recent

proposal (dated 7 October 2002) for a Council Directive on the entry and residence of students from third countries, based on EU jurisdiction with respect to immigration.

Designed to promote a European Research Area (ERA), the new Framework Programme for Research, Technological Development and Demonstration Activities for 2002-2006, adopted by the 27 June 2002 decision, increases funding for initiatives to promote mobility among researchers by awarding Marie Curie Fellowships. A special programme adopted on 30 September 2002 provides financing for more diversified forms of mobility, with a view to structuring ERA. In particular, it promotes special fellowships to tackle problems such as the brain drain from less developed regions and the need to attract scientists from third countries, but does not set aside a budget for such initiatives.

On 20 June 2001, as requested by the European Council in Lisbon, the Commission published a strategy to promote mobility among researchers with the goal of developing a European Research Area (ERA). The strategy aims to remove practical barriers to such mobility, in particular related to funding, return to the country of origin and the lack of information on posts abroad. Accordingly, it proposes to set up Mobility Centres that will assist researchers seeking to move abroad, create an EC researcher card or scientific visa and an increase in financial support.

*Prospects for greater liberalisation of trade in research and educational services in a global economy*

During the Uruguay Round, few specific commitments were made to "Mode 4" R&D services (see above Box 1.3), which only 46 out of the 130 WTO Members had included on their lists. These lists usually referred back to horizontal commitments on the movements of people. Researchers seeking mobility, however, are not exempt from the requirements on work or residence permits. The prospect of greater liberalisation for Mode 4 services will benefit researchers who are service providers or seconded employees subject to national immigration procedures. The problems in reaching an agreement in this area could be offset by measures to facilitate temporary movements of natural persons for the provision of specific services.

The expansion of distance learning and the deregulation of higher education in Europe prompted the WTO to set up a working group in 1998.

Its report envisaged greater liberalisation for educational services, now a controversial issue in future negotiation rounds. Some countries, such as the United States, have come out in favour of new commitments in this key economic sector, whereas others, in particular France, see a risk to their public education systems.

Largely contingent on new commitments made under the Mode 4 negotiations, growth in the international mobility of students and teachers will also depend on the development of mechanisms for the international recognition of academic qualifications. Consumer protection requirements in response to the emergence of new private educational service providers might warrant international systems of professional accreditation and quality assurance based on self-

regulation. Proposals made within UNESCO for an international regulatory framework for higher education in the era of globalisation could foster the introduction of such systems.

To conclude, while trade negotiations are being held at a global level, regional organisations appear to want to keep pace with the knowledge economy by encouraging their member countries to facilitate educational and scientific exchanges within their own region. At a time when national institutions responsible for promoting cultural co-operation are in crisis in several countries, international economic co-operation appears to be emerging as the most appropriate framework in which to develop the international mobility of students, teachers and researchers in years to come.

## NOTES

1. An estimated 3 million Canadian senior citizens make these moves during the long winter season.
2. Hitzelsberger F., J. Reuter and W. Steinle, (2001), *Scientific Report on the Mobility of Cross-Border Workers within the EEA*. Commissioned by the European Commission, DG Employment and Social Affairs.
3. P. Pedersen (1996), "The common Nordic Labour Market: an experiment in free mobility", in *The Nordic Labour Market in the 1990's*, Vol. I, E. Wadekjo (ed.), Elsevier.
4. This is the highest fertility rate in the EU and equal to the rate recorded for Ireland.
5. See, for example, Mayer J. and R. Riphahn (1999) for a study based on German data and PPIC (2002) for a study based on American data.
6. This sub-section on Asia was written by Ronald Skeldon, Professorial Fellow, School of African and Asian Studies, University of Sussex and consultant to the OECD.
7. 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.
8. This sub-section has been written by Stéphane Lalanne, Researcher in International Law, Consultant to the OECD.

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## ANNEX, PART I

## Probability of foreigners aged 15 to 64 to be out of the labour force according to duration of residence and selected individual characteristics

	Constant	Sex	Age	Education	European	Duration of residence	
<b>Austria</b>	-0.181	-0.675	0.060	-0.391	0.276	-0.051	
Standard deviation	0.079	0.066	0.015	0.054	0.091	0.009	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	5.2	105.0	17.0	52.2	9.2	29.9	-989.4
<b>Belgium</b>	0.533	-0.733	0.023	-0.303	-0.546	-0.003	
Standard deviation	0.099	0.072	0.016	0.045	0.078	0.008	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	29.0	102.6	2.1	44.8	49.0	0.1	-826.4
<b>Denmark</b>	0.143	-0.317	0.067	-0.213	-0.740	-0.043	
Standard deviation	0.210	0.151	0.038	0.109	0.190	0.021	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	0.5	4.4	3.1	3.8	15.2	4.1	-194.6
<b>Finland</b>	0.650	-0.818	-0.027	-0.332	-0.371	-0.061	
Standard deviation	0.228	0.159	0.031	0.110	0.208	0.022	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	8.1	26.5	0.8	9.2	3.2	7.5	-185.3
<b>France</b>	0.392	-0.676	0.023	-0.116	-0.236	-0.061	
Standard deviation	0.071	0.050	0.011	0.034	0.056	0.007	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	30.9	179.9	4.5	11.3	17.9	85.9	-1 702.9
<b>Germany</b>	-0.093	-0.680	0.062	-0.179	-0.268	-0.037	
Standard deviation	0.034	0.028	0.006	0.020	0.032	0.004	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	7.4	599.3	102.4	81.5	71.8	113.6	-5 472.1
<b>Greece</b>	0.027	-1.106	-0.060	-0.039	0.469	-0.010	
Standard deviation	0.101	0.077	0.017	0.053	0.140	0.012	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	0.1	204.4	12.4	0.5	11.2	0.7	-777.2
<b>Hungary</b>	-0.242	-0.489	0.090	-0.358	0.011	0.007	
Standard deviation	0.231	0.170	0.034	0.123	0.251	0.022	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	1.1	8.3	7.1	8.4	0.0	0.1	-152.7
<b>Ireland</b>	0.406	-0.633	0.040	-0.445	-0.455	-0.017	
Standard deviation	0.087	0.059	0.013	0.038	0.065	0.008	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	21.7	115.4	10.2	137.2	49.6	5.3	-1 242.0
<b>Italy</b>	0.210	-1.125	-0.033	-0.279	0.052	0.005	
Standard deviation	0.109	0.088	0.020	0.064	0.135	0.012	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	3.7	162.9	2.9	18.9	0.1	0.2	-609.5
<b>Luxembourg</b>	0.160	-0.706	0.028	-0.221	-0.348	-0.017	
Standard deviation	0.093	0.056	0.012	0.037	0.076	0.007	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	3.0	160.0	5.0	36.4	20.9	5.7	-1 380.2
<b>Netherlands</b>	0.487	-0.657	0.099	-0.401	-0.652	-0.047	
Standard deviation	0.087	0.068	0.016	0.046	0.073	0.009	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	31.7	92.2	37.8	75.7	80.8	25.7	-954.6
<b>Norway</b>	0.382	-0.602	-0.008	-0.444	-0.485	-0.019	
Standard deviation	0.160	0.132	0.031	0.089	0.134	0.017	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	5.7	20.8	0.1	24.6	13.1	1.2	-259.5
<b>Portugal</b>	-0.249	-0.653	-0.073	-0.053	0.481	0.024	
Standard deviation	0.163	0.129	0.027	0.105	0.157	0.016	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	2.3	25.4	7.5	0.2	9.4	2.1	-259.2
<b>Spain</b>	-0.591	-1.001	0.054	-0.237	0.315	0.034	
Standard deviation	0.090	0.077	0.016	0.048	0.087	0.010	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	42.9	169.5	10.7	24.2	13.1	12.1	-769.3
<b>Sweden</b>	0.825	-0.123	-0.003	-0.328	-0.332	-0.099	
Standard deviation	0.176	0.100	0.022	0.066	0.112	0.018	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	22.0	1.5	0.0	24.8	8.8	29.4	-431.6
<b>UK</b>	0.883	-0.510	-0.050	-0.515	-0.179	-0.047	
Standard deviation	0.086	0.060	0.014	0.037	0.064	0.009	Likelihood
Chi <sup>2</sup>	105.1	71.8	13.4	189.6	7.8	29.3	-1 188.8

Source: Data extracted from national labour force surveys, 2001.  
 – Sex: 1 for men, 0 for women;  
 – Education: 2 for tertiary level, 1 for secondary level, 0 otherwise;  
 – Duration of residence: 1 if more than 10 years, 0 otherwise;  
 – European: 1 if citizenship is European, 0 otherwise.