International Migration Outlook



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Foreword

This publication constitutes the thirty-second report of the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known by its French acronym SOPEMI).

The report is divided into four parts plus a statistical annex. Part I contains three subsections. The first of these provides a broad overview of recent trends in international migration flows, both temporary and permanent and a look at population growth in countries undergoing demographic decline. In most countries whose population is still growing, migration already accounts for at least 40% of total population growth and as much as 80% in the countries of southern Europe, Austria and the Czech Republic. Special attention is devoted to labour migration in the context of the introduction of the free circulation regime. An overview of migration to and from selected potential new OECD countries, as well as accession countries, is presented. The flows from these countries to the OECD area currently account for a sixth of all immigration flows.

Part I also provides an overview of sectoral and occupational distribution of immigrants and a first glance at wage differentials between immigrants and native born across the OECD. The final section of Part I highlights major structural and institutional changes in the administration of migration policy and processes. It also includes measures to manage borders and to combat irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreigners. Recent developments in integration, residence and citizenship policies are described.

Parts II and III are devoted to special topics. The first examines the issue of managing lower-skilled labour migration. It looks at how migration of the lower-skilled is taking place and reviews the recruitment strategies, the use of labour market tests, shortage lists and caps in determining the size and the nature of inflows. The extent to which irregular migration meets part of lower-skilled labour demand is discussed, as well as policies such as regularisation programmes. The second special chapter focuses on return migration. It analyses the scope and different types of return migration and the determinants as well as the impact on sending countries.

Part IV presents succinct country-specific notes and statistics on developments in international migration movements and policies in OECD countries in recent years. Finally the statistical annex includes a broad selection of recent and historical statistics on immigrant flows, the foreign and foreign-born populations, naturalisations and migrant workers.

This book has...



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Editorial

Temporary Labour Migration: An Illusory Promise?

Temporary labour migration is back in the headlines again. It had fallen into discredit after the experience of the "guest-worker" era, when many of the guest workers who were present at the time of the first oil price shock remained in the host countries where they had found work. Recently, much of the debate on temporary labour migration has focused on so-called "circular migration", which also incorporates the notion of repeated movements.

Why temporary migration is back in the limelight

There are essentially three reasons for the resurgent interest in temporary migration. The first relates to the fact that returns of highly qualified migrants are seen as a possible response to concerns about brain drain. For example, in India and Chinese Taipei, the return of highly skilled migrants has had beneficial effects on the development of the native software and high-technology sectors. As a result, some have argued that this model of return migration could be applied more broadly, enabling origin countries to reap some benefits from the temporary loss of talented expatriates.

The second reason is related to the discovery of the large remittances transferred by immigrants, both high- and lesser-skilled, back to their origin countries. These remittances greatly improve the welfare of persons left behind and tend to be more common for recent or short-term immigrants than for those long-established in host countries. Temporary migration tends to spread the benefits of remittances and of skill transfers among more persons.

The third concerns the fact that lesser skilled migration continues to suffer from a bad image in many host countries, with less favourable labour market outcomes for immigrants with low education and, often, for their children as well. As a consequence, there is a general reluctance to acknowledge that there are labour market needs for low-skilled migrants and a belief that any needs which do exist should be dealt with by means of temporary flows.

But how often do immigrants return to their countries of origin after a stay in a host country? Can migration policy encourage returns to host countries? Is temporary/circular labour migration a workable solution? This publication provides some answers to these questions.

Returns are non-negligible but they are not driven by policy

Depending on the country of destination and the time period considered, 20% to 50% of long-term immigrants leave the host country within five years after their arrival, either to return home or to move on to a third country (secondary emigration). There are also noticeable return flows around the age of retirement. Returns are generally spontaneous, taken at the initiative of the immigrant. They suggest that even longer term migration is more dynamic than is generally believed. The above rates of return apply even to countries such as Canada, the United States and New Zealand, which grant the right of permanent residence upon entry to long-term immigrants and where access to citizenship is relatively

easy. The more stable status granted to immigrants in these countries does not seem to result in more back-and-forth movements, except in some special cases.

Most returns are driven by individual determinants. Explicit policies by both host and home countries to encourage or attract returns have achieved little to date. Programmes for assisting voluntary return by host countries have had only a limited impact on returns. If the political, economic and social situation in the home country is stable and attractive, a certain number of returns occur spontaneously; otherwise, assistance and financial aid by the host country are rarely sufficient to convince many migrants to return. In any event, there is little incentive for long-stay immigrants to depart, especially if they have brought in their families and their children have been born and educated in the host country.

Similarly, efforts made by some origin countries to attract back their nationals residing abroad have had a limited impact. The empirical evidence suggests that returns tend to occur to origin countries when economic conditions are attractive and new opportunities exist. The returning emigrants to Ireland during the Celtic tiger era are a good illustration of this. When the returns do occur, the human and financial resources contributed by migrants can give a dynamic boost to growth already underway, especially if governments allow these resources to be put to effective use. But the basic growth fundamentals have to be already in place.

Can temporary labour migration play an important role in the future?

In 2006, there were about 2.5 million entries of temporary labour migrants in OECD countries, about three times the number of entries of permanent labour migrants. These are migrants whose return is part of the conditions of entry into the host country. But many consist of intra-corporate transferees, working-holiday makers and free-circulation migrants, whose return (or not) poses little problem.

But some temporary labour migration programmes also exist for low-skilled persons from non-OECD countries. These are managed in the context of bilateral labour agreements. They offer examples of successful planned returns and are generally characterised by the involvement of all of the various stakeholders, including employers, employment agency staff and migration officials. They also concern jobs which are by their very nature temporary and have a finite duration, such as seasonal jobs.

What about permanent labour needs? Therein lies the crux of the problem. At least some of the current and future labour needs in OECD countries concern low-skilled jobs and many of the needs are likely to be long-term in nature. In many OECD countries currently, the same occupations are listed as shortage ones, for example, construction trades, hospitality, household work, cleaning work and personal care. The need for workers in these occupations is on-going. Indeed, the fact that there are few possibilities for legal entry for persons in these occupations may be one reason why many of the jobs are held by irregular immigrants in many countries.

Could temporary migration programmes satisfy labour needs in the occupations cited above? For this to work, one would need to cycle in and out repeated cohorts of temporary migrants to occupy the same jobs. From the employer perspective, this could be very costly, since it means an inability to retain experienced workers and the need to invest in repeated training of new arrivals. Governments could attempt to impose a temporary labour regime on employers, with strong enforcement mechanisms, but only at considerable economic

and political cost. Historically, economic rationality has generally won out over artificial or badly-designed regulations.

Temporary labour migration is at best a partial solution

The expectation of temporary stay by labour immigrants does not appear to be a foundation on which one can construct a solid migration policy. Some labour needs, both high and lesser skilled, are of a permanent nature and need to be addressed by long-term migration. The contribution of immigrants to satisfying these needs has been critical in the past and may well become so again. Better to put in place the policies that can help avoid the integration problems of the past than to pretend that temporary migration can be made to work in all cases.

Likewise, some returns of high-skilled migrants to their countries of origin do occur and will undoubtedly continue to do so. But it is illusory to expect that migrants will return just because they are able to do so without jeopardising their status in the host country. Little from recent migration experience suggests that this is a major phenomenon, especially when the entire family is involved and when economic conditions in the origin country remain difficult. The presence of a favourable economic and institutional climate in the country of origin remains a necessary requirement.

In sum, temporary labour migration may have a limited role to play in certain sectors and occupations to complement existing "spontaneous" returns and it is doing so already. But it is unrealistic to expect this to become the cornerstone of any future labour migration policy.

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Introduction

2008 Edition of International Migration Outlook shows an increase in migration flows to the OECD…

Permanent-type legal immigration of foreign nationals (about four million) continued to increase in 2006, an increase of about 5% relative to 2005, but a slowdown compared to recent years. There were large increases in inflows in the United States, Korea and Spain. The largest proportional increases occurred in Portugal, Sweden, Ireland and Denmark, while declines were evident especially in Austria and Germany. Over 2.5 million temporary labour migrants arrived in OECD countries, but temporary migration is increasing more slowly than permanent-type migration.

… notably in family migration and migration for employment…

Family migration continues to dominate among the inflows of permanent-type immigrants, except in Japan. Family migration remains the leading category in the United States (70%) whose migration regime is heavily family-based,-and in France (60%), and has become important in Portugal, with the arrival of family members of recent labour migrants, many from Ukraine. Many European countries, among them Italy, Ireland, Spain and the United Kingdom appear as important labour migration countries, with some 30 to 40% of permanent-type immigrants arriving for work-related reasons. Free-movement migration is proportionally important in Europe. In Austria, Belgium, Denmark and Germany, such movements account for almost half of permanent-type migration and in Switzerland close to 70%, while in France, Italy and Portugal they are much more limited in scope (less than 20%). The United Kingdom, for example, currently satisfies all of its lesser skilled labour needs through free-movement migration

… while, the number of asylum seekers continues to decline

Asylum seeking in OECD countries declined for the fourth consecutive year in 2006. The United States was the largest receiving country at 41 000, with Canada, France and Germany and the United Kingdom all falling in the 20 000 to 30 000 range. Sweden, Austria and Switzerland, are the main receiving countries, in per capita terms. Irak, followed by Serbia and Montenegro are the most important countries of origin.

There are increasing inflows of international students

Overall, the number of international students increased by about 50% from 2000 to 2005, with the United States and the United Kingdom each showing an increase of 120 000 students,

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France of about 100 000 and Australia of close to 85 000 students. Strong percentage increases have occurred in New Zealand, the Czech Republic, Japan, Korea and the Netherlands. Although international students are a potential source of highly skilled labour migrants for OECD countries, there is no systematic data as yet on stay rates after completion of study.

European migrants are far more common in Europe, but Asian migrants outside of Europe

In 2006, 60% of immigrant inflows in Europe were of European origin whereas movements from Asia to OECD countries outside of Europe accounted for almost 50% of total flows to that area. Latin American inflows into non-European OECD countries reflect largely the high inflows of Mexican nationals to the United States. The growing importance of Latin American migration to Portugal and Spain is evident. Although Europe is the destination for about 85% of movements from North Africa, about 60% of those from sub-Saharan Africa are to OECD countries outside Europe. Likewise, South Asia sent four times more, and East and Southeast Asia six to seven times more immigrants to OECD non-European countries than to European ones.

China accounts for almost 11% of the flows, Poland and Romania less than half this

The top twenty countries of origin in terms of inflows accounted for fully 60% of all inflows in 2006, with China, Poland, and Romania at the top of the list. Bolivia, Romania and Poland have seen the largest increase over the six years ending in 2006. Turkey, the Russian Federation and the Philippines, on the other hand, have seen moderate declines in inflows since the year 2000. Compared to movements over the past ten years, large increases in German and Polish migration flows to other OECD countries were registered in 2006. The increase in emigration from Germany is essentially to neighbouring countries, in particular Poland, Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands and Denmark. Immigration from Poland increased in Sweden, Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, Denmark and Germany.

Migration flows from potential new OECD members and from enhanced engagement countries account for a sixth of all immigration flows to the OECD

In May 2007, OECD countries agreed to invite Chile, Estonia, Israel, Russia and Slovenia to open discussions for membership in the OECD and offered enhanced engagement, with a view to possible membership to Brazil, China, India, Indonesia and South Africa. The flows from these countries to the OECD currently account for a sixth of all immigration flows to the OECD, but only some 10% of all immigrants, with China and India each having about 2 million former residents in OECD countries.

The foreign-born population has increased by about 18% since the year 2000

The foreign-born population in 2006 accounted for about 12% of the total population in OECD countries for which data are available, an increase of 18% to 2000. Certain countries have seen very high rates of increase in the immigrant share of the population since the year 2000, in particular Ireland, Finland, Austria and Spain.

The report focuses on the contribution of immigrants to the labour market in OECD countries

In 2006, persons born abroad represented a significant portion of the workforce and the employed population in OECD countries, although important variations exist among host countries. In Finland, immigrants account for less than 3% of total employment, in contrast this figure is as high as 25% or more in Australia, Switzerland and New Zealand. The increase of immigrants share in total employment was particularly notable in Spain, Ireland and Italy.

In most OECD countries, immigrants, both men and women, earn significantly less than their native born counterparts…

Immigrants earn less than the native-born, with the exception of Australia. Wages of immigrants are low compared to the native-born in the United States – median immigrant earnings are about 20% less than for the native-born and 15% less in the Netherlands. The immigrant/native wage gap tends to be smaller than the gender wage gap.

… and immigrants from non-OECD countries are at a particular disadvantage

There are several indications that the labour market seems to strongly value host country qualifications and experience, measured by years of residence. In addition, immigrants from non-OECD countries have significantly lower earnings. By contrast, immigrants who have naturalised earn more – even after controlling for duration of residence.

This year's report provides a review of structural and institutional developments in migration policies

Without major new perturbations in flows in 2006-07, many OECD member countries, such as France, Hungary, Romania and the United Kingdom, decided to introduce substantial changes in their migration policies. Some of the legislative or operational changes represent the continuation or completion of unfinished business, others are new initiatives (Canada, Finland, Japan, Norway, Poland and Portugal).

Two special chapters deal with topical issues…

Among OECD countries, competition is high to attract and retain the highly-skilled. But labour market shortages are also appearing in many lesser skilled jobs. The demand for workers for low-skilled jobs has been met partly through migration. The management of low skilled labour migration is a challenging issue in OECD countries. The primary concern regards the long-term employability of lesser skilled migrants and their integration in host countries. Temporary work programmes for immigrants are currently implemented in many OECD countries. The growing importance of temporary migration has created growing and renewed interest in return migration and its impact on the development of sending countries.

… the first chapter addresses the issue of the management of labour migration of the low-skilled…

Migration of the lesser skilled is taking place, both through managed migration schemes and through unmanaged (*i.e.* irregular) migration. This chapter analyses the presence and the role of low-skilled workers in the labour forces of OECD countries, as well as recruitment strategies for such workers. There is considerable experience in many countries with the management of low-skilled labour migration, and a number of temporary migration schemes appear to be working well. However, the persistence of unauthorised movements and of illegal employment of immigrants, suggests that existing policies are not entirely adequate. A careful assessment of labour market demand at regular intervals would appear to be the first essential element of a labour migration programme, in order to ensure that there is an adequate provision of work permits and of entry possibilities to satisfy the labour market needs of the host countries. Due to the employment-driven nature of low skilled migration programmes and the fact that permits are often tied to specific jobs, the possibility of abuse exists, highlighting the need for careful monitoring and inspection regimes to guarantee respect for workers' rights, but also to provide employers with incentives to respect legality. Finally, temporary migration programmes for permanent or ongoing needs may be problematic, since all parties can have an interest in preserving the employment relationship.

… and the second chapter presents a new perspective on return migration

What is the scope and nature of return migration? Which immigrants are more likely to return home? Why do some migrants settle permanently in the host country, while others choose to stay only a short time? What role should immigration policies play in this respect? Can return migration be well managed? Finally, what is its impact on the economic development of the home country? This chapter is an attempt to provide some answers to these questions. An initial finding is that return migration is a major component of migration flows. Return migration is concentrated at the extremities of the lifecycle. The characteristics of integration in the host country have an ambiguous impact on the propensity to return. Migrants plan their migration pathway, and their return, in light of their individual and family objectives, but they also take account of opportunities

in their home countries. In this context, it is important to take advantage of all the ways in which migrants can contribute to the development of their home country, without necessarily making return a precondition. Engaging the diasporas, through virtual or temporary returns, can also promote the transfer of skills and technologies. This will serve to reinforce ties with the home country, which for some will facilitate their reintegration if they return. Return migration can in this way support, if not actually initiate, the development process.

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PART I

Recent Trends in International Migration

A. Trends in Migration Flows and in the Immigrant Population

1. Introduction

Baby-boomers are retiring and youth cohorts are getting smaller

OECD countries are currently entering what is likely to be a significant period with respect to international migration movements. The effect of the retiring baby-boom cohorts and of declining youth cohorts is beginning to make itself felt in almost all countries. There have been significant labour migration movements over the past decade in southern Europe, Ireland, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the traditional settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United States). Elsewhere, although long-term labour migration has tended to be more limited, there are far from negligible contributions to the labour force from family and humanitarian migrants, which together account for more than half of all permanent-type immigrants in many countries, as well as from free circulation movements in countries where such regimes exist. While there is a consensus about the desirability of higher skilled migration and, in many countries, concern about costs and risks associated with lower skilled migration, labour shortages are manifesting themselves in sectors where there are many lesser skilled occupations. The same sectors are appearing as shortage areas across many countries, in particular construction, hotels and restaurants, food processing, agriculture, household services, cleaning, personal care. Often the jobs involved are low paid and the working conditions unappealing to the domestic work force.

Countries are looking to greater participation but also to migration to make up the shortfall

How economies and labour markets will react to these developing needs remains uncertain. Governments have already taken measures to prolong working life in many countries, but with a view more to keeping pension systems solvent than to addressing potential labour shortages. In most countries, there is still considerable potential for mobilising certain inactive groups. Moreover, as will be seen, the current scale of migration movements is often already at levels needed to maintain positive growth in the working-age population over the next decade and thus, at least in principle, in the size of the workforce. The appearance of labour shortages in this context suggests that the issue is not just one of volume, but also of type, that is, labour needs are manifesting themselves with respect to jobs for which there appear to be no, or rather, not enough takers in the domestic population. Adjustment of wages and working conditions in response to shortages may increase the domestic supply to some extent, but the increase required may be beyond what employers are willing or able to pay or may take some time to work its effect. Migration thus appears as one possible way to address developing mismatches between job requirements and the domestic skill supply in the short – and perhaps medium-term as well.

2. Permanent-type immigration

Permanent inflows increased by about 5% in 2006, a slowdown compared to recent years

In a context of strong GDP growth (3.1%) and strong employment growth (1.7%), permanent-type legal immigration of foreign nationals into OECD countries rose to about four million persons in 2006, an increase of about 5% relative to 2005 (see Table I.1,[1] and Box I.1). This represents the second consecutive year in which there has been a slowdown in the growth of (legal) inflows of foreign nationals. The relative increases in the number of

Table I.1. **Inflows of foreign nationals, 2003-2006**

Permanent-type migration (standardised statistics)

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2005-2006	Per cent change 2006
Austria	51 900	57 100	56 800	46 400	–10 400	–18
Germany	231 300	263 900 |	241 400	216 000	–25 400	–11
New Zealand	48 400	41 600	59 400	54 800	–4 600	–8
United Kingdom	260 100	312 000	363 100	343 200	–19 900	–5
Netherlands	60 800	57 000	62 500	59 400	–3 100	–5
Canada	221 400	235 800	262 200	251 600	–10 600	–4
France	170 200	175 300	169 700	169 000	–700	0
Italy	120 100	153 100	199 200	204 300	5 100	3
Belgium	. .	. .	35 000	36 100	1 100	3
Japan	72 100	75 300	81 300	86 700	5 400	7
Australia	150 000	167 300	179 800	191 900	12 100	7
Norway	22 200	24 900	25 700	28 000	2 300	9
Finland	9 400	11 500	12 700	13 900	1 200	9
Switzerland	79 700	80 700	78 800	86 300	7 500	10
United States	703 500	957 900	1 122 400	1 266 300	143 900	13
Denmark	17 400	16 400	18 000	21 700	3 700	21
Ireland	42 400	41 800	66 100	88 900	22 800	34
Sweden	47 900	49 100	53 800	74 000	20 200	38
Portugal	11 000	13 100	11 500	25 100	13 600	118
Total	. .	. .	**3 099 400**	**3 263 600**	**164 200**	**5**
Total less Belgium	**2 319 800**	**2 733 800**	**3 064 400**	**3 227 500**	**163 100**	**5**
% change		**18**	**12**	**5**		

Inflows according to national definitions (usually published statistics)

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2005-2006	Per cent change
Hungary	19 400	22 200	25 600	19 400	–6 200	–24
Poland	30 300	36 900	38 500	34 200	–4 300	–11
Luxembourg	12 600	12 200	13 800	13 700	–100	–1
Turkey	147 200	148 000	169 700	191 000	21 300	13
Czech Republic	57 400	50 800	58 600	66 100	7 500	13
Korea	178 300	188 800	266 300	314 700	48 400	18
Mexico	29 100	34 000	39 300	47 600	8 300	21
Spain[1]	281 200	403 000	305 700	388 600	82 900	27
Slovak Republic	4 600	7 900	7 700	11 300	3 600	47
Total	**760 100**	**903 800**	**925 200**	**1 086 600**	**161 400**	**17**
% change		**19**	**2**	**17**		

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427003461010

Note: Estimates exclude unauthorised migration and large-scale regularisations.

1. Data refer to a combinaison of "*autorizacion de residencia inicial*" for citizens of non-EU countries and of change of residence statistics from the municipal registers for citizens of EU countries.

Source: For information on the compilation of the standardised statistics, see *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Box I.1. **The international comparability of immigration data**

In 2006 the OECD compiled, for the first time, statistics on "permanent type" entries of foreign nationals into the population of its member countries, for those countries for which it was possible to do so. The definition of "permanent-type" entries used for this compilation did not correspond to that given for long-term migration in the United Nations recommendations on international migration statistics (UN, 1998), namely changes of usual residence for a period of more than one year. This definition was not applied because it is not always possible to harmonise according to this definition using generally available national statistics (OECD, 2005), especially for some of the larger OECD countries.

The decision was therefore made to attempt to standardise the statistics according to the concept of "permanent-type" migration, which arguably corresponds more closely to generally accepted notions of what constitutes "immigration". "Permanent-type" entries are entries into the resident population of persons with a residence permit that is either permanent or more or less indefinitely renewable. They thus exclude seasonal workers, international students, trainees, exchange visitors, etc. even if in some cases their duration of stay may be longer than one year. In some cases the stay may even exceed several years, for example when international students do not return to their home countries during the summer break. Nevertheless persons in such categories do not generally remain in the country after the reason for their stay has ended. Longitudinal analyses of immigrant data for Norway suggest that only some 15-20% of international students settled in Norway after they had completed their degree, whereas the proportion of family and humanitarian migrants who settled over a long period was around 70% (SSB, 2007).

A permit-based definition of the above kind, however, is problematical for persons moving under a free circulation regime for whom permits are not required. The most prominent such regime is that which exists between the countries of the European Union, although even here, a nominal "permit" may sometimes be issued or a registration required for the purpose of monitoring the scale of free movements. For such cases, the standardised statistics attempt to approximate what is measured in the permit-based entries, in so far as it is possible to do so.

The statistics also include so-called "changes in status", that is, situations in which a foreign national has entered the country on a temporary basis of some kind, for example as a tourist or a student, but applies for and is allowed to remain on a permanent basis. Such persons are not always recorded as inflows in the year in which they actually entered, which can be several years prior to the reference year. For certain countries, in particular New Zealand and the United States, a significant proportion of "permanent-type" entries consist of changes in status.

The "permanent-type" statistics presented here are currently the only international statistics that attempt to standardise national data on international migration movements. They are admittedly subject to some limitations, but are calculated according to methods that are fully documented and transparent (see Lemaitre, Liebig, Thoreau and Fron, 2008). Despite their limitations, they present a more realistic picture of the relative scale of international movements in OECD countries than do the usually published national statistics, which differ substantially in their coverage. Indeed the use of national statistics presents a distorted picture of the relative size of movements, with some countries, for example, including many shorter term movements in their statistics (Germany) and others only the "permanent-type" entries described above (Australia or Canada).

Under the recent European Union directive on international migration statistics, European Union countries will be required to provide the Statistical Office of the European Union with migration statistics according to the United Nations definition. If EU member countries are able to comply, this initiative will provide a substantial impetus to international harmonisation. The nature of what the OECD releases as "standardised" flow data will evolve with developments in this area. However, it is expected that permit-based statistics concerning regulated movements will serve as a useful and necessary complement to those produced according to a strict application of the United Nations definition. Currently, in almost all countries, permit-base statistics are the main source of data, for example, on short-term movements.

entries were approximately 18% and 12% in 2004 and 2005 respectively. This slowdown essentially reflects the fact that migration levels for the United States are not increasing quite as quickly as in previous years, following the strong recovery in 2004 and 2005 from the depressed post-2001 levels. Movements in many other countries were relatively stable. The slowdown and/or stability have also occurred in the context of employment growth that was stronger than that of the previous two years, which suggests that OECD economies may be tapping their domestic labour supply as well as resorting to migration to satisfy growing labour needs. Indeed both unemployment and inactivity have declined in the OECD as a whole from 2005 to 2006. Some of this decline was cyclical in nature, but in the countries which have seen the most significant falls in the working-age population (Germany and Japan), participation rates have increased more strongly than elsewhere (see Box I.2).

Box I.2. **Labour force developments in countries undergoing demographic decline**

It is generally said that labour needs arising as a result of ageing populations can be addressed in part through migration, but also by a mobilisation of the unused labour supply. A number of OECD countries are already undergoing declines in their working-age populations, namely Germany and Japan, and in both of these, labour migration policy has been fairly restrictive, although Germany has admittedly accepted many humanitarian and ancestry-based (ethnic German) immigrants over the past decade.

It is of particular interest to examine how labour markets have been reacting to the phenomenon of ageing workforces in these two countries, as an indication of the kinds of developments one might observe as declines set in elsewhere. This is necessarily going to be indicative, because of the difficulty in disentangling cyclical effects from those related to ageing.

The table below provides selected labour market data for each country and for the OECD as a whole, during a period of growth in employment, of about 4% in Germany, 1% in Japan and more than 4% for the OECD as a whole.

Changes in labour force characteristics, Germany and Japan, 2003-2006

	Working-age population (15-64)	Labour force	Employment-population ratio	Participation rate	Unemployment rate
	% change		Net change % age points		
Germany	–0.4	5.1	2.8	3.9	1.0
Japan	–2.0	–0.1	2.3	1.5	–1.1
OECD total	2.3	3.4	1.4	0.8	–0.9

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427324717750

Despite declines in the working-age population, the size of the labour force has scarcely changed in Japan and indeed, even increased strongly in Germany. Part of this increase in Germany is likely due to labour market reforms implemented in 2005, but some of it predated the reforms. For both countries, the increases in the employment-population ratio and in the participation rate are larger than that observed for the OECD as a whole. Both Germany and Japan have mobilised their unutilised labour supply more than other countries to satisfy their labour needs. Note, however, that both countries are currently showing above average participation rates for the working-age population compared to that observed for the OECD as a whole (76% in Germany, 80% in Japan, 72% for the OECD). In other words, the possibilities for further large increases in participation are more limited there than elsewhere.

There were large increases in inflows in the United States, Korea and Spain … but declines in Austria and Germany

More than half of the total increase in immigration has come from an increase in green cards in the United States, with Korea and Spain also showing significant increases in immigration inflows. The largest proportional increases occurred in Portugal, Sweden, Ireland and Denmark (all over 20%), while declines – less common – were evident especially in Austria (–18%) and Germany (–11%). In some of the more recent immigration countries, in particular the Slovak Republic and Spain, national statistics show relative increases which have been especially large (30% or better), while Hungary has seen a decline of 24% in inflows, most of it due to a fall in immigration from EU countries. The observed increase among many of the newer migration countries (bottom panel in Table I.1, with the exception of Luxembourg), for which the statistics may include many short-term movements, was close to 20%.

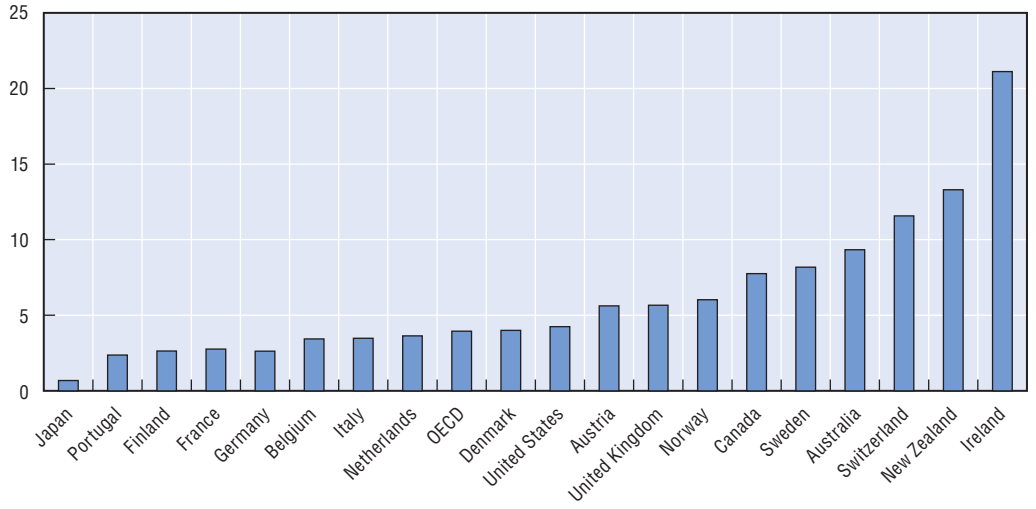
Free movement migration increased notably in the Nordic countries, whereas labour migration was up in Australia, Denmark, Japan and the United Kingdom. Humanitarian migration seemed to be stable or declining almost everywhere except in Sweden, due to exceptional circumstances (see below) and the United States. Family migration, on the other hand, rose in Austria, Portugal, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Movements were largest in Ireland, New Zealand and Switzerland

As a proportion of the total population (Chart I.1), legal immigration movements were highest in Ireland, New Zealand and Switzerland which are (with Australia, Canada and Luxembourg) among the countries already having the largest immigrant populations in OECD countries in relative terms.[2] Thus past migration volumes appear to be maintaining themselves in these countries. Japan remains a low legal-immigrant-entry country as do Portugal, Finland and France. The United States level of inflows, along with that of the Netherlands and Denmark, is close to the OECD average of 39 immigrants per 1 000 population. However, data for the United States, as for most other countries, do not cover

Chart I.1. **Permanent-type inflows, standardised statistics, 2006**

Number per thousand persons in the population



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427133481271

Note: For information on the compilation of the standardised statistics, see *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

inflows of unauthorised immigrants, which are especially high. Including these would increase the United States immigrant numbers by an estimated 700 000-850 000 (Pew, 2006), ranking the United States between Norway and Canada with respect to relative immigration levels.

But migration was insufficient to offset population decline in Japan, Germany and Hungary

The numbers presented here also do not take into account outflows of immigrants or movements of native-born persons in general, which can be significant (Box I.3). Data which incorporate such movements are those on net migration, which measure inflows less outflows for all persons, whether citizens or non-citizens (Chart I.2). In a few

Box I.3. **Emigration at a glance in selected OECD countries**

In general this publication in the past has focused on inflows of foreign nationals, with some attention being directed at outflows of this same group on occasion (OECD, 2007a). The reason for this is that policy attention tends to centre on regulated movements. Movements of nationals of a country and outflows of non-nationals tend not to be subject to control. In recent years, however, outflows of nationals, and especially of the highly educated, have been receiving some attention because of the concern that some of the "best and brightest" may be leaving for what they perceive to be greener pastures. In a context of ageing populations and heightened international competition, this has been the source of concern in certain countries. Some of them have implemented measures designed to encourage the return of nationals studying or working in another country.

In practice it is difficult to address questions regarding emigration with flow data alone. If immigration data are subject to coverage and comparability problems, the situation is even more delicate for emigration statistics. A number of countries, among them France and the United States, have no formal way of capturing departures of residents. In other countries, emigrants are identified by a stated intention to leave the country; the period of intended absence, however, is not always specified. In population registers, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. The emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform the authorities about his or her departure because it may mean losing rights related to presence on the register.

Emigration varies significantly across countries and is influenced by geographic and linguistic proximity, among other things. Over the last decade, countries with a long history of expatriation, such as Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain, have become significant immigration countries.

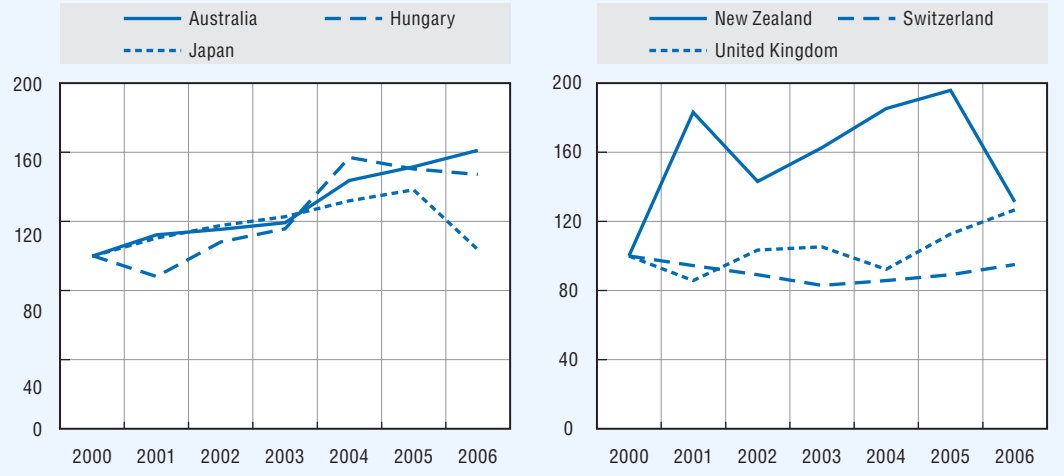
Enlargement of the European Union has had a significant impact on emigration from the new EU member states. Since May 2004 to the end of 2006, for example, Poland has seen more than 360 000 nationals registering as workers in the United Kingdom.

Overall about 1.7 million OECD country nationals moved to another OECD country in 2006.* Emigration increased significantly in the United Kingdom where at least 155 000 British nationals moved to another OECD country. Immigration of British nationals to Australia and New Zealand (not counting working holiday makers) nearly tripled since 2000, due essentially to active selection policies. Migration of British nationals toward southern European countries for retirement is also an increasing phenomenon. Annual flows to Spain nearly multiplied by four between 2000 and 2006 to reach 40 000. In 2006 110 000 German persons migrated to an OECD country, as did 42 000 Canadians.

Not counting outflows from the United States and from southern European countries (Italy, Spain, and Greece), for which data are not available, outflows of foreign nationals from OECD countries numbered 1.4 million in 2006. This is almost as high as the level of outflows of OECD nationals from their countries (see above) and represents a relatively high percentage of the resident foreign population.

Box I.3. **Emigration at a glance in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Outflows of foreign nationals in selected OECD countries (2000 = 100)

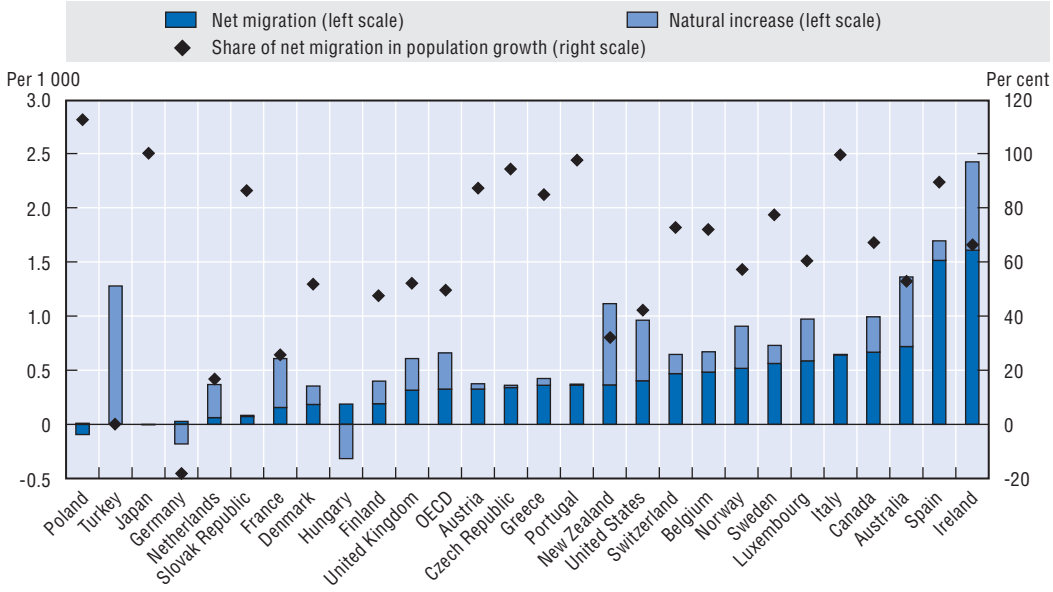


StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427336183280

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

* This estimate was obtained from the statistics on inflows of the receiving countries and includes considerable numbers of short-term movements for some countries. It may also cover emigration of OECD nationals from a country other than their own.

Chart I.2. **Contribution of net migration and natural increase to population growth, 2006**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427158436323

Note: Data for Canada, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain and Turkey are for 2005.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2007.

countries, among them Japan, Germany and Hungary, the total population is declining and migration was insufficient in 2006 to offset the excess of deaths over births. Poland is losing population to out-migration.

In most countries whose population is still growing, migration already accounts for at least 40% of total population growth and as much as 80% in the countries of southern Europe, Austria and the Czech Republic. For the labour supply, however, it is less what is happening to the total population than to the working-age population that matters (see below).

3. Immigration by category of entry

In the statistics by category presented in this year's edition, a new category has been introduced, namely "free movement". This applies essentially to movements of persons within the European Economic Area and between Australia and New Zealand. Previously an attempt had been made to disaggregate this group according to work and family.[3] However, it seems more appropriate to identify free movement separately and to restrict the category of work-related migration to discretionary worker migration, that is, movements of workers subject to regulatory control. Although there continue to exist transitional arrangements in some EU countries for some of the new EU accession countries, workers from these countries do generally get preferential treatment in the attribution of work permits. For this reason and to avoid the complexity of dealing with the considerable variation in arrangements across countries, all persons from enlargement countries, whatever the EU country of destination, are considered to be within the free-movement regime of the European Union for the purposes of this analysis. Excluded from the "free movement" category, however, are international students, persons on exchange programmes, au pairs, short-term workers, etc., in short persons whose stay in the host country is generally intended to be temporary.

Free-movement migration is proportionally important in Europe…

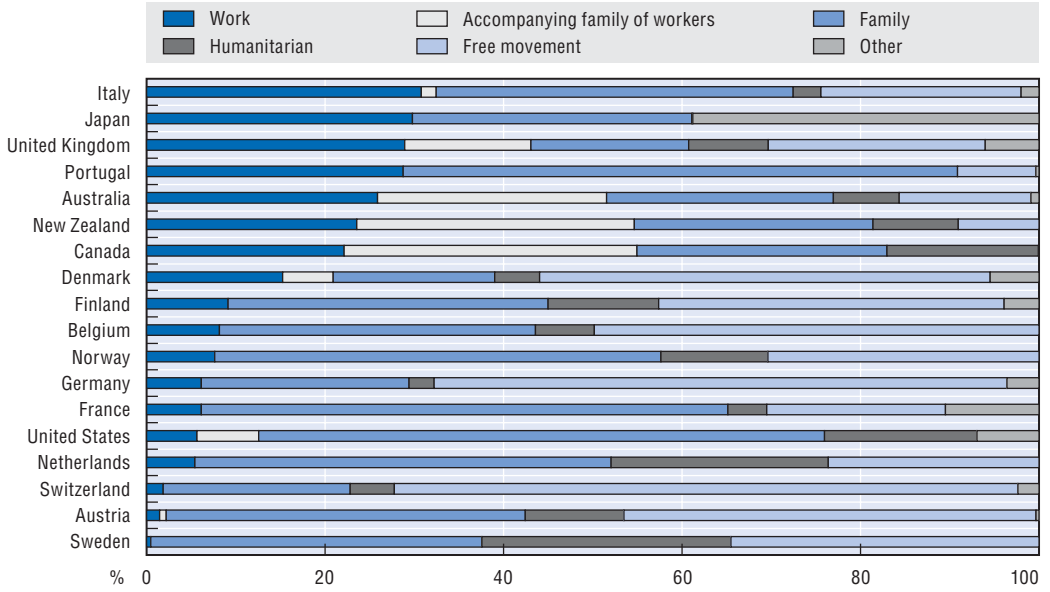
Chart I.3 gives the distribution of permanent-type inflows by category of entry. As is evident, persons moving under the free-movement regime of the European Economic Area make up significant proportions of all permanent-type migration movements in many European countries. In Austria, Belgium, Denmark and Germany, such movements account for almost half of permanent-type migration movements and in Switzerland close to 70%, while in France and Portugal they are much more limited in scope (less than 20%). Thus a significant proportion of migration movements in many European countries are intra-European, which are not, or only temporarily in the case of the new accession countries, subject to regulatory control. The increase in such movements following the enlargement of the European Union and the removal of the transitional restrictions on labour migration for citizens of these countries may have had the effect of pre-empting, at least temporarily, the need for potential migrants from third countries. The United Kingdom, for example, is satisfying all of its lesser skilled labour needs through free-movement migration. The former low-skilled programmes, namely the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme and the Sector-Based Scheme, are now restricted to citizens of Bulgaria and Romania (see below).

… but labour migration tends to be more significant outside of Europe

With the separate accounting of free-movement migration, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom and Portugal followed by the three settlement countries of Australia, New Zealand and Canada now appear as the OECD countries with the highest proportion of discretionary labour migration. For Japan, this is a consequence of the fact that other

Chart I.3. **Permanent-type immigration by category of inflow, 2006, standardised data**

Percentage of total inflows



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427163172430

Note: For information on the compilation of the standardised statistics, see *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

categories of migration, in particular family and humanitarian migration, are limited relative to other countries. For no country, however, does the proportion of discretionary labour migrants exceed one third of all permanent-type movements. In many European countries, discretionary permanent-type labour migration (from outside the EU) remains limited, at less than 10% of total immigration.

Family migration remains important in the United States and France, (at about 60% of all movements) and has become important in Portugal, with the arrival of many family members of recent labour migrants, mainly from the Ukraine. Humanitarian migration accounted for over 20% of all movements in the Netherlands and Sweden, which are the highest percentages among OECD countries. In the case of Sweden, this is the consequence of a review of asylum seekers who had previously been refused a residence permit but were still present in Sweden. Many of these were granted such a permit following the review. The large "other" category for Japan consists largely of persons of Japanese ancestry from Latin America, in particular Brazil.

About 44% of total migration was family-related and 14% was labour

For OECD countries for which statistics by category of entry are available, about 44% of total migration was family-related. This includes both family reunification and marriage migration, that is, entries of fiancés or recently married spouses of residents or citizens. Family-related migration has shown the strongest increase among migration categories in 2006, again largely reflecting developments in the United States.

Labour migration accounted for 14% of all migration and the accompanying family of immigrant workers 9%. Humanitarian migration, including both recognised asylum seekers and resettled refugees, has increased from about 8% of total migration in 2003 to about 12% in 2006, essentially due to a significant rise in the United States, especially from China, Colombia and Cuba.

Free movement migration has seen steady increases of about 15% per year since 2004 as a result of EU enlargement. The free movement entries shown here, however, which reflect longer term movements, are significantly smaller than the total free movement entries being recorded in European destination countries, which suggests that many of the movements may be temporary in nature. In the United Kingdom, for example, the Worker Registration Scheme recorded about 550 000 registrations between 2004 and 2006, but the estimated number of long-term entries over the same period was approximately 220 000 (Box I.4).[4]

Box I.4. **The employment impact of the introduction of free-circulation regimes on labour migration from countries not covered by the regimes**

In recent years, there have been a number of situations in which free circulation regimes have been introduced in Europe, suddenly opening up channels of entry for labour migration which had only existed in a limited way before. The most noteworthy examples are the opening of the labour markets of Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom to the new EU accession countries in May 2004 and the earlier entry into force of the free circulation regime between Switzerland and the European Union and European Free Trade Association in 2002.

In the latter case, labour migration from the European Union to Switzerland was already well established and the controls with respect to wages and working conditions and the priority given to Swiss residents were not lifted until 2004. In addition, numerical limits remained in force until 2007. As a result there was little increase in long-term labour migration from EU15/EFTA countries into Switzerland until 2004 and only gradual increases over the next two years compared to what was observed in Ireland and the United Kingdom from 2004 on. In addition, shorter term labour migration from EU/EFTA countries actually declined as of 2004, perhaps in part because of the more readily available annual permits for EU/EFTA citizens, which were no longer subject to control. The accession countries with the exception of Cyprus and Malta are still subject to control until at least 2009.

In Ireland, 2004 saw an increase to over 58 000 in Personal Public Service Numbers (PPSN) for persons from accession countries, compared to less than 9 000 in the previous year (see table below and notes). The next two years saw additional entries of over 100 000 persons from the new accession countries. Likewise, the United Kingdom saw entries expand from barely 2 000 in 2003 to 126 000 in 2004 (see under Worker Registration Scheme), followed by additional inflows of over 200 000 in the two succeeding years. Switzerland, on the other hand, saw much smaller increases in permits granted to EU/EFTA nationals from 2004 to 2006.

What impact did such increases have on permits requested and granted for persons from third countries? It is evident from the table below that any impact observed was minor relative to the scale of the increased inflows from EU accession countries. PPSNs issued to persons from the rest of the world fell by about 20% from 2003 to 2004 but began rising immediately after and had already exceeded the 2003 level by 2006. The UK saw a strong decline in permits granted to third-country nationals through the Sector-Based Scheme in 2005, a programme that was scheduled to be phased out at year's end 2006 before being retained and reserved for nationals from Bulgaria and Romania. There was little discernible impact on work permits and first permissions or on the Seasonal Agricultural Workers' Scheme. Likewise there was scarcely any impact observed on the limited work-related permits granted to third-country nationals in Switzerland.

Why is this? Note, first of all, that the work permit systems in these countries are employer-driven, that is, employers initiate requests for permits for specific workers whom they would like to hire. Requests of this kind would decline if employers were able to find workers with the desired skills in the domestic labour market at offered wages. Potential candidates might have included nationals of

Box I.4. **The employment impact of the introduction of free-circulation regimes on labour migration from countries not covered by the regimes** *(cont.)*

accession countries arriving to find work. As we have seen, however, requests for work permits for third-country nationals either did not fall or declined modestly relative to the number of persons from accession countries arriving.

The most likely explanation is that the opening up to nationals of EU accession countries in Ireland and the United Kingdom brought in workers who were largely complementary to those coming in under the permit schemes. The Work Permit System in the United Kingdom was generally oriented towards highly skilled workers, whereas persons coming in from the new accession countries often came to take on lesser skilled jobs, not infrequently for short periods. The seasonal agricultural workers' scheme, on the other hand, actually saw an increase in permits granted to third country nationals, undoubtedly because such jobs were being deserted by nationals from new accession countries, who undoubtedly saw much better opportunities in other sectors of the British economy. In Switzerland, the lack of any impact on arrivals of non-EU annual or shorter term permits likely reflects the nature of the movements, involving specialised workers in specific sectors or occupations.

Labour migration in the context of the introduction of free circulation regimes

		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ireland[1]						
Personal Public Service Numbers	Enlargement countries	9 000	9 000	58 100	107 500	127 700
	Rest of world (non-EU)	38 700	31 500	24 800	26 400	34 100
United Kingdom[2]						
Worker Registration Scheme	Enlargement countries	n.a.	n.a.	125 900	205 000	227 900
Work permits and first permissions	Poland/Czech Republic	2 200	2 300	500	–	–
	Rest of world	83 500	83 000	88 500	86 200	96 700
Sector-based scheme	Enlargement countries	n.a.	2 800	700	–	–
	Rest of world	n.a.	5 000	16 200	7 400	3 600
Seasonal agricultural workers scheme	Enlargement countries	9 900	n.a.	3 500	–	–
	Rest of world	9 500	n.a.	16 200	15 700	16 100
Switzerland[3]						
Annual permits + short-term > 12 months	EU/EFTA	21 200	21 800	27 300	29 000	34 300
	Non-EU/EFTA	3 900	2 900	3 200	3 600	3 900
Shorter duration permits	EU/EFTA	120 200	106 900	87 600	79 900	87 600
	Non-EU/EFTA	20 000	20 700	20 800	21 700	25 300

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427353617187

n.a.: not applicable or not available.

1. The Irish Personal Public Service Number is the unique reference number assigned to residents to access benefits and information from public service agencies. An allocation of a PPSN to a foreign national is taken to be an arrival to Ireland.
2. The Worker Registration Scheme was introduced at the time of EU enlargement in order to monitor the number of workers arriving to work in the United Kingdom. Work permits and first permissions were the standard work permits issued to skilled workers with job offers. First permissions were essentially work permits issued to persons already in the United Kingdom on another status. The Sector-Based Scheme was established in 2003 to address shortages in lower skilled occupations. It was initially limited to the food processing and hospitality sectors and capped at 10 000 for each sector. This was reduced by 25% with the accession of the new EU member states in 2004.The Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme has had a varying quota, set at 10 000 during the 1990s, rising gradually to 25 000 in 2003 but reduced by 35% in 2004.
3. The "annual" rubric here covers both annual permits granted at the time of entry, as well as persons with short-term permits who have been in Switzerland for more than one year. The figures for short duration include permits for less than four months, for service providers and for musicians and dancers as well as permits for stays of between 4 and 12 months.

4. Unauthorised migration

Unauthorised immigration continues, but there is little hard data on this

Although unauthorised migration is generally believed to be continuing, there is little hard evidence on the scale of the phenomenon. Statistics are available periodically as a result of regularisation programmes or estimates produced using certain procedures (see OECD, 2006), but only the United States publishes regular estimates on the stock of the unauthorised immigrant population (Hoefer *et al.,* 2007). These estimates are generated using a "residual" methodology, which consists of accounting for all sources of legal migration and subtracting this figure from an estimate of the total foreign-born population obtained from a large- scale sample survey (the American Community Survey). For this methodology to work, the coverage of the unauthorised population in the survey must be similar to that of the authorised population. In other words, unauthorised immigrants must respond to the survey in a significant way. In practice, this does seem to be the case. An estimate based on the foreign-born population identified in the 2000 population census, for example, yielded a figure of 8.5 million unauthorised immigrants in January 2000. The current estimation methododology produced an estimate for 2006 of approximately 11.6 million persons, or about 4% of the total population. It appears that unauthorised immigrants in other countries are not responding in population censuses or surveys to the same extent as in the United States. From the estimates for 2000 and 2006, one can deduce an annual net inflow of some 500-550 000 unauthorised immigrants per year for the United States. If the 750 000 to 800 000 estimates of unauthorised inflows (Pew, 2006) are approximately accurate, they would imply a return rate of some 40% (see chapter on return migration later in this publication) of unauthorised immigrants to the United States.

Most unauthorised migrants enter legally and overstay after finding work

The most visible manifestation of unauthorised immigration comes from apprehensions of persons at borders attempting to enter illegally and of persons identified as unauthorised during identity checks or raids. Media attention tends to be focused on unauthorised entry, especially in boats or across green borders, but many entries of persons who eventually become unauthorised are in fact legal, through tourist, family visit or other types of visas. Data for Italy[5] based on identity checks and arrests indicate that about 60-65% of unauthorised immigrants are overstayers, another fourth persons who entered with fraudulent documents and the remainder persons who entered illegally, by sea or across borders. Similar statistics for Japan show that some 75-80% of violators of the Immigration Control Act (for illegal entry or landing plus overstaying) consisted of overstayers (SOPEMI, 2007). For the United States, which has a long land border with Mexico, it is estimated that 45% of the current unauthorised population entered the country legally (Pew, 2006).

What this suggests is that it is difficult to reduce unauthorised migration through border control measures alone. Such measures do not address the fact that many immigrants are able to enter the country legally and to find work after arrival, for example through contacts with other immigrants, acquaintances or assistance groups. When there exist genuine labour needs and employers have limited means for recruiting abroad, legal entry, followed by job search and overstay, seems to be one way used in practice to match up supply and demand, although not necessarily the most advantageous one for either the immigrants themselves or the labour market of the host country.

5. The continents, regions and countries of origin of immigrants

European migrants are far more common in Europe, but Asian migrants outside of Europe

Immigrant inflows into OECD countries appear to be split evenly between European and non-European destination countries in 2006 (Table I.2). However, the distribution across regions and continents of origin was substantially different. 57% of immigrant inflows in Europe were of European origin whereas movements from Asia to OECD countries outside of Europe accounted for almost 50% of total flows to that area. The Central American inflows into non-European OECD countries (26%) reflect largely the high inflows of Mexican nationals to the United States. The growing importance of Latin American migration to Portugal and Spain is evident in the significant percentage (over 13%) of immigrants from that portion of the world going to Europe.

Geographical proximity is not necessarily a major factor in explaining the size and distribution of the flows. Although Europe is the destination for about 85% of movements from North Africa, 57% of those from sub-Saharan Africa are to OECD countries outside of Europe. Likewise, South Asia sends four times more, and East and Southeast Asia six to seven times more immigrants to OECD non-European countries than to European ones.

The various areas of the world are unevenly represented in the migration flows. It is Europe and Central and Latin America, followed by Oceania which are the most over-represented, each having two to three times as many outflows to OECD countries in

Table I.2. **Immigrant inflows to OECD countries by region or continent of origin, 2006**

Percentages

	Population of source regions or continents		Inflows from source regions or continents		
	% share	Over (> 1)/Under (< 1) representation in OECD inflows	Total OECD	OECD Europe	OECD outside of Europe
			% share		
All continents	**100**	**n.a.**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Europe	**11.1**	**3.0**	**33.8**	**56.8**	**11.7**
Asia	**60.4**	**0.5**	**33.0**	**15.2**	**50.1**
Western Asia	3.3	**1.2**	3.9	5.4	2.5
Central and Southern Asia	25.4	**0.3**	7.2	4.1	10.1
South Eastern Asia	8.6	**0.9**	7.9	2.1	13.6
Eastern Asia	23.2	**0.6**	13.9	3.6	23.8
Central and Latin America	**8.6**	**2.3**	**19.7**	**13.4**	**25.8**
Africa	**14.3**	**0.6**	**8.8**	**11.4**	**6.3**
North Africa	2.9	**1.5**	4.4	7.5	1.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	11.4	**0.4**	4.4	3.8	5.0
North America	**5.1**	**0.6**	**3.2**	**2.6**	**3.9**
Oceania	**0.5**	**2.1**	**1.1**	**0.3**	**1.9**
Unknown	**–**	**n.a.**	**0.4**	**0.4**	**0.4**
Total OECD (thousands)	. .	. .	**4 420**	**2 170**	**2 250**

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Note: For this table, national inflow data which are not strictly comparable have been aggregated. Caution should therefore be exercised in interpreting the results.
Over- and under-representation are estimated as the ratio of the percentage of inflows from an area to the percentage of the total population from the same area.
n.a.: not applicable.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

relative terms as they have population. On the other hand, Sub-Saharan Africa and Central and Southern Asia are the regions least represented, each having less than half the number of migrants one would expect on the basis of their population.

China accounts for almost 11 percent of the flows, Poland and Romania less than half this

The top twenty countries of origin in terms of inflows (Table I.3) accounted for 60% of all inflows in 2006, with China (10.7%), Poland (5.3%) and Romania (4.6%) at the top of the list. However, the statistics for Mexico (3.6%) do not take account of the large number of unauthorised migrants from that country to the United States, which are estimated to be in the vicinity of 400 000 (Mohar, 2007). Another limitation of the numbers is the fact that they do not include entries for Ireland and the United Kingdom, for which breakdowns by nationality are not available from official national sources. This has the effect of underestimating the movements from the new accession countries from 2004 through 2006.

Among the top 20 migration countries, Bolivia, Romania and Poland have seen the largest increases over the six years ending in 2006, all of them having more than doubled

Table I.3. **Top 20 countries of origin in 2006 for immigrant inflows into OECD countries and change since 2000**

	Immigration inflows (thousands)			Immigration inflows (% of total)	Annual increase in %
	2000	2005	2006	2006	2000-2006
China	301	411	473	10.7	7.8
Poland	106	215	235	5.3	14.2
Romania	89	190	205	4.6	14.9
Mexico	180	172	186	4.2	0.5
Philippines	171	178	159	3.6	–1.2
United Kingdom	97	151	150	3.4	7.5
India	113	158	142	3.2	3.9
Morocco	100	119	112	2.5	1.9
United States	111	104	106	2.4	–0.8
Germany	78	100	105	2.4	5.1
Brazil	71	98	101	2.3	6.0
Ukraine	58	95	89	2.0	7.4
Bulgaria	88	89	89	2.0	0.2
Colombia	67	56	82	1.9	3.4
Viet Nam	52	78	80	1.8	7.4
Russian Federation	90	88	75	1.7	–3.0
Bolivia	5	41	74	1.7	56.7
Korea	58	66	68	1.5	2.7
France	71	61	68	1.5	–0.7
Turkey	85	72	62	1.4	–5.1
Top 20 in 2006	1 994	2 544	2 660	60	4.9
% of total immigration	54	61	60		
All others	1 677	1 628	1 761	40	0.8
% of total immigration	46	39	40		
Total	3 671	4 172	4 421	100	3.1

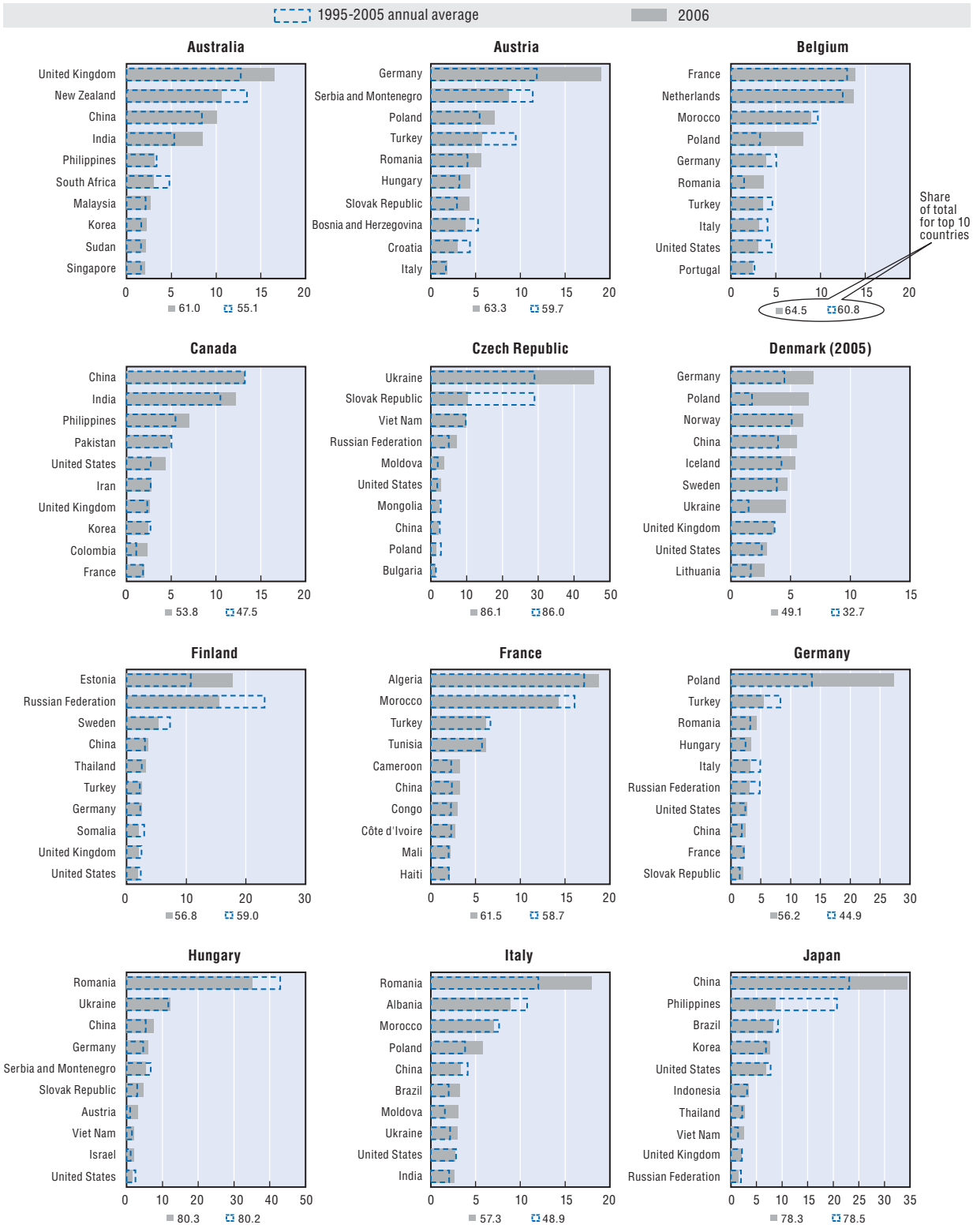
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Note: This table involves summing up inflows across different countries that may not be comparable and which may introduce some distortion in the estimates. They are provided here as indicative of the inflows from the countries shown. Some caution needs to be exercised in (over)interpreting the differences across source countries.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 1995-2005 and 2006**

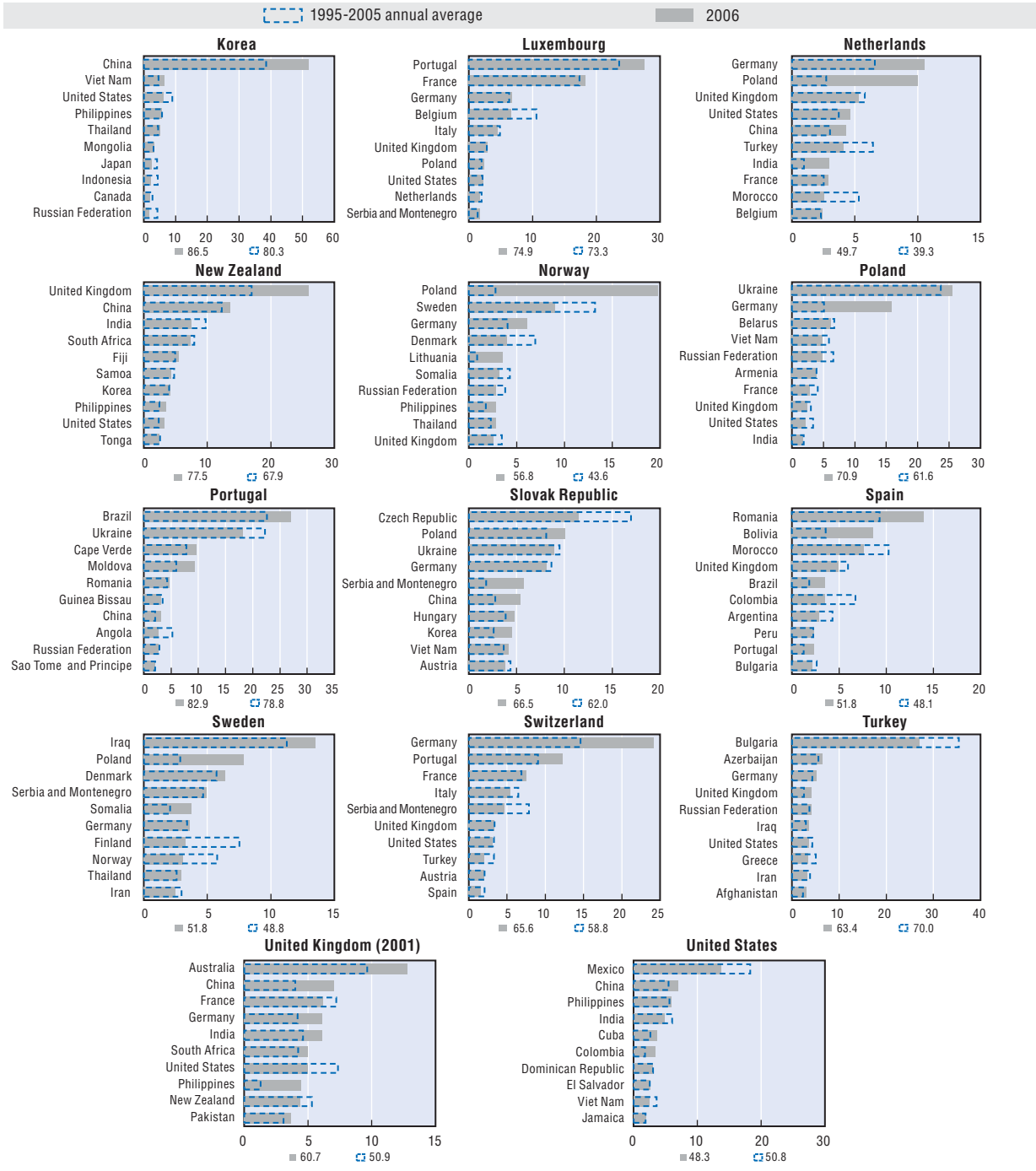
2006 top ten countries of origin as a % of total inflows[1]



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427164525031

Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 1995-2005 and 2006** *(cont.)*

2006 top ten countries of origin as a % of total inflows[1]



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427236470364

1. The top 10 source countries are presented in decreasing order of the number of immigrants in 2006. Data for Australia, Canada, New Zealand 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 (see sources below). For the United Kingdom, the data are from the International Passenger Survey. 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.
   Annual average flows for the period 1995-2005 except for Austria, Italy, Poland (1998-2005), Spain (1997-2005), Portugal (2001-2005), Slovak Republic (2003-2005), United Kingdom (1996-2000) and Korea (2000-2005).

Source: National Statistical Offices. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata relative to Tables B.1.1. of the Statistical Annex.

the volume of their flows. Turkey, the Russian Federation and the Philippines, on the other hand, have seen moderate declines in inflows since the year 2000.

Large increases in German and Polish flows to other OECD countries in 2006, compared to movements over the previous ten years, were evident in quite a few countries (Chart I.4). Increases in emigration from Germany were essentially to neighbouring countries, in particular Poland, Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands and Denmark. Immigration from Poland increased not only in Sweden which had opened up its labour market without restrictions to EU accession countries in 2004, but also in Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, Denmark and Germany. These increases were prior to the review of the transition period restrictions in 2007. In short, although labour markets outside of Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom were restricted, it is clear that job possibilities also materialised outside of these three countries for accession country nationals.

Immigrants from China are becoming more common in Japan and Korea, while Romanians have a strong presence in Italy and Spain. Migration from India has picked up in Australia and Canada, but also in the Netherlands, while legal migration from Mexico to the United States has dropped, compared to 1995-2005 average levels. Finally immigration from the Ukraine is showing up increasingly in all of the countries of Central Europe and is strong relative to previous levels in the Czech Republic but also in Denmark.

A number of future potential OECD countries are already important immigration countries in their own right (Israel and Russia), while both these as well as countries to which OECD countries are offering enhanced engagement are significant and growing sources of immigrants to OECD countries (Box I.5).

Box I.5. **Overview of migration to and from selected "potential" new OECD countries**

In May 2007, OECD countries agreed to invite Chile, Estonia, Israel, Russia and Slovenia to open discussions for membership in the Organisation and offered enhanced engagement, with a view to possible membership, to Brazil, China, India, Indonesia and South Africa. Inflows from these countries towards OECD countries represented about 900 000 persons in 2006 of which more than 800 000 came from one of the so-called "BRICs" (Brazil, Russian Federation, India, and China). China accounted for over one half of all the flows, followed by India, Brazil and the Russian Federation. The flows from these countries to the OECD currently account for a sixth of all immigration flows to the OECD area, but only some 10% of all immigrants (see table), with China and India each having about 2 million former residents in OECD countries.

Overview of migration in three selected potential new OECD members

Israel

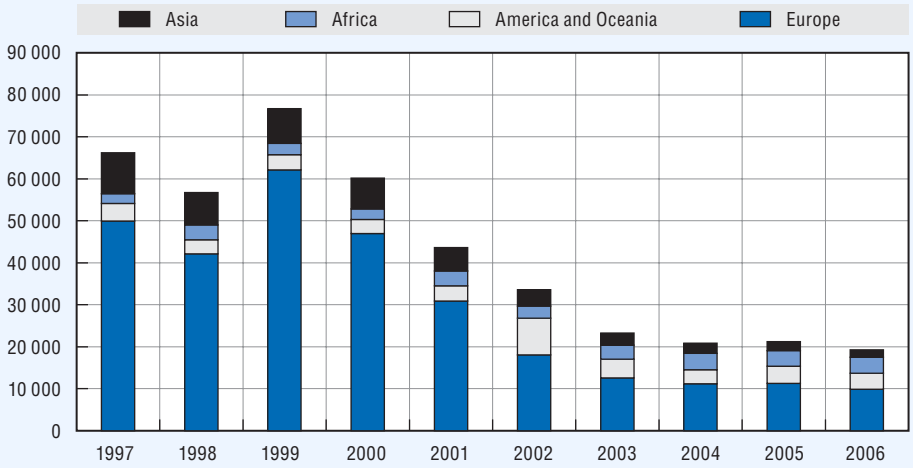
According to the Statistical Office, the population of Israel was around 7.2 million in 2006. This figure includes Jewish localities in the West Bank. One third of the population was not Jewish (mainly Arabs) and 34% of the country's Jewish and non-Arab population was born abroad. Three million people have immigrated into Israel since 1948, more than one million of them since 1990. The largest foreign-born group came from the former USSR (950 000). Of the remainder, 157 000 were born in Morocco, 110 000 in Romania, 77 000 in North America, 70 000 in Iraq, 70 000 in Ethiopia and 64 000 in Poland.

Recent immigrants into Israel have employment qualifications similar to those of the Israeli workforce, with two-thirds of immigrants from the former Soviet Union having been employed there as professionals, scientists, engineers and technical staff. Today, the employment rate of immigrants who came to Israel in the first half of the 1990s is similar to that of native-born Israelis.

Box I.5. **Overview of migration to and from selected "potential" new OECD countries** *(cont.)*

The level of inflows of permanent residents (19 300) in 2006 is the lowest since 1988. Recent inflows of temporary residents have been increasing since 2003. In 2006, 33 000 temporary foreign workers arrived from Asia (24 400 – Thailand, Philippines, China) and from Eastern Europe (former USSR and Romania).

Inflows of permanent residents in Israel by origin



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427402563254

Note: Data include changes of status from temporary to permanent.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

Slovenia

In Slovenia there is a striking difference between the share of foreign nationals and that of persons born abroad. At the end of 2006, 2.7% of the population of Slovenia had the status of foreigners, while 11.3% of the population was born abroad. Many of the latter were born in other parts of former Yugoslavia and were living in Slovenia at the time of independence, which in effect made them foreign-born persons but Slovenian nationals.

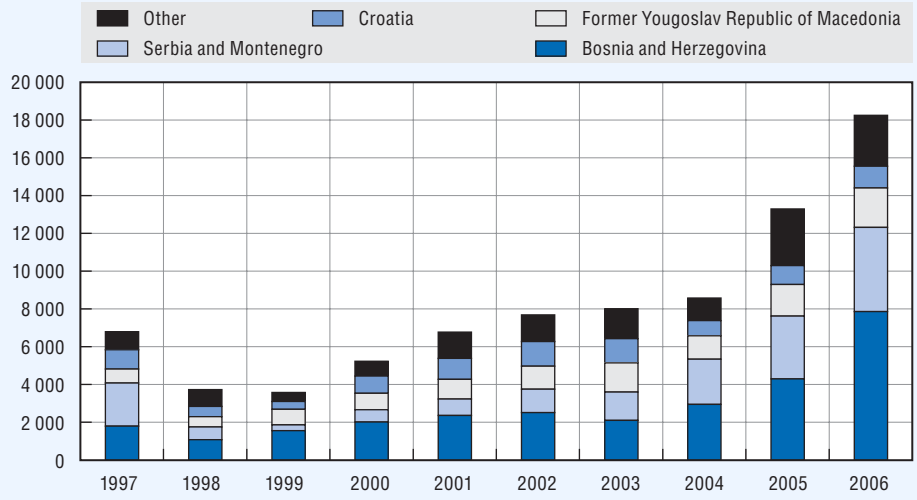
Since 2005 international migration flows to Slovenia have intensified. In 2006 almost 2.5 times more people immigrated into Slovenia than in 2004 (18 250 foreigners all told). Immigration from Bosnia and Herzegovina (7 900 in 2006) and from Serbia and Montenegro (4 500 also in 2006) has increased steadily since 2000. Among foreigners who emigrated to Slovenia, 85.3% were citizens of ex-Yugoslav Republics.

The main reason for migration is the possibility of better employment or the possibility to perform seasonal work. Most of the foreign migrants came for the purpose of regular work and employment (44%), followed by those who came for seasonal work (30%) and those who came for family reunification (16%). However most of the foreign immigrants come to Slovenia for less than a year.

Recent immigrants in Slovenia tend to be low-educated. Most immigrant workers who arrived in Slovenia in 2005 had elementary education (64%), 30% had secondary education and only 6% had post secondary education. About 64% of foreigners who immigrated into Slovenia worked in construction, followed by manufacturing with about 9%.

Box I.5. **Overview of migration to and from selected "potential" new OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Inflows of foreigners in Slovenia by main nationalities



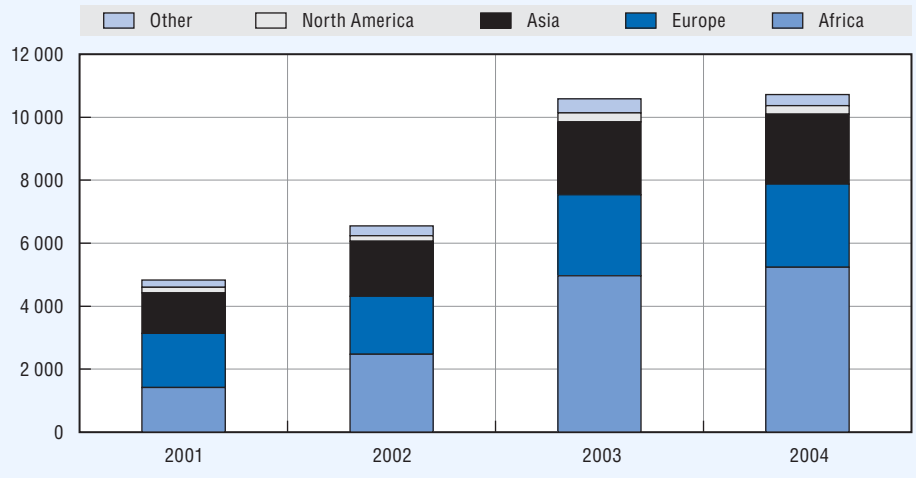
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427415143578

Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.

South Africa

According to the 2001 census, the foreign-born population accounted for 1 025 000 persons including 690 000 persons born in southern African countries, 230 000 from Europe and about 42 000 from the rest of Africa. The immigrant population accounted for 2.3% of the total population compared to about 1% for the foreign population. The next census is scheduled for 2011. Migration to South Africa increased since 2003 to reach about 11 000 in 2004. About half of inflows to South Africa come from other African countries, followed by European and Asian countries. Most of the authorised immigrants to South Africa are not economically active, mainly families with children or retired people, the balance being persons in professional, managerial and administrative occupations.

Inflows of foreigners in South Africa by region of previous permanent residence



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427416263302

Source: Statistics South Africa, Documented migration Report.

Box I.5. **Overview of migration to and from selected "potential" new OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Immigrant population from selected non-OECD countries of birth in OECD countries, circa 2001

Country of residence	Countries under accession process					Enhanced engagement countries					Total foreign-born
	Chile	Estonia	Israel	Russian Federation	Slovenia	Brazil	China	India	Indonesia	South Africa	
Australia	22 470	2 220	5 790	13 750	6 450	4 190	134 700	88 240	43 360	68 860	3 860 220
Austria	800	140	1 380	6 130	20 340	2 410	6 300	7 250	800	1 700	923 690
Belgium	3 340	80	2 280	–	–	3 280	6 020	7 940	2 650	2 270	1 019 300
Canada	24 240	6 280	14 720	44 550	9 190	12 460	318 130	306 860	9 970	33 570	5 355 210
Czech Republic	30	60	110	12 230	250	100	1 130	230	90	130	436 970
Denmark	1 260	480	1 310	2 140	60	1 420	3 560	3 340	590	900	319 300
Finland	200	6 160	390	1 210	10	250	1 750	990	100	180	112 430
France	9 860	600	6 600	15 740	2 520	13 080	31 330	26 400	3 440	2 880	5 600 200
Greece	390	60	650	65 790	110	1 970	540	6 970	250	5 140	999 910
Hungary	90	70	480	6 170	690	140	3 610	230	30	80	275 490
Ireland	150	500	210	1 970	30	1 120	5 500	3 110	160	5 010	332 990
Italy	7 920	290	2 090	12 360	20 420	34 850	35 590	24 030	1 210	4 330	2 020 930
Japan	–	–	–	2 250	–	157 870	227 440	5 030	13 820	–	1 142 370
Luxembourg	120	20	70	400	70	440	910	280	80	150	129 760
Mexico	3 410	10	850	1 130	30	1 930	1 620	400	60	60	241 460
Netherlands	–	–	–	1 560	–	1 820	4 460	–	180 940	4 420	1 419 950
New Zealand	710	110	460	2 190	180	610	35 990	18 430	3 410	19 880	624 090
Norway	5 520	430	310	5 930	40	1 280	3 680	5 130	620	690	305 920
Poland	20	280	280	53 660	120	220	630	270	30	130	737 730
Portugal	170	200	60	2 120	30	45 190	2 130	6 560	90	9 120	585 930
Slovak Republic	10	10	40	1 650	40	10	110	20	–	10	113 180
Spain	15 520	–	900	12 040	180	29 280	23 520	7 780	520	1 180	1 914 920
Sweden	26 200	6 220	1 640	7 020	690	3 350	8 160	10 550	1 670	1 150	933 830
Switzerland	4 910	210	1 780	5 720	3 780	12 970	7 020	7 170	2 230	4 080	1 454 190
Turkey	–	–	2 330	17 660	–	–	1 420	480	–	–	1 130 550
United Kingdom	4 760	1 850	10 260	13 280	1 200	13 990	47 850	454 490	6 070	124 650	4 503 470
United States	75 840	8 710	107 730	287 540	5 880	199 590	1 129 640	958 060	70 320	60 100	31 389 930
OECD (above mentioned countries)	**207 920**	**34 970**	**162 730**	**596 140**	**72 300**	**543 780**	**2 042 730**	**1 950 220**	**342 480**	**350 660**	**67 883 910**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427452145024

Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).

6. Temporary migration

Temporary migration covers a broad range of migrants, from artists to trainees, service providers, installers, seasonal workers, international students, exchange visitors, researchers, medical interns. Data on this kind of migration is almost exclusively from permits and the number of separately identified categories tends to vary considerably across countries. This is generally not because certain types of temporary migration do not exist in some countries, but either because the numbers are small or because the categories are considered too numerous or specialised to mention. One can be reasonably certain that virtually every category of migration is present in every country. In some countries (Japan, Korea, the United States) the permit systems are very detailed, with a separate permit for each type of temporary migration; in others only a handful of permit

types exist, each of which covers broad categories of workers, which are not generally separately specified, although the information does exist. More detailed statistics in this area can reveal some significant movements, for example that of foreign medical interns, whose presence can be important for ensuring certain services in hospitals in some countries.

Temporary labour migration

The data compiled in the area of temporary labour migration are far from complete. Many countries are still not represented in the statistics (Table I.4). Certain categories show up as temporary migration in some countries, but may be split between temporary and permanent in others, depending on the intended duration of stay. Intra-corporate transfers are a case in point. They appear entirely as temporary labour migrants in the United States except when they change status and obtain green cards, but many are permanent-type migrants in the United Kingdom. Exchange visitors may be carrying out remunerative work, but may not be considered temporary labour migrants.

Temporary movements in the context of free circulation regimes can be particularly difficult to capture, because reporting requirements may be entirely waived. The statistics also may not specifically identify the skill level of temporary migrant workers, a matter of particular interest, although here too, the information may be available but not published. For certain categories, the work carried out may be incidental, that is, the main purpose of the migration may be tourism (working holiday makers), training (trainees) or study (international students). Indeed the categories of "working holiday makers" and "trainees" have been used to satisfy lesser skilled labour needs when national circumstances have made it difficult to resort to overt low-skilled labour migration. Each of these were considered to be relatively low-risk forms of migration that could be mobilised to this end. Note that international students are not included in the statistics presented here, because not all international students work and because the statistics on students may be subject to more serious comparability problems than the other categories, particularly with respect to the levels of education covered.

Temporary labour migrants are around three times the number of permanent ones…

In 2006, based on the data compiled to date which cover 20 countries (Table I.4), over 2.5 million temporary labour migrants arrived in OECD countries, which is around three times the number of permanent-type labour migrants, if one includes the labour component of free circulation movements in the permanent-type movements. About 20% of temporary labour migrants were working holiday makers and another 20% seasonal workers. About 40% fell into the residual category "other temporary workers", which for some countries may include workers belonging to some of the other categories. Although the picture is not complete, the statistics include many of the major countries and thus account for a significant proportion of the total movements of legal temporary labour migrants.

… but temporary migration is increasing more slowly than permanent-type migration

Temporary labour migration has increased by about 15% from 2003 to 2006, whereas total permanent-type migration has risen by over 40% over the same period and permanent-type labour migration (including free circulation long-term labour migration) by over 50%. Working holiday makers and trainees have each risen by over 20% and other temporary workers by about 15%.

Table I.4. **Inflows of temporary labour migrants, selected OECD countries, 2003-2006**

Thousands

	2003	2004	2005	2006	Distribution (2006)
Working holiday makers	442	463	497	536	21
Trainees	146	147	161	182	7
Seasonal workers	545	568	571	576	23
Intra-company transfers	89	89	87	99	4
Other temporary workers	958	1 093	1 085	1 105	44
All categories	2 180	2 360	2 401	2 498	100
					Per 1 000 population (2006)
Australia	152	159	183	219	10.7
Austria	30	27	15	4	0.5
Belgium	2	31	33	42	4.0
Bulgaria	–	1	1	1	0.1
Canada	118	124	133	146	4.5
Denmark	5	5	5	6	1.1
France	26	26	27	28	0.5
Germany	446	440	415	379	4.6
Italy	69	70	85	98	1.7
Japan	217	231	202	164	1.3
Korea	75	65	73	86	1.8
Mexico	45	42	46	40	0.4
Netherlands	43	52	56	83	5.1
New Zealand	65	70	78	87	21.1
Norway	21	28	22	38	8.2
Portugal	3	13	8	7	0.7
Sweden	8	9	7	7	0.8
Switzerland	142	116	104	117	15.7
United Kingdom	137	239	275	266	4.4
United States	577	612	635	678	2.3
All countries	2 180	2 360	2 401	2 498	2.6
Annual change (%)	n.a.	8.3	1.7	4.0	

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427045515037

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

Switzerland and New Zealand are the countries where the movements are largest relative to the total population. Germany and Japan, which show little discretionary permanent-type labour migration, are much more present in the realm of temporary labour migration, with on average over 400 000 and 200 000 workers each year over the period 2003-06, although the numbers in Japan remain relatively modest relative to the population. As was the case for permanent-type migration, the United States accounts for approximately one-fourth of all temporary labour migration, with the numbers having steadily increased since 2003. However, these remain less than the estimated 750 000 to 800 000 unauthorised immigrants who arrive every year, most of whom are workers. The other settlement countries of Australia, Canada and New Zealand all have significant levels, with only Canada among the three showing temporary labour migration levels that are lower than its permanent-type intake for all categories. The large increase in the United Kingdom for 2004 and the high levels thereafter reflect the impact of the

enlargement of the European Union and the arrival of many workers from Central Europe. The impact of enlargement is less visible, if at all, in other European countries.

Asylum seekers

Movements of asylum seekers have been grouped under temporary migration, even if this may not correspond to the intentions of the migrants themselves. The reason is that recognitions of asylum claims and grants of permanent status tend to be modest and because asylum seekers are expected to return to their countries of origin if their claims are refused. In other words, destination countries consider such movements as permanent-type movements only if the claims for refugee status are recognised.

Asylum seeking keeps falling and contributes less and less to permanent migration

Asylum seeking in OECD countries declined for the fourth consecutive year in 2006, falling below 300 000 for the first time since 1987 (Table I.5). The United States was the largest receiving country at 41 000, with Canada, France, Germany and the United Kingdom

Table I.5. **Inflows of asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2000-2006, trends and levels**

	Index of the number of asylum seekers			Total number	Number per million population	Main country of origin (% of all asylum seekers)	
	2000	2005	2006	2006	2006	2006	
Australia	100	25	27	3 500	171	China	30
Austria	100	123	73	13 300	1 612	Serbia and Montenegro	19
Belgium	100	37	27	11 600	1 099	Russian Federation	14
Canada	100	61	67	22 900	701	Mexico	22
Czech Republic	100	47	34	3 000	294	Ukraine	19
Denmark	100	19	16	1 900	353	Iraq	27
Finland	100	113	74	2 300	443	Bulgaria	20
France	100	128	79	30 700	501	Serbia and Montenegro	10
Germany	100	37	27	21 000	255	Serbia and Montenegro	15
Greece	100	294	398	12 300	1 100	Bangladesh	30
Hungary	100	21	27	2 100	210	Viet Nam	19
Ireland	100	40	39	4 300	1 019	Nigeria	24
Italy	100	61	66	10 300	177	Eritrea	21
Japan	100	178	442	1 000	7	Myanmar	63
Korea	100	958	647	300	6	Nepal	26
Luxembourg	100	129	84	500	1 138	Serbia and Montenegro	39
Netherlands	100	28	33	14 500	885	Iraq	19
New Zealand	100	22	18	300	67	Iraq	12
Norway	100	50	49	5 300	1 139	Iraq	19
Poland	100	149	97	4 400	116	Russian Federation	91
Portugal	100	51	57	100	12	Democratic Republic of the Congo	16
Slovak Republic	100	228	185	2 900	533	India	25
Spain	100	66	67	5 300	120	Colombia	42
Sweden	100	108	149	24 300	2 678	Iraq	37
Switzerland	100	57	60	10 500	1 408	Serbia and Montenegro	12
Turkey	100	69	80	4 600	62	Iran	50
United Kingdom	100	31	29	28 300	467	Eritrea	10
United States	100	96	101	41 100	137	China	23
Total	**100**	**58**	**53**	**282 600**	**264**	**Iraq**	**8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427081547188

Source: UNHCR database (*www.unhcr.org*).

all falling in the 20 000 to 30 000 range. Among significant destination countries, large declines were evident in France and Germany, but also in Austria and Belgium. However, numbers increased by over 40% in Sweden, somewhat less so in Canada, Greece and the Netherlands. Sweden, Austria and Switzerland are the main receiving countries in per-capita terms, while Japan, Korea and Portugal show insignificant entries of persons in this category.

Iraq, followed by Serbia and Montenegro are the most important countries of origin. The main country of origin in destination countries accounts for some 25-30% of asylum seekers on average. Largest declines in 2006 were observed for asylum seekers from Serbia and Montenegro and the Russian Federation and the largest increases from Iraq and Eritrea.

Since asylum seeking as a channel of entry has been declining and recognition rates seldom exceed 20%, asylum seeking is becoming a less and less important source of permanent entries in OECD countries. A stricter application of the Geneva convention, stronger visa requirements and border control measures and especially, improving conditions in many origin countries, both politically and economically, each have their share in the falling asylum request numbers. By end-2006, there remained about 400 000 asylum claims not yet decided on in Europe and North America. Despite the decline in asylum seeking, humanitarian migration nonetheless accounted for some 375 000 permanent-type entries in 2006, 215 000 of which were in the United States.

International students

The increase in international students appears to be slowing down

International study continued to increase from 2004 to 2005 in OECD countries, at a rate of about 5%. However, the rate is smaller than that observed on average over the 2000 to 2005 period (8%) (Table I.6).

Note that most of the 2000-2005 change data do not actually refer to international students, but rather to students having the nationality of another country, some of whom may have been born or arrived in the country of study as children.[6] Nevertheless, the overlap is substantial (about 80% on average) so that the statements being made here concerning the change in foreign students can be expected to apply as well to students coming to the country to study.

Overall the number of international students increased by about 50% from 2000 to 2005, with the United States and the United Kingdom each showing an increase of 120 000 students, France of about 100 000 and Australia of close to 85 000. Strong percentage increases (close to or more than one hundred) have occurred in New Zealand, the Czech Republic, Japan, Korea and the Netherlands.

Outside of English-language countries, which are in a privileged position with respect to attracting international students, strategies appear to differ across countries with respect to attracting international students.

Even countries whose language is scarcely spoken outside their borders are attracting students

In some countries, English-language programmes have been introduced in order to attract students from other countries, especially when the language of the country is not or is hardly spoken outside its borders. This is the case, for example, in the Nordic

Table I.6. **International and/or foreign students in OECD countries, 2000 and 2005**

	International students		Foreign students				Number of students 2005	
	As a percentage of all tertiary enrolment		As a percentage of all tertiary enrolment		Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary, 2005 (2000 = 100)	Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary (2005/2004)	Foreign students	International students
	Total tertiary	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary	Advanced research programmes				
OECD countries								
Australia[1]	17.3	17.8	20.6	28.3	167	106	211 300	177 000
Austria[1, 3]	11.0	15.4	14.1	20.2	114	102	34 500	27 000
Belgium[1]	6.5	19.9	11.7	30.8	117	103	38 200	21 100
Canada	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	111 000
Czech Republic	n.a.	n.a.	5.5	7.2	339	124	18 500	n.a.
Denmark[1]	4.4	6.9	7.5	18.5	135	102	17 400	10 300
Finland[2, 3]	3.6	7.3	2.8	7.3	152	107	8 400	11 000
France[1, 5]	10.8	34.4	n.a.	n.a.	173	100	236 500	236 500
Germany[2]	n.a.	n.a.	11.5	n.a.	139	100	259 800	204 600
Greece[1, 3]	0.4	n.a.	2.4	n.a.	182	109	15 700	n.a.
Hungary[1]	2.7	7.9	3.1	8.6	137	105	13 600	11 900
Iceland	n.a.	n.a.	3.2	12.7	120	99	500	n.a.
Ireland[2, 5]	6.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	174	102	12 900	12 900
Italy	n.a.	n.a.	2.2	4.3	180	111	44 900	n.a.
Japan[1]	2.8	16.3	3.1	17.1	189	107	125 900	114 900
Korea	n.a.	n.a.	0.5	n.a.	459	144	15 500	n.a.
Luxembourg	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mexico	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Netherlands[3]	4.7	n.a.	5.6	n.a.	225	149	31 600	26 400
New Zealand[1]	17.0	16.6	28.9	38.3	845	101	69 400	40 800
Norway[1]	1.9	5.2	4.8	18.6	154	106	10 200	4 000
Poland	n.a.	n.a.	0.5	3.2	166	125	10 200	n.a.
Portugal	n.a.	n.a.	4.5	7.3	152	105	17 000	n.a.
Slovak Republic[1]	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8	107	102	1 700	1 600
Spain[1, 3]	1.0	7.6	2.5	18.9	112	109	45 600	17 700
Sweden[1]	4.4	n.a.	9.2	20.3	154	108	39 300	18 900
Switzerland[2, 3]	13.2	43.3	18.4	43.2	142	103	36 800	26 500
Turkey	n.a.	n.a.	0.9	2.9	103	119	18 200	n.a.
United Kingdom[1]	13.9	40.0	17.3	41.4	143	108	394 600	318 400
United States[1, 5]	3.4	24.1	n.a.	n.a.	124	103	590 200	590 200
OECD total	**6.7**	**16.5**	**7.6**	**17.5**	**149**	**105**	**2 318 400**	**1 982 700**
OECD total for common countries							**1 338 300**	**1 032 100**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427102408253

n.a.: means not available.

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.
2. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.
3. Percentage in total tertiary underestimated because of the exclusion of certain programmes.
4. Excludes private institutions.
5. The 2005/2000 index and the foreign-student total are based on international students.

Source: Education at a glance, OECD, 2007. See *www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007*.

countries and the Netherlands. Students in these countries can thus, in principle, live and stay in the country without necessarily having to learn very much of the national language. Although an extended presence in the country of study may enhance the likelihood of an eventual permanent stay, study in English unquestionably prepares students for work in

English-language workplaces which are not common in these host countries outside of multinational enterprises, even if substantial proportions of the residents and workers of the country are able to understand and speak English. The ability of an international study graduate being able to function at a high level in the language of the country of study under these conditions is far from assured. Whether the expanded use of English in workplaces and in commercial transactions will be sufficient to make direct recruitment of highly skilled persons into jobs a common phenomenon is uncertain.

Other countries, such as Belgium, France, Switzerland and Spain have national languages that are broadly spoken outside of their borders and are in a privileged position to attract many international students to programmes offered in the host-country language.

Other countries have managed to attract significant numbers of students for programmes in the host- country language, although there may also be some courses and programmes offered in English. These include Germany, Italy, Japan and Korea. Often such students have to do a preparatory year to acquire the needed language proficiency before they are able to follow a programme entirely in the host country language. This does not seem to be an insurmountable obstacle, given the numbers of international students which Germany and Japan are able to attract, 205 000 and 110 000, respectively. In Germany, tuition fees are quite low for international students, which may be a significant incentive if affordability is a significant issue.

Although international students are a potential source of highly skilled labour migrants for OECD countries, there is no systematic data as yet on stay rates. Results from a number of countries suggest that at best 15-20% of graduates may be staying on (OECD, 2007a), with differences by country of origin. Because many countries formerly had so-called "quarantine" provisions for students from developing countries, that is, the requirement that students return to their countries of origin for a certain number of years before they can apply for migration to the country of study, the numbers in the past were relatively limited and often restricted to situations in which the student married a citizen of the host country. In recent years, most OECD countries have introduced measures which allow students who have completed their studies to search for work during a certain time period following the end of their studies and to stay on if they are offered a job in their field of study. Generally the job has to be in a technical or scientific field, which tends to reduce the pool of potential candidates. On average, some 10-15% of international students are studying in each of engineering, manufacturing and construction; health and welfare; and the sciences. For this restricted pool of candidates, the effective stay rates may actually be higher. Still, with the expansion of international study, the absolute number of students returning to their countries with an education obtained in an OECD country is likely to have increased over the past decade.

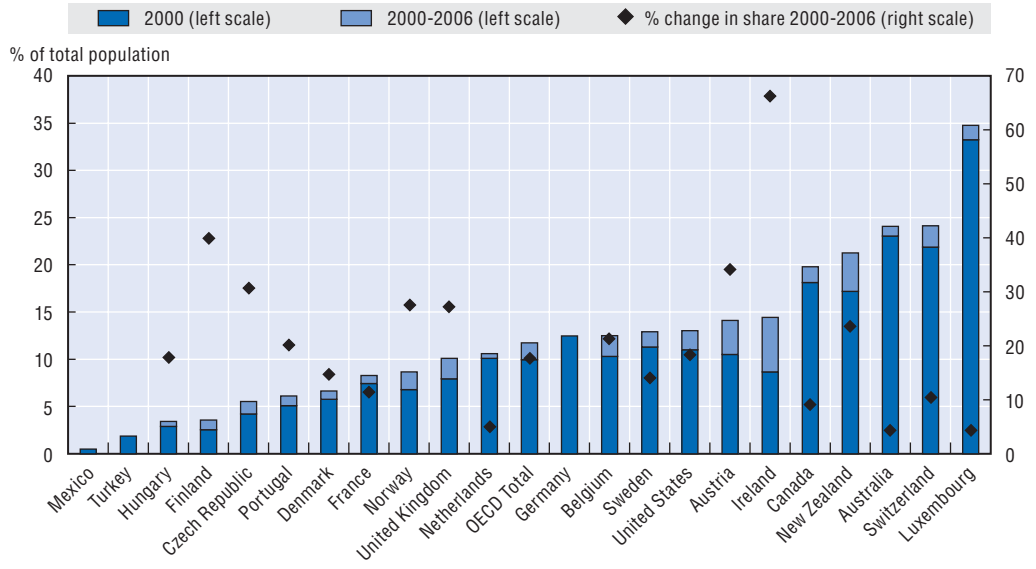
7. The immigrant population – its size and characteristics

The foreign-born population in OECD countries

The foreign-born population has grown by 18% since the year 2000

The foreign-born population in 2006 accounted for 11.7% of the total population in OECD countries for which data are available. This is an 18% increase relative to the year 2000. The observed rate of change has tended to be higher in countries which have had less migration in the past (Chart I.5).

Chart I.5. **The foreign-born population in OECD countries, 2000-2006**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427243430285

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata for Tables B.1.4 of the Statistical Annex.

Certain countries have seen very high rates of increase in the immigrant share of the population since the year 2000, in particular Ireland (66%), Finland (40%) and Austria (34%). Countries with existing large immigrant populations (Australia, Canada, Luxembourg, Switzerland) have seen the share of immigrants grow by at most 10%. The one exception in this regard is New Zealand which has seen the share of immigrants increase from 17 to 21%, an increase of about one-fourth over the period.

More than one half of OECD countries had immigrant populations that exceeded 10% of their total populations in 2006 (Chart I.6). Among traditional immigration countries, France and the United Kingdom have immigrant populations (at 8.3% and 10.1%, respectively) that seem rather modest compared to new migration countries such as Greece, Ireland and Spain.[7]

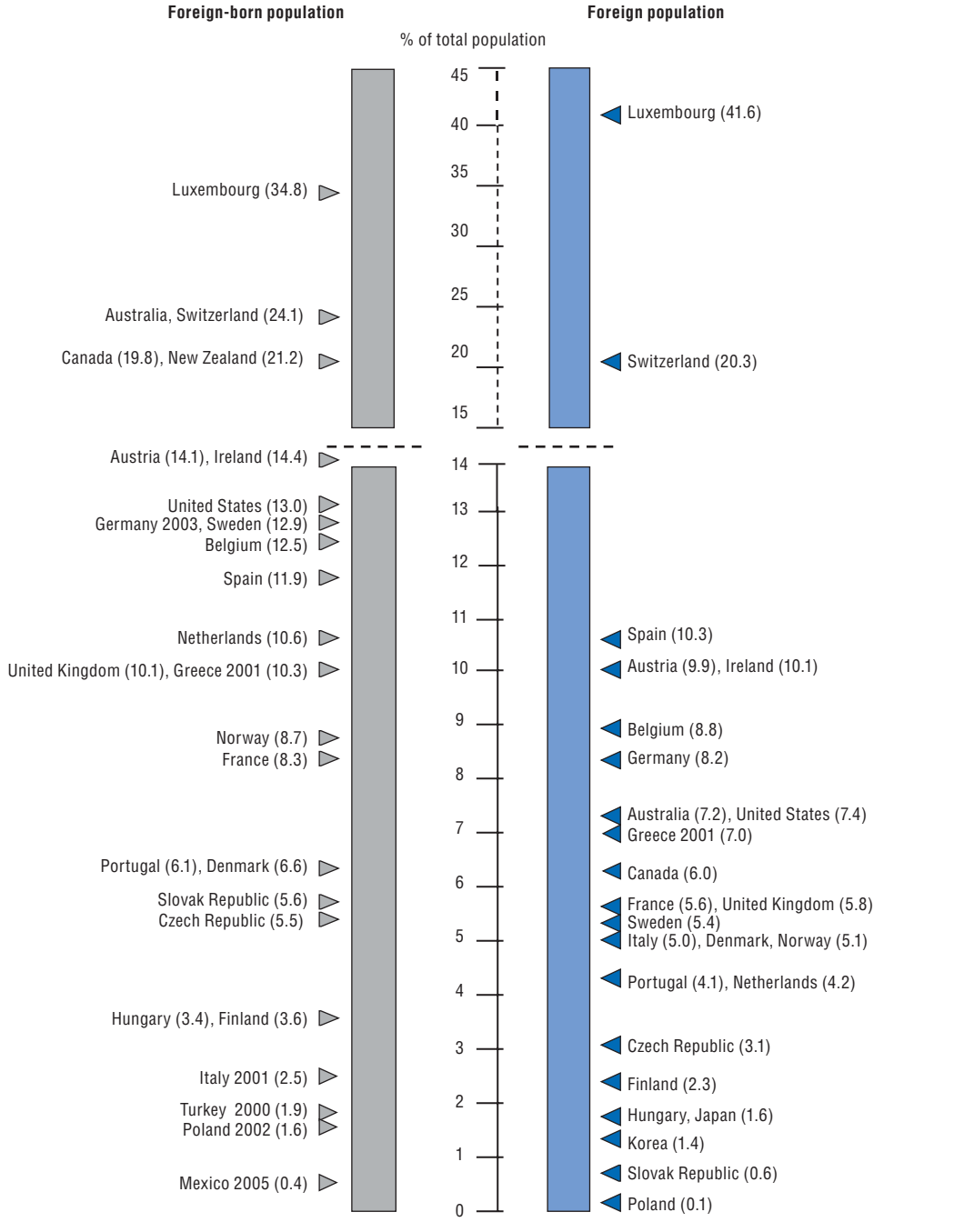
Future prospects for the working-age population in OECD countries at current migration levels

The working-age population will decline over the period 2005-2020 without migration

Last year's edition of the *International Migration Outlook* examined expected changes in the working-age population over the period 2005-2020 in the absence of migration. The results showed that over the 2010-2015 period, over three-quarters of OECD countries would be showing declines in their working-age population without migration. The assumption of no net migration was entirely hypothetical, however. Even in the absence of labour migration, OECD countries admit every year many family and humanitarian migrants of working-age. This section refines last year's analysis by examining the prospects for the working-age population, were migration levels to remain at the average level observed over the 2001-2005 period. For the purposes of this analysis, it was assumed that 80% of net migration concerns persons 15-64 years of age.[8] This reflects a fairly typical net migration age distribution.

Chart I.6. **Stock of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2006**[1]

Percentage of total population



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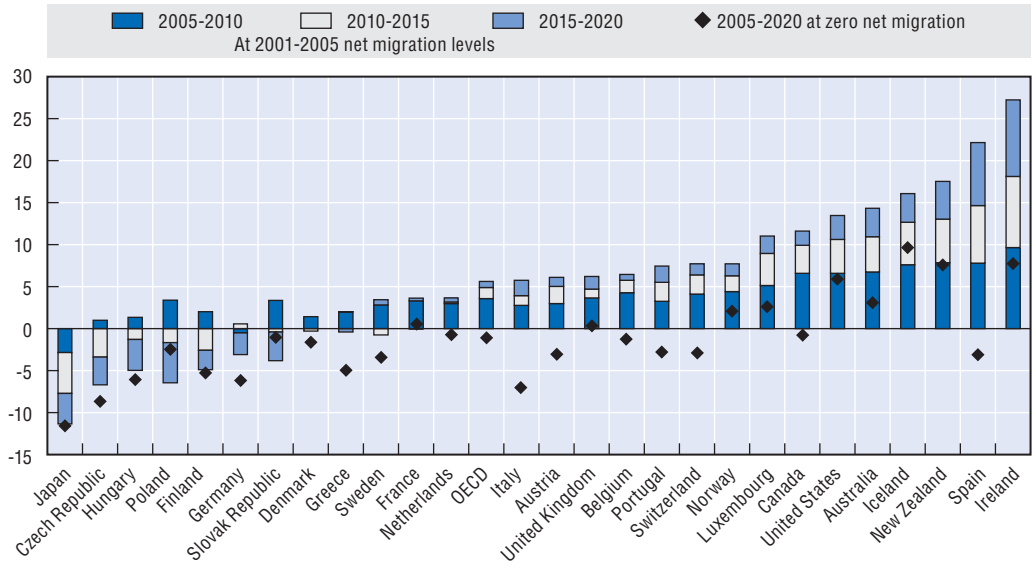
1. 2006 unless otherwise stated.

Source: Foreign-born population: estimates by the Secretariat for the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Switzerland, United Kingdom; for other countries, please refer to the metadata for Table A.1.4. of the Statistical Annex.
Foreign population: please refer to the metadata for Table A.1.5. of the Statistical Annex.
Data for Ireland are from the 2006 census.

At recent migration levels, some countries look in good shape, others less so

As Chart I.7 indicates, the picture changes substantially for many countries if one takes current migration levels into account. All but seven OECD countries now show an increase in the working-age population over the period. Only Japan, Central European countries, Finland and Germany now find themselves with a contracting working-age population from 2005-2020 at recent migration levels. However, for five others (Denmark, Greece, Sweden, France and the Netherlands), the working-age population increases by less than 5%, a modest increase over fifteen years compared to historical levels. In addition, after 2010, there is essentially no growth in the working-age population for these countries.

Chart I.7. **Expected net change in the working-age population over the period 2005-2020, at 2001-2005 net migration levels, as a percentage of the population in 2005**



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Source: Labour force Statistics, OECD, 2007.

All other countries show more significant increases in the working-age population over the period and indeed, over each of the three sub-periods. For some countries current net migration levels are more than enough to significantly offset the ageing impact of the current demographic structure of the population. For some countries, in particular Austria, Portugal and Spain, migration at current levels, should this continue, can be expected to strongly offset declining workforces.

The reduction in the working-age population poses a problem because it means a decline in the pool of potential prime-age workers. In practice this could result in lower GDP per capita, all other things being equal, unless productivity growth can offset it. Higher immigration levels, but also increased participation by women and older workers, can reduce the reliance on productivity growth to maintain GDP per capita growth rates.

There may be enough workers in some countries, but will they have the right skills?

The question of whether there will be the right kind of workers in the working-age population to satisfy employers' labour requirements is a different issue and a growing one. Educational attainments have increased substantially in many OECD countries and the pool of persons willing to take on certain types of employment viewed as lower paid, of low status or with unappealing working conditions (in construction, hotels and restaurants, cleaning, food processing and the household sector) appears to be declining. In addition, most persons arriving in the context of family and humanitarian migration do not have a job upon arrival in the host country, and their skills may not always correspond to what the labour market is looking for. In short, even if non-discretionary migration may be addressing demographic aspects of the labour supply, the ability to satisfy precise labour needs may well depend on more targeted labour migration.

8. Migration of the highly educated

Every country wants highly skilled immigrants, but not all countries attract them to the same extent

Despite the concordance of views across countries about the desirability and benefits of highly skilled migration, there is considerable variation across OECD countries in the percentage of highly educated immigrants among all immigrants aged 15 and above. These ranged from about 11% in Austria, the Czech Republic and Poland to a little over 40% in Ireland in around 2001 (Table I.7). The reasons for this variation are numerous.

Certain countries, such as Australia, Canada and New Zealand select immigrants on the basis of characteristics deemed to be conducive to a successful integration in the labour market and educational attainment is among the most important of these. One would expect that the selection process would result in an immigrant population that is on average of higher attainment than in countries where no such selection occurs. Still, it is important to remember that at best about 25% of immigrants in these countries are directly selected. The rest arrive as accompanying family, as fiancés or spouses or as humanitarian migrants. Because persons tend to marry persons of similar educational attainment, however, the selection process has a much stronger effect than that which one might expect on the basis of the percentage of persons directly selected.

Secondly, even where there is no selection carried out by the national administration and where labour migration occurs at the initiative of the employer, the national government may nonetheless impose certain criteria such as a base salary or a minimum level of educational attainment which effectively screen out lesser educated labour migrants. This has been the case in Ireland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Where no such criteria are imposed, the needs of employers will determine the skill level of migrants and these can be for low- as well as high-skilled workers. In many European countries, guest worker programmes from the 1950s through the 1970s resulted in the arrival of many lesser educated immigrants to take on low-skilled jobs in manufacturing and construction, among others. The labour migration restrictions introduced after the first oil crisis in 1973 largely put a stop to the immigration of lower educated workers. Many of those who were already there stayed. Some were already present with their families. Some whose families had remained behind brought in their spouses and children. In both cases, the spouses of low educated immigrants were often themselves low educated.

Table I.7. **Impact of the country-of-origin mix and of immigrant qualifications on the percentage of immigrants with tertiary attainment, circa 2001**

	Immigrants with tertiary attainment	Country-of-origin mix effect	Immigrant qualifications effect
	Percentages	Percentage points	
Austria	11.3	–10.6	–9.8
Poland	11.9	–31.8	–16.2
Italy	12.2	–8.6	–14.1
Czech Republic	12.8	–24.3	–9.5
Slovak Republic	14.6	–18.0	–7.8
Greece	15.3	–9.9	–7.5
Turkey	16.6	–30.0	–5.4
Finland	17.0	–2.4	–15.7
France	18.1	–16.5	–1.2
Portugal	19.3	–15.7	–5.8
Denmark	19.4	–4.4	–9.5
Hungary	19.8	–13.9	–4.6
Belgium	21.5	–12.7	–3.7
Luxembourg	21.7	–17.7	0.9
Spain	21.8	–8.9	–3.3
Switzerland	23.9	–12.1	1.4
Sweden	24.1	–12.0	–3.4
Australia	25.7	–9.5	–5.7
United States	25.8	–6.3	2.5
New Zealand	31.0	–6.9	–3.2
Norway	31.1	–3.9	–0.8
United Kingdom	35.0	–9.9	0.7
Mexico	37.8	–23.1	3.9
Canada	37.9	–0.9	5.7
Ireland	41.0	–13.2	6.0
All countries	25.3	n.a.	n.a.
Correlation with percentage of tertiary-educated immigrants	n.a.	0.36	0.83

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Note: For each destination country, the effects are measured taking into account only countries of origin that are represented in the destination country. See text for an explanation of the calculations.
Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).

In addition, migration currents tend to perpetuate themselves. Unmarried immigrants or children of immigrants may return to the country of origin for vacation or visit and find or meet potential spouses while there. These may be less educated on average than persons of comparable age in the country of residence, thus perpetuating the lesser skilled bias of past migration.

The origin and educational composition of the immigrant population reflects at once national migration policies, labour market needs, the history of migration in the country and network effects, among others. Although these various influences manifest themselves in different ways in different countries, one can nevertheless consider in general the question of the extent to which particular countries "attract" immigrants of particular educational levels. Do countries have immigrant populations with high levels of tertiary attainment because they tend to receive or to attract immigrants from countries whose expatriates are generally highly educated (country mix effect) or because they tend on average to attract the more highly educated expatriates from origin countries (immigrant qualifications effect)? The latter might also have been designated the

"selection effect", except that in many countries, there has been little discretionary labour migration in recent decades, so that little direct selection of immigrants has occurred.

One might expect, for example, that a destination country which currently recruits largely from OECD countries would tend to have highly qualified immigrants, because expatriation tends to be more common among the highly educated and because the educational attainment of OECD countries has increased considerably in recent decades.

Table I.7 summarises the results of an analysis carried out to examine the nature of immigration into OECD countries in this way, focusing in particular on the population of immigrants having a tertiary qualification.[9] The first column gives the observed percentage of foreign-born persons having a tertiary degree or diploma.

More diverse immigrant populations tend to be more highly educated on average

The second column gives the difference between the tertiary attainment percentage of immigrants in each destination country and the percentage one would obtain if the country mix of immigrants were that for the OECD as a whole but the tertiary attainment percentage for each country of origin were unchanged.[10] When one averages over all OECD countries, there is a balancing effect which occurs; the concentration of immigrants from a particular country of origin at the OECD-wide level is always less pronounced. What then is the impact of a more balanced distribution of immigrants from origin countries? As the table indicates, every OECD country has a lower immigrant tertiary attainment level with its own country mix rather than that for the OECD as a whole.

Why is this so? The results suggest that a higher share of immigrants from a particular origin country in a given destination country tends to be associated with a lower percentage of immigrants from that country with tertiary attainment. This is indeed the case. The correlations are not large (they vary from –0.03 for Norway to –0.24 for Italy) but they are negative for all countries. Mass migration generally seems to mean more migration of persons with lower attainment levels. The initial wave of immigrants consists of persons for whom the expected benefits outweigh the costs of emigration. Following the initial waves, the immigrant population already settled in the host country can transmit back to potential migrants in the origin country information concerning job prospects, living costs, cheaper travel, etc., which will have the effect of lowering the uncertainty concerning migration and the costs associated with this. As result, persons with lower expected returns from migration will find it advantageous to migrate, which would tend to reduce the percentage of immigrants with higher attainment levels.

The OECD country distribution averages out the effects of concentrations from specific origin countries. The countries least affected by the origin-country mix in this exercise are the Nordic countries (with the exception of Sweden) and the historical settlement countries (Canada, New Zealand and the United States), with the exception of Australia. Only somewhat further down are the labour migration countries of southern Europe (Greece, Italy and Spain) and Australia, Sweden and the United Kingdom. This diverse group of countries can be characterised as either countries with immigrant selection strategies, countries with high levels of humanitarian migration or countries which have had high levels of labour migration, often unauthorised. On the other hand, most of the countries showing the largest effect of country mix are countries with small immigrant populations, such as Poland, Turkey, Mexico and the Czech and Slovak Republics, each of which has one immigrant group which accounts for 40% to 65% of its total immigrant population.

Not surprisingly, countries with selective migration programmes and high admissions tend to have more than their share of highly qualified immigrants

The third column in the table shows the impact of reversing the previous procedure, that is, of applying the OECD-wide tertiary attainment percentages for origin countries to the country mix of each destination country. Here, one is looking at the tendency for a destination country to attract more highly educated immigrants on average, given its country of origin mix. In this case, seven countries show a more favourable attainment picture compared to a situation in which the percentage of immigrants with tertiary attainment for a given country of origin is that for the OECD as a whole. The countries are Ireland, Canada, Mexico, the United States, Switzerland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom. For all other countries, the OECD tertiary attainment percentages for origin countries yield immigrant populations that are more highly educated than their own. Note that Australia and New Zealand, although showing a negative impact of immigrant qualifications, are nonetheless among the countries for which the effect is relatively small.

Selection is more important than diversity in ensuring highly qualified migration

Which effect has the stronger impact on the percentage of tertiary attainment among immigrants in destination countries? Not entirely surprisingly, it turns out that the "immigrant qualifications effect" is much more strongly correlated than the "country mix effect" (0.83 *vs.* 0.36) with the prevalence of tertiary attainment among immigrants.

The message for migration policy here is not a simple one. There is a certain inertia to the country mix of immigrants because of network effects and because a significant proportion of migration is non-discretionary and is associated with signed treaties or conventions or generally recognised human rights (for example, the right to live with one's family or to marry whom one wishes). The structure of non-discretionary migration is the consequence of past history and of past policy choices, on which it is difficult to turn back the clock. There are certain measures, however, which can change the structure of migration flows. One country (the United States) has attempted to introduce more diversity into its immigrant flows by granting residence permits through a lottery for which only candidates from countries that are poorly represented in the United States are eligible. The evidence also suggests that discretionary labour migration with selection criteria based on qualifications, as is currently done in the settlement countries, can also offset the downward biasing effect of origin country concentration on educational attainment. Such strategies have the effect of both changing the country mix by favouring countries with higher attainment levels and of favouring more educated candidates for immigration from all countries.

Highly educated immigrants will be beneficial to the host country labour market and economy if immigrants are in occupations for which there are shortages or more generally, if their skills are complementary to those of the native-born in the destination country. The dilemma for many OECD countries currently is that shortages appear to be showing up at least as much in occupations which require lower levels of education, despite the significant numbers of lesser educated immigrants who are already arriving through family and humanitarian migration. Redressing the education imbalance, if imbalance exists (see below), means admitting more highly qualified immigrants. The question is whether this corresponds to the needs of the labour market.

9. The evolution of the educational attainment of immigrants

The educational attainment of immigrants is changing at the same time as that of the native-born…

Generally analyses of the attainment levels of immigrants compare their education levels to those of the native-born population and tend to show, with some notable exceptions, somewhat higher tertiary attainment levels for immigrants compared to the native-born (OECD, 2004). These are static comparisons, which give little information on how the trends in education levels of immigrants relative to the native-born have evolved over past decades. However, historical data that might provide some direct evidence on this are not generally available. In what follows, the expedient of examining attainment levels by age has been adopted.

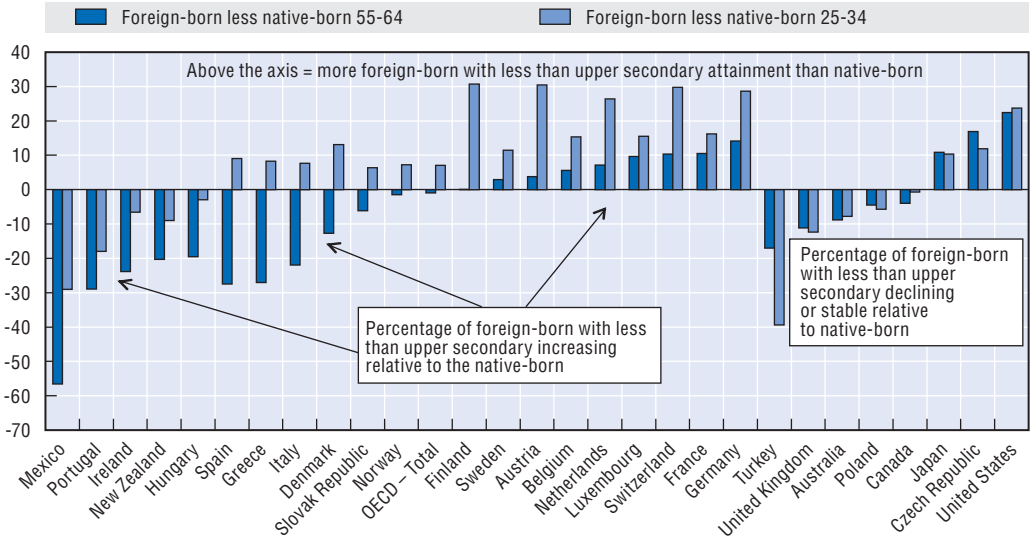
This is not ideal, since an immigrant cohort arriving in a particular year will include persons of all age groups, young and old, even if immigrants tend to be concentrated in the younger prime-age groups. Comparisons of the educational attainment of different age cohorts will thus involve persons of different ages having arrived in the destination country at the same time as well as persons in each age group having arrived at different times. This makes it difficult to distinguish between effects attributable to the period of arrival of immigrants and those due to differences in the educational attainment of different age cohorts. The educational attainment of persons arriving at different times may be influenced by various factors, among them the labour market needs in the destination country but also changes in regulations governing migration movements. Still, the comparison is an informative one, in showing the evolution in the differences in human capital which immigrants and native-born persons of the same age are bringing to the labour market.

One qualification that needs to be made, however, is that the picture does not take into account emigration, that is, departures of persons who immigrated at some time in the past, whether to return to their country of origin or to migrate to another country. Departing immigrants may introduce distortions in the observed trends if they tend to be less or more educated than immigrants who remain in the host country. Older cohorts will have had more departures, all things being equal. If persons leaving tend to be less educated, recent arrivals will tend to show lower education levels in relative terms than older ones.

The data presented here are mostly from the 2000-round of population censuses in destination countries and apply to the population 25-64 (see OECD, 2008). Charts I.8a and I.8b show the difference between foreign-born and native-born persons in the percentage having less than upper secondary and tertiary attainment, respectively, for the 55-64 and 25-34 age groups. The values for the age-groups in between tend to vary smoothly between the two age extremes.[11]

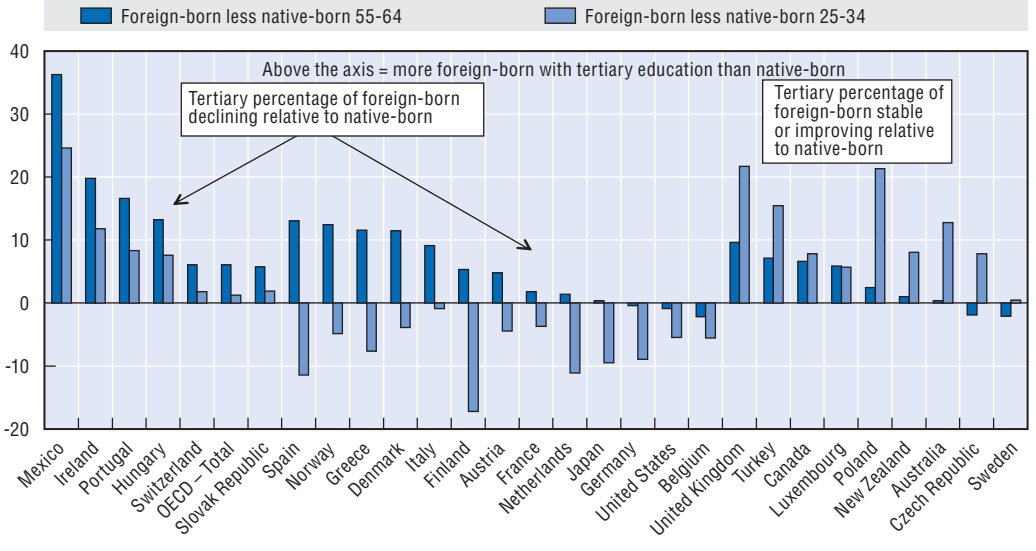
With the improvement in educational attainment levels in all countries, the attainment of both native-born and foreign-born persons can be expected to improve at younger ages. The question is whether or not the progress of immigrants with decreasing age is faster or slower than for the native-born. There is some uncertainty in the data, however, because of data censoring at lower levels, that is, the precise attainment level for persons with less than upper secondary attainment could vary from no formal education at all to 9 or 10 years of education, yet all are grouped here within the same category. There

Chart I.8a. **Difference between the percentage of foreign-born and of native-born persons with less than upper secondary education, 25-34 years old compared to 55-64 years old**



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Chart I.8b. **Difference between the percentage of foreign-born and of native-born persons with tertiary education, 25-34 years old compared to 55-64 years old**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427307454318

Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).

could be considerable progress within this category which would not then be detectable by looking only at the percentage which manages to attain higher levels. Still, in OECD countries currently, upper secondary level is considered the minimum level required in order to satisfy the needs of the labour market. Thus the extent to which immigrants are moving towards this level provides some indication of their potential success in the labour market.

... but the educational attainment of immigrants relative to the native-born appears to be declining in many countries

For OECD countries as a whole, the essential result is that the educational attainment of immigrants *relative* to that of the native-born appears to be declining for younger cohorts compared to their elders. To put it another way and, indeed in contrast to what one might have expected, the educational attainment of immigrants is not improving as fast as that of the native-born. Relative to the native-born population, the immigrant population in OECD countries has "gained" 8 percentage points at the less than upper secondary level and "lost" 5 percentage points at the tertiary level, if one compares attainment levels with those of the native-born for 55-64 and 25-34 year-olds, respectively. This is an average. For many countries, the decline in the relative education of immigrants is much larger than this.

The overall result described above hides a rather contrasted picture across countries. In a number of countries, in particular Australia, Canada, Japan, Poland, the United Kingdom and the United States, the percentage of lesser educated immigrants has been declining at about the same rate as that of lesser educated native-born persons. Only in the Czech Republic and Turkey does one see fewer lesser educated immigrants at younger age groups relative to the native-born population. For the tertiary level, the attainment of immigrants has improved relative to the native-born population in Australia, the Czech Republic, New Zealand, Poland, Turkey and the United Kingdom, whereas it has seen little change in Canada, Luxembourg and Sweden. For some of these countries, namely Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, this undoubtedly reflects immigrant selection strategies.

For most other European countries as well as the United States, younger immigrants have lost ground relative to the educational attainment of non-immigrants compared to their elders. For most countries, the declining education level of immigrants reflects at once a relatively slower decline in levels of persons with low attainment as well as slower growth in the percentage of persons with high attainment compared to the native-born population.

Why this should be so is not entirely clear. The declining education of immigrants relative to the native-born population has been documented for the United States (Borjas, Freeman and Katz, 1997), where it largely reflects the impact of movements from Latin America, in particular Mexico. If one excludes Mexico and Turkey from OECD source countries, then the declining relative education of immigrants is seen to be essentially in the aggregate absent for immigrants from OECD source countries and thus largely the result of immigration from non-OECD countries. The question then is whether this reflects educational developments in non-OECD source countries or trends in migration patterns by educational attainment.

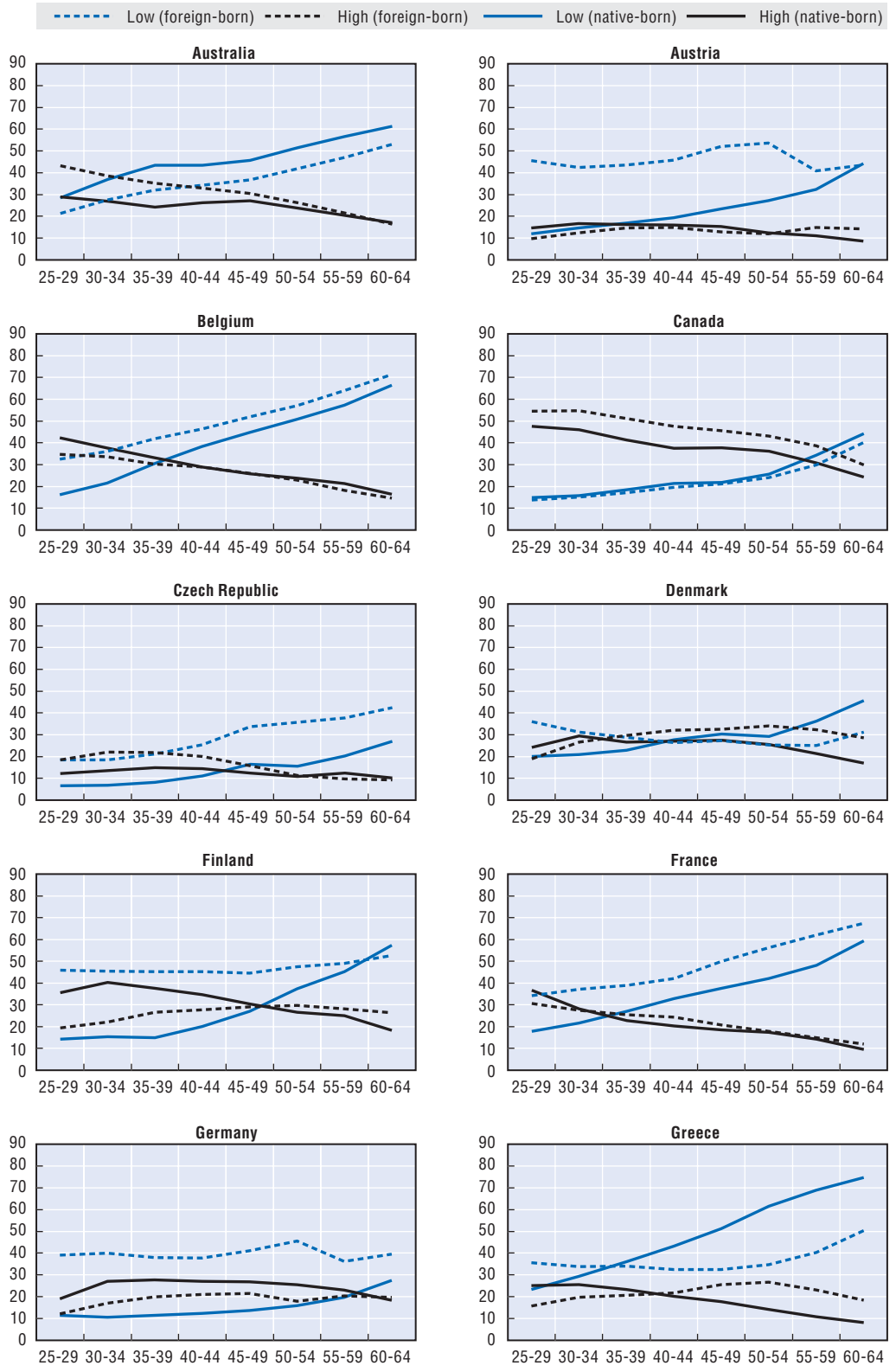
For Mexico and Turkey themselves, which have been important source countries for OECD migration, one can compare the evolution of educational attainment by age for their residents compared to their expatriate populations. For Mexico, the improvement in educational attainment levels among emigrants, as measured by age group, has been less than among the population resident in Mexico. For Turkey, on the other hand, the progress in attainment levels among expatriate and resident populations has moved hand-in-hand and expatriates have been positively selected, that is, the percentage of expatriates having low and high attainment levels is respectively lower and higher, than among residents of

Turkey. However, this is not the case for Mexican expatriates. Thus the situation is likely to vary across origin countries and the trend towards declining educational attainment among immigrants relative to the native-born may reflect more the strong progress recorded in educational levels in OECD countries themselves.

It would be hasty to draw a link between the declining relative education of immigrants in many countries and the often unfavourable labour market outcomes of immigrants from non-OECD countries that have been observed over the past decade. Labour market outcomes of immigrants in the countries of southern Europe, for example, have been quite favourable, even if these are among the countries which have seen the largest declines in the education of immigrants relative to the native-born.

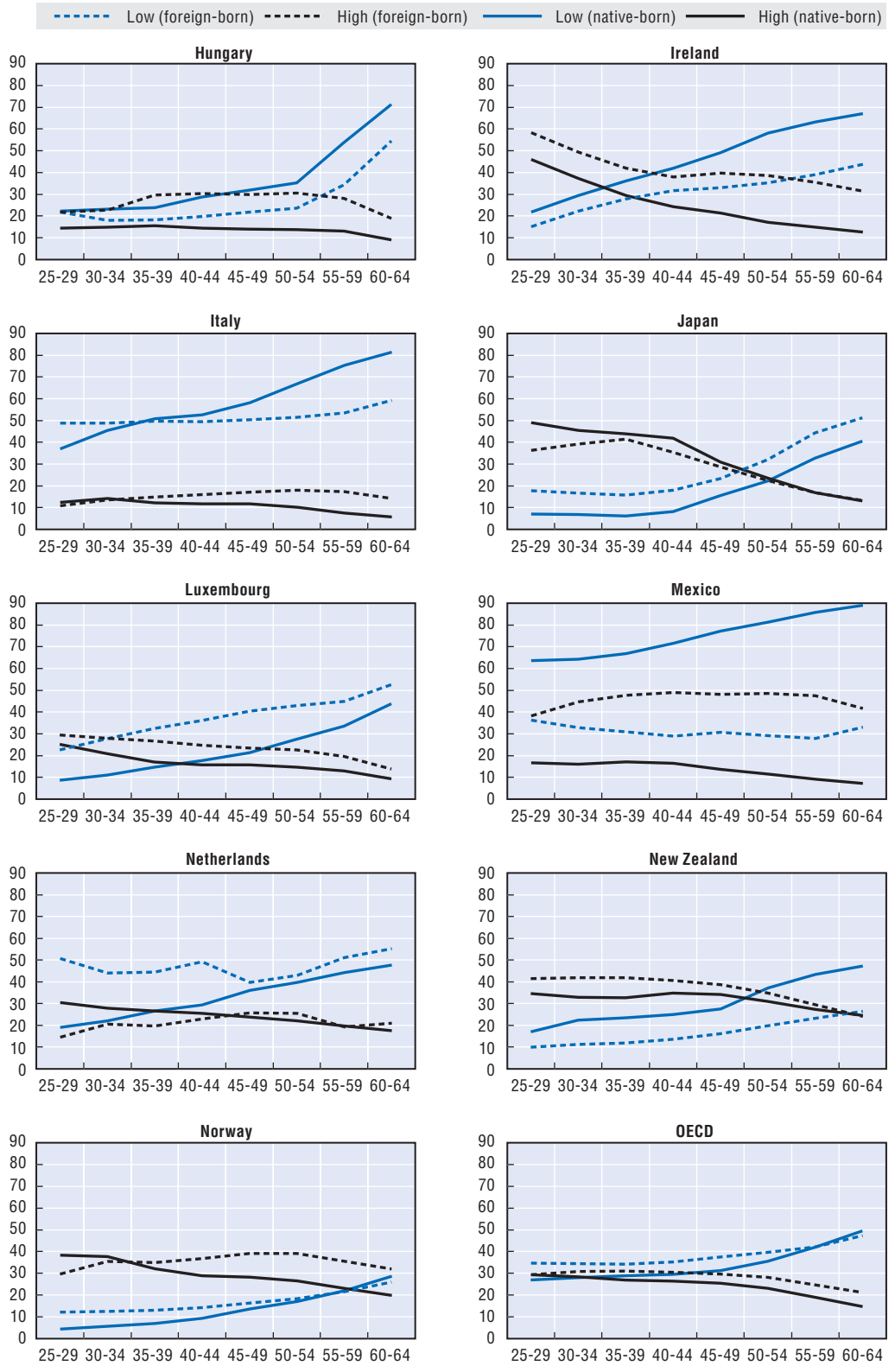
In any event, it seems unlikely that with labour shortages developing ostensibly in lesser skilled occupations in most countries, educational levels of future immigrants will reverse the general trend towards immigrants who are relatively less educated than the native-born, even if they are more educated than past immigrant cohorts. Policy changes in the direction of more selective migration, observed in some countries, could reverse the trend, but even in countries with strong selection systems, there are initiatives underway to make immigration policy more demand-driven. Satisfying the needs of the labour market may thus well mean broadening the range of attainment and occupational levels among immigrants admitted.

Annex Chart I.A.1. **Percentage of native-born and foreign-born with low and high attainment levels, by age, circa 2001**



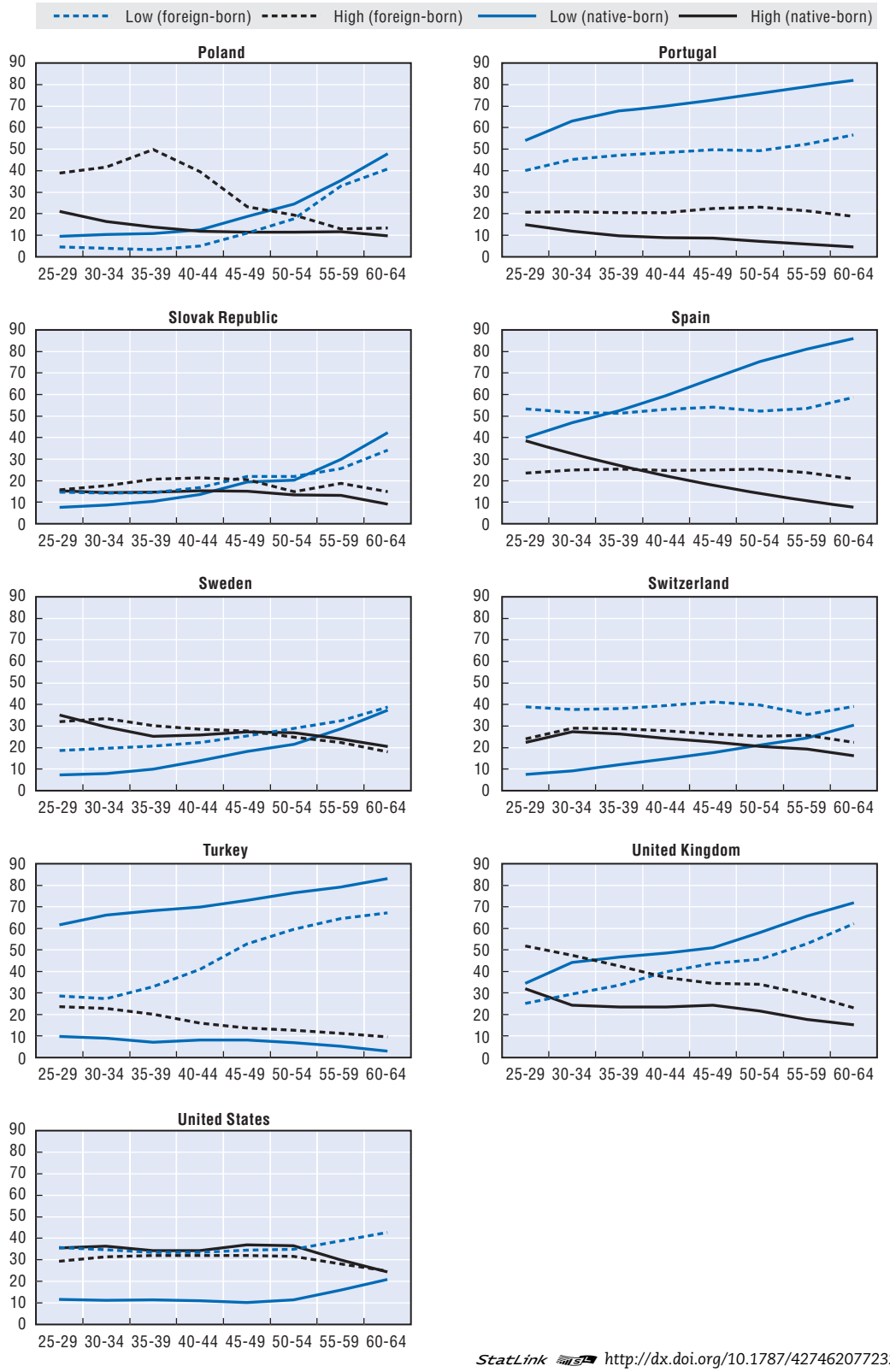
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Annex Chart I.A.1. **Percentage of native-born and foreign-born with low and high attainment levels, by age, circa 2001** *(cont.)*



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Annex Chart I.A.1. **Percentage of native-born and foreign-born with low and high attainment levels, by age, circa 2001** *(cont.)*



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427462077232

Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).

B. *Immigrants and the Labour Market*

1. Introduction

This section looks at the recent trends in immigrant employment in OECD countries in the light of overall labour market dynamics. It also considers the situation of immigrants in terms of their integration into the labour market. Finally, it offers a preliminary approach to the issue of pay differences between immigrant and native-born workers, and a comparative analysis for selected OECD countries.

2. Labour market dynamics in OECD countries: the contribution of immigrant employment

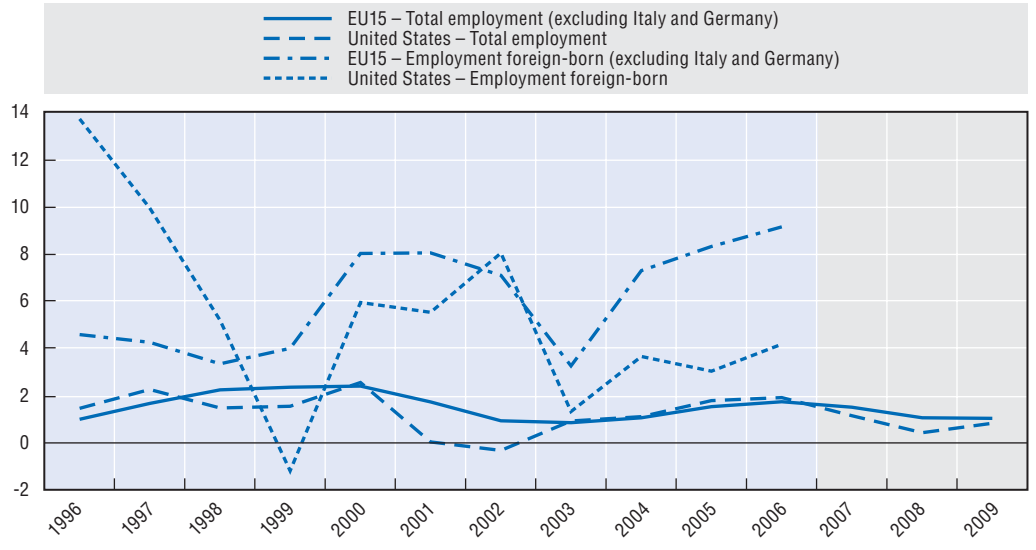
Employment rose across the OECD area as a whole by 1.7% in 2006, a pace far faster than that of the previous year (1.1%) particularly in the European countries of the OECD (OECD, 2007). In the United States, the economic slowdown in 2006 had no noticeable effect on the labour market, while employment rose significantly in Canada and Mexico. In Japan, employment grew by only 0.4% in 2006, despite the pickup in the economy. In most OECD countries, employment growth exceeded the increase in the workforce, leading to lower unemployment rates (with 2.5 million fewer unemployed than in the previous year).

The overall employment situation has improved…

Employment growth in OECD countries must be viewed against a longer-term trend that began in the mid-1990s (Chart I.9). In the European countries of the OECD, total employment grew by an annual average of around 1.1% between 1996 and 2006. Three distinct phases can be identified over that time: a steady increase in employment until 2000, followed by a short decline, which ended promptly in 2002-2003. Employment

Chart I.9. **Employment growth of total and foreign-born population, 1996-2009**

Annual percentage growth



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Note: The shaded part corresponds to forecasts.

Sources: OECD, Employment Outlook, 2007; European countries: *European Union Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat); United States: *Current Population Survey*, March supplement.

behaved similarly in the United States. It was more stable and sustained in Australia, but less favourable in Japan.

Immigrant employment has shown similar trends, with growth rates that have been at times higher but also more erratic. The average annual growth of immigrant employment exceeded 6% over the past 10 years in the European Union,[12] and 4.5% in the United States. This finding offers an initial illustration of the contribution that immigrant workers have made to employment growth dynamics in OECD countries.

... and immigrant employment has grown in OECD countries...

In 2006, persons born abroad represented a significant portion of the workforce and of the employed population in OECD countries. There were however some important variations among host countries, reflecting differences in terms of immigration in general (Table I.8). In Finland, and in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, immigrants account for less than 3% of total employment. In Australia, Switzerland and New Zealand, by contrast, this figure is as high as 25% or more, and it is nearly 44% in Luxembourg.

Table I.8. **Share of the foreign-born in total population, labour force and employment, 15-64 years old**

Percentages

	Share in the total population		Share in the total labour force		Share in employment	
	2002	2006	2002	2006	2002	2006
Australia	26.6	27.6	24.7	25.7	24.7	25.6
Austria	13.2	17.0	13.3	16.2	12.7	15.4
Belgium	12.4	13.5	11.3	12.3	10.1	11.1
Canada	18.4	19.8	19.9	21.2	19.8	. .
Czech Republic	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8
Denmark	6.7	7.1	5.7	6.0	5.5	5.8
Finland	2.5	3.3	2.4	3.1	2.2	2.8
France	12.4	12.5	11.7	12.0	11.0	11.2
Greece	6.4	7.6	7.4	8.3	7.2	8.3
Hungary	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.8
Ireland	9.3	13.1	9.5	13.9	9.4	13.7
Italy	4.1	7.6	5.1	8.6	5.0	8.5
Luxembourg	37.7	40.4	41.4	44.6	41.1	43.8
Netherlands	13.1	12.8	11.3	11.0	11.0	10.3
Norway	7.0	8.5	6.5	7.8	6.2	7.4
Portugal	5.8	7.4	6.3	7.9	6.2	7.8
Slovak Republic	. .	0.7	. .	0.7	. .	0.7
Spain	6.8	13.6	7.8	15.1	7.6	14.6
Sweden	14.0	14.9	12.4	13.5	11.7	12.5
Switzerland	. .	26.1	. .	25.4	. .	24.4
United Kingdom	9.7	11.8	8.8	11.2	8.6	11.0
United States	14.8	15.6	14.7	15.7	14.6	15.8

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427512430656

Note: For Italy, the value in the 2002 column is for 2001; the target population consists of persons aged 15 years and over and excludes non-permanent residents.

Sources: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat), and census of population 2001, for Italy; Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; Canada: 2001 and 2006 population censuses; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

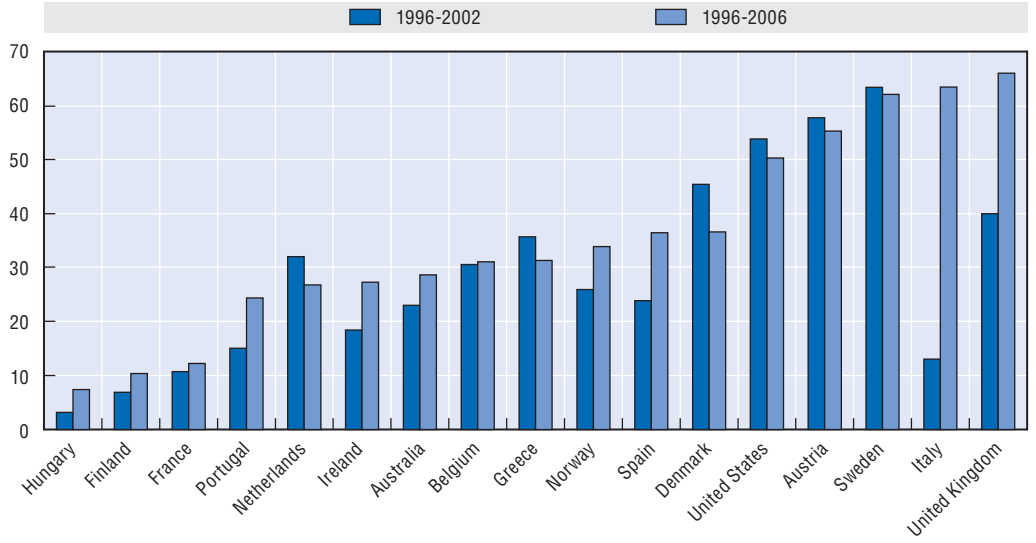
In most OECD countries, immigrants represented a larger share of employment in 2006 than in 2002. The increase was particularly notable in Spain (more than seven percentage points), and also in Ireland, Italy and New Zealand (3.5 to 4.5 percentage points), and to a lesser extent in Austria, the United Kingdom and Luxembourg (about 2.5 percentage points). The Netherlands is an exception here: it was the only OECD country to see the immigrant employment share decline between 2002 and 2006 (down by 1.5 percentage points). Thus, while about 11% of that country's jobs were held by foreign-born workers in 2002, this figure was only 10.3% in 2006 (or more than one percentage point below the EU15 average).

In some European countries, immigrant employment has grown faster in recent years, while in other countries it seems to have slowed. Ireland, for example, has seen a continuing and accelerating increase: immigrant employment grew by around 10% between 1996 and 2002, and then by nearly 14% between 2002 and 2006, and by 24% between 2005 and 2006. The picture is similar for Austria, where immigrant employment rose by 0.9%, 6.6% and 9.8% over those same periods. On the other hand, growth slowed gradually in some southern European countries, especially in Portugal (1996-2002: 9%; 2002-06: 5.7%; 2005-06: 1.7%) and to a lesser extent in Spain (1996-2002: 30%; 2002-06: 23%; 2005-06: 17%). In Greece, immigrant employment actually declined by 4% between 2005 and 2006, after more than a decade of steady growth.

Chart I.10 shows the immigrant share in employment growth in selected OECD countries between 1996 and 2002, and over the last 10 years. In most cases, the contribution of immigrant workers to employment is much greater than their share of total employment at the beginning of the period. In the United States, for example, employment has increased by nearly 15.3 million since 1996, while immigrant employment rose by 7.7 million (50% of the total). In the United Kingdom, employment rose by nearly

Chart I.10. **Immigrants' share in net change in employment, 1996-2002, 1996-2006**

Annual percentage change



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427522181287

Note: Data for Hungary refer to 1997 instead of 1996.

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

1.8 million over the same period, of which 1.2 million was accounted for by persons born abroad (66% of the total). Comparable figures are to be found in Italy and Sweden, where immigrant employment represents more than 60% of employment growth.[13] Since 2002, immigrant employment has risen faster than total employment, in absolute terms, in Portugal[14] and in the United Kingdom.[15] In these two cases, immigrant employment and total employment increased while native-born employment declined.

In the United Kingdom and in the United States there has been a slight decline in participation and employment rates for native-born persons over the last five years, together with an increase for immigrants. The situation in southern Europe and in Ireland is quite different: there, despite the many recent immigrant arrivals, employment and participation rates have improved for all categories.

The above findings illustrate the importance of immigration in the labour market dynamics of OECD countries, but they do not by themselves point to a causal link. The question thus arises: is it the emergence of tensions in the labour market, following an era of sharp growth, that encourages the hiring of foreign workers, or is it the added availability of manpower that makes the labour market more dynamic? These two phenomena are not mutually exclusive, and they may coexist to varying degrees, depending on the country and period considered (growth or recession). The complementarity between native and foreign-born labour plays an important role here, one that will depend on the types of skills and the sectors concerned, as well as the geographic and occupational mobility of resident workers.

... and the arrival of new migrant workers has boosted these trends

An analysis of the components of immigrant employment growth sheds further light on recent trends. There are two factors that, in combination, seem to explain the behaviour of immigrant employment: better integration into the labour market (reflected in a higher employment rate) and the entry of new migrant workers into the market. Table I.9 presents the results of a "shift share" analysis that identifies these two elements. It shows that in all countries considered, the dominant effect is that associated with the immigrant population trend. In several countries, rising immigrant employment can in fact be attributed solely to the increase in that population, since its employment rate has declined over the period of observation. Between 2002 and 2006, Austria, Finland, France, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal and Sweden fell into this category. Employment growth, then, does not necessarily signify that immigrants are being better integrated into the labour market.

In most countries, the impact of new immigrants arriving on the labour market has been reinforced since 2002. Ireland and the United Kingdom provide examples here that must be appreciated in the context of the opening of the British labour market to immigrants from the new member states of the European Union. Belgium, Denmark, the United States, Greece, the Netherlands and Sweden reveal a different situation, however. In these countries, newly arrived immigrant workers played a more important role between 1998 and 2002 than in the four subsequent years. Stricter immigration controls or perhaps a dampening of labour market dynamics may explain these findings in part.

Table I.9. **Components of change in the growth of employment among immigrants**

Percentages

	Change in employment rate		Change in population stock		Interaction factor		Total employment growth	
	1998-2002	2002-2006	1998-2002	2002-2006	1998-2002	2002-2006	1998-2002	2002-2006
Australia	0.8	1.2	1.3	2.7	–	0.1	2.2	4.0
Austria	0.6	–0.9	0.3	7.7	–	–0.3	0.9	6.6
Belgium	0.5	0.8	3.8	2.8	0.1	0.1	4.4	3.7
Denmark	0.4	0.7	5.0	1.3	0.1	–	5.5	2.1
Finland	4.7	–0.3	7.9	7.7	1.8	–0.1	14.5	7.3
France	0.9	–0.3	1.5	1.6	0.1	–	2.4	1.2
Greece	0.8	0.8	6.4	4.3	0.2	0.1	7.4	5.2
Hungary	0.2	1.5	–6.8	5.3	–	0.4	–6.6	7.2
Ireland	1.7	1.7	7.4	11.0	0.6	0.9	9.7	13.6
Italy	. .	4.8	. .	9.0	. .	2.2	. .	16.0
Luxembourg	1.6	–0.2	2.1	2.8	0.1	–	3.8	2.6
Netherlands	2.8	–1.4	6.4	–0.1	0.8	–	10.0	–1.5
New Zealand	. .	2.2	. .	5.7	. .	0.6	. .	8.5
Norway	0.4	–0.9	6.2	6.3	0.1	–0.2	6.7	5.1
Portugal	3.5	–0.8	4.9	6.8	0.8	–0.2	9.1	5.7
Spain	2.7	1.2	23.4	20.4	3.9	1.4	29.9	23.0
Sweden	4.8	–0.2	11.0	2.4	2.8	–	18.6	2.2
Switzerland	. .	–	. .	1.0	. .	0.3	. .	1.4
United Kingdom	0.3	1.1	2.6	5.6	–	0.3	2.9	6.9
United States	–0.2	0.7	4.8	2.2	–0.1	0.1	4.5	3.0

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Note: The calculation for Hungary covers the period 1999-2002, and for Switzerland 2003-2006. Data for 2002 for Italy and New Zealand are from the 2001 censuses. The target population for New Zealand is aged 15 years and over.

Sources: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat), and 2001 population census for Italy; Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

3. The sectoral and occupational distribution of immigrants

Table I.10 shows the sectoral breakdown of immigrant employment in 2005-06 in the OECD countries. Immigrants tend to be over-represented in the construction, hotel and restaurant sectors, and also in healthcare and social services, where their share in employment is on the whole higher than their weight in the overall labour force.

The sectoral breakdown varies considerably from one country to another, however. Around 6% of immigrants work in agriculture in Spain, 29% in the mining and manufacturing industries in Germany, 29% are in construction in Greece, 18% in the wholesale and retail trade in Poland, 13% in hotels and restaurants in Austria, 16% in education in the United States, 24% in healthcare and social services in Norway and 30% in other services in the Netherlands.

A comparison of the current situation with that prevailing five years earlier (in 2000) reveals several interesting facts. The immigrant share of employment in construction has expanded remarkably in Spain (from 10% to 19.7%), in Ireland and Italy (from about 9% to over 14%), as well as in Denmark (from 1.6% to 4.4%). A growing share of immigrant labour is employed in the hotel and restaurant industry in Austria and Ireland (up by 2.5 percentage points). A smaller but still noticeable increase can be seen in the health sector in the United Kingdom (up two percentage points) and in all the Nordic countries, especially Finland (from 7.3% to 14%). On the other hand, the immigrant share of employment in manufacturing declined in relative terms between 2000 and 2005-06 in all OECD countries.

Table I.10. **Employment of foreign-born by sector, 2005-2006 average**

Percentage of total foreign-born employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, manufacturing and energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.3	**21.0**	**10.0**	14.1	**12.6**	3.8	**9.4**	**0.4**	3.4	**23.9**
Belgium	1.1	16.7	**7.2**	13.0	**8.2**	6.4	10.4	**0.6**	**11.6**	**24.7**
Czech Republic	3.4	29.8	**10.5**	**15.5**	**5.9**	4.4	6.2	–	4.0	**20.3**
Denmark	1.7	**17.0**	4.4	12.0	**7.2**	**7.8**	**20.2**	–	3.4	**26.2**
Finland	–	17.4	6.0	**16.0**	**7.1**	6.2	13.9	–	2.4	**28.5**
France	1.9	13.7	**10.8**	12.8	**6.1**	5.8	9.8	**5.6**	6.4	**27.1**
Germany	1.1	**29.0**	6.3	**14.7**	**7.6**	4.5	9.9	0.8	2.9	23.1
Greece	6.2	**15.4**	**29.1**	10.6	**10.2**	1.7	2.3	**13.9**	1.4	9.2
Hungary	2.5	22.9	**10.0**	**16.4**	**5.0**	**10.4**	**8.2**	–	4.3	20.3
Ireland	2.3	**16.0**	**14.2**	11.8	**12.3**	5.5	**10.8**	**1.1**	2.5	23.6
Italy	3.5	**23.6**	**14.2**	11.3	**8.7**	2.4	4.7	**10.4**	1.8	19.6
Japan	0.5	52.5	1.0	9.2	7.4	8.2	. .	. .	. .	21.3
Luxembourg	0.9	9.1	**13.1**	10.9	**6.5**	2.9	7.4	**3.3**	13.0	**32.9**
Netherlands	1.5	**17.3**	4.0	12.9	**7.1**	5.5	14.6	**–**	6.9	**30.1**
Norway	1.1	12.3	4.9	12.0	**8.2**	**8.6**	**25.4**	–	3.9	**23.5**
Poland	**17.8**	13.0	5.5	**18.1**	**–**	**13.1**	**9.3**	–	–	**18.5**
Portugal	2.0	13.8	**14.8**	14.6	**8.2**	**8.0**	**8.0**	**4.9**	**7.3**	**18.5**
Slovak Republic	–	26.8	–	11.2	**–**	**9.3**	**8.6**	**–**	–	**24.3**
Spain	**5.6**	13.0	**19.7**	11.2	**14.2**	2.9	2.8	**13.3**	1.1	16.1
Sweden	0.8	**16.9**	3.1	10.8	**7.3**	**11.4**	**19.1**	–	3.9	26.8
Switzerland	1.1	**18.4**	**8.6**	14.2	**7.7**	6.4	**13.2**	**1.5**	3.5	25.3
United Kingdom	0.5	11.9	4.9	13.0	**8.5**	8.1	**15.7**	**0.7**	5.3	**31.4**
United States	**2.3**	**13.7**	**11.8**	13.3	**11.9**	15.6	. .	. .	2.5	28.9
EU25	2.3	19.3	**9.9**	12.7	**8.6**	5.3	9.6	**4.5**	4.1	**23.8**

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Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreign-born are over-represented (i.e. the share of foreign-born employment in the sector is larger than the share of foreign-born employment in total employment). "–" indicates that the estimate is not reliable enough for publication. ETO means extra-territorial organisations. For Japan, "Health and other community services", "Households" and "Admin. and ETO" sectors are included in other services. For the United States the "Health and other community services" sector is included in "Education" and the "Households" sector in "Other services". Data for Japan cover the foreign population. Data for Germany refer to 2005 only, for Japan to 2006 only.

Source: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat); Japan: *Labour Force Survey*; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

In most OECD countries, the service sector now accounts for a preponderant share of employment in general and of immigrant employment in particular. This finding applies more to the highly skilled occupations than to those that do not require specific qualifications, a dichotomy that reflects essentially the nature of labour needs in the host countries.

Table I.11 shows the breakdown of immigrant employment in OECD countries in 2005-06, by major occupational category. Immigrants are over-represented in the managerial professions, especially in Belgium, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, which are home to the head offices of many multinational corporations. The picture is the same in Central and Eastern European countries, no doubt reflecting the heavy flows of foreign direct investment in those countries. Immigrants are also over-represented among professional occupations in the Nordic countries and in Ireland.

On the other hand, immigrants are greatly under-represented among office workers, where a command of the host country language is a key element, and where there is a

Table I.11. **Employment of foreign-born by occupation, 2005-2006 average**

Percentage of total foreign-born employment

	Legislators, seniors officials and managers	Professionals	Technicians and associate professionals	Clerks	Service workers and shop and market sales workers	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Elementary occupations
Austria	5.5	9.6	13.1	6.1	**16.1**	1.0	**15.2**	**9.3**	**24.2**
Belgium	**14.6**	18.5	8.8	11.1	**13.3**	1.2	**11.0**	7.0	**14.4**
Czech Republic	**10.0**	**13.1**	13.8	4.4	**15.0**	**1.6**	15.7	**16.5**	**9.9**
Denmark	6.8	**15.7**	17.0	5.5	**19.4**	–	8.0	**8.1**	**18.4**
Finland	**9.7**	**19.2**	12.5	5.2	**17.2**	–	11.7	8.0	**14.0**
France	**9.3**	**13.0**	12.5	8.2	**12.6**	2.0	**15.0**	9.0	**18.5**
Germany	5.3	10.7	14.8	7.3	**13.8**	0.8	**18.5**	**12.4**	**16.5**
Greece	3.3	4.2	2.2	3.0	**14.4**	3.2	**33.8**	6.4	**29.6**
Hungary	**8.5**	**20.3**	11.0	**9.4**	14.1	–	17.3	8.8	**8.9**
Ireland	10.5	**18.6**	6.1	9.3	**19.3**	–	**14.6**	7.4	**13.4**
Italy	5.1	4.7	9.4	5.1	**12.6**	1.6	**23.9**	**12.5**	**25.1**
Luxembourg	**8.0**	**22.8**	13.7	10.1	8.6	–	**11.9**	**7.1**	**17.1**
Netherlands	7.7	16.1	15.7	11.6	13.8	1.2	**9.7**	**7.7**	**16.6**
New Zealand[1]	16.5	**24.6**	**13.0**	12.1	18.2	. .	. .	5.4	10.2
Norway	3.7	**14.6**	19.1	5.6	**26.8**	0.7	10.0	7.3	**12.2**
Poland	**8.6**	**26.3**	**12.8**	4.1	**16.8**	**16.5**	7.0	3.9	4.1
Portugal	7.1	**14.1**	**10.3**	10.0	**16.2**	1.4	16.5	6.3	**18.2**
Slovak Republic	**12.8**	**21.0**	18.4	–	11.5	–	10.2	14.8	–
Spain	4.7	6.5	5.8	4.4	**19.0**	1.9	**18.5**	6.6	**32.7**
Sweden	3.7	17.1	14.2	7.3	**23.2**	1.1	8.7	**13.2**	**11.6**
Switzerland	6.0	17.4	15.4	8.7	**16.3**	1.4	**17.7**	**7.5**	**9.5**
United Kingdom	**15.0**	**18.5**	**13.6**	10.3	**17.4**	0.4	5.4	**6.8**	**12.6**
United States	9.0	**6.9**	1.3	4.4	11.6	**12.0**	24.9	**10.0**	**19.9**
EU25	7.7	11.9	12.0	7.5	**15.0**	1.5	**15.4**	**9.5**	**19.4**

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1. "Technicians and associate professionals" includes trade workers.

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the professions where foreign-born are over-represented (*i.e.*, the share of foreign-born employment in the profession is larger than the share of foreign-born employment in total employment). "–" indicates that the estimate is not reliable enough for publication. Data for Japan cover the foreign population. Data for Germany refer to 2005 only, for New Zealand and Japan to 2006 only..

Sources: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat); Japan: *Labour Force Survey*; New Zealand: 2006 Census; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

potentially large pool of resident workers. Immigrants are over-represented among unskilled workers, in services and in manufacturing jobs. In southern Europe, and especially in Greece, Italy and Spain, between 25 and 33% of immigrants are employed as labourers or unskilled workers. The figure is 24% in Austria, and about 20% in the United States.

4. Integration of immigrants into the labour market in OECD countries

The integration of immigrants into the labour market remains an issue of major concern in most OECD countries. For the first time, this report presents a "scoreboard" of immigrant employment (Table I.12) summarising recent developments and trends over the last five years, by gender and in comparison to the native-born population. The presentation is designed to be readily interpretable for comparing the employment situation of immigrants in OECD countries. The principal labour market indicators (employment rate, participation rate, and unemployment rate) are published in Annex I.B1 by gender, place of birth, and nationality.

Table I.12. **Change in the employment rate of the foreign-born population by gender, 2001-2006**

▲ Improvement (or reduction in the gap between native-born and foreign-born) – No significant change ▽ Deterioration (or increase in the gap between native-born and foreign-born)

	Total							Women							Men					
	Country ranking		Change in employment rate of foreign-born		Change in the gap between native-born and foreign-born employment rates			Country ranking		Change in employment rate of foreign-born		Change in the gap between native-born and foreign-born employment rates			Country ranking		Change in employment rate of foreign-born		Change in the gap between native-born and foreign-born employment rates	
	(1a)	(2a)	(3a)		(4a)			(1b)	(2b)	(3b)		(4b)			(1c)	(2c)	(3c)		(4c)	
	2006	2006 controlled for education	2006/05	2006/01	2006/05	2006/01		2006	2006 controlled for education	2006/05	2006/01	2006/05	2006/01		2006	2006 controlled for education	2006/05	2006/01	2006/05	2006/01
Austria	**11**	**10**	▲	▽	–	▽	Austria	**10**	**9**	–	▽	▽	▽	Austria	**9**	**11**	▲	▽	▲	▽
Belgium	**20**	**20**	–	▲	–	▲	Belgium	**20**	**19**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Belgium	**20**	**20**	–	–	–	–
Czech Republic	**14**	**9**	▽	. .	▽	. .	Czech Republic	**15**	**13**	–	. .	▽	. .	Czech Republic	**13**	**8**	–	. .	–	. .
Denmark	**10**	**13**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Denmark	**7**	**6**	▲	▲	▲	–	Denmark	**12**	**12**	▲	▲	–	▲
Finland	**15**	**15**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Finland	**11**	**11**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Finland	**17**	**14**	▲	–	▲	–
France	**18**	**19**	▽	▽	▽	–	France	**18**	**18**	–	–	▽	–	France	**19**	**19**	▽	▽	▽	▽
Germany	**17**	**14**	▲	▲	–	▽	Germany	**14**	**12**	▲	▲	–	▽	Germany	**16**	**13**	▲	–	–	–
Greece	**7**	**8**	▲	▲	–	▲	Greece	**12**	**15**	▲	▲	–	▲	Greece	**1**	**3**	–	▲	–	▲
Hungary	**13**	**17**	▽	▲	▽	▲	Hungary	**13**	**17**	▽	▲	▽	▲	Hungary	**10**	**16**	–	▲	▽	▲
Ireland	**3**	**7**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Ireland	**4**	**7**	▲	▲	▲	▽	Ireland	**6**	**7**	▲	▲	▲	▲
Italy	**9**	**11**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Italy	**17**	**16**	▲	▲	▲	▲	Italy	**3**	**4**	–	▲	–	–
Luxembourg	**6**	**6**	–	–	–	▽	Luxembourg	**5**	**8**	–	▲	▽	▽	Luxembourg	**7**	**6**	–	▽	–	–
Netherlands	**16**	**16**	▽	▽	▽	▽	Netherlands	**16**	**14**	▽	▽	▽	▽	Netherlands	**15**	**17**	–	▽	▽	–
Norway	**8**	**3**	▲	▽	▲	▽	Norway	**3**	**1**	▲	▽	–	▽	Norway	**11**	**10**	▲	▽	▲	–
Poland	**21**	**21**	▲	. .	▲	. .	Poland	**21**	**21**	▲	. .	▲	. .	Poland	**21**	**21**	▲	. .	▲	. .
Portugal	**2**	**4**	–	–	▽	▲	Portugal	**1**	**3**	–	▲	–	▲	Portugal	**8**	**9**	▽	▽	▽	▲
Slovak Republic	**19**	**18**	▲	. .	–	. .	Slovak Republic	**19**	**20**	–	. .	▽	. .	Slovak Republic	**14**	**14**	▲	. .	–	. .
Spain	**5**	**5**	–	▲	▽	▽	Spain	**9**	**10**	▽	▲	▽	▽	Spain	**4**	**5**	▲	▲	▲	–
Sweden	**12**	**12**	–	–	–	–	Sweden	**8**	**4**	–	–	–	▲	Sweden	**18**	**18**	▲	–	–	–
Switzerland	**1**	**1**	▲	. .	–	. .	Switzerland	**2**	**2**	▲	. .	–	. .	Switzerland	**5**	**2**	–	. .	–	. .
United States	**4**	**2**	▲	–	▲	▲	United States	**6**	**5**	▲	–	▲	▲	United States	**2**	**1**	▲	–	–	▲
Australia	**[6-7]**		▲	▲	–	–	Australia	**[4-5]**		–	▲	–	▲	Australia	**[8-9]**		▲	▲	▲	–
United Kingdom	**[8-9]**		▲	▲	▲	▲	United Kingdom	**[18-19]**		–	▲	–	▲	United Kingdom	**[8-9]**		▲	▲	▲	▲

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Note: Column (2a) refers to the ranking of OECD countries according to the employment rate of foreign-born, assuming that their educational distribution is identical to that of native-born and applying the employment rates by level of education observed for the foreign-born. "–" indicates that the change is lower than 1 percentage point and ". ." means not available.

Sources: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey*, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat), except for Denmark (Population Register, 1995, 2000); Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

Interpretation: Switzerland ranks first in column (1a), which means that it is the country with the highest employment rate for the foreign-born. Australia and the United Kingdom are not included in the ranking controlling for education because data on education were not available. Numbers in square brackets indicate the position of these countries in the ranking on the basis of employment rates.

Table I.12 comprises four columns, showing the ranking of OECD countries as a function of *i)* the immigrant employment rate in 2006 and *ii)* the immigrant employment rate corrected for education differences *vis-à-vis* native-born workers; *iii)* changes in the immigrant employment rate over the last year and last five years; and *iv)* changes in the gap between the immigrant and native-born employment rates over the last year and last five years.

In the past, cross-country comparisons of labour market outcomes of immigrants in this publication have generally been presented relative to those of native-born persons. This approach does not take account of particular national labour market influences that affect both immigrants and the native-born. In Table I.12, the outcomes of immigrants in different countries are presented directly, without reference to the labour market situation of native-born persons from the same countries. They thus represent the impact of national labour market institutions as well as of differences in integration policies or in immigrant intake.

The country rankings presented in Table I.12 are given to provide a quick way to determine where each country situates itself with respect to other countries for the labour force outcomes shown in the table. Caution should be exercised in (over)interpreting the rankings, which are based on statistics subject to sampling error and reflect at best partial measures of integration. Such measures summarise a whole panoply of labour market and societal influences, some of which may have little to do with the immigrant experience.

The results in Table I.12 highlight the progress made in most OECD countries with respect to immigrant employment. Nevertheless, a few countries reveal deterioration in all of the global indicators shown. In France, for example, the immigrant employment rate sank by 1.4 percentage points over the last five years, while it dropped by 3.4 points in the Netherlands. These declines have occurred in countries which are near the bottom of the OECD ranking and are a cause for concern.

Belgium is another country where the immigrant employment rate was among the lowest in the OECD area. In 2006, only one immigrant in two was employed in Belgium. The outcome improves considerably when the education profile is taken into account (57%), but not enough to change Belgium's position. Belgium has made considerable progress since 2001, however, especially in the case of immigrant women. Austria's indicators are better, but they are deteriorating in both absolute and relative terms (down 4 percentage points for male employment and 1.6 points for female employment since 2001).

It is in Switzerland, with a score of 72.7%, where the immigrant employment rate was the highest in 2006 (or 75% when corrected for education level). In the countries of Southern Europe, where immigration is more recent and essentially labour-market driven, the results are also good. There they are relatively less so, however, for women, especially in Greece and Italy, where the ranking for women is 15 slots lower than for men.

Some OECD countries, mainly in Northern Europe, appear to do better when it comes to integrating female immigrants into the labour market than they do in the case of men: this is the case for Finland and Denmark, but especially for Sweden and Norway. These results reflect overall labour market access conditions for women in these countries, and suggest that immigrants benefit from them as well. Yet it is Portugal where the employment rate at 67% for female immigrants was the highest in 2006.

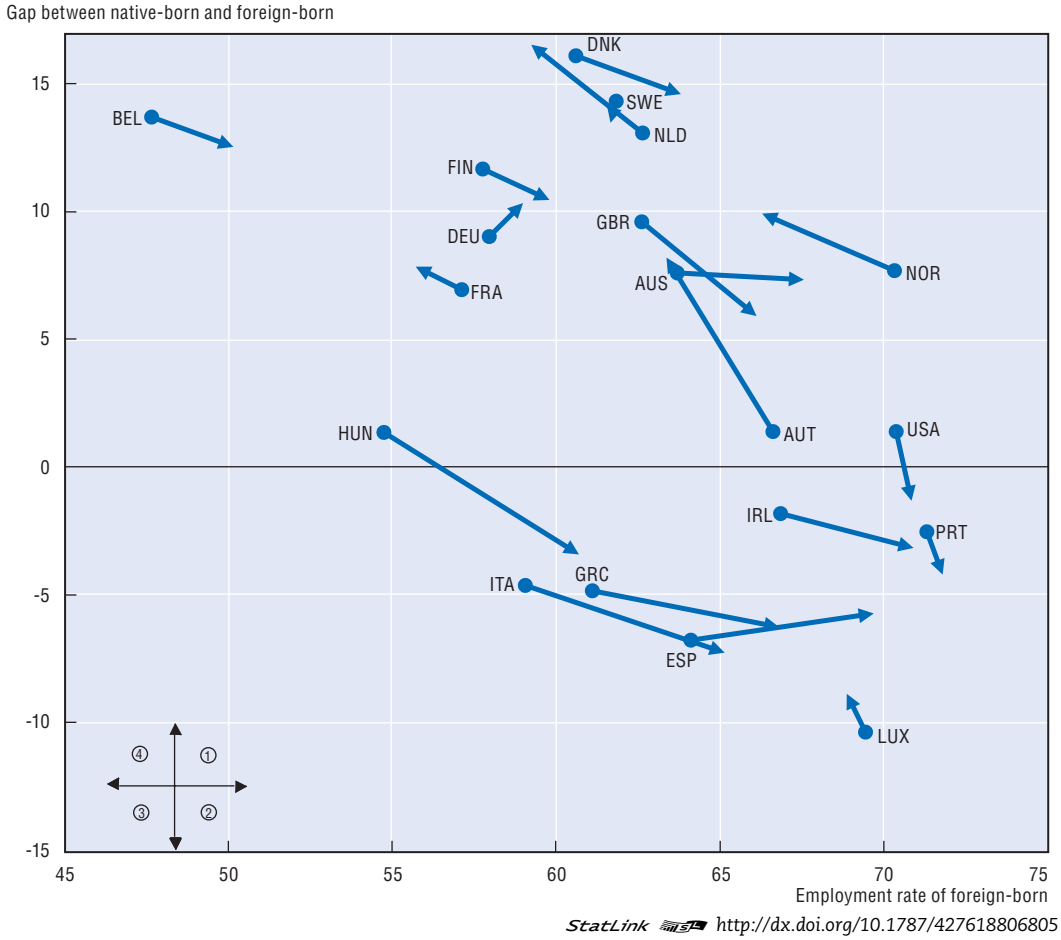
The non-European OECD countries generally do well in terms of integrating immigrants into their labour markets. The immigration selection process and the characteristics of their labour markets account for this result in part. In Australia and in the United States, the immigrant employment rate is close to or greater than 70% and the gap

vis-à-vis native-born workers is minimal. These two countries, moreover, have recorded progress in nearly all indicators and periods considered.

The trend in immigrants' access to employment must be assessed in light of the overall trend in the employment rate. The presentation in Chart I.11 combines the immigrant employment rate and the gap *vis-à-vis* the native-born population in 2001 and 2006. All the right-pointing arrows signify progress, but only those located in the second quadrant indicate improvement in both the immigrant employment rate and the foreign/native-born gap. On the other hand, the arrows in the fourth quadrant imply a deterioration of both indicators. The length of the arrows indicates trend intensity.

For most countries considered (with the exception of Austria, the Netherlands and France),[16] labour markets have clearly become more accessible for immigrants over the last five years. Some countries (*e.g.* Portugal and the United States) have reduced the foreign/native-born gap more quickly, while in others the immigrant employment rate has improved but the gap has remained constant (*e.g.* Australia). The situation in Germany, and to a lesser extent Spain, is less favourable, in that the increase in the immigrant

Chart I.11. **Evolution in the employment rate of the foreign-born and gap with native-born, 2001-2006**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427618806805

Note: The points at the beginning of the segment tally with the year 2001 and the arrow at the end with the year 2006.

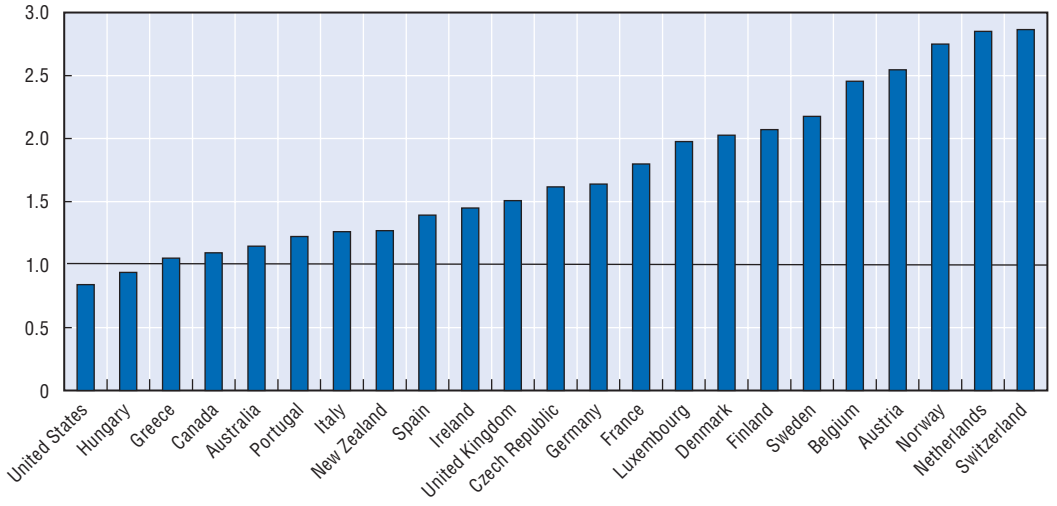
Sources: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat) and 2001 population census for Italy; Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; Canada: 2001 and 2006 population censuses; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

employment rate has gone hand-in-hand with a widening of the gap with the native-born. In Spain (and this is also true for Ireland and the other countries of Southern Europe), the immigrant employment rate is in fact higher than that for the native-born. It may be noted that the United States fell into this category as well in 2006.

More recently (between 2005 and 2006), Denmark and Finland have made notable progress in integrating immigrants into the labour market: there, the immigrant employment rate has risen by more than four percentage points and the gap with the native-born has narrowed by 2.2 and 3.7 percentage points respectively. In Denmark, this progress is more noticeable for women, while in Finland the reverse applies.

As is the case with employment, the gap in terms of unemployment between the native-born population and immigrants has, in most member countries, tended to narrow over the past ten years. Important differences nevertheless persist (Chart I.12). In all OECD countries, with the exception of Hungary and the United States, the unemployment rate of immigrants in 2006 was higher than that of the native population. In the Nordic countries and in Austria, Belgium and Switzerland, immigrants are over-represented among the unemployed by a factor of at least two compared to their share in the labour force (in other words, their unemployment rate is at least twice that of the native-born). In France, in Germany and even in the United Kingdom, those born abroad also suffer a notably higher rate of unemployment. On the other hand, in the main settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) and in recent immigration countries (especially Greece and Portugal), place of birth makes little difference to the unemployment rate.

Chart I.12. **Unemployment rate of immigrants relative to the native-born, 2006**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427620785702

Sources: European countries: *European Union Labour Force Survey* (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; Canada: Census of population, 2006; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March supplement.

5. A first glance at wage differentials between immigrants and native-born across the OECD

Wages are an important measure of integration, but cross-country data are difficult to obtain

The earnings of immigrants in comparison to those of the native-born have been the subject of extensive empirical research, starting with the seminal paper of Chiswick (1978)

who found, after controlling for socio-economic characteristics, that immigrants in the United States earn about 3% less than comparable native-born. In recent years, there has been concern about a widening of the wage-gap in OECD countries, notably in the United States (*e.g.* Borjas, 1999) and Canada (Aydemir and Skuterud, 2005a; 2005b; Picot and Sweetman, 2005). Empirical studies on the wages of immigrants have also been undertaken in many European OECD countries. These include, among others, studies for Denmark (Nielsen *et al.*, 2004), France (Insee, 2005), Germany (Lang, 2005), the Netherlands (Zorlu, 2002), Norway (Barth, Bratsberg and Raaum, 2002), Spain (Canal-Domínguez and Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2008), Sweden (Lundberg, 2007) and the United Kingdom (Blackaby *et al.*, 2002).

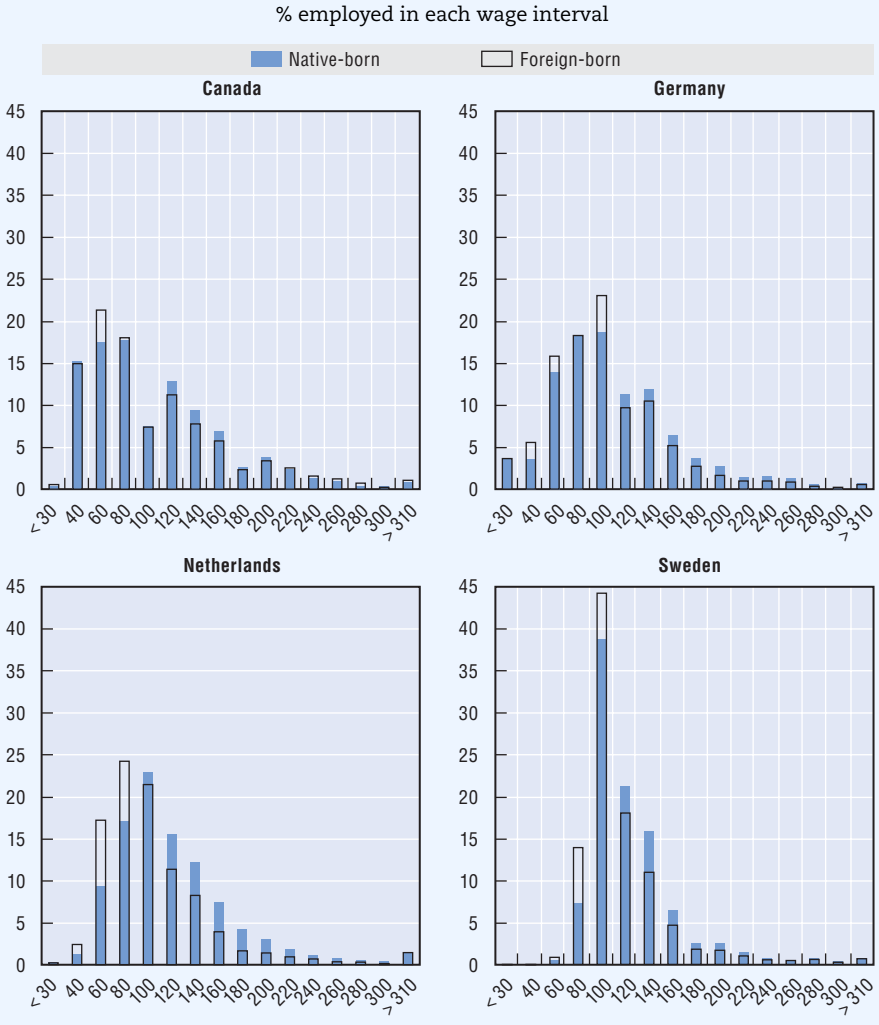
Up to now, however, there has been no systematic overview of the wages of immigrants across OECD countries (Box I.6).[17] An attempt at a meta-analysis on the basis of the available country-specific studies would be hampered by the widely differing specifications and underlying definitions of the variables. To overcome this deficiency, the OECD has collected data on the basis of country-specific microdata sources from nine OECD countries. This section provides a first overview of wage differentials between immigrants and the native-born in a number of OECD countries.

Examining wages allows one to shed light on some aspects of immigrants' integration into the labour market that cannot be analysed by looking only at the employment status. For example, wages can provide an indication of the returns to years to schooling, and thereby on incentives to invest in education. More generally, (expected) wages translate

Box I.6. **Data sources and methodological issues in comparing cross-country wages of foreign- and native-born populations**

There are few international datasets which have information on both wages and immigrant status. Two commonly used datasets that have such data for a range of OECD countries are the Luxembourg Income Study [LIS] and the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions [EU-SILC]. The latest available wave of the LIS, however, dates back to 2000/01. The EU-SILC has more recent information, but tends to have small sample sizes for individual countries. This hampers its use for the analysis of cross-country differences in wages of immigrants vs the native-born, particularly with respect to subgroups within the immigrant population (*e.g.* high-qualified women). In addition, the underlying national surveys have significant under-representation of immigrants in several countries. The data used in this overview are derived from large-scale country-specific microdata sources from nine OECD countries, in most cases for the years 2005/2006. Data for Sweden come from the national register; for Australia from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics Australia Survey; for Germany from the Microcensus; for the United States from the *Current Population Survey* (March supplement); for the Netherlands from register-linked data from the Employment and Wage and Labour Force Surveys; and for all other countries from the national labour force surveys. The median gross hourly wages of the employed population aged 15-64 are taken as the reference. While this is a measure that is not influenced by a few individuals who are very high earners, it nevertheless conceals differences in the distribution of wages. Box 1.7 shows the distribution of the wages of the native- and foreign-born populations for some of the countries included in this overview. A number of adaptations were necessary for individual countries to ensure comparability. These are specified in a separate methodological Annex published under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Box 1.7. **Distribution of the wages of immigrants and native-born**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427652485440

Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*. The figures on the x-axis indicate the mid-point of each respective interval (*e.g.* 100 = 90%-110% of the hourly median wage). The y-axis shows the percentage of the respective total employed population whose earnings are in those intervals.

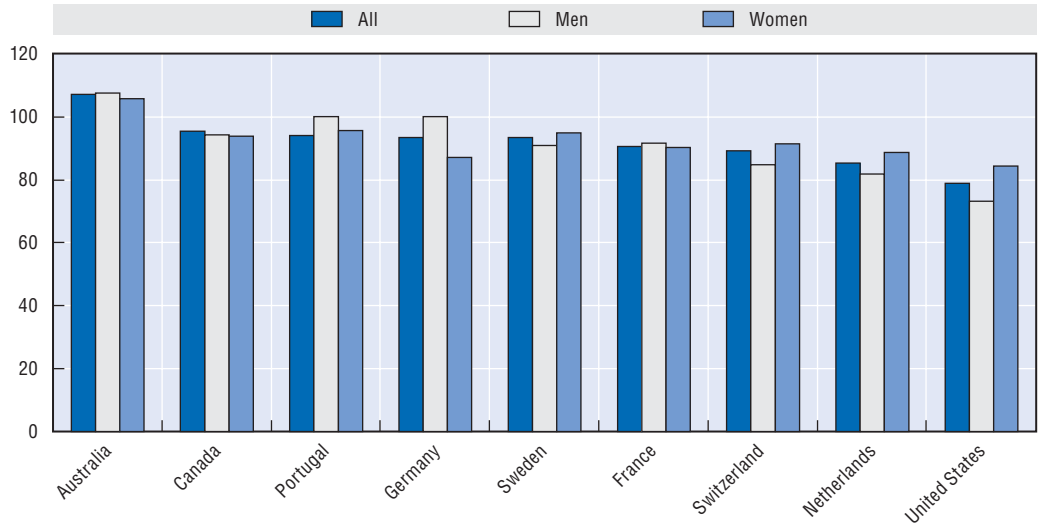
into incentives to participate in the labour market and can thereby help to explain differences in employment. In addition, wages are an important factor in attracting and retaining immigrants in the destination country.

In most OECD countries, both immigrant men and women earn significantly less than their native-born counterparts – but the immigrant/native wage gap tends to be smaller than the gender wage gap

The first observation is that immigrants tend to earn less than the native-born (Chart I.13) in all OECD countries covered by this overview, with the exception of Australia. This favourable outcome is undoubtedly linked to Australia's selection policy.

Chart I.13. **Median wage of immigrants relative to the native-born, 2005-2006**

Native-born = 100



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427665878636

Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

By contrast, wages of immigrants are particularly low compared to the native-born in the United States – the median (employed) immigrant earning about 20% less than the native-born. To give an idea of the magnitude, the wage differentials between immigrants and the native-born can be compared with the gender wage gap. The United States is, together with the Netherlands, the only country for which the immigrant *vs.* native wage-gap is larger than the gender wage gap – which is about 20% for the United States and 15% for the Netherlands, respectively. For all other countries, it is significantly smaller. On average, for the nine countries included in this overview, the immigrant wage gap is about half of the size of the gender wage gap (less than 8% *versus* more than 14%).

Again with the exception of Australia, lower wages for immigrants are observed for both genders. The wage gaps for immigrant women are, by and large, broadly similar to those of immigrant men compared to their native-born counterparts. However, this observation needs to be qualified in two important ways. First, it should be noted that this "immigrant wage gap" adds to the gender wage gap which women face in general (see OECD, 2002). In combination with tax and benefit systems, low wages can result in unemployment/inactivity traps, which could be one possible explanation for the observed low employment of immigrant women (see OECD, 2006).

For the limited number of countries for which data are available, however, one observes no clear relationship between the employment of immigrants and their wages relative to the native-born (Chart I.14). This indicates that other factors such as the composition of the migration flows are probably more important in shaping labour market outcomes.

Secondly, and linked with the first, the employed are not a random sample of each group. Generally, the more able and better skilled tend to participate in the labour market, whereas immigrants in general and immigrant women in particular tend to participate less, *ceteris paribus*. The observed differentials may thus underestimate the underlying differences in wages.[18]

Chart I.14. **Median wage and employment of immigrants relative to the native-born**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427683261736

Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Immigrants from non-OECD countries are at a particular disadvantage

OECD and non-OECD immigrants show clear differences with respect to immigrant wages (see Table I.13). The former tend to earn at least as much as the native-born – with the exception of Switzerland for men and France for women. In marked contrast, immigrants from non-OECD countries earn less than the native-born in all countries with the exception of Australia for both gender and Portugal for men. Table I.13 also shows that the large wage differences between immigrants and the native-born for migrants from the OECD in the United States are attributable to the fact that Mexicans, who are by far the largest immigrant group in the United States, have very low earnings.

Only part of the lower wages can be explained by educational attainment levels

One of the most important factors driving wages is educational attainment. Chart I.15 shows that in all countries, wages increase strongly along with educational attainment, in particular in the United States and in Portugal. In all countries, however, wages of immigrants increase more slowly with educational attainment than the wages of natives. Indeed, with the exception of France and Sweden, low-qualified immigrants earn more than low-qualified native-born. In contrast, high-qualified immigrants earn in all countries less than native-born with the same qualification level.

How much would wages of immigrants and native-born differ if both groups had the same educational attainment? Chart I.16 indicates that differences in the educational attainment of immigrants *versus* native-born explain generally a rather small proportion of

Table I.13. **Median wage of immigrants relative to the native-born, by country of origin and gender**

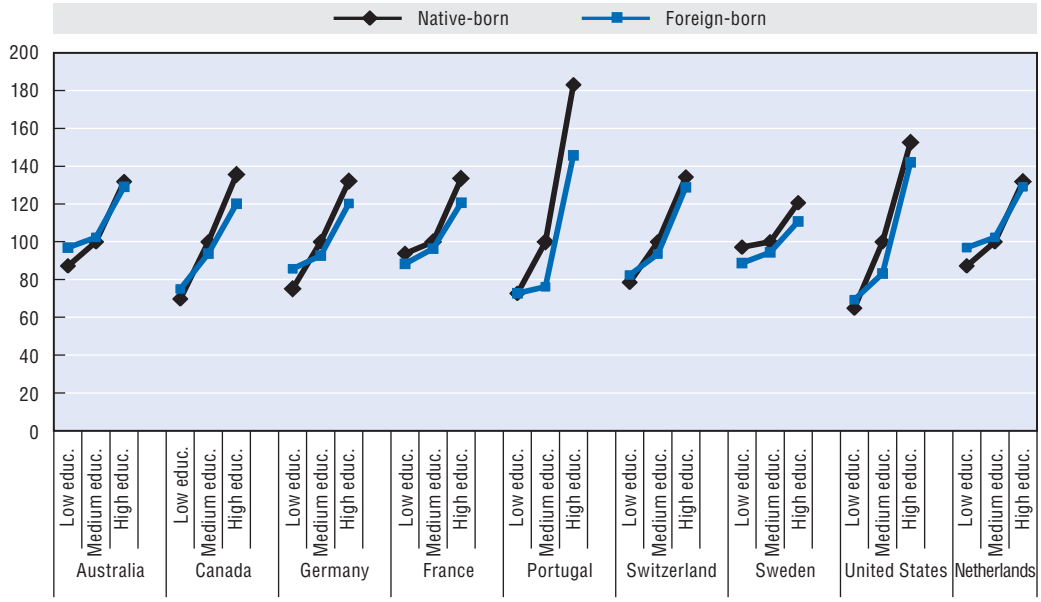
Median wage	Men			Women		
	Born in OECD	Born in OECD (excl. Turkey and Mexico)	Born outside the OECD	Born in OECD	Born in OECD (excl. Turkey and Mexico)	Born outside the OECD
Australia	113	112	101	111	110	104
Canada	102	102	87	100	100	89
France	105	109	86	92	92	88
Germany	100	100	88	92	97	87
Portugal	100	100	100	114	112	86
Sweden	98	100	87	101	102	91
Switzerland	89	91	80	96	97	86
United States	68	114	81	78	106	84
Netherlands	. .	99	78	. .	98	83

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427685657402

Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Chart I.15. **Median wage by education level for native-born and foreign-born**

Native-born with medium education = 100



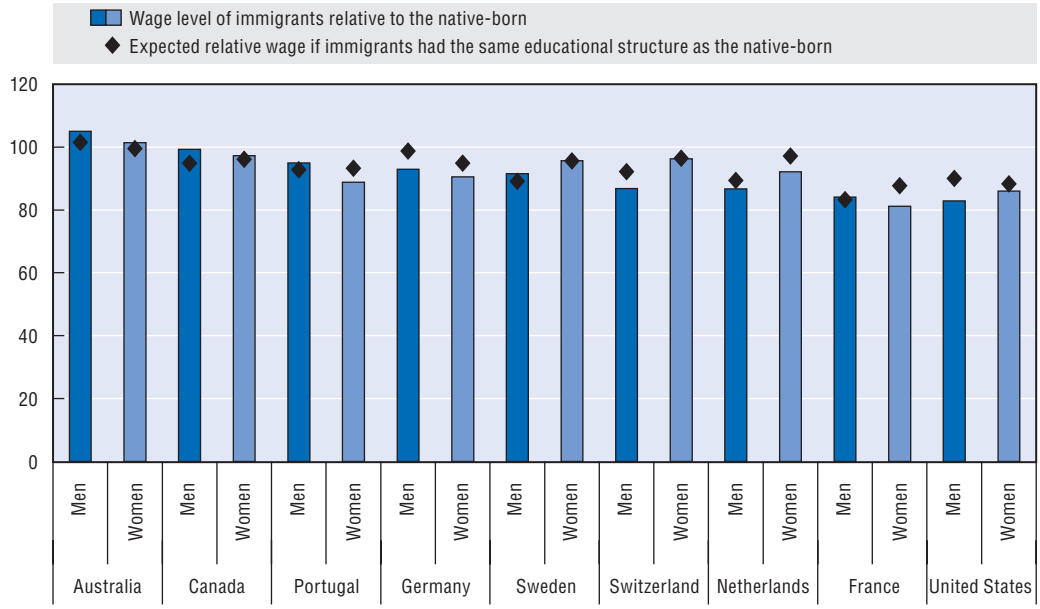
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Source and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

the wage differences (based on mean wages) between these two groups within countries, but they explain a significant proportion of the differences in the wages for these groups that are observed between countries. Indeed, cross-country wage levels (relative to the native-born) are remarkably similar.

A growing number of OECD countries have implemented pathways for foreign graduates of domestic tertiary education institutions to become permanent immigrants (see Part I.C). One of the reasons for this is that immigrants with domestic qualifications are familiar with the host country and thus tend to be "pre-integrated".[19] This has

Chart I.16. **The impact of differences in educational attainment on the wages of immigrants**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427760554873

Note: All data in Chart I.16 refer to average wages.
Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

contributed to higher employment (OECD, 2007b). As these graduates have domestic qualifications, employers have fewer problems in evaluating their degree, which should also result in higher returns in terms of wages. Indeed, in all countries for which data are available, immigrants with domestic (tertiary) qualifications tend to earn more than those who have acquired their qualifications abroad (Table I.14).

However, as these descriptive figures indicate, even the returns to education in the host country tend to be lower for the foreign-born than for native-born in most countries. There is some evidence that this also holds after controlling for a broad range of observable characteristics other than education (see, for example, Aydemir and Sweetman, 2006).

Table I.14. **Median wage of persons with tertiary education, immigrants compared to native-born, by origin of education and gender**

	Men		Women	
	Education acquired abroad	Education acquired domestically	Education acquired abroad	Education acquired domestically
Portugal	49	88	52	100
United States	80	104	79	113
Sweden	81	88	89	95
Canada	86	95	79	99
Germany	86	100	83	95
France	88	86	77	110
Australia	99	93	94	102

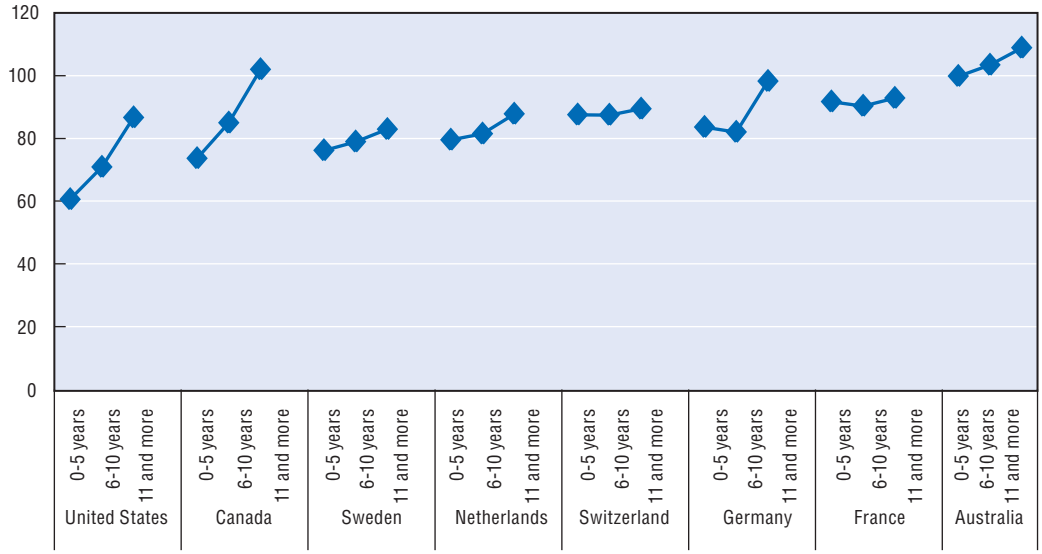
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427762127038

Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Wage levels are significantly higher for immigrants who have been longer in the country

If host-country specific human capital is an important determinant of wages, then one would expect that the earnings of immigrants increase over time. Indeed, as Chart I.17 shows, the wages of immigrants who have been longer in the country are higher than those of recent arrivals in all countries. The increases along with duration of residence are particularly pronounced in the United States and in Canada. Note, however, that the cross-sectional data used for Chart I.17 provide crude evidence for assimilation. Firstly, cohort effects may be at work. This appears to be notably the case for the United States and Canada. In the United States, a larger proportion of more recent arrivals consists of low-qualified irregular migrants, who tend to earn little. In Canada, there is evidence that shifts in the composition of immigrants are a driving force behind the observed decline in the wages of immigrants in recent years (see Aydemir and Skuterud, 2004; Green and Worswick, 2004).

Chart I.17. **Wage levels of immigrants compared to native-born, by duration of residence**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427815016663

Note: For Switzerland the years-of-residence are: 0-5, 5-8, 8 and more.
Sources and Note: See methodological Annex under *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*.

Perhaps even more importantly, years of residence are strongly correlated with experience in the domestic labour market, which is an important determinant of wages for both immigrants and the native-born. However, longitudinal studies have confirmed that there is indeed wage assimilation for immigrants over time (Hu, 2000; see also Borjas, 1998 and Duleep and Regets, 1999).

In sum, the picture that emerges from this first descriptive look into the wages of immigrants is essentially one where immigrants tend to earn less than the native-born, but differences in earnings are not particularly large in most OECD countries. This is tentative evidence that problems with respect to labour market integration may relate mainly to entry into employment (see OECD, 2007b), but further analysis is required to ascertain this.

A notable exception is the United States where the immigrants have relatively high employment rates, but where the wage gap *vis-à-vis* natives is on the order of 20 percentage points. This may be linked with the fact that many immigrants are relatively recent, low-qualified migrants with an irregular status. However, even for long-term and for qualified immigrants, the wage gaps and the relative employment rates are higher than elsewhere. This could be associated with the more flexible labour market in the United States where immigrants' difficulties in labour market integration tend to translate into lower wages, in contrast to many European countries where they rather tend to result in lower employment (for some recent evidence on this, see Ottaviano and Peri, 2006 on the United States and d'Amuri, Ottaviano and Peri, 2008 on Germany).

There are several indications that the labour market seems to strongly value host country qualifications and experience (measured by years of residence). In addition, immigrants from non-OECD countries have significantly lower earnings. By contrast, for the limited range of countries for which information on nationality is available, immigrants who have naturalised earn more – even after controlling for duration of residence.[20] These are indications that the labour market values familiarity with the host country and other signs of integration, and this observation seems to hold across the OECD.

The above has presented a preliminary overview of the earnings differences between immigrants and the native-born across the OECD. Many other factors would need to be examined – such as the wage-structure of the economy, the sectoral and occupational distribution of employment, the incidence of part-time and full-time employment; as well as the interaction of different factors – to better understand the reasons for the observed differences in the wages of immigrants and natives, both within and across countries.

Annex Table I.B.1. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006**

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born				Foreign-born			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Men																								
Austria	80.4	79.6	77.7	80.5	84.0	83.3	76.8	80.3	3.6	4.3	4.1	3.3	6.6	8.7	11.8	9.8	77.5	76.2	74.5	77.8	78.5	76.1	67.8	72.5
Belgium	72.4	73.9	73.4	73.6	70.9	72.9	71.7	72.1	6.3	4.2	6.3	6.2	16.9	14.7	14.8	15.8	67.8	70.8	68.7	69.0	58.9	62.2	61.1	60.8
Czech Republic	. .	. .	78.2	78.3	. .	. .	79.1	76.9	. .	. .	6.2	5.8	. .	. .	10.4	8.4	. .	. .	73.3	73.7	. .	. .	70.8	70.4
Denmark	84.2	83.8 |	84.2	84.6	64.4	65.2 |	74.8	76.2	6.4	3.4 |	4.0	3.2	20.5	9.5 |	7.2	7.4	78.9	80.9 |	80.8	82.0	51.2	59.0 |	69.4	70.6
Finland	75.1	79.4	76.6	78.7	. .	78.9	76.0	79.2	17.7	10.3	8.0	8.6	. .	–	16.6	16.0	61.8	71.2	70.5	71.9	. .	50.4	63.4	66.5
France	75.0	75.6	74.7	74.6	78.8	78.0	76.2	76.4	9.1	7.7	8.1	8.5	16.6	14.5	13.3	15.5	68.2	69.8	68.7	68.3	65.7	66.7	66.1	64.6
Germany	. .	79.3 |	80.7	81.7	. .	76.2 |	80.0	80.7	. .	6.9 |	10.6	9.4	. .	12.9 |	17.5	16.6	. .	73.8 |	72.2	74.0	. .	66.3 |	66.0	67.3
Greece	77.0	76.6	78.4	78.4	81.9	86.3	88.3	88.3	6.1	7.4	5.9	5.8	14.0	9.5	6.4	5.3	72.3	70.9	73.8	73.9	70.4	78.1	82.7	83.6
Hungary	. .	67.5	67.6	68.6	. .	71.8	74.2	74.9	. .	7.3	7.0	7.2	. .	–	–	–	. .	62.6	62.8	63.6	. .	69.4	72.7	71.8
Ireland	76.0	79.1	79.4	80.3	76.7	79.2	83.8	86.1	12.0	4.4	4.5	4.4	16.8	–	6.0	6.0	66.9	75.6	75.8	76.7	63.9	74.9	78.8	80.9
Italy	72.4	73.6	73.9	73.7	84.8	88.2	86.9	86.9	9.3	8.4	6.2	5.5	–	6.5	6.1	5.7	65.6	67.4	69.4	69.6	78.9	82.4	81.6	82.0
Luxembourg	72.2	74.2	71.0	70.0	83.0	80.2	83.6	83.1	–	–	3.0	2.7	–	–	4.2	4.7	70.7	73.2	68.8	68.1	81.3	78.1	80.1	79.2
Netherlands	81.0	85.5	84.6	85.0	69.9	74.0	78.3	76.2	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.3	19.5	5.4	11.9	10.4	77.0	84.0	81.6	82.2	56.2	69.9	69.0	68.2
Norway	. .	85.2	82.1	81.5	. .	80.0	76.5	78.7	. .	3.4	4.2	3.1	. .	6.8	12.5	8.9	. .	82.3	78.7	79.0	. .	74.6	67.0	71.7
Portugal	76.5	78.0	78.4	79.2	73.0	83.7	85.7	83.6	6.6	3.1	6.8	6.9	–	3.9	8.5	8.2	71.5	75.5	73.1	73.7	65.4	80.5	78.4	76.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	74.0	76.4	. .	. .	78.3	77.2	. .	. .	15.7	12.3	. .	. .	23.0	–	. .	. .	64.1	67.0	. .	. .	66.1	69.6
Spain	74.2	78.3	80.0	80.3	78.9	85.9	87.9	88.8	18.0	9.5	7.0	6.1	24.4	12.4	9.5	7.7	60.8	70.8	74.4	75.4	59.7	75.2	79.5	81.9
Sweden	82.7	79.9	82.8	82.0	73.3	69.9	75.9	75.9	7.9	5.1	7.9	6.0	24.8	12.3	15.6	13.6	76.2	75.9	76.3	77.1	55.1	61.3	64.1	65.6
Switzerland	. .	. .	87.4	87.9	. .	. .	87.4	87.5	. .	. .	2.7	2.4	. .	. .	7.7	6.8	. .	. .	85.1	85.8	. .	. .	80.6	81.6
United Kingdom	83.7	83.5	81.8	81.7	78.5	78.7	78.2	82.4	9.9	5.9	4.7	5.5	14.2	9.6	7.4	7.4	75.4	78.6	77.9	77.1	67.4	71.1	72.4	76.2
Australia	85.2	84.2	84.4	84.2	82.1	79.0	78.1	79.5	8.4	6.6	4.7	3.8	10.7	6.6	5.0	4.3	78.0	78.7	80.5	81.0	73.4	73.8	74.3	76.1
Canada	83.0	82.1	. .	. .	84.4	82.0	. .	. .	8.6	5.7	. . |	6.6	10.4	6.1	. . |	6.2	75.9	77.4	. .	. .	75.6	77.0	. .	. .
United States	81.6	80.8	78.2	78.3	83.8	85.9	86.0	86.5	6.2	4.5	6.3	5.8	7.9	4.5	5.1	4.1	76.5	77.2	73.3	73.8	77.2	82.0	81.7	82.9

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Annex Table I.B.1. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born				Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Women																								
Austria	62.3	62.5	65.9	68.3	62.0	62.8	61.7	61.0	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.4	7.3	7.2	9.8	9.8	59.4	59.9	63.0	65.3	57.5	58.3	55.7	55.1
Belgium	52.9	58.1	61.3	61.1	41.8	45.2	48.7	49.7	11.2	7.4	7.5	8.0	23.8	17.5	20.3	19.3	46.9	53.8	56.7	56.2	31.9	37.3	38.8	40.1
Czech Republic	. .	. .	62.2	62.4	. .	. .	61.5	60.2	. .	. .	9.7	8.8	. .	. .	16.5	15.3	. .	. .	56.1	56.9	. .	. .	51.3	51.0
Denmark	75.9	77.3 |	76.4	78.2	52.4	53.4 |	60.2	62.9	8.4	4.3 |	5.0	4.4	20.7	9.6 |	12.4	7.7	69.5	73.9 |	72.6	74.8	41.5	48.3 |	52.7	58.0
Finland	69.6	74.2	73.2	75.2	. .	–	64.2	67.1	16.1	12.0	8.3	8.9	. .	. .	20.2	20.4	58.4	65.3	67.1	68.6	–	–	51.3	53.4
France	62.0	63.8	64.7	65.1	54.4	56.8	57.6	57.1	13.6	11.3	9.2	9.6	19.0	19.7	16.5	17.1	53.6	56.6	58.7	58.9	44.1	45.6	48.1	47.3
Germany	. .	64.8 |	68.7	71.2	. .	53.0 |	57.3	60.6	. .	8.0 |	10.2	9.3	. .	12.1 |	16.3	15.8	. .	59.6 |	61.7	64.5	. .	46.6 |	48.0	51.0
Greece	43.8	49.2	54.2	54.6	53.7	56.9	58.7	60.2	13.7	16.6	15.3	13.6	20.8	21.1	15.9	15.1	37.8	41.1	45.9	47.1	42.5	44.9	49.4	51.1
Hungary	. .	52.5	54.9	55.5	. .	52.3	58.4	56.9	. .	5.8	7.4	7.8	. .	. .	7.3	10.3	. .	49.4	50.9	51.2	. .	49.8	54.1	51.1
Ireland	46.9	55.5	60.2	61.0	49.5	58.8	61.4	63.8	11.9	4.2	3.5	3.8	15.4	–	6.0	6.0	41.3	53.1	58.0	58.7	41.9	55.2	57.7	59.9
Italy	42.5	46.2	49.9	50.3	49.1	51.4	54.7	57.0	16.3	14.9	9.2	8.5	23.5	21.2	14.6	12.4	35.6	39.3	45.3	46.0	37.5	40.5	46.7	49.9
Luxembourg	40.3	48.0	52.9	54.1	51.7	57.2	63.1	64.3	–	–	4.5	4.1	–	–	7.5	8.9	38.8	46.5	50.5	51.9	48.8	55.3	58.3	58.6
Netherlands	59.5	67.6	71.7	72.3	47.8	52.8	58.0	57.1	7.7	3.0	4.5	4.3	19.8	7.6	9.5	11.0	54.9	65.6	68.5	69.2	38.4	48.8	52.5	50.9
Norway	. .	77.1	75.7	75.6	. .	67.1	65.3	66.5	. .	3.2	4.3	3.0	. .	. .	8.5	7.7	. .	74.6	72.4	73.3	. .	63.5	59.8	61.3
Portugal	59.1	63.3	67.1	67.8	58.0	66.5	74.7	75.7	7.8	4.9	8.4	9.3	–	5.4	9.7	11.4	54.5	60.3	61.5	61.5	49.9	62.9	67.5	67.1
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	61.3	61.0	. .	. .	57.6	51.3	. .	. .	17.0	14.7	. .	. .	28.6	–	. .	. .	50.9	52.0	. .	. .	41.2	41.2
Spain	44.8	51.6	56.8	58.6	51.5	57.9	69.9	68.3	30.5	20.5	12.0	10.8	30.5	20.7	13.5	15.8	31.1	41.0	50.0	52.3	35.8	45.9	60.4	57.6
Sweden	79.5	76.6	79.6	78.0	64.0	63.4	67.0	66.8	6.6	4.2	7.9	6.4	18.5	10.8	14.1	13.3	74.2	73.4	72.9	73.1	52.2	56.6	57.5	58.0
Switzerland	. .	. .	75.9	76.2	. .	. .	69.7	70.8	. .	. .	3.7	3.3	. .	. .	9.7	9.4	. .	. .	73.1	73.7	. .	. .	62.9	64.2
United Kingdom	66.8	68.9	69.6	70.2	57.7	57.5	60.3	61.3	6.7	4.6	3.8	4.5	10.9	7.8	7.1	7.9	62.3	65.7	67.0	67.0	51.4	53.0	56.0	56.5
Australia	66.6	68.2	71.9	72.0	58.5	58.9	61.8	62.2	7.3	6.2	5.0	4.5	9.2	7.6	5.2	5.2	61.7	64.0	68.3	68.7	53.1	54.4	58.6	58.9
Canada	68.8	70.4	. .	. .	63.4	65.3	. .	. .	9.8	6.2	. . |	6.2	13.3	8.7	. . |	8.0	62.0	66.0	. .	. .	55.0	59.6	. .	. .
United States	69.5	71.4	68.9	68.7	58.4	61.1	59.5	61.2	5.3	4.2	5.2	4.8	8.2	5.5	5.2	4.9	65.8	68.4	65.3	65.4	53.6	57.7	56.4	58.2

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Annex Table I.B.1. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born				Native-born				Foreign-born				Native-born			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Men and women																								
Austria	71.4	71.1	71.8	74.4	72.8	72.7	68.8	70.2	4.1	4.3	4.3	3.8	6.9	8.0	10.8	9.8	68.5	68.0	68.7	71.6	67.8	66.8	61.4	63.4
Belgium	62.7	66.0	67.4	67.4	56.3	59.0	59.8	60.6	8.4	5.6	6.9	7.0	19.5	15.8	17.1	17.3	57.5	62.4	62.8	62.7	45.3	49.7	49.6	50.1
Czech Republic	. .	. .	70.2	70.4	. .	. .	70.7	68.4	. .	. .	7.7	7.1	. .	. .	12.9	11.5	. .	. .	64.7	65.4	. .	. .	61.6	60.5
Denmark	80.1	80.6 |	80.4	81.4	58.5	59.3 |	66.5	69.0	7.3	3.9 |	4.5	3.7	20.6	9.5 |	9.8	7.5	74.2	77.5 |	76.8	78.4	46.4	53.6 |	59.9	63.8
Finland	72.4	76.8	74.9	77.0	. .	65.8	69.8	73.0	17.0	11.1	8.2	8.7	. .	–	18.3	18.1	60.1	68.3	68.8	70.3	. .	45.1	57.0	59.8
France	68.4	69.6	69.6	69.9	66.7	67.4	66.6	66.5	11.2	9.4	8.6	9.0	17.6	16.7	14.7	16.2	60.7	63.1	63.6	63.6	55.0	56.2	56.8	55.7
Germany	. .	72.1 |	74.8	76.5	. .	64.8 |	68.7	70.4	. .	7.4 |	10.4	9.4	. .	12.6 |	17.0	16.2	. .	66.7 |	67.0	69.3	. .	56.7 |	57.0	59.0
Greece	59.9	62.6	66.3	66.5	66.0	70.3	73.3	73.8	9.0	11.1	9.7	9.0	17.1	14.6	10.2	9.4	54.5	55.6	59.8	60.5	54.7	60.0	65.8	66.8
Hungary	. .	59.9	61.1	61.9	. .	61.0	65.6	65.3	. .	6.6	7.2	7.5	. .	–	4.6	7.0	. .	55.9	56.7	57.3	. .	58.5	62.6	60.7
Ireland	61.6	67.3	69.8	70.7	62.6	68.9	73.0	75.4	12.0	4.3	4.1	4.2	16.2	5.7	6.0	6.0	54.2	64.4	67.0	67.7	52.4	64.9	68.7	70.9
Italy	57.3	59.8	61.9	62.0	66.7	69.3	70.1	71.2	11.9	10.9	7.4	6.7	13.1	12.1	9.5	8.5	50.4	53.3	57.3	57.9	58.0	60.9	63.5	65.1
Luxembourg	56.4	61.6	62.1	62.0	67.7	68.4	73.3	73.7	2.6	2.0	3.6	3.3	3.4	2.9	5.6	6.5	54.9	60.4	59.8	60.0	65.4	66.4	69.2	68.9
Netherlands	70.4	76.7	78.2	78.7	59.0	63.4	67.9	66.3	6.0	2.3	4.0	3.8	19.6	6.3	10.8	10.7	66.1	74.9	75.1	75.8	47.4	59.4	60.5	59.2
Norway	. .	81.2	78.9	78.6	. .	73.5	70.8	72.3	. .	3.3	4.2	3.0	. .	6.1	10.6	8.3	. .	78.5	75.6	76.2	. .	69.0	63.3	66.3
Portugal	67.5	70.4	72.7	73.4	65.2	75.8	79.9	79.5	7.2	3.9	7.5	8.0	12.1	4.5	9.0	9.8	62.7	67.6	67.2	67.6	57.3	72.4	72.7	71.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	68.6	68.7	. .	. .	70.2	64.1	. .	. .	16.3	13.4	. .	. .	25.5	–	. .	. .	57.5	59.5	. .	. .	52.3	55.2
Spain	59.4	64.9	68.6	69.6	64.2	71.4	78.7	78.5	22.8	13.9	9.1	8.1	27.0	15.9	11.3	11.2	45.8	55.9	62.3	63.9	46.8	60.0	69.8	69.7
Sweden	81.1	78.3	81.0	80.1	68.3	66.6	71.3	71.2	7.3	4.7	7.9	6.2	21.7	11.6	14.9	13.4	75.2	74.6	74.6	75.1	53.5	58.9	60.7	61.7
Switzerland	. .	. .	81.7	82.1	. .	. .	78.4	79.0	. .	. .	3.1	2.8	. .	. .	8.6	8.0	. .	. .	79.2	79.8	. .	. .	71.6	72.7
United Kingdom	75.3	76.3	75.6	75.9	67.7	67.7	68.8	71.6	8.5	5.3	4.3	5.1	12.8	8.8	7.3	7.6	68.9	72.2	72.4	72.0	59.0	61.8	63.8	66.1
Australia	75.9	76.2	78.2	78.1	70.5	69.0	70.1	70.9	8.0	6.4	4.8	4.1	10.1	7.0	5.1	4.7	69.8	71.3	74.4	74.9	63.4	64.2	66.5	67.5
Canada	75.9	76.2	. .	. .	73.7	73.3	. .	. .	9.1	6.0	. . |	6.4	11.7	7.3	. . |	7.0	68.9	71.7	. .	. .	65.1	68.0	. .	. .
United States	75.4	76.0	73.4	73.4	71.1	73.6	73.1	74.1	5.8	4.4	5.8	5.3	8.0	4.9	5.1	4.4	71.1	72.7	69.2	69.5	65.4	70.0	69.4	70.8

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427830451278

The sign ". ." means not available; "–" means insufficient sample sizes at B threshold, "I" means a break in series.

Source: European countries: *European Community Labour Force Survey*, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register 1995, 2000); Australia: *Labour Force Survey*; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics for 1995, 2000 and Population Census (15+) for 2006; United States: *Current Population Survey*, March Supplement.

Annex Table I.B.2. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006**

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Men																								
Austria	80.3	79.5	77.5	80.4	85.6	85.2	77.9	81.0	3.7	4.4	4.4	3.6	6.2	8.6	12.7	10.3	77.3	76.0	74.1	77.5	80.3	77.9	68.0	72.6
Belgium	72.6	73.7	73.2	73.6	68.7	73.9	72.9	71.8	6.1	4.3	6.6	6.6	19.8	15.1	14.8	15.8	68.2	70.6	68.3	68.7	55.0	62.7	62.1	60.5
Czech Republic	. .	78.9	78.1	78.2	. .	90.1	88.6	84.8	. .	7.4	6.3	5.9	. .	7.7	–	–	. .	73.1	73.2	73.6	. .	83.2	86.6	81.9
Denmark	84.1	83.5 |	84.0	84.2	58.1	59.8 |	72.8	80.2	6.6	3.6 |	4.1	3.2	23.2	10.1 |	–	8.3	78.6	80.5 |	80.5	81.5	44.6	53.8 |	67.7	73.6
Finland	75.0	79.3	76.7	78.7	58.2	82.0	72.6	80.0	17.9	10.2	8.2	8.7	–	28.6	14.4	17.6	61.6	71.3	70.4	71.8	45.4	58.6	62.1	65.9
France	74.7	75.1	74.8	74.9	76.0	76.5	76.0	74.2	9.3	7.9	8.3	8.8	20.2	18.0	15.3	17.3	67.8	69.2	68.6	68.3	60.7	62.7	64.3	61.4
Germany	79.7	79.0	80.7	81.8	79.0	77.2	79.9	78.1	6.2	7.1	10.7	9.7	15.1	13.6	20.3	18.9	74.8	73.4	72.0	73.9	67.0	66.7	63.6	63.4
Greece	77.1	76.6	78.5	78.5	86.7	89.4	89.2	89.6	6.3	7.5	6.0	5.8	–	7.4	4.4	4.2	72.2	70.9	73.8	73.9	77.7	82.8	85.3	85.9
Hungary	. .	. .	67.6	68.6	. .	. .	76.7	78.1	. .	. .	7.0	7.2	. .	. .	–	–	. .	. .	62.9	63.7	. .	. .	76.3	75.4
Ireland	76.2	79.3	79.5	. .	73.4	74.5	84.2	. .	12.1	4.4	4.5	. .	–	–	6.2	. .	66.9	75.8	75.9	. .	60.6	70.1	79.0	. .
Italy	72.4	. .	. .	73.9	84.6	. .	. .	89.0	9.3	. .	. .	5.5	–	. .	. .	5.4	65.6	. .	. .	69.8	78.7	. .	. .	84.2
Luxembourg	73.6	75.8	72.4	71.4	80.1	77.4	81.0	80.6	–	–	2.6	2.3	–	–	4.6	5.0	72.2	75.0	70.5	69.7	78.0	75.0	77.2	76.6
Netherlands	80.8	84.6	84.2	84.4	63.9	70.1	74.1	71.6	5.4	2.0	4.2	3.8	23.2	–	13.4	12.2	76.5	82.9	80.7	81.2	49.0	66.3	64.2	62.9
Norway	. .	84.9	81.8	81.2	. .	82.5	79.8	84.2	. .	3.6	4.5	3.1	. .	. .	13.5	12.2	. .	81.9	78.1	78.6	. .	78.1	69.0	73.9
Portugal	76.4	78.9	78.6	79.2	64.3	80.1	86.7	87.1	6.8	3.2	6.8	6.9	. .	. .	9.8	9.6	71.3	76.4	73.3	73.8	59.3	74.1	78.2	78.8
Slovak Republic	. .	76.4	76.1	76.4	. .	81.1	–	89.9	. .	19.5	15.8	12.3	. .	. .	–	–	. .	61.6	64.1	67.0	. .	. .	–	–
Spain	74.2	78.4	80.2	80.4	84.0	84.4	87.7	88.9	18.1	9.6	7.0	5.4	20.3	13.8	10.1	9.8	60.8	70.9	74.5	75.5	66.9	72.7	78.8	81.8
Sweden	82.6	78.0	82.3	81.5	69.7	63.1	74.8	74.5	8.3	5.5	8.4	6.6	23.5	16.1	18.5	14.7	75.8	73.7	75.4	76.1	53.3	52.9	61.0	63.5
Switzerland	. .	89.6	87.4	87.9	. .	88.5	87.4	87.5	. .	1.4	2.8	2.4	. .	5.0	7.6	7.0	. .	88.3	85.0	85.8	. .	84.0	80.7	81.4
United Kingdom	83.6	83.4	81.7	81.7	75.8	75.9	76.3	81.9	10.0	6.0	4.8	5.6	16.6	11.7	8.9	8.0	75.3	78.5	77.8	77.2	63.2	67.0	69.5	75.4

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Annex Table I.B.2. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Women																								
Austria	62.1	62.4	65.6	67.9	64.2	64.4	61.7	59.9	4.7	4.1	4.6	4.7	7.8	9.1	10.7	11.0	59.2	59.8	62.5	64.7	59.1	58.5	55.1	53.3
Belgium	53.0	58.1	60.5	60.4	38.0	41.3	49.4	50.3	11.0	7.8	8.3	8.5	31.5	16.4	17.8	19.8	47.1	53.6	55.4	55.3	26.0	34.5	40.6	40.3
Czech Republic	. .	63.6	62.1	62.3	. .	52.8	65.1	69.5	. .	10.6	9.8	8.9	. .	. .	14.1	10.2	. .	56.9	56.1	56.8	. .	49.3	55.9	62.4
Denmark	75.7	77.0 |	76.1	77.6	44.3	45.5 |	53.7	62.6	8.5	4.4 |	5.4	4.4	25.5	11.3 |	13.2	8.4	69.2	73.6 |	72.0	74.2	33.0	40.4 |	46.7	57.4
Finland	69.4	74.2	73.3	75.2	65.9	61.9	54.9	62.9	16.2	11.8	8.4	9.0	30.4	–	26.9	24.7	58.2	65.4	67.1	68.4	45.9	43.4	40.1	47.4
France	61.5	63.4	64.6	65.0	46.8	48.6	51.0	50.1	13.6	11.5	9.4	10.0	24.4	25.6	21.6	20.6	53.1	56.1	58.5	58.6	35.4	36.2	40.0	39.8
Germany	62.3	64.4	68.3	71.0	50.6	49.7	52.7	53.6	9.3	8.1	10.4	9.7	14.9	11.6	18.9	17.6	56.5	59.2	61.2	64.2	43.1	43.9	42.7	44.2
Greece	44.1	49.5	54.3	54.8	56.3	55.8	58.2	58.8	14.0	16.9	15.4	13.8	18.2	17.6	14.1	13.5	37.9	41.1	46.0	47.2	46.1	46.0	50.0	50.9
Hungary	. .	. .	54.9	55.5	. .	. .	62.2	54.9	. .	. .	7.4	7.8	. .	. .	–	–	. .	. .	50.9	51.2	. .	. .	57.3	46.5
Ireland	47.1	55.8	60.3	. .	44.6	53.5	60.4	. .	11.9	4.2	3.6	. .	–	. .	6.3	. .	41.5	53.4	58.1	. .	36.1	49.7	56.6	. .
Italy	42.5	. .	. .	50.4	49.3	. .	. .	58.6	16.3	. .	. .	8.6	22.8	. .	. .	13.4	35.6	. .	. .	46.1	38.1	. .	. .	50.7
Luxembourg	40.2	47.8	53.4	54.4	51.2	56.8	62.0	63.5	–	–	4.2	4.0	–	. .	7.8	8.9	38.7	46.7	51.1	52.3	48.5	54.6	57.2	57.8
Netherlands	59.2	66.7	70.9	71.2	39.8	46.1	47.6	50.6	8.2	3.3	4.9	4.9	24.3	9.7	10.0	9.5	54.3	64.5	67.4	67.7	30.1	41.6	42.8	45.8
Norway	. .	76.7	75.2	75.3	. .	68.3	66.2	63.7	. .	3.3	4.5	3.3	. .	. .	7.4	5.8	. .	74.2	71.9	72.8	. .	65.3	61.3	60.0
Portugal	59.2	63.7	67.4	68.2	35.1	68.8	75.6	73.7	8.0	4.8	8.3	9.3	. .	. .	14.0	13.0	54.4	60.6	61.8	61.9	28.0	61.9	65.0	64.2
Slovak Republic	. .	62.9	61.3	60.9	. .	43.6	. .	–	. .	18.6	17.1	14.8	. .	. .	–	–	. .	51.2	50.8	51.9	. .	. .	–	–
Spain	44.9	51.7	57.1	58.9	48.6	58.2	70.4	68.2	30.6	20.6	12.1	10.9	27.0	17.6	13.5	16.2	31.2	41.0	50.2	52.5	35.5	48.0	60.9	57.2
Sweden	79.2	74.2	78.2	77.1	60.2	60.3	62.0	62.0	7.1	4.6	8.4	7.1	15.6	13.0	14.2	12.5	73.6	70.8	71.6	71.6	50.8	52.4	53.1	54.2
Switzerland	. .	72.8	75.4	75.8	. .	66.4	69.9	70.8	. .	2.4	3.8	3.3	. .	6.5	10.8	10.8	. .	71.1	72.6	73.3	. .	62.1	62.4	63.2
United Kingdom	66.5	68.5	69.1	69.6	55.5	56.2	60.5	63.7	6.8	4.8	3.8	4.6	11.8	8.0	8.1	8.9	62.0	65.2	66.5	66.4	49.0	51.7	55.6	58.0

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Annex Table I.B.2. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2005-2006** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006	1995	2000	2005	2006
Men and women																								
Austria	71.1	70.9	71.5	74.1	75.5	74.7	69.7	70.4	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.1	6.8	8.8	11.8	10.6	68.2	67.9	68.3	71.1	70.4	68.2	61.5	62.9
Belgium	62.8	66.0	66.8	67.0	54.8	58.3	61.6	61.2	8.2	5.8	7.4	7.5	23.5	15.6	16.0	17.4	57.7	62.1	61.9	62.0	42.0	49.2	51.8	50.6
Czech Republic	. .	71.2	70.1	70.3	. .	73.0	77.7	77.6	. .	8.8	7.9	7.2	. .	7.3	6.9	6.2	. .	64.9	64.6	65.2	. .	67.6	72.3	72.8
Denmark	79.9	80.3 |	80.1	81.0	51.4	52.6 |	62.0	70.6	7.5	4.0 |	4.7	3.8	24.2	10.6 |	10.0	8.3	74.0	77.1 |	76.3	77.9	39.0	47.0 |	55.8	64.7
Finland	72.2	76.8	75.0	76.9	61.9	72.9	63.3	71.4	17.1	11.0	8.3	8.8	26.3	29.0	20.0	20.8	59.9	68.4	68.8	70.2	45.6	51.8	50.6	56.5
France	68.0	69.2	69.6	69.9	62.3	63.0	63.5	62.1	11.3	9.6	8.8	9.3	21.7	20.9	17.8	18.7	60.3	62.6	63.5	63.4	48.8	49.8	52.2	50.5
Germany	71.0	71.7	74.5	76.5	66.2	64.3	66.7	65.6	7.5	7.5	10.6	9.7	15.1	12.9	19.8	18.3	65.6	66.3	66.6	69.1	56.3	56.0	53.5	53.5
Greece	60.0	62.7	66.4	66.6	70.2	71.8	74.0	74.2	9.2	11.3	9.9	9.1	13.8	11.6	8.1	7.9	54.4	55.6	59.8	60.5	60.5	63.5	68.0	68.4
Hungary	. .	. .	61.1	61.9	. .	. .	69.0	66.8	. .	. .	7.2	7.5	. .	. .	–	–	. .	. .	56.7	57.3	. .	. .	66.2	61.4
Ireland	61.7	67.6	69.9	. .	58.2	64.4	73.3	. .	12.0	4.3	4.1	. .	18.1	6.4	6.3	. .	54.3	64.6	67.0	. .	47.7	60.2	68.7	. .
Italy	57.3	. .	. .	62.1	66.7	. .	. .	73.7	11.9	. .	. .	6.8	12.9	. .	. .	8.6	50.4	. .	. .	57.9	58.1	. .	. .	67.3
Luxembourg	57.2	62.6	63.0	62.8	65.9	66.7	71.5	72.1	2.5	1.6	3.3	3.1	3.6	3.4	6.0	6.7	55.7	61.6	60.9	60.9	63.5	64.4	67.3	67.2
Netherlands	70.1	75.8	77.6	77.9	53.1	58.1	60.7	60.6	6.5	2.6	4.5	4.3	23.6	7.2	12.0	11.0	65.5	73.8	74.1	74.6	40.6	53.9	53.4	53.9
Norway	. .	80.8	78.6	78.3	. .	75.5	72.5	73.4	. .	3.4	4.5	3.2	. .	. .	10.6	9.3	. .	78.1	75.1	75.8	. .	71.8	64.9	66.6
Portugal	67.5	71.1	73.0	73.7	49.9	74.7	81.1	80.3	7.3	3.9	7.5	8.0	. .	–	11.8	11.1	62.6	68.3	67.5	67.8	43.8	68.3	71.6	71.4
Slovak Republic	. .	69.6	68.7	68.6	. .	. .	66.1	79.6	. .	19.1	16.4	13.4	. .	. .	–	–	. .	56.3	57.4	59.4	. .	. .	59.9	77.0
Spain	59.4	65.0	68.7	69.8	65.9	70.7	79.0	78.6	22.9	13.9	9.1	8.1	22.8	15.5	11.6	11.5	45.8	56.0	62.5	64.1	50.8	59.8	69.8	69.5
Sweden	81.0	76.2	80.3	79.4	64.7	61.7	68.2	68.1	7.7	5.1	8.4	6.8	19.7	14.6	16.5	13.7	74.7	72.3	73.5	73.9	52.0	52.7	56.9	58.8
Switzerland	. .	81.1	81.3	81.8	. .	78.3	79.2	79.7	. .	1.9	3.3	2.8	. .	5.6	8.9	8.6	. .	79.6	78.7	79.4	. .	74.0	72.2	72.8
United Kingdom	75.1	76.1	75.3	75.6	65.0	65.4	68.1	72.6	8.6	5.4	4.3	5.2	14.4	10.0	8.5	8.4	68.7	71.9	72.1	71.7	55.6	58.9	62.3	66.5

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". ." means not available, "–" means insufficient sample sizes at B threshold, "I" means a break in series.

Source: European Community Labour Force Survey, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population register (1995,2000).

C. Migration Policy Development[21]

1. Introduction

For the most part, 2006-07 has been a relatively "quiet" period in international migration for OECD members, without new major perturbations in flows. This has provided governments with time to reflect on their policies, introduce new measures and in some cases embark on substantial structural and institutional changes in the organisation of their administration of migration policy and process. Some of the legislative or operational changes represent the continuation or completion of unfinished business, others are new initiatives. During the period under review almost all OECD countries brought in legislative change. Australia, Finland, France, Mexico, the Netherlands and Sweden had changes of government, the consequences being that proposed Bills fell with the old government and/or new directions were taken by their successors with new programmes for dealing with migration. In the United States, failure to get agreement on new legislation has created a hiatus, pending new elections in 2008.

As the EU expanded in May 2004 and January 2007, national jurisdictions found it necessary to set in train a process of new and amended legislation and procedures that is still continuing. EU legislation has also had an impact on policy developments in virtually all OECD countries which are EU members.

This subsection C of Part I presents a systematic review on a topic by topic basis of the main areas addressed by new policy developments. Its objective is to identify those areas where policy has been most active and to indicate what the main directions have been. It begins by reviewing a range of structural and institutional developments in ministries and agencies in the delivery of policy objectives. The next two points adopt a more inter-state perspective, reviewing international agreements and, for the European OECD countries, the specific effects of EU legislation and EU enlargement. Specific policy areas follow, namely border control, labour migration, social integration and residence, citizenship, humanitarian policy and international students. Each point shows the particular perspective on the theme adopted by countries, pointing out similarities and differences. An overarching question is: are OECD countries moving in similar directions and hence what degree of commonality can one observe in the developments and changes that have occurred?

2. Structural and institutional reforms in the development and delivery of policy

The evolving face of international migration and the consequent need for governments to adapt their policies and procedures have caused a number of them to undergo a range of structural or institutional changes in the way they deliver policy. In some cases there have been fundamental reorganisations of or within ministries. They include strategic shifts such as the United Kingdom's introduction of a points-based system (PBS), or new specialised ministries or ministerial departments, as in Finland, France, Hungary and Romania. In others institutional developments have been confined to certain elements of policy only. They reflect greater state involvement in the delivery of services, together with clearer lines of responsibility, closer linking of migration and integration – formerly the responsibility of different areas of government, better

monitoring and data systems and better co-ordination between regional and national governments.

Major structural changes

Four countries, the United Kingdom, France, Hungary and Romania, have carried through major structural shifts, placing migration policy and service delivery within separate, semi-autonomous governmental units.

In the United Kingdom, the transition to a new points-based system for immigration, commencing in February 2008, has occurred in the context of a fundamental overhaul of the Home Office's Immigration and Nationality Department (IND). This has involved the creation of the Borders and Immigration Agency (BIA), to replace the IND, initially as a "shadow agency" of the Home Office from April 2007, becoming a fully-fledged agency in April 2008.

The Agency will make decisions related to the details of operations and will have significant operational freedom in this regard. BIA representatives will be on the front-line on immigration issues that receive media attention and will be held accountable to Parliament and the public for agency performance. The objective is to clarify lines of accountability regarding the operational aspects of policy implementation and to establish clearer lines of responsibility for ministers, civil servants and central and regional administrators.

Within the BIA, two new advisory committees, established in 2007, aim to guide immigration policy and help steer its implementation. The Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) will attempt to identify skill gaps in the labour market and establish a shortage occupation list for migration purposes. Its first report is due in the summer of 2008. The Migration Impacts Forum (MIF), which had its first meeting in 2007, will assess the wider, more qualitative, social implications of immigration in local regions and help ensure that public services, such as housing, education, health and social care can respond to its challenges.

France, too, engaged in significant structural reform to create a central ministry dealing with all major aspects of immigration, the Ministry of Immigration, Integration, National Identity and Co-development. These include better management of immigration and combating irregular movements; fostering integration; maintaining national identity and citizenship; and promoting development in sending countries, especially those of the South.

Two other countries have also undergone major structural change in policy delivery. Following the 2006 elections, the Hungarian Ministry of the Interior, formerly in charge of alien administration, ceased to exist, to be replaced by the Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement, within which a separate Department for Migration was established to co-ordinate migration policy with other policy fields. The new Department is now responsible for developing a migration strategy for Hungary and the associated long-term migration policy measures necessary.

As in Hungary, Romania established a new Office for Immigration in 2007, bringing together parts of the Ministry of the Interior. Its remit includes entry visas, employment and stay, according to the provisions of the laws. It also has responsibilities in the field of asylum, including decision making and return to safe third countries. It manages records relating to foreigners and liaises with similar institutions abroad. The Office has also taken

over responsibility from the Ministry of Labour and Family for matters relating to migrant employment. These include setting employment conditions, issuing work permits, specifying the categories of immigrant workers and identifying shortage occupations.

New institutional developments within countries

Although falling short of major structural reform of the delivery of immigration policy, a number of countries have made institutional changes to parts of their operations. These have tended to be connected with the delivery of integration services. Examples are found in Portugal, Norway, Finland, Poland, Japan, Ireland, Canada and New Zealand.

During 2007, the High Commissariat for Integration and Ethnic Minorities in Portugal was reformed, given more financial and administrative autonomy and renamed the High Commissariat for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI). It has responsibility for integration matters through "one-stop shops" in Lisbon and Porto as well as for developing links with other institutions at local level. Associated with ACIDI's creation, the government has also approved a plan for immigrant integration, covering a range of measures and identifying the government bodies responsible for each measure, and has established goals for 2009.

Similar developments have occurred in Finland and Norway. In the former, the administration of migration issues was reorganised at the beginning of 2008 through the creation of a single entity within the Ministry of Interior responsible for migration and integration. Certain units from within the Ministry of Labour along with selected bodies concerned with asylum will be relocated together. The change will be accompanied by a new data system for migration and asylum issues which is due to come into operation during 2009. In Norway, in October 2007 the Ministry of Children and Equality was given co-ordinating responsibility for all forms of discrimination. A new Plan of Action relates to labour, welfare, social exclusion, language, gender equality and participation. Overall there are 28 measures involving eight ministries.

Other examples of new institutions are found in Poland, where the government has established a Migration Policy Commission to review all aspects of policy, and in Japan where a new reporting system on the employment of foreigners has been introduced. In Ireland, the new Minister of State responsible for integration now has his/her own Office.

Among the settlement countries, Canada has seen two institutional developments. First, in 2007 the new Foreign Credential Referral Office was launched. It will help internationally trained individuals, both overseas and in Canada, find appropriate information to put their skills to work in the Canadian labour market. Second, a Memorandum of Understanding between the federal, Ontario and City of Toronto governments, the first such collaboration across the three levels of government, focuses on improving immigrant outcomes in employment, education, training, citizenship and civic engagement. Other framework agreements between federal and provincial authorities related to the Provincial Nominee system, the aim being to increase the number of skilled immigrants. Finally, New Zealand implemented a range of measures during 2007 as part of the Settlement National Action Plan. The measures were designed to identify best practice and cover gaps in service delivery for migrants across a range of policy areas.

3. International agreements between countries

Several countries have signed bilateral agreements, for diverse reasons. Some relate to irregular migrants, either for the purposes of protection or readmission. For example, in 2006 Romania concluded an agreement with Spain concerning the protection of unaccompanied Romanian minors living in Spain. It also concluded agreements with Luxembourg and the Netherlands on the readmission of persons in an irregular situation. Conversely, the limited effectiveness of repatriation with respect to irregular migration has led to proposals in Spain for bilateral co-operation framework agreements, including elements of labour migration. The Slovak Republic is in the process of negotiating an agreement with Ukraine on cross-border co-operation. Italy made an agreement with Morocco, signed in 2005 and adopted in 2007 to govern entry to Italy of Moroccans for paid seasonal and non-seasonal employment.

A different approach to international co-operation occurred in Bulgaria where Parliament amended the Law on Personal Data Protection to allow the authorities to restrict the emigration of young people if they had committed a crime abroad.

4. The implications of EU legislation

Unlike other OECD countries, EU member countries have had to respond to directives and regulations from the European Commission and to decisions taken in the Council (see Box I.8). This usually involves incorporating measures from the supra-national body into their own legislations. In the normal course of events this is a continuous process. In anticipation of the 2004 and 2007 enlargements most of the existing member countries decided to impose transition periods before granting full access to their labour markets to citizens of some or all of the new accession countries. Over the last couple of years the EU15 governments have been reviewing these policies and the associated legislation, with a view to either extend the transition or to end it and allow full access. Governments of the EFTA countries, which are also signatories to freedom of movement conventions, have behaved likewise. Governments of the new EU members have faced a different situation. They have been engaged in a process of legislative change to conform to EU legislation (*acquis communitaire*).

Policy developments induced by EU enlargement in EU15 countries, Norway and Switzerland

Over the last few years, all of the EU15 countries have taken steps to manage access to their labour markets of citizens of the new members. EFTA members have also been changing their legislation to accommodate the free movement provisions of the EU. For the most part, transitional arrangements for the A8 accession countries are coming to an end. Any remaining restrictions are confined to Bulgaria and Romania.

The Netherlands, among the older EU members, has taken action to increase access to its labour market for citizens of the acceding countries. Initially, the Dutch government opted for a transitional period of two years in which workers from the new EU member countries did not have access to the Dutch labour market but still needed a temporary work permit. In May 2006, this transitional measurement was prolonged for another year. However already by 2006 many restrictions on foreign workers from Poland and other CEE countries had been annulled. Although foreign workers from the new member countries of 2004 still needed a temporary work permit, these were issued more easily and often

Box I.8. **Developments in EU immigration policy**

During 2007 developments occurred in four areas.

a) Adoption of a harmonised legislative framework

The European Union's legislative efforts are clearly moving towards economic immigration.

In 2007 the Commission adopted two proposals for directives. The first was aimed at establishing a common set of rights for all third country nationals admitted to work in the European Union and at implementing a single permit covering both residence and access to work. The initiative not only concerns migrant workers, but also persons admitted to the European Union on another basis (family members, students, *etc.*) who also have access to the labour market. This proposed directive does not concern the conditions of admission of migrant workers, which will continue to be the responsibility of member States, in particular with regard to the volume of immigration.

The second proposal for a directive concerns the admission of workers for the purpose of highly qualified employment. It is aimed at facilitating and accelerating the admission of appropriate third country nationals through the creation of a "Blue Card" that will grant them a more advantageous status than that provided for under ordinary law; this is aimed at making the European Union more attractive in the global competition among countries to attract the most highly skilled labour. For a Blue Card to be issued, the applicant must present a work contract or a binding job offer valid for at least one year. The member State receiving an application must respond within 30 days, and may conduct labour market tests. The Blue Card is in principle valid for two years, during which any change in employment conditions or the employment relation is subject to the prior authorisation of the member States.

b) Co-operation in combating irregular immigration

Internal border controls in the Schengen area were eliminated for land borders in December 2007 for the 15 earlier member States and for 9 of the 10 of the new member States (except for Cyprus) that entered the EU in 2004 and for airports in March 2008. This process will be extended to Romania, Bulgaria and Cyprus once they have proven in the Schengen evaluation process that they satisfy all the required compensatory measures.

In the fight against irregular immigration, in May 2007 the Commission proposed a directive providing for sanctions against employers of illegally staying third country nationals. The objective is to reduce the employment available to illegally staying persons – which is a major pull factor within the European Union that acts as a magnet to would-be illegal immigrants – punishing those who employ illegally staying third country nationals.

A new Regulation creating Rapid Border Intervention Teams was adopted in July 2007. It is designed to enable the Frontex Agency for the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External Borders to deploy, at the request of a member State faced with an exceptional influx of persons trying to enter its territory illegally, a rapid intervention team composed of national border guards of other member States.

c) Co-ordination of management of legal migration flows

In December 2007, the Commission adopted a communication entitled "Towards a Common Immigration Policy" in which it outlined future policy development. It argued in favour of a renewed commitment to developing a common policy by focusing on the need for the Union and its member States to co-operate more effectively in its implementation.

As part of this process, in August 2007 the Commission proposed to formalise the European Migration Network (EMN) and to improve the flow of statistics on migration and international protection to Eurostat. The creation of financial funds within the general programme "solidarity and the management of migration flows" is intended to make it possible to deepen co-operation between the Commission and member States and among the States themselves.

Box I.8. **Developments in EU immigration policy** *(cont.)*

Integration policy was marked by the first informal meeting of the European ministers responsible for integration, held in May 2007, which led to the adoption of conclusions on the strengthening of integration policies in the EU by the Council of Ministers for Justice and Home Affairs.

d) Integration of immigration policies and foreign relations

The intention to implement the Rabat Action Plan on Immigration and Development (July 2006) and the Tripoli Declaration on Migration and Development (November 2006) was confirmed at the second EU-Africa Summit held in Lisbon in December 2007, during which an action plan for the 2008-10 period was adopted with a view to implementing the new strategic partnership between Africa and the European Union. One of the eight priority actions concerning "migration, mobility and employment" is in fact aimed at implementing the Tripoli Declaration.

During 2007 readmission agreements were concluded with Russia, Ukraine, Moldova, Montenegro, Macedonia, Bosnia Herzegovina and Serbia. This progress in the East and the Balkans, which contrasts with the status quo of negotiations with Africa, was made possible by offering these countries agreements aimed at facilitating the granting of short-stay visas.

A new policy initiative is the Commission's communication on circular migration and mobility partnerships between the European Union and third countries issued in May 2007. Under circular migration, migrants who have already been admitted into the EU and respect the rules governing the length of their stay would be offered facilities enabling them to go back and forth between their country of origin and the European Union. Examples include seasonal workers, students and occupational trainees, researchers, persons participating in intercultural exchanges and volunteers.

without a resident labour market test. Norway, meanwhile, in 2006 extended transitional regulations for A8 nationals until 2009, with further easing since January 2008. Bulgaria and Romania have been included in these arrangements since 2007.

From June 2007, the Swiss labour market has been open to immigrants from the EU15 although restrictions (*i.e.* a labour market test, controls on earnings, jobs and numerical limits) still apply to salaried workers from the eastern European countries which joined the EU in 2004. High standards of qualifications for cross-border service providers (in construction, horticulture, domestic and industrial cleaning, security) will be maintained and also for workers with residence permits of less than four months (who are not subject to the numerical limits).

The accession of Bulgaria and Romania required changes in existing systems. In most cases restrictions have been applied. Switzerland decided not to grant similar access to workers from Bulgaria and Romania as that for the 2004 accession countries while Norway, Luxembourg, Greece and Belgium have included Bulgaria and Romania in their existing transitional arrangements from 2007. However, there have been exceptions. In 2007 Italy put in place a provisional regime for one year for certain categories of Bulgarian and Romanian workers but opened up the principal sectors immediately, particularly for agriculture, tourism, domestic work and construction and also entertainment and some metalworking. Like Italy, Hungary has opened up its labour market for Romanian and Bulgarian citizens partially. Where the Hungarian labour market is in need of labour, access into the labour market is facilitated; in occupations where there are no labour shortages,

work permits are still required for Bulgarians and Romanians. The United Kingdom, which had allowed virtually free access to its labour market to the A8 countries, imposed transitional arrangements for Bulgaria and Romania, citizens of which have privileged access to the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme and the Sector-Based Scheme. These are the former low-skilled migration programmes which are being slowly phased out.

Changes in Central and Eastern Europe resulting from EU accession

Central and Eastern European countries have been busy incorporating EU legislation into their own. Legislative changes particularly relate to long-term residence, humanitarian policy and free movement for EU nationals. In 2006-07 the Czech Republic, Lithuania, the Slovak Republic, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania all introduced new legislation to incorporate the legal provisions required by EU legislation. In Bulgaria and Romania new provisions were introduced which related to the free movement for member nationals and to the treatment of asylum seekers as well as the expulsion of foreigners and the mutual recognition of decisions taken by another member state. Lithuania amended its Law on the Legal Status of Aliens, in order to accommodate EU directives relating to EU nationals and their families. Legislative developments in the Slovak Republic involved EU-induced changes to the permit system. The period of residence before a permanent residence permit could be granted was reduced from ten to five years and a simplified entry procedure now allows for the possibility of obtaining a long-term visa and a business licence at the same time. In late 2007, following an EU directive, an amendment to the Act on Residence of Aliens established a new procedure for admitting third country nationals for the purposes of scientific research.

Several new member countries have changed their asylum legislation as a result of joining the EU. Cases in point are the Czech Republic, where changes now allow refugees to take up employment without a resident labour market test and Bulgaria, which amended its refugee law to allow participation in the EU fund supporting integration and protection measures, thus providing more resources for refugees.

Hungary was alone in both accepting the right of free movement but also adopting the principle of reciprocity. The government passed a new Act in 2007 accepting the right of free movement inherent in the EU treaties and extending the provisions to resident third country nationals. A major result of the new regulation is the provision of the right of permanent stay, seen as a key element of the promotion of social cohesion. The Act ensures the right of permanent stay to all EEA citizens and their family members following five years of uninterrupted and legal stay in Hungary. Hungary applied reciprocity in the labour market in the first phase of the transitional period as from 1 May 2004 with regard to existing member countries which applied restrictions in their national legislation *vis-à-vis* Hungarian citizens. In 2006, Hungary was the only member country from the EU8 to keep such measures in force towards older member countries.

Adapting to the Schengen system

The Eastern European countries, together with Switzerland, have been adapting to the EU's information systems. In 2007, Romania began to implement the EURODAC fingerprint database system. In anticipation of the Czech Republic joining Schengen, the possibility of prolonging a Schengen visa granted by other EU countries has now been incorporated into Czech law. In 2006 travel documents with biometric data were introduced. Lithuania also took the necessary steps to accede to the Schengen accords. During 2007 the Slovak Republic

made preparations for joining Schengen, particularly on its eastern border with Ukraine where a new surveillance system has been put in place. Changes were also made to border crossings with Poland and Hungary. In the autumn of 2008 Switzerland will become a full signatory to the Schengen and Dublin agreements, adopting full co-operation on security, a common policy on short-stay visas, and individual responsibility for granting asylum. Hitherto, its participation in committees and councils has been provisional.

5. Border control and illegal migration

Countries are continuing to introduce new measures to deter those who do not have the right to be on their territory. Broadly speaking, three themes dominate policy making. The first is to manage their borders in such a way that unauthorised entry is strictly controlled. The second is the attempt to prevent trafficking and the associated abuse of individuals. The third focuses on those who are already in the country but are in an unauthorised position.

Management of borders

Stricter border management is a common theme among OECD members, related to issues of security as well as the control of irregular flows. For the most part, developments have either been in the form of reorganisation of control authorities and/or better operational management. New Zealand and the United Kingdom have introduced both. The New Zealand government has established an interdepartmental group (Border Sector Governance Group) to improve border control, make operational improvements and provide better information. There have also been operational innovations: in 2007 a Risk Targeting Programme was launched to profile potential risk passengers. In the same year, the United Kingdom Borders Act created a single border force to guard ports and airports with new police-like powers. All visa applicants are fingerprinted, and the Act introduces a new system to count people arriving and departing and to bring in ID cards.

In the United States border control has become more tangible, with the Secure Fence Act of 2006. Procedures have also been tightened: the Western Hemisphere Border Initiative of 2007 requires nearly all travellers entering the United States to show passports, including United States citizens and others from western hemisphere countries, formerly allowed in upon showing birth certificates.

For most countries which have introduced new measures, policy is geared to reducing flows of irregular migrants and sending them home. Better border management in Spain is at the heart of the strategy for dealing with irregular migration and is based on three pillars: improving entry management, better regulating legal channels of flow and assisting countries of origin. In order to develop the strategy, a parliamentary sub-commission was set up with the aim of bringing about administrative and regulatory reforms deemed necessary to modernise management. The resulting plan involves the co-ordination of eight ministries. A new plan for security in the Canaries is aimed principally at preventing irregular migration. As in other countries, Spain is exporting its border controls. Attaches from the Interior Ministry have been deployed in several West African countries to help in the fight against irregular migration, in effect pushing the border overseas. Negotiations and collaboration are underway with African transit and origin countries to speed up the process of identification and repatriation. Its longer term strategy is to increase levels of communication between countries and develop shared responsibility. The limited

effectiveness of repatriation is to be overcome by bilateral co-operation framework agreements.

Human smuggling and trafficking

Attempts by government to combat people smuggling and human trafficking reflect both local concerns and legislative changes to incorporate international agreements.

Some countries are more on the front line than others. Bulgaria and Mexico are examples of the former. The Centre for Co-operation with the Black Sea Countries, established in Bulgaria, was strengthened in 2007 with a view to better protecting its border. A Southern Border strategy was designed by Mexico, at the heart of which is the need to provide better border security. It includes better documentation of border crossings, supervision of border flows and strong action against people smuggling and trafficking. Better international co-operation against smuggling gangs includes international treaties and better mechanisms regarding extradition.

Countries more remote from the main sources of smuggled and trafficked migrants have also developed policies to combat trafficking. Norway introduced a Plan of Action against human trafficking to extend over the period 2006-09. However Norway, like some other countries, has also introduced measures designed to help the victims of trafficking. In part these measures are designed to encourage trafficked individuals to come forward or stay and testify against the traffickers. In part, they are a response to the abuses of personal security that trafficking entails. A temporary residence permit for the victims of trafficking in Norway is extended to six months and includes access to health care and social assistance. Outreach activities among foreign prostitutes have been strengthened and there are plans for witness protection. Victims of trafficking in Finland may be granted a permanent residence permit. Two other countries have brought in measures sympathetic to the plight of trafficked persons. The Slovak Republic has made amendments to residence law that allow victims of trafficking to stay for a period of forty days while their circumstances are being clarified; the period is extendable. Bulgaria has taken the practical steps of opening reception centres for the victims of trafficking.

Measures to deal with unauthorised migrants within countries

The measures in this context are targeted at various groups and include punishment of employers of illegal workers; repatriation and deportation; readmission; and policies for groups of unauthorised migrants. In contrast to other countries, Turkey has introduced more lenient policies.

Several countries have introduced measures aimed at employers of unauthorised workers. Employer sanctions legislation introduced in Australia in 2007 makes it a criminal offence knowingly to allow an illegal worker to work or to refer an illegal worker for work. In the United Kingdom, the new Points-Based System imposes on sponsors the need to check documents. A hierarchy of penalties that include prosecution is aimed at both employers and workers and is designed to prevent illegal working. Austria has introduced new rules to prevent undeclared household and care work.

One of the drivers behind new legislation in France, applicable in 2007, was the fight against irregular immigration. Three main measures relating to deportation were tightened: interdictions to entering French territory; escort to the French borders of persons in France without adequate papers; arrest and deportation of persons who

constitute a danger to public order or to the State. In December 2006 a circular revised the system for repatriation of unauthorised immigrants. It included measures concerning those returning voluntarily with a plan for resettling in their country of origin; providing financial assistance, counselling, administrative support, dialogue with the country of origin to facilitate resettlement; help with preparing to leave and dialogue with the country of origin to plan resettlement; ensuring humanitarian repatriation; and helping those immigrants involuntarily deprived of employment and who wish to return home. In a similar effort to dispatch those without a right to stay, Norway is engaged in readmission negotiations with six more countries in addition to the 18 already in existence.

As with France, Switzerland incorporated specific measures to deal with irregular migration in its new general legislation. A new law coming into effect in January 2008 redefines the principles and conditions pertaining to immigrants into Switzerland from non-EU countries. The law has tougher measures to deal with smugglers, illegal employment and marriages of convenience.

The policy situation in the United States is fluid. 2006 saw intensified debate within Congress, State and local authorities about immigration. Border control remained the key issue, but discussions included the possibility of a new guestworker programme. Measures by the federal government to strengthen the southern border were accompanied by actions among some local jurisdictions which, concerned about lax enforcement, approved their own ordinances regarding unauthorised aliens. These included making English the local jurisdiction's official language, punishing businesses illegally employing immigrants and landlords who rent to them. In contrast, other municipalities declared themselves "sanctuary cities" passing ordinances that prohibited municipal employees from helping to enforce federal immigration law. The result is that central control over border policy and policies that address unauthorised migration have been weakened.

The current period has not been one of large new regularisations; nevertheless, measures of this kind continue in various forms. New legislation in Greece in 2007 reopened a prior regularisation by broadening eligibility. For example, unauthorised migrants who had attended public educational institutions were made eligible for regularisation. Spain adopted a discretionary continuous regularisation mechanism for those unauthorised immigrants who can demonstrate their integration into Spanish society.

Both Germany and the Netherlands have made it easier for some unauthorised groups to stay. The Dutch parliament decided to give a "general pardon" to asylum seekers who had applied for asylum before 2001 and who were still present in the Netherlands. Germany has taken action to make it easier for some people without a residence permit to stay. Foreigners whose deportation has been suspended and who have lived in Germany for many years were, from July 2007, granted a right to stay "on a trial basis" for a period of two and a half years with the possibility of extension. They must show they can earn their own living. After four years they are given unlimited access to the labour market.

More practically, in Turkey a new shelter for irregular migrants was opened in Istanbul. The accession of Bulgaria and Romania has meant a form of "quasi-regularisation" for their citizens who were formerly living under an irregular status in other EU member countries. In Japan those living unlawfully in the country now have access to medical care and other welfare services.

6. Policies with respect to labour migration

Most OECD governments have changed or adopted new policies towards labour immigration. A few have also concerned themselves with emigration and/or return. Among the former the overall trend is to focus on skilled workers, including the highly skilled, especially with respect to shortage occupations.

Skilled workers, selection and shortages

All OECD countries are seeking highly qualified workers and many of them are also in the market for skills at the trade or technical level. These requirements are reflected in new policy developments in a number of countries. For many governments a principal objective of labour immigration policy is to acquire and maintain a favourable position in attempts to attract highly qualified workers.

This is a policy that is being developed in several countries. Following a Cabinet policy paper in 2006 ("Towards a modern migration policy") the Dutch government announced a general shift in its immigration policy towards a more proactive and selective approach to attracting high-skilled migrants. Other countries behaved similarly. Amendments to Germany's immigration legislation brings in new rules which are designed to attract highly qualified persons especially those needed to promote economic development. New legislation in France, entering force in November 2007, gives precedence to labour immigrants who satisfy particular skill needs. The French government drew up a list of 150 occupations, including some less-skilled, for which the new EU members of 2004 were eligible and a shorter list of 30 mostly technical occupations open to third-country nationals.

In the United Kingdom the new points-based system is specifically designed to select persons with those skills regarded as beneficial to the national economy (Box I.9). Tier 1, the old Highly Skilled Migrant Programme, includes four categories: General (highly skilled migrants and the self-employed), Entrepreneurs, Investors (high net-worth individuals) and Post-Study (international graduates from United Kingdom universities). Qualifying individuals will be offered unrestricted access to the United Kingdom labour market without a prior job offer or sponsor for a defined period of time – two years for Post-Study applicants and three years for the other categories that can lead to settlement. Points will be awarded against primary attributes, such as age, qualifications, the availability of sufficient funds to support themselves and their dependants, and English language capabilities (Box I.9). Tier 2, based on the old work permit system, will allow employers to become sponsors of foreign workers. The Tier will include intra-company transferees who automatically have the right to enter; shortage occupations from a list compiled by a new Migration Advisory Committee; and other skilled occupations which will be subject to a resident labour market test.

Several countries have introduced a type of "green card". The Employment Permits Act of 2006 in Ireland introduced one for skill shortage occupations which do not require a resident labour market test. Overall, the reformed system is part of a policy of meeting most labour needs from within the enlarged EU with relatively small numbers of very highly skilled coming as work permit holders in the future. The card is issued for two years in the first instance with the expectation that it will result in long-term residence. The occupation list is a restricted one for jobs paying 30-60 000 Euros, but more extensive for those paying more than 60 000. At the lower end of the salary band, shortages are of labour rather than of skills. Card-holders are

entitled to be accompanied by their spouses and families. The Act also made changes to the conditions for intra-company transferees coming as temporary management staff. These transferees have also been the subject of policy developments in Japan where an amendment in 2006 to the Immigration Control Act granted the staff of foreign companies a new and separate residence status (Intra-company transferee).

Attracting skilled workers and dealing with shortage occupations have been preoccupations in Denmark which has also introduced a new points-based "green card" scheme. Coming into operation from October 2007 it sets out conditions whereby points may be accumulated based on salary, qualifications and a shortage list. It allows skilled

Box I.9. **A comparison of the Australian and UK points systems**

The new points-based management system (PBS) in the United Kingdom is modeled to some extent on the Australian General Skilled Migration (GSM) points test. There are significant differences, however, notably that the GSM grants permits of unlimited duration whereas PBS permits (Tiers 1 and 2) are always temporary, even if the migration movements may be for permanent settlement. Tier 2 in particular can include some movements of workers arriving for temporary assignments.

The table below compares the distribution of points in the two systems for Tier 1 (General) in the United Kingdom and GSM in Australia. Both are intended to lead to permanent settlement. The GSM programme is designed to attract skilled people and their families as migrants to Australia. Tier 1 in the United Kingdom has replaced the former Highly Skilled Migrant Programme. It is designed to allow highly skilled potential migrants to apply for entry to the United Kingdom without already having a job offer; in this it differs from the new Tier 2 which will also use a points system but will be for temporary migrants only.

In the United Kingdom Tier 1, 95 points must be accumulated. Of these, 10 come from a compulsory language test to prove that the migrant speaks English to the required standard and 10 from demonstrating maintenance through possession of sufficient funds to support the migrant in the United Kingdom. Anyone unable to pass the language and maintenance tests cannot qualify. A further 75 points are required from four attributes: age, qualifications, previous earnings and United Kingdom experience. In the GSM, 120 points are required to pass, and a level 100 to enter the pool for possible future consideration.

The GSM points allocation covers a more comprehensive range of attributes which partly overlap with that in the PBS but there are also major differences. Australia specifies a target level of GSM migrants accepted each year whereas there is no cap or quota for Tier 1 migrants in the United Kingdom. This absence of any numerical limit in the United Kingdom system reflects the fact that it is more selective than the Australian one. Despite devolution to Assemblies in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, immigration policy remains in the hands of central government. In consequence, there is no "regional" component in the United Kingdom comparable with Designated Area Sponsorship or State/Territory Nomination in Australia, for example.

Perhaps the most important difference is that the United Kingdom emphasises past earnings as being the best guide to likely future labour market success for Tier 1 migrants, based on experiences with the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme. Previous salary is measured relative to rates in the country in which it was earned. In contrast, in the Australian GSM, points for shortage occupations and occupations on a skilled occupation list, in addition to work experience and other factors, are taken as predictors for successful labour market integration. For the new Tier 2 in the United Kingdom, points will be allocated for shortage occupations; however, the final points list for Tier 2 workers in the United Kingdom is not yet finalised.

Box I.9. **A comparison of the Australian and UK points systems** *(cont.)*

	UK/HSMP	Australia/GSM
Language ability	10	15-25
Maintenance	10	
Age	5-20	15-30
Qualifications/Academic	30-50	5-25
Skilled Occupation		40-60
Work experience in occupation		5-10
Recent earnings	5-45	
Spouse/partner skills		5
Shortage occupation		15-20
United Kingdom/Australian work experience	5	10
Regional Study		5
Designated area sponsorship		25
State/Territory Government Nomination		10
Professional Language skill		5
Number required	**95**	**100 – 120**
		pool – pass

migrants the right to stay in Denmark and apply for jobs for up to six months. Further, in order to attract skilled workers, the existing job card scheme was expanded in 2007 with more shortage occupations added to the list open to third country nationals.

Portugal has modified its quota system and labour market test. The system was put in place at the end of 2007. The resident labour market is tested for local candidates through the internet and the global network of Portuguese embassies and consulates is mobilised to obtain candidacies from abroad. The Ministry for Employment and Social Solidarity has the option of an "exclusion" list for occupations for which no authorisation will be granted, although it has not yet exercised this option. The procedure is that a foreign worker responds to the offer, obtains a work contract and then gets a residence visa. It relies on a high level of co-ordination among the various parts of the administration and the effectiveness of the database linking internal labour demand with applications from foreign workers. The new United Kingdom system will also rely on a new IT system linking its embassies and consulates.

Elsewhere, the new Alien's law in Switzerland, in force since January 2008, abolished constraints on professional and geographical mobility by skilled foreign workers within the country. Japan is also looking to attract certain highly skilled immigrants: researchers and data processors in facilities and businesses located in special zones may now stay for five years instead of three.

Global competition for skills is spreading. Some of the eastern European countries are now also actively encouraging immigration by the highly skilled as well as developing policies to confront labour shortages. During 2007 the Czech Ministry of Industry and Trade began work on the expansion, planned for 2008, of green cards offered to selected groups of professionals in short supply on the Czech labour market. Entry procedures are to be speeded up, reducing the administrative burden on both employer and worker, a change that should make it easier for highly qualified people, including intra-company

transferees, to enter the labour market. Green cards will be issued initially for a maximum of three years after which it will be possible to apply for permanent residence.

Lithuania, too, is seeking foreign workers to counter shortages of professionals resulting from high levels of emigration. From the end of 2006, the procedure for issuing work and residence permits for aliens whose profession is in shortage in Lithuania was simplified. Multiple entry visas are available and the list of shortage occupations is revised every six months. This change is expected to increase labour migration. In Poland, growing shortages have led to further easing of the requirements for access to the labour market. Employment without a work permit is now legal for global company executives engaged in business activity for three months over a six-month period. Recruitment has also become cheaper for employers: in 2007 fees paid when applying for a work permit or for an extension of a work permit were reduced considerably. Changes to Romania's work permit scheme include a new residence permit for work purposes, replacing two separate permits.

In Bulgaria in contrast, the government has sought to prevent Bulgarian employers from taking on foreign labour, with increased fines for those doing so without permission. At the same time, however, government-supported studies have identified certain labour shortages, leading to debates about appropriate measures to deal with them, including attracting labour from Viet Nam, Macedonia and Thailand, although no actual steps have yet been taken.

The traditional settlement countries have been reviewing their policies as well, with the intention of attracting in more skilled people. In September 2007 the Australian government introduced a broad range of changes to the General Skilled Migration (GSM) categories to improve their efficiency and effectiveness in selecting migrants who are able to enter the labour market quickly. Greater emphasis was placed on English language ability and skilled work experience in allocating points. These changes are underpinned by a new, simpler visa structure, reducing the previous 11 classes to four. In addition, all GSM visa applications can be lodged electronically from anywhere in the world. In addition, changes to the regional visa system mean that it is easier for students and working holiday makers ("backpackers") who have work experience in Australia to stay. In 2008 the new Australian government laid down a marker for its policy direction, increasing the GSM target with an emphasis on skilled immigrants.

The New Zealand government decided in 2007 to encourage employers to accept foreign professional and technical staff by providing them with guidance and advice on how to improve their management of foreign workers. For example, employers are obliged to help foreign workers find another job in cases of redundancy. Changes were also made to the Skilled Migrant Category to align points more closely to match migrant characteristics with labour market needs.

Managing inflows of low skilled workers

Several countries now acknowledge shortages in low skilled occupations and have adopted measures designed to manage better flows of workers to fill them. In Poland, the right to employ seasonal workers from Ukraine, Belarus and Russia without a work permit has been extended from agriculture to other sectors of the economy. Workers may be employed for six out of 12 months, rather than three out of six months, granting more flexibility to extend stay. In Switzerland between November 2006 and November 2007, the Federal Council raised the quota of short-stay permits (one to two years) for non-EU

immigrants. Their distribution between the cantons has been revised; the Confederation also reserves the right to award higher quotas to those cantons which need them. High standards of qualifications for cross-border service providers (in construction, horticulture, domestic and industrial cleaning, security) will be maintained and also for workers with residence permits of less than four months. Korea, too, has relaxed its work permit rules for foreign workers by giving them more opportunity to extend their stay.

The settlement countries have been reviewing their policies towards low skilled workers. In 2006-7 Canada announced a number of improvements to the Temporary Foreign Workers Programme. They included extending the maximum duration of the work permit for those with less formal training from one to two years, and for live-in caregivers from one to three years. Since mid 2006, working holidaymakers in Australia, who form a large element of the country's temporary migrants in low-skilled jobs, can now study or train for up to four months (previously three) and work for up to six months (previously three) for one employer. A new Recognised Seasonal Employer policy was introduced in New Zealand in 2007 to meet the needs of horticulture and viticulture. After resident workers, Pacific Islanders are prioritised.

Emigration and return of migrants

Emigration and return migration are an issue that particularly affects sending countries. Changes related to this have been notably reported in the new EU member countries, although strategies vary significantly. For example, the Bulgarian government continues to support emigration of its citizens and is trying to encourage other countries to open their borders to them. In contrast, Lithuania has adopted a strategy, for which the Ministry of Social Security and Labour has prime responsibility, which aims to increase the activity rate of the workforce and to achieve zero net migration. It has sought to encourage economic migrants to return to Lithuania, by facilitating close contacts with Lithuanians living abroad and increasing co-operation with all institutions involved in migration.

In a similar vein, in 2006 the Portuguese government removed the special financial benefits, such as special interest rates and tax exemptions, given to Portuguese emigrants.

Labour markets and EU enlargement

Accommodating their labour markets to the enlarged EU has led to varying responses, with Bulgaria and Romania coming under particular scrutiny. The United Kingdom has delayed the introduction of its low-skilled Tier 3 in the new Points-Based System, for the moment allowing vacancies to be filled only by nationals of those two countries. Ireland has followed a similar track to that of the United Kingdom. It, too, opened its labour market to the new member countries in May 2004 and its new policy reforms have the aim of meeting most labour needs from within the enlarged EU with relatively small numbers of very highly skilled coming as work permit holders in the future.

Belgium and Luxembourg have put Bulgarians and Romanians on the same footing as those from the A8: they must have a work permit but can benefit from the faster processing to gain a permit for occupations where there is a shortage. The provisional measures taken in May 2006 governing the issuing of work permits in Luxembourg for A8 citizens have been extended for another three years and since January 2007 include those workers coming in from Bulgaria and Romania. Switzerland has decided that labour market restrictions imposed on A8 citizens prior to May 2004 will still apply to salaried workers (*i.e.* preference for some nationalities, controls on earnings, jobs and quotas). Hungary decided

that its reciprocity measures *vis-à-vis* EU member countries should also be applied to Romania and Bulgaria. Italy and Spain have imposed nominal registration requirements.

Other labour policy areas

Three other sets of measures relate to the rules on entry of entrepreneurs, migration agents and the treatment of au pairs.

New legislation in Germany has made it easier for the self-employed to set up business: their ventures can have a lower investment amount than hitherto and the number of jobs that need to be created has been reduced. In the United Kingdom the old investors category has been incorporated within Tier 1 of the new Points-Based System. A new Active Investor Migrant Policy came into effect in New Zealand in November 2007. It is sub-divided into three categories based on the level of investment and the assessed level of risk and, as in the United Kingdom, will operate through a points system.

Measures designed to increase the professionalism of migration agents have been adopted by both Australia and New Zealand. Australia has introduced a new entry level course which is now prescribed for those wanting to become agents. New Zealand passed an Immigration Advisers Licensing Act in 2007 in order to make the provision of advice a licensed, recognised profession. The Act establishes an Immigration Advisers Authority to administer the licensing process which will come into operation during 2008 with licensing mandatory from 2009.

Two countries have introduced new measures relating to au pairs. In both Norway and Denmark conditions for granting them permits have been tightened in order to prevent abuse.

7. Integration, residence and citizenship policies

During the period under review a majority of OECD countries have introduced new measures relating to entry and entitlement to residence permits and/or to promote integration. Two themes dominate: the linking of residence and work permits and a general trend towards measures designed to promote faster economic and social integration.

Closely linked with this, the route to permanent residence and citizenship, as well as the conditions under which it is granted, has become a major political issue in a number of OECD countries. There are complex reasons for this. In some cases security concerns underlie a perceived need for immigrants to show commitment to the rights and privileges associated with the citizenship of their adopted country. Several countries have introduced measures to strengthen the immigrants' links and loyalty to the host society. In other cases, citizenship ceremonies and language tests have become a reaction to what some see as the perceived failures of multiculturalism. More pragmatically, in some countries success in integration is measured by the extent to which incoming communities naturalise. On the whole, countries have moved towards making it more difficult for immigrants to naturalise.

Entry and residence permits

For the most part new legislation or rules adopted by OECD countries have relaxed conditions under which residence permits are issued for labour migrants, whereas entry conditions for family migrants have been tightened. In some cases legislation relating to

entry and residence is part of a much more comprehensive package. Germany's new Immigration Act, for example, brings together in one legislative package a number of existing ordinances relating to rights of residence and employment. It creates the legal basis for justifying a right of residence for employment purposes and through a "one-stop shop" a work and residence permit will be issued together. Third country nationals in Germany who have lived there for five years can be granted permanent residence and can take any paid employment.

The Irish government's proposals are also wide ranging and comprehensive. The Employment, Residence and Protection Bill (2008) proposes to reform systems for dealing with a broad range of matters relating to immigration, residence and removal from the state. Provisions relate to: visas; entry into Ireland; residence permits and the rights that go with them; detention and removal; marriages involving foreign nationals; judicial review of decisions; a reformed system of dealing with asylum applications.

Among other countries which have tightened their rules with respect to entry and residence are France and Belgium. The conditions governing benefits for foreigners resident in France who wish to have their families join them have been tightened. In Belgium, foreigners wishing to marry a non-EU national now have to be aged at least 21 instead of 18 and there are checks to ensure that over a three-year period spouses are actually living together. Greece has combined its work and residence permits into a single residence permit which allows labour market access. The rules which govern the granting of a residence permit for purposes of study are now similar to those governing family reunification. Finland has redefined its residence permit rules to include the right to work and study. In Hungary the upper limit for the duration of a residence permit is now five years. A relaxation of residence permit rules is occurring. In Italy, the process of obtaining a permit has been changed. At the end of 2006 the Italian government established a new procedure for granting and renewing residence permits through the network of post offices so it is no longer necessary to go to an immigration office. This was further modified as the application procedure moved onto the Internet in late 2007, eliminating the large queues at post offices. A Decree in 2007 also simplified procedures for business people and tourists who no longer have to obtain a residence permit for stays of less than three months, a requirement that was in any event largely ignored.

Japan and Korea have both modified their policies. In the former, new guidelines in 2006 relaxed conditions associated with "a contribution to Japanese society" making it easier to obtain permits. In an effort to eliminate overstay, a new measure in Korea will mean that foreign workers who do not break laws and acquire minimum level skill qualifications will be given a residence permit. In New Zealand, from July 2007 the cap on the number of residence places for overseas partners and dependent children of New Zealand citizens was lifted.

Social integration

Achieving better social integration is an ongoing objective in all OECD countries and it is no surprise that many of them have introduced new measures in this area. Constraints on immigrants are tending to be relaxed, immigrant groups are better targeted by policies and there is a growing tendency for more coherence in service provision between different levels of government.

Switzerland's new legislation, coming into effect at the beginning of 2008, is designed to improve the situation of foreigners resident in Switzerland legally and will relax some of the constraints on them particularly when changing occupation, job position, canton or when family reunification is involved. If integration has been successful after five years (instead of ten as previously), a settlement permit will be granted. Family unification where there are children of less than 12 months will be speeded up to enable faster integration. The right to remain will be upheld in the event of separation or divorce provided integration has been successful.

In several countries integration policy involves partnerships at different levels of government. In both Switzerland and Austria improved integration is a joint project of federal and regional governments; in Italy and Canada the central government is working with municipalities. The Swiss view is that integration should be improved by co-operation between the Confederation, the cantons and the communes. Priorities are: courses for special training and for language learning for both foreigners in the labour market and for refugees; promotion of coexistence in the communes; and developing skills centres. In Austria, although responsibility remains with the regional authorities for the most part, in 2007 the government set up a central "integration platform" to co-ordinate efforts in integration policy. In the same year, Germany held its second national integration summit, a key outcome of which was greater flexibility in the provision of integration courses. In Italy, a new financial law in 2006 created a new fund for municipalities to finance initiatives aimed at the social inclusion of migrants and their families. Canada in 2006 made new funding available to large urban centres to support integration measures and a long-term plan was launched towards attracting, integrating and retaining French-speaking immigrants in communities across Canada.

Partnership in integration policy is also a characteristic of the Danish approach. A new multiparty welfare agreement in 2006 aims to improve employment for immigrants and their descendants, using wage subsidies, measures to increase activity rates, partnerships between the central government, the social partners and municipalities, and more job advisors. Subsidies to local authorities from 2008 are designed to incite them to increase their integration efforts.

Often, particular immigrant groups are directly or indirectly targeted. This tends to focus on children of immigrants and on women. For example, in 2007 the Danish Ministry for Integration initiated an integration programme for immigrant women designed to increase their employment opportunities and further the integration of their children. Luxembourg has also targeted immigrant children by preparing them alongside *Letzeburgisch* for the international *baccalauréat* as a step towards social integration.

Encouraging integration in labour markets

A perennial problem in OECD countries is the exclusion, or insufficient inclusion, of immigrants and their children in labour markets. This is an ongoing area of policy in most countries where reducing unemployment levels and increasing participation rates are essential if social inclusion is to be achieved. More often than not, improving qualifications and language skills are seen as essential. In some countries, governments are relying on measures to improve training programmes and the efficiency of labour markets more generally; in others special measures are focused on immigrants.

Germany and Sweden have adopted the former approach. The priority in Germany is to improve the qualifications and activity rates of all those outside the labour market, rather than bringing in new migrants to fill gaps and shortages. Such groups include women, older persons and persons of a migration background who are already living in Germany. Vocational training, counselling and skills evaluation are part of the integration strategy. Sweden too has adopted a holistic approach to the integration of disadvantaged groups into the labour market, although there is a strong focus on the particular difficulties faced by immigrants. The government's proposals for a new system for labour immigration include a broad package of reform. It will become easier to start and run a business; language instruction and mentoring will help immigrants into jobs; there will be training initiatives for young people; and special job packages for the long-term unemployed among whom immigrants are over-represented. Specific initiatives include the subsidisation of payroll costs for persons excluded from the labour market, aimed particularly at persons above the age of 55 and young people.

A white paper was presented in Norway in April 2008, discussing future labour needs and proposing appropriate policy measures for the entry and stay of labour migrants. Concern about the degree of responsibility exercised by employers has prompted an action plan against "social dumping" designed to protect wage levels and working standards. The plan includes better inspection of employers, responsibility of contractors to ensure that sub-contractors pay legal rates and introduction of ID cards for construction workers.

In other countries better labour market integration is promoted as the key to better relations between immigrants and non-immigrants. In Finland, the relationship between work and residence permits is being changed to allow working rights to be included in most residence permits (with the exception of work in certain sensitive fields).

The role of language testing

A particularly important aspect of integration policy consists of measures to improve migrants' ability to speak the language of the host country. Much migration research has demonstrated that this is the most important factor in successful integration into society and the labour market. This is reflected in the allocation of points to language ability in all countries operating points-based systems (Box I.9).

It is not surprising, therefore, that language training is in the suite of policies adopted by countries to improve both social and labour market integration. In Sweden, for example, a broad package of reform contains measures to promote language instruction and mentoring to help immigrants into jobs. A new scheme, "Step-in jobs", introduced in July 2007 offers new arrivals the opportunity to combine language training with part-time employment and is intended for asylum-seekers and their dependents. For Switzerland, the priorities in integration policy are courses for special training and language learning for refugees and foreigners in the labour market, helping to promote coexistence in the communes, opening up institutions and developing skills centres. In Finland too, increased language instruction is to be provided in order to promote integration.

Passing a language test is or is to become compulsory for those migrants wanting a long-term stay in an increasing number of countries. In Germany, the priorities and main tasks of the Federal Government's integration policy are to promote occupational integration and the teaching of the German language. From August 2007 a new ordinance provides more flexibility in teaching as well as more targeting on young people and those

who are illiterate. Participation in these courses is generally compulsory for those lacking a basic knowledge of German. The more stringent family reunion requirements in Germany now include passing a language test. An amendment to the Aliens Residence Act in the Czech Republic has introduced the need to prove knowledge of the Czech language as a necessary precondition for permanent residence, while in the Slovak Republic the language test prior to citizenship is to become more rigorous. In Denmark, since 2006 refugees and other immigrants applying for permanent residence must sign an integration contract which includes a commitment to pass a language test. Spousal reunion will only be allowed if the resident immigrant has passed an immigration test in Danish language skills and knowledge of Danish society. Foreigners aged 16-64, wishing to come to France for purposes of family reunion, must take a test in their country of residence for proficiency in French and understanding of French values; if they fail they must undergo a course of instruction and retake the test. The test also applies to foreigners married to a French citizen when they apply to stay for longer than three months.

Citizenship and civic integration policy

During 2006-07, some governments took the opportunity to clarify their naturalisation laws, especially in relation to children. Furthermore, debates in national media about what it means to be a citizen have tended to polarise opinion while at the same time encouraged governments to look hard at how to treat those who come to settle. Turning denizens into citizens has become an important element of policy.

Policies towards citizenship have taken a number of forms, sometimes within the broader context of civic integration strategies, often involving some form of test. The Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Australia, United Kingdom, Austria, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Lithuania have all taken steps in this direction.

Since 1998, the Netherlands has a system of civic integration programmes; including compulsory language courses for newly arrived immigrants. In March 2006, this system was complemented by the Civic Integration Abroad Act, by which foreign nationals between the ages of 16 and 65 coming to the Netherlands for marriage or family reunification as well as to reside here as a spiritual leader or religious teacher, must sit a civic integration test prior to entering the Netherlands. The exam is taken orally, in Dutch and consists of two parts. In Part 1, knowledge of Dutch society is tested, including Dutch geography, history, political organisation, parenting and education and the Dutch health system. Part 2 tests knowledge of the Dutch language. Only when they pass this civic integration exam, are migrants eligible for a provisional residence permit necessary to enter the Netherlands.

The significance of national identity lies behind legal changes in Poland. In September 2007 a new Act defined what it means to belong to the Polish nation and applies to those of Polish origin living in the former USSR. Applicants need proof that at least one parent or grandparent or two great grandparents were Polish. They must also have some knowledge of the Polish language and cultural traditions. Those who meet these requirements are entitled to a residence visa and can take up employment on the same basis as Polish nationals.

In several cases, governments have brought in new and comprehensive citizenship Acts. Examples include Norway and Australia. A new Nationality Act came into force in Norway in 2006 and contains an extensive list of conditions for Norwegian citizenship.

Applicants are generally not allowed dual nationality, have to have lived in Norway for seven years and must have language skills. At the age of 12 a child of foreign parents can apply for Norwegian nationality without the consent of the parents.

The Australian Citizenship Act came into effect in July 2007, replacing a 1947 Act. The duration of lawful residence in Australia required prior to an application for naturalisation, was increased from two to four years, including one year of permanent residence. Other conditions concern security issues; strengthened revocation provisions in the event of criminality; new provisions for children; and removal of age limits for registration of citizenship by descent. There is also now a citizenship test which includes English language and knowledge of Australia and of the responsibilities and privileges of Australian citizenship. Most permanent residents applying for naturalisation will be required to pass the test.

In its latest (2008) pronouncement on citizenship, the United Kingdom government is proposing a fundamental overhaul of the system for acquiring British citizenship. It consists of a three stage route to citizenship, including a new probationary period of citizenship, requiring new migrants to demonstrate their contribution to the United Kingdom at every stage or leave the country. Full access to benefits is being delayed until migrants have completed the probationary period. Migrants have to improve their command of English to pass probation. Persons committing an offence resulting in prison are barred from becoming a citizen. Those committing minor offences will have a longer probationary period of citizenship. Migrants who contribute to a new community fund for managing the transitional impacts of migration or who get involved in their communities through volunteering are able to acquire British citizenship more quickly. The proposals have opened up a vigorous debate.

Elsewhere acquiring the nationality of the host country has been made more difficult. The reformed Alien Law in Austria, which came into effect in 2006, introduced barriers to family reunion and formation by requiring the sponsoring partner in Austria to have a regular income at or above the minimum wage. It also made it harder to gain Austrian citizenship. The Slovak Republic amended its Act on Citizenship during 2007 to allow closer screening of applicants as well as other changes in the rules. Waiting periods have been increased, from five to eight years for a foreigner residing in the Slovak Republic and from three to five years for a foreigner married to a Slovak citizen.

In contrast to the developments in other countries which tended to make access to citizenship more difficult, a new regulatory framework for facilitating the access to Portuguese nationality by the children of foreign parents came into force at the end of 2006. If both parents are born abroad, their child can obtain Portuguese nationality either at birth or later, provided the parent has lived in Portugal for five years. Attendance of basic schooling in Portugal or having lived in Portugal for ten years when the age of 18 is reached can facilitate naturalisation.

In Lithuania, citizenship policy has taken on an element of selection. The amended (in 2006) Law on Citizenship now allows Lithuanian citizenship to be granted to foreign nationals who are regarded as of merit and whose naturalisation is in the public interest. Such people do not have to meet the same requirements as do others. More restrictively, a decision by the constitutional court in late 2006 meant that dual citizenship is now granted only in exceptional cases whereas formerly it was freely available.

Citizenship ceremonies

Citizenship ceremonies are not new and have been common practice in New World OECD countries but rare in Europe. This is changing. The Dutch in 2006 brought in a national "naturalisation day" to give the reception of Dutch citizenship a more ceremonial character and to emphasise the importance of obtaining Dutch citizenship. Participation in the naturalisation ceremony is compulsory. Citizenship ceremonies are also being introduced on a broader basis in other countries, for example in Germany, but are generally not compulsory.

8. Developments in humanitarian policies

About half of OECD countries have introduced new measures to deal with asylum issues. A majority relate to changes of procedures but measures dealing with the conditions under which asylum seekers are allowed to stay and integrate into labour markets are also important. Other issues tackled relate to returns to countries of origin, conformity to EU legislation and the treatment of children.

Changes in procedures

Changes in procedures introduced by governments are mainly designed to simplify and speed up the asylum decision process, although a range of other issues are involved. These include changing the balance of responsibility in federal states, dealing with backlogs and modifying appeals procedures.

Belgium, France, Switzerland and Ireland have sought to speed up the process, although in different ways. In Belgium only one step (rather than two) is now involved and it is estimated that the complete asylum procedure will take one year maximum. New legislation in France implies that since mid-2007, rejected asylum applicants may not remain in official reception centres for more than one month; in some cases their stay may be longer than one month until alternative accommodation is found (*e.g.* a hotel); their rights to social services cease after one month, unless their medical condition requires urgent care.

Substantial revisions to the 1999 asylum law have introduced new conditions that will come into effect in stages during 2007 and 2008 in Switzerland. The principal changes are that appeals may be lodged in registration centres and at airports; a new admission status providing for provisional stay was created; and new models for financing the stay and support of asylees were developed. As a result, the policy of refusing entry on the grounds of insufficient documentation has been revised to encourage asylum seekers to retain all their documentation; entry will be granted where the absence of papers can be explained, the quality of the asylum seeker is obvious and where there is the possibility of further investigation. To help this, the maximum period of detention prior to deportation has been extended from nine to 18 months – and for 15 to 18 year olds to 12 months. Financial support for repatriations will be improved except for EU citizens who may not benefit (from May 2007). In contrast, those awaiting deportation are not entitled to social benefits. There has also been a shift in the balance of responsibility between the cantons and the federal government. Cantons may issue a residence permit if an asylum seeker has been living in Switzerland for five years from the time of the original request and if there is evidence of integration – cantons have the opportunity to regularise some outstanding cases. There will be a new system of financing between cantons and the confederation regarding social

benefits to refugees – cantons will be compensated by the confederation and there will be a flat rate for recognised refugees and those with a temporary residence permit. The confederation will develop a programme for repatriation, chiefly financial aid and incentives. From 2008, asylum procedures will be simplified and speeded up – cases will be reviewed at Federal level instead of by the individual cantons as at present.

The Irish Employment, Residence and Protection Bill of 2008 proposes a reformed system of dealing with asylum applications as part of its overall review of immigration law. It should result in a simplified procedure. Proposed changes include a shift to a single determination procedure meaning that all protection claims, including claims for both asylum and subsidiary protection, would be examined under a similar procedure. Applicants would be obliged to set out all grounds on which they wish to remain in the State (including non-protection-related reasons for permission to remain) at the outset of their claim, and all of these matters would be examined together. The Bill also proposes the establishment of a Protection Review Tribunal, replacing the Refugee Appeals Tribunal.

In Norway, as in Ireland, new legislation adopts a broader refugee concept, going beyond the 1951 Convention to include those deemed worthy of subsidiary protection status. The right of family reunion for refugees is strengthened. While at present those who are eligible for subsidiary protection must be able to support their family economically this will no longer be the case when refugee status is conferred. However, the rules regarding subsistence requirements will be tightened. Minor procedural changes were also made in Finland where the Act on Integration of Immigrants and Reception of Asylum seekers, amended in 2006, clarified responsibilities among authorities. This was supplemented in the same year to provide services for the victims of trafficking. Finally, in New Zealand, a new policy was implemented in July 2007 to allow refugees to sponsor family members.

Procedural changes in Sweden relate to the appeals system. In spring 2006 migration courts replaced the Aliens Appeals Board, moving appeals from an administrative to a judicial process. With the new procedures, the grounds on which a residence permit is granted or rejected were clarified. If the Migration Board rejects an appeal, the Board and the asylum-seeker meet together in the Migration Court – previously the appellant would not have been there. Hence the system is made more transparent. Further changes were that the new Aliens Act extends the concept of refugee to include those in fear of persecution because of their gender or sexual orientation. In addition, from mid-2006 municipalities assumed responsibility for accommodating unaccompanied asylum-seeking children.

In Lithuania and Denmark, for example, the policy focus has been on return. In the former in 2006 the Ministries of Interior and Social Security signed an agreement with the European Social Fund for money to increase the efficiency of asylum procedures and to improve conditions for asylum seekers. Projects focused on voluntary returns and reintegration assistance. Denmark amended its Aliens Act in 2006, introducing new rules concerning the education and activity of rejected adult asylum seekers. The measures aim to prepare such people for return to their countries of origin. Following this, in June 2007 a further amendment introduced a new contract scheme for rejected asylum seekers who agree to voluntarily return. It allows certain groups of these to benefit from six to nine months of education and training in Denmark prior to return. At first the scheme will only apply to Iraqis but if successful, it may be extended to other nationalities.

Changes in procedure in Bulgaria and Romania are mainly a response to EU membership. In 2006 the refugee law in the former was amended to allow participation in the EU fund supporting integration and protection measures, thus providing more resources for refugees. In 2007 the Law on Asylum Seekers and Refugees was amended to harmonise the Bulgarian legal framework with EU requirements on matters such as dealing with asylum applications, minimum standards for temporary protection and family reunion. In the summer of 2006 a new ordinance in Romania, dealing with the legal provisions necessary for joining the EU, included measures to harmonise the treatment of asylum seekers with EU norms.

Entitlements and conditions for asylum seekers

Issues here mainly relate to access to labour markets. Switzerland, Sweden, Germany, and the Slovak and Czech Republics have adopted policies extending access, in Belgium the reverse is the case.

As part of its major review, Belgium has changed the conditions under which asylum seekers may live while their cases are being considered. They may no longer benefit from a temporary work permit; they will not get financial aid but will still get material support while their case is being examined (shelter in a detention centre, food, clothing, medical care, social psychological and legal aid and some pocket money).

Swiss revisions to its asylum law also include changes to access to the labour market for asylum seekers but in the opposite direction. Access to the labour market has been improved for provisionally admitted persons; family reunification can take place after three years and after five years there is the possibility of a permanent residence permit. Sweden has also taken steps to improve labour market access. From January 2007, municipalities were given additional funding to facilitate the entry of refugees into the labour market.

Under new German legislation, refugees who are entitled to asylum according to the Geneva Convention are also entitled to a residence permit giving access to the labour market. Other groups, with a lesser asylum status and with a residence permit are granted only secondary access to the labour market.

Some of the eastern European countries have been changing their asylum policies, mainly to bring them into line with EU norms. In the Slovak Republic, amendments to labour legislation allow work permits to refugees and those whose cases are still being considered and those granted asylum are entitled to an enhanced social benefit. An amendment to the Asylum Act introduces the notion of supplementary protection for those not granted asylum but who are in need of humanitarian protection from unjust treatment in their own countries. The protection extends to spouses and children, is for a period of one year and is renewable. In the Czech Republic, the law was also changed to allow refugees to take up employment without a resident labour market test.

9. International students

In recent years there has been a growing awareness of the role played by the international migration of students in the global mobility system. Until the early 1990s, the prevailing paradigm was “education for aid”. Student mobility was predominantly from poorer (usually former colonies) to richer (colonial power). It was characterised by a generally philanthropic (some might say paternalistic) approach, associated with low fees

for overseas students. Over the past fifteen years, "education for trade" evolved as the prevailing paradigm. International students were seen as cash cows for educational institutions, reducing the need for state funding. Fees were increased and immigration rules amended to allow them to work while studying. They were seen as contributors to the economy instead of requiring subsidisation. Postgraduates especially were seen as new knowledge creators who could contribute to economic growth either directly or indirectly. International student policy has now become a tool in the international competition for high level skills.

International students and the labour market: Post study

A large number of OECD countries have relaxed their regulations on international students, allowing them to stay on and look for or take up work. In 2006 the Netherlands took steps to enlarge the residence opportunities for international students after graduating there. The Dutch government now proposes to give foreign students the opportunity to stay in the Netherlands and to seek work for up to three months after graduation. If they do not find work as highly skilled migrants within that time, they must still leave the Netherlands. They can only receive a residence permit allowing them to work if they find highly skilled employment. International students graduating from Austrian universities may now change their status to become permanent residents as highly skilled workers.

From late 2007, employers wishing to take on foreign graduates from German universities are exempt from a resident labour market test if their employment corresponds to their studies. In general, it has become easier for foreign researchers and students to enter, stay and obtain employment.

Policy towards international students and the labour market is undergoing fundamental change in the United Kingdom. In May 2007 the International Graduate Scheme (IGS) was launched to replace the more limited Science and Engineering Graduate Scheme (SEGS). This is a precursor to the Tier 1 Post-Study category, and is a response to the drive in a number of countries to compete for the retention of growing numbers of international students. The IGS enables all non-EEA students who have successfully completed their degree (regardless of discipline) at an approved higher education institution in the United Kingdom to remain in the country for up to 12 months and compete for work. The future Post-Study category is likely to extend this period to two years, bringing it into line with the Fresh Talent Working in Scotland Scheme (FTWSS), and to restrict access to international graduates with at least a lower second class (2.2) degree.

Ireland has moved in the same direction. In April 2007 the Third Level Graduate Scheme was implemented, allowing non-EEA graduates from Irish universities to remain in Ireland for six months after graduation to find employment and apply for a work permit or green card. During the six month period they are allowed to work. The "six-month" rule also applies in Finland where one of the aims of the Migration Policy Programme is to encourage the immigration of students and researchers. An amendment to the Aliens Act in 2006 was designed to make it easier for non-EEA students to enter the Finnish labour market. Such graduates can now obtain a work permit to search for a job for up to six months and a residence permit for job search for ten months.

In France, new legislation in 2006 was designed to encourage master's graduates of the highest ability to stay on and find employment. Such targeting of particular types of skill is seen in the policy measures of other countries. A government committee in Sweden has proposed that it should be made easier for foreign students who have found a job in Sweden to stay in the country and work after finishing their studies. Encouraging them to stay is also policy in the Slovak Republic where international students and researchers are now allowed to stay for up to 90 days without a temporary residence permit.

In Canada, international students are seen to have a role in spreading the benefits of immigration to more of Canada's regions as well as helping Canada maintain its competitive edge in attracting international students. In collaboration with provinces and territories, the Post-Graduation Work Permit Programme was significantly changed in 2008 by extending work permits to up to three years for international students who have graduated from public tertiary and certain private institutions.

In other countries, changes in regulations relating to international students are making it easier for them to obtain permanent residence permits. In the Czech Republic, in 2006 the Alien Residence Act was amended to encompass various EU Directives including one relating to the status of students. Other amendments relate to easier entry for researchers.

International students and the labour market: During study

Most countries which have introduced legislation or rule changes have also moved in the direction of encouraging international students to enter their labour markets during the time they are studying. International students in France wishing to work while studying do not need work authorisation provided employment does not exceed 60% of their time in any one year. Norway has also made it easier for international students to access the labour market during their studies. A change in legislation in 2006-07 allows students a general part-time (20 hours per week) work permit – an offer of employment is no longer a prerequisite. Further measures, facilitating the transition to work after completing education are being considered. In mid-2007 Australia made changes to its national code dealing with students. These related to welfare for those aged under 18. Course providers are now required to specify course progress policies and to implement early intervention policies to help students at risk of failing. They are also required to monitor attendance. From April 2008 international students in Australia are given work rights when granted their initial student visa, with the proviso that neither they nor their dependents can undertake work until they have commenced their course of study.

Elsewhere, international students have been put on a par with domestic students. In Finland they have the same right to work as Finnish students while studying, although they must have their own health insurance. Plans are to make it easier for them to stay in Finland and become citizens.

Luxembourg, too, has changed its procedures for international students. A working group drawn from higher education, the work permit service of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Employment has augmented the administrative procedure governing the issue of work permits to students from third countries taking paid employment while still studying and which came into force at the beginning of the new academic year in 2007. The conditions are: the student must be a registered second year student in the University of Luxembourg leading to a bachelor degree; first-year students

may qualify for a work permit if their paid employment is within the University; Master and doctoral students may qualify for a permit from their first year; the permit is renewable if the student re-registers in the University; the permit may be withdrawn if the student does not attend the course satisfactorily or abuses the terms of permit issue. The permit will be issued for paid employment not exceeding 10 hours per week during session up to the end of June – after that date a permit may be issued for more than 10 hours of paid employment per week during the long vacation.

The new points-based system in United Kingdom for the first time places international student entry into the same regime as many other immigrants. International students will be covered by Tier 4 of the Points-Based System and will need to be sponsored by an educational institution that has a sponsor licence from the Border and Immigration Agency. A certificate of sponsorship may only be issued under Tier 4 if the sponsor is satisfied that the migrant both intends and is able to follow the course of study concerned. Tier 4 will commence in 2009. Under Tier 4 (students) an accreditation regime has been established to ensure that only bona-fide institutions are able to act as sponsors.

10. Conclusion

OECD countries appear to be moving in a similar direction with respect to policy trends. But not all countries are moving at the same rate. Even in Europe where the European Union has a certain influence on national legislation and practices, national differences, experiences and perceptions as well as the political landscape affect the nature of policies that have and can be implemented.

Overall, the trend seems to be moving towards a demand-led set of policies, characterised by the selection of immigrants and with the rights and responsibilities of migrants more clearly laid out. Countries still have to respond to supply-side generated flows, notably with respect to asylum, low-skilled immigration, irregular migration and, to some extent, family reunion and formation, but there is now a much stronger focus on proactive rather than reactive management of migration.

In the European countries, many policy changes were influenced by EU directives relating particularly to free movement and humanitarian issues. Enlargement of the European Union has demanded responses from existing and from new members, and also from non-EU members such as Norway and Switzerland. The consequence has been a plethora of amendments to national legislations. Many countries, (Germany, Poland and Portugal are examples) have used this opportunity to introduce more comprehensive changes in immigration legislation; others, like Belgium and Norway, have made less comprehensive changes. Most existing EU members are coming to the end of the transition periods before full freedom of movement for the 2004 accession countries. However, several countries such as Germany and Austria have extended them – albeit generally with a range of occupations being exempted from the transition arrangements. With the exception of Finland, Bulgaria and Romania have not been granted free labour market entry by the EU15 countries, although some, such as Italy and Spain, have imposed only nominal procedures.

Institutional changes have been central to migration management and policy delivery in several countries. These have involved combining responsibilities for immigration matters into newly created separate ministries or ministerial branches. Major shifts in this direction have occurred in Hungary, Romania and the United Kingdom, to a lesser extent in

Finland, Norway and Portugal. Elsewhere, the devolution of some elements of policy to regional and local authorities has led to new divisions of responsibility between the different levels of government: examples include Australia, Austria, Canada and Switzerland.

Many countries have sought to divert irregular flows into regular channels as part of a twofold strategy to open borders to legitimate (and generally selected) migrants while closing them to those entering or staying illegally. The Mediterranean countries have been particularly active in this, often with the help of bilateral agreements with sending and transit countries. In North America both the United States and Mexico are vigorously pursuing policies to close up their southern borders. Several countries, including Bulgaria, Norway, Romania, the Slovak Republic and Turkey have taken steps to protect the victims of trafficking by allowing them to stay temporarily and giving the authorities the chance to obtain evidence against the traffickers.

The management of labour migration is the single biggest topic of policy change. The tide is flowing very much towards measures that attract highly skilled labour that will increase global economic success. Particularly competitive are the traditional settlement countries, especially Australia and New Zealand, along with a growing group of European countries, notably Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Others are not far behind, including several eastern European countries, notably the Czech Republic and Poland. The Asian countries, Korea and Japan, have remained generally aloof from this competition. Growing attention is also being paid to foreign graduates of domestic universities who are seen as potential settled immigrants (Australia, Canada, New Zealand) or highly skilled recruits into domestic labour markets (Austria, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Ireland, Netherlands, United Kingdom). At the other end of the occupational spectrum, shortages of some low-skilled workers are acknowledged and responses have varied. For example, Australia has adapted its working holiday makers scheme to fulfil the role, whereas the United Kingdom will rely on Bulgarians and Romanians.

Integration policies are being strengthened, particularly through a more transparent approach to residence permits which are increasingly being combined with work permits (Finland, France, Greece, Hungary). In some cases immigrant minorities are the main focus of integration policies but Germany and Sweden, for example, have introduced policies for social inclusion that embrace all in society who are marginal, not just immigrants. Overall, all countries are seeking faster integration both economically and socially. As part of this process, countries are increasingly requiring citizenship tests on such matters as the history, geography and culture of the host country as a condition for being granted a residence permit (Netherlands) or obtaining citizenship (Australia, United Kingdom). Language tests are increasingly common both to enter and stay. In the traditional settlement countries such tests are long established, but they are now required in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. Language instruction for immigrants is now strenghtened in several other countries, including Sweden and Switzerland.

Although not the focus of policy development that it was in the early years of the millennium, asylum policy changes continue in most countries. They tend to take the form of procedural changes rather than wholesale reviews of policy although Belgium, Ireland and Switzerland have introduced major new asylum legislation. The thrust of policy

development is twofold: towards reducing inflows of asylum seekers while taking steps to integrate better those accepted. Hence, most countries that have introduced new measures have done so to speed up the determination process and to promote the return of those rejected (for example, Belgium, Denmark, France and Lithuania). For those accepted, the trend is to make access to the labour market easier (Czech Republic, Germany, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland).

Succinctly, the main policy trends in OECD countries might be usefully summarised as follows:

- The introduction of new administrative structures to better manage migration.
- In Europe, the adaptation of national legislation to EU standards.
- A general tendency towards promoting labour migration.
- The development of policies and practices to speed up the integration of immigrants.

Notes

1. The countries in Table I.1 have been divided into two groups, those for which the data can be standardised on the basis of a common definition (top part), and those for which they cannot (bottom part). The statistics of countries in the bottom part of the table may contain many short-term movements. For the purposes of the discussion, it has been assumed for the countries in the bottom half of the table, based on what is observed for other countries, that 70% of the movements overall are permanent-type. See Box I.1 for further information on international comparability.
2. Ireland has only joined this group in recent years.
3. This was generally done by applying the estimated participation rate for this group (obtained from the Labour Force Survey) to a total population figure for the group.
4. This is estimated from the International Passenger Survey, a border-crossing sample survey administered at airports and seaports. Long-term migrants are persons who declare themselves as entering the United Kingdom with the intention of staying for more than one year, adjusted to take into account those whose intentions change.
5. See *www.interno.it/mininterno/export/sites/default/it/assets/files/14/0900_rapporto_criminalita.pdf*, Table IX.6.
6. Data on international students for a significant number of OECD countries exist only since 2004.
7. There are no current figures for Greece, but the scale of the flows since the last census in the year 2000 suggests that the immigrant share of the total population is well over 10%.
8. It was also assumed that over a five-year period, a net 5% of all immigrants having entered during the previous five-year period have entered (left) the working-age population, because they have turned 15 or 65, respectively. The projection also assumes zero mortality for persons in or moving into the working-age population.
9. Germany, Japan, Korea and the Netherlands could not be included in this analysis because the data by country of origin for these countries was too limited, either because of sample size problems (Germany and the Netherlands) or because the population census identified only a small number of countries of origin (Japan and Korea).
10. The adjustment is necessarily restricted to countries of origin represented in the immigrant population of each destination country. For this exercise, the countries of origin varied in number from 138 (the Slovak Republic) to 210 (the United States).
11. Individual charts by country showing the educational attainment percentages for each level and age group can be found in the annex.
12. The EU15, excluding Germany and Italy, for which it is not possible to reconstruct a complete series for the entire period from European workforce survey data.
13. The figure for Italy represents only the period 2001-06, for which comparable data are available.

14. In Portugal's case, total employment stagnated between 2002 and 2006 (with in fact a slight decline between 2002 and 2003) while at the same time immigrant employment rose by more than 70 000 persons. A portion of this increase may however be attributable to the employment survey's improved coverage of the immigrant population.

15. In the United Kingdom, the employment survey shows that immigrant employment rose by 713 000 persons between 2002 and 2006 (326 000 between 2005 and 2006), while native-born employment fell by 89 000 over the same period (191 000 between 2005 and 2006).

16. Labour market access for immigrants has also deteriorated slightly in Luxembourg, but the changes are minor and the employment indicators are still very good.

17. A notable exception is Adsera and Chiswick (2007) who use pooled data from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP). However, the ECHP – as its successor, the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions – has a number of disadvantages that hamper its use for analyses regarding immigrants (see Box I.6). A few empirical studies are available that compare wage gaps across a limited range of OECD countries, such as Aydemir and Sweetman (2006) on Canada and the US; and Basilio *et al.* (2007) on Canada, Germany and the United States.

18. Other factors such as different reservation wages for immigrants may also be at play.

19. This is assuming that higher education in the host country ensures good language mastery, which is not necessarily the case (see Birrell *et al.*, 2006).

20. Evidence from a number of OECD countries (*e.g.* Bevelander and Veenman, 2006) suggests that this wage premium is particularly strong for immigrants from non-OECD countries, after accounting for a broad range of socio-demographic characteristics.

21. This Subsection C was drafted by John Salt of the University College London and national SOPEMI Correspondent for the United Kingdom. It benefited as well from a contribution by Philippe de Bruycker, Free University of Brussels, in particular for Box I.8 on developments in European migration policy.

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PART II

Management of Low-Skilled Labour Migration*

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Introduction

Government policy with respect to managed migration has concentrated on attracting high-skilled workers, as OECD countries vie to attract the most highly educated professionals in key industries. Labour market shortages, however, are also appearing in many lesser skilled jobs. Rising educational levels and shrinking numbers of young people mean in practice that there are fewer native-born people available and willing to perform these low-wage jobs in many OECD countries. In many countries, the demand for workers for low-skilled jobs has been met partly through migration. Indeed, immigrants have already been playing a significant role in meeting the demand for workers for such jobs.

Opening up or increasing labour migration for low-skilled workers remains a controversial issue in many OECD countries. The primary concerns regard the long-term employability of lesser skilled migrants, their integration, their impact on the labour market and public finances and the educational and labour market outcomes of their children.

This chapter looks at how migration of the lesser skilled is taking place, both through managed migration schemes and through unmanaged (*i.e.* irregular) migration. It opens with an overview of the presence and role of low-skilled workers in the labour forces of OECD countries. This is a prelude to a review of the principal managed migration schemes for low-skilled jobs, including an examination of the conditions placed on entry. Both temporary and permanent programmes are examined. This is followed by a review of recruitment strategies and the use of labour market tests, shortage lists and caps in determining the size and nature of inflows. The extent to which irregular migration meets part of low-skilled labour demand is discussed, as well as policy responses such as regularisation programmes. A final section with conclusions ends the chapter.

1. Low-skilled labour migration

OECD economies still require much low-skilled labour, *e.g.* for care for children and elderly, hospitality services, retail, cleaning and maintenance, as well as workers in the primary, construction and industrial sectors. Increasing access to education and mandatory schooling in OECD countries, however, has resulted in a workforce that is much more highly educated than in the past. In addition, in many countries, the cohorts entering the labour market are shrinking every year in absolute terms. The combined effect of increased attainment levels and shrinking cohorts is to effectively reduce the supply of workers for lesser skilled jobs.

Compounding the problem is the fact that native workers may shun low-status, low-wage jobs. All of these raise the question of how and where labour market demand for this kind of work will be satisfied. Some of the demand – in certain occupations – may be met by increased labour force participation, especially by older people and by women, or by investment in capital equipment and reorganisation of production. As noted above, migration has been, and will continue to be, one way to meet this demand and it is

important to consider how such flows should be managed in the future. Managed migration will have an impact on sending countries as well, although this chapter focuses primarily on the receiving countries of the OECD.

Defining the low-skilled

The definition of "low-skilled" can be based either on the skills required for the job performed, or according to the educational level of the worker. In other words, "low-skilled" can be either a characteristic of the job or a characteristic of the worker.

For the purposes of this chapter, which examines management of low-skilled labour migration to support economic growth, the low-skilled are considered to be those whose educational level is less than upper secondary. By definition, trades people and artisans with upper secondary education or with higher vocational training are excluded from the low-educated group.

There is admittedly a certain awkwardness in defining low-skilled in this way, because labour market needs as well as recruitment practices are organised around skill requirements for jobs. However, national concerns about low-skilled migration are focused on the skill level of immigrants, and this is one determining element regarding the medium or longer term integration of immigrants, rather than the job they happen to be holding. The overview of the prevalence of low-skilled workers in the economy in what follows will thus focus on an education-based definition, reflecting country concerns, while the discussion of migration programmes will refer to low-skill jobs, which more properly reflect the recruitment process.

In addition, some lower skilled jobs are occupied by higher educated immigrants, at least initially. Although over-qualification of immigrants remains a common phenomenon in many OECD countries (OECD 2007), many higher-skilled immigrants gradually progress out of low-skill jobs over time and experience some wage convergence with natives. In addition, the children of higher-educated immigrants tend to have better educational outcomes than those of lesser-educated immigrants, as demonstrated by the OECD's PISA results (2007). Relative to lower-educated migrants, higher-educated migrants are likely to have better outcomes in the host country, both in terms of employment[1] and in terms of the performance of their children.

For all these reasons, there is more concern over admitting lower skilled migrants. Although there tends to be a close correspondence between skill levels of jobs and the education of job-holders, the correspondence is far from perfect and it seems prudent to avoid any possibility of distortion by focusing directly on the educational attainment level of workers.[2]

Low-skilled migrants in OECD countries

The proportion of the workforce with low education varies across OECD countries (Table II.1). In some countries, notably in Southern Europe, low-educated workers account for a significant part of the labour force (almost 70% in Portugal, and more than 40% in Spain).

Immigrants represent a significant share of the low-educated workforce in many OECD countries. Immigrants are more common among young low-educated workers, among other reasons because there are fewer native-born persons with low education but

Table II.1. **The low-educated in the total and foreign-born labour force, by age, 2006**

	Age group 25-34 years old			Total working-age population (15-64)		
	Low-educated share of the labour force	Foreign-born share of the low-educated labour force	Low-educated share of foreign-born labour force	Low-educated share of the labour force	Foreign-born share of the low-educated labour force	Low-educated share of foreign-born labour force
Austria	10.5	41.9	25.0	17.5	25.5	29.0
Belgium	15.3	22.9	28.2	23.5	14.9	31.4
Czech Republic	4.8	5.4	13.9	5.8	4.5	14.5
Denmark	10.1	17.1	23.9	20.0	7.3	25.1
Finland	9.0	8.5	18.6	17.7	3.6	23.1
France	16.2	19.4	31.7	26.6	17.9	42.7
Germany	13.3	39.6	29.6	15.7	28.3	31.8
Greece	23.2	20.2	50.0	35.5	10.7	45.6
Hungary	10.6	2.2	13.7	13.1	1.4	10.6
Ireland	15.0	12.4	11.4	25.9	8.0	17.1
Italy	31.0	14.4	42.9	39.3	9.7	44.9
Luxembourg	21.2	59.8	26.4	29.7	50.2	34.0
Netherlands	16.5	17.5	23.2	26.2	10.2	26.6
Norway	4.1	35.5	14.0	11.1	10.0	14.9
Poland	6.3	–	–	9.0	0.4	10.0
Portugal	56.1	9.0	44.1	69.4	5.5	49.0
Slovak Republic	4.5	0.6	7.0	4.6	0.7	4.8
Spain	32.4	20.0	34.5	42.7	12.4	36.3
Sweden	8.2	26.3	16.0	14.8	16.1	19.1
Switzerland	11.6	71.9	28.1	18.7	43.0	33.0
United States	11.3	54.1	30.9	11.7	38.7	28.8
EU25	19.0	19.6	31.8	25.4	14.1	35.0
All above countries	15.9	29.6	31.3	19.4	20.7	31.5

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/427842017725

Note: Low-educated are those with less than upper secondary education (ISCED 0-2). The EU and All countries rows are weighted averages.

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

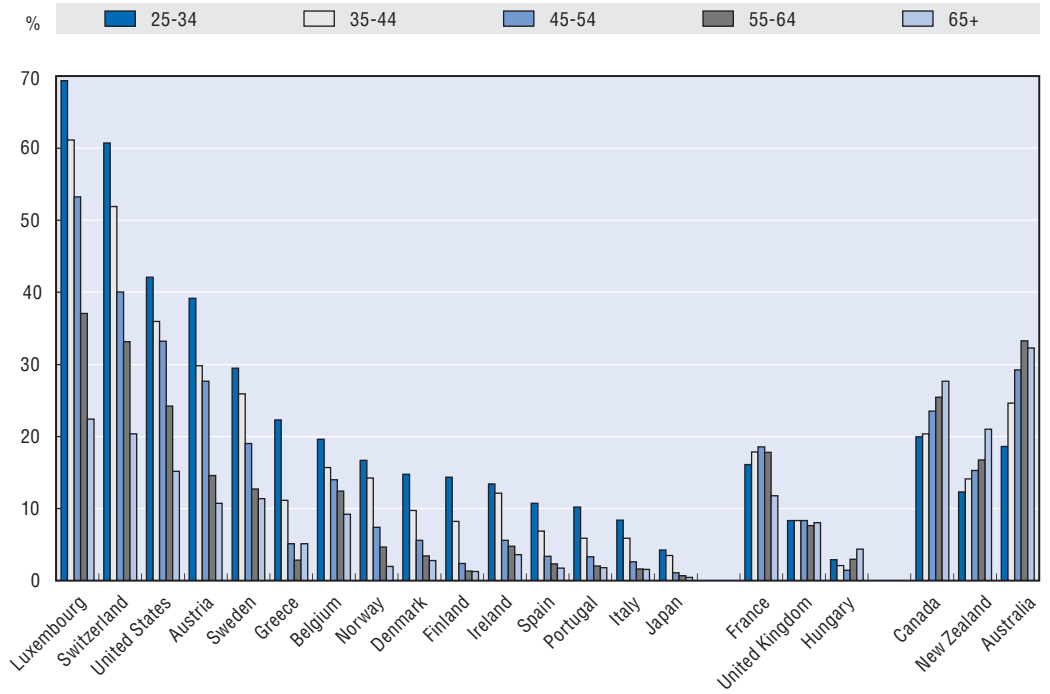
also because the average education level of arriving immigrants is not keeping pace with that of native-born youth.

Countries that have sharply limited the entry of low-educated migrants still have significant numbers of low-skilled migrants. This is due to a number of interrelated factors, which vary by country: a long tail effect of past guest-worker programmes, the impact of networks and the extent of non-discretionary migration and of irregular migration.

Immigration to many OECD countries has included many low-educated workers. In Southern Europe, especially, where most migration is recent, low-educated persons represent a third or more of all immigrants.

In most European countries and in the United States, employers rely increasingly on immigrants for low-skilled work. In Luxembourg, Switzerland, the United States, Austria and Sweden, a significant part of the younger low-educated labour force was foreign-born in the early 2000s (Chart II.1). In Greece, Spain, Ireland and Italy, the foreign-born lower educated were already noticeably present in the youth labour force in 2001. These four countries saw substantial immigration of lower educated people as the decade progressed, reinforcing a trend (Chart II.2).

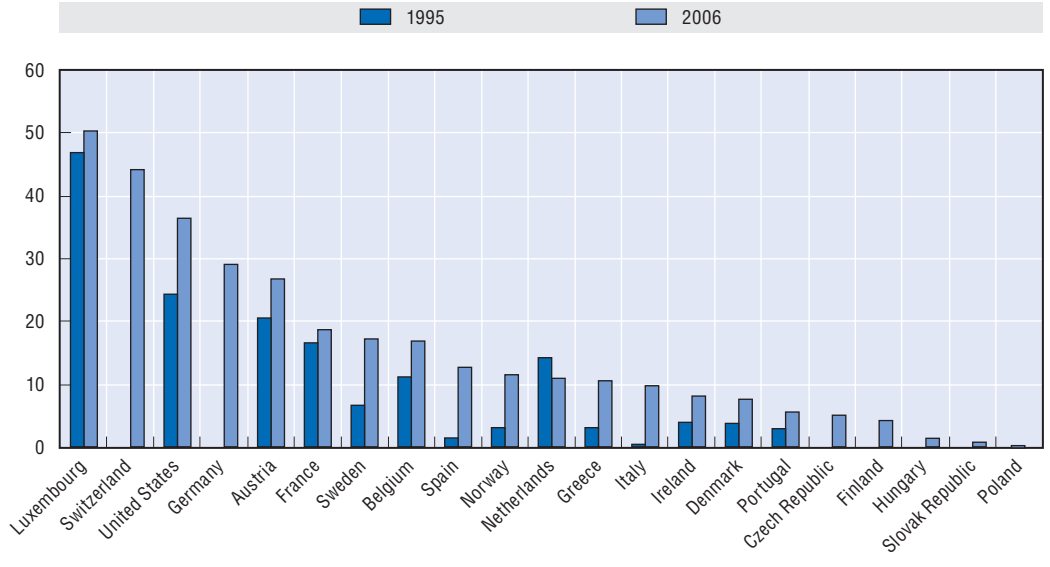
Chart II.1. **Percentage of foreign-born among low-educated labour force, by age, circa 2000**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428001302667

Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC).

Chart II.2. **Percentage of foreign-born among low-educated labour force, 1995-2006**



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

In Canada, New Zealand and Australia, where immigration policy increasingly favoured the entry of more educated workers in the latter part of the 20th century, there are relatively more foreign-born workers in the older low-educated labour force.

In other OECD countries, with the increasing education levels of younger age cohorts, the low-educated labour force is ageing rapidly, sometimes faster than the labour force in general. Except in Canada, New Zealand and Australia, immigrants account for a growing share of the low-skilled labour force in OECD countries.

Employment outcomes for low-educated immigrants are fairly similar to those for natives. However, participation rates are much higher in most OECD countries, meaning in practice that the unemployment rate is higher as well (Table II.2).

Table II.2. **Labour force participation rate and unemployment rate of low-educated by place of birth, 2006**

	Participation rate		Unemployment rate	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Austria	59.6	53.1	13.8	7.8
Belgium	46.3	46.7	24.0	11.9
Czech Republic	49.2	30.2	32.6	24.3
Denmark	55.9	66.4	10.9	6.3
Finland	60.3	58.0	29.7	18.2
France	58.6	53.6	18.1	13.4
Germany	57.9	49.8	21.3	18.1
Greece	71.6	55.3	7.1	8.5
Hungary	42.1	33.0	12.7	16.7
Ireland	54.9	52.6	8.8	7.0
Italy	64.8	49.3	9.0	8.1
Luxembourg	64.4	42.8	7.1	6.1
Netherlands	51.4	64.9	13.2	6.5
Norway	50.7	51.0	19.7	6.3
Portugal	74.8	71.8	9.7	8.3
Spain	72.8	61.6	12.2	10.0
Sweden	58.6	62.7	19.7	12.7
Switzerland	71.4	62.2	10.0	5.3
United States	66.6	41.4	6.5	15.0

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428066338448

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

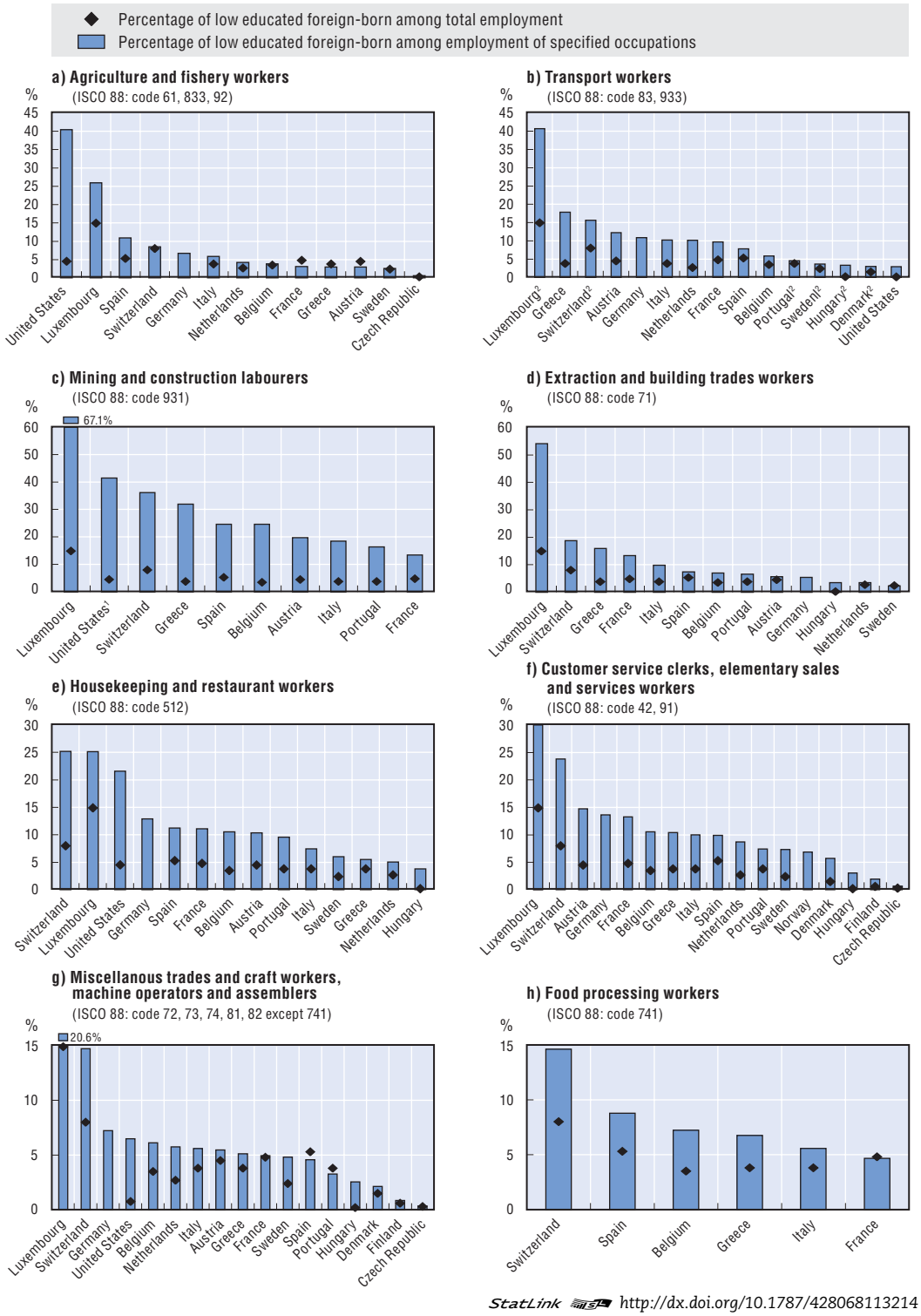
Low-educated immigrant workers are concentrated in specific occupations (Chart II.3). This is particularly evident in agricultural and fishery occupations.[3]

Low-educated immigrants play an important role in mining and construction occupations, whether in trades or as labourers, although their presence is more significant in the latter. Occupations in transportation are also important.

Employment in the hotels and catering sector in many OECD countries is significantly reliant on low-educated immigrants. In the United Kingdom, for example, 21% of the immigrants from the new EU countries entering employment between May 2004 and March 2007 went into the hotels and catering sector. Food processing occupations are also common among immigrant workers.

Many mid-level trade and craft as well as machine operation and assembly occupations within the manufacturing sector employ immigrants with low education levels. These occupations include those in textile and leather manufacturing, jobs which are particularly subject to labour cost pressures from international competition. Yet these

Chart II.3. **Low-educated foreign-born workers as a percentage of all workers by occupation, 2006**



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Notes: Data for the United States matched to ISCO classification except where noted.

1. Includes all extraction and building trade workers.
2. Includes industrial drivers and transport.

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

jobs still attract workers: in the United Kingdom, 26% of immigrants from the new EU accession countries entering employment went into trade and craft occupations in the manufacturing sector. Low-educated immigrants are also part of the elementary service workforce, including janitors and cleaning staff, watchmen, retail and counter staff and stockers.

In conclusion, low-educated immigrants play a significant role in certain occupations in many OECD countries. In some of these countries, most of the low-educated migrants were not recruited as workers but arrived through other channels, while other countries have seen their low-educated migrant workforce grow through recruitment. Currently, with what appear to be developing shortages of lesser skilled workers in certain sectors (see below), active recruitment of lesser skilled workers is being considered more broadly.

Sectors where low-skilled workers are expected to be needed

It is expected that certain OECD countries in Europe as well as Japan and Korea, will face a decline in the working-age population over the next decade, at current migration levels. In a number of other countries, the working-age population will stagnate. A shrinking work-force does not necessarily mean a decline in the need for workers; indeed medium-term occupational forecasts anticipate a growing demand. Low-skilled occupations are also expected to see an overall growth. Forecasts for selected OECD countries highlight the expected growth in the next decade of some low-skilled sectors such as food preparation and services, retail sales and customer service, personal and home care aides, construction and transportation (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007; CEDEFOP, 2008). In the United States, for example, 650 000 additional nursing aides and almost 400 000 home-care aides are expected to be needed between 2006 and 2016, and cleaning is expected to require more than 530 000 new workers. In Europe (EU25), employment in elementary occupations is expected to increase by 10%, by at least 2 million workers, between 2006 and 2015. Demand for low-skilled workers is already evident in some OECD countries. In Italy, business forecasts estimate that 40 % of the demand for workers is for persons with only minimum education, half of whom are not expected to have any prior experience in the jobs they will be taking on. Italian businesses expect to meet much of this demand by hiring immigrants (Unioncamere, 2007). In Canada, small and medium-sized enterprises report that almost a fifth of current labour demand is for elemental skills and labourers (Canadian Federation of Independent Business, 2006). Total employment in some of the traditional sectors of employment of lower-skilled workers, such as industry, is expected to decline. Even where total employment in the sector is expected to fall, the ageing labour force means that, in some cases, more workers will be retiring than jobs eliminated, and the need for replacement will create a net demand for workers. Agricultural employment, for example, is expected to fall in the EU and to remain stable in the United States, but vacancies are expected to appear nonetheless in both, due to many workers leaving the sector.

Some of the sectors where labour shortages have already been felt are currently relying on low-skilled migration. Low mobility among the native labour force and low willingness to work in low-wage, low-status and difficult jobs affect the ability of these occupations to be filled. In agriculture, native-born workers are difficult to attract because of low wages, location and working conditions, as well as the seasonal nature of most jobs in the sector. Food services such as meatpacking and processing also have difficulty attracting native-born workers. Long-term care work is expected to expand significantly

with the ageing population, while remaining a low-status and low-paid job. The rising educational level of women has led to increased participation in the labour force, creating demand for labour in the so-called "household production substitution activities" traditionally performed by women, such as cleaning, childcare, food preparation and even care for the elderly.[4] Construction, while subject to cyclical variations in demand, is expected to require workers at all levels.

Some of the demand – in certain occupations – may be met by increased labour force participation, especially by older people and by women, or by investment in capital equipment[5] and reorganisation of production. The opening of new channels for lower-skilled migrants is also a possibility. How then are such movements to be organised and managed?

2. Managed labour migration for the low-skilled?

The entry of low-skilled labour migrants in OECD countries largely ceased after the 1973 oil crisis; those countries which previously recruited low-skilled workers put a stop to organised employer recruitment of low-skilled workers in their home countries, with the exception of seasonal and temporary work programmes. Even when the changing labour market started to show demand for additional low-skilled workers, most OECD countries have been reluctant to consider recruiting low-skilled workers from abroad in large numbers.

There are a number of reasons behind the reluctance to recruit immigrant workers for low-skilled jobs, which is in striking contrast to the trend towards policies aimed at attracting high-skilled workers. First, unemployment levels among less educated workers in general, especially humanitarian immigrants, have raised concerns about likely labour market outcomes for lower educated immigrants. Other concerns address the expected impact of low-skilled immigration. The first relates to the unemployment and wage impact of low-skilled migration on native and resident workers. The second is the claim that low-skilled migrants represent a fiscal loss for the destination country, in that they receive more in public transfers and services than they contribute in taxes. The third concerns the question of intergenerational transmission of disadvantage, which may exacerbate general problems of unemployment and social exclusion. Educational and labour market outcomes for many children of low-educated immigrants have been unfavourable compared with those of children of the native-born. In most OECD countries, migration flows include significant numbers of immigrants (family, humanitarian or free-movement) over which countries have little discretionary control (OECD, 2006), significant numbers of whom are low-educated. Humanitarian flows may represent a non-negligible contribution to the low-skilled labour force, especially in traditional settlement countries (Canada, Australia and New Zealand, the Nordic countries) where low-educated migrants have little possibility for entry under the prevailing permanent migration schemes. Refugee resettlement, for example, often involves persons with very limited education. In France and the United States, family migration categories have been especially important for the growth of the low-skilled labour force.

Notwithstanding the concerns over low-skilled workers, a number of OECD countries have introduced low-skilled managed migration programmes over the past decade. All of these programmes are employer driven, with entry contingent on a job offer. While some countries admit high-skilled labour migrants without an employment offer (notably, the point systems used in Canada, Australia and being introduced in the United Kingdom), no

OECD country admits low-skilled economic migrants without such an offer. The required employment offer is generally subject to limits on the duration of stay or on portability (the ability to change employers once in the country), and the employer may need to satisfy certain criteria in order to be able to recruit foreign labour. Most such offers grant only temporary stay.

The following section examines temporary and permanent programmes and the mechanisms (labour market test, shortage lists, caps and recruitment strategies) through which they operate.

Temporary labour migration programmes

Legal temporary migration is significant and growing (Table II.3). The movements covered under this rubric are heterogeneous and include both higher and less educated migrants. Most of these temporary migrants, however, work in low-skill occupations. Seasonal workers are the largest single category, although working holiday-makers are growing in number. Trainees, although generally required to have some education or skills, may be employed in low-skill occupations.[6] "Other temporary workers" include a mix of both high and low-skilled workers, service-providers and free-circulation migrants, among others.

Table II.3. **Inflows of temporary migrant workers, selected OECD countries, 2003-2006**

Thousands

	2003	2004	2005	2006
Seasonal workers	545	568	571	576
Working holiday-makers	442	463	497	536
Trainees	146	147	161	182
Intra-company transfers	89	89	87	99
Other temporary workers	958	1 093	1 085	1 105
All categories	**2 180**	**2 360**	**2 401**	**2 498**
Australia	152	159	183	219
Austria	30	27	15	4
Belgium	2	31	33	42
Canada	118	124	133	146
Denmark	5	5	5	6
France	26	26	27	28
Germany	446	440	415	379
Italy	69	70	85	98
Japan	217	231	202	164
Korea	75	65	73	86
Mexico	45	42	46	40
Netherlands	43	52	56	83
New Zealand	65	70	78	87
Norway	21	28	22	38
Portugal	3	13	8	7
Sweden	8	9	7	7
Switzerland	142	116	104	117
United Kingdom	137	239	275	266
United States	577	612	635	678
All above countries	**2 180**	**2 360**	**2 401**	**2 498**
Annual change (%)	..	8.3	1.7	4.0

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428138365486

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

Temporary work programmes currently in place in different OECD countries are structured differently (Table II.A1.1). Invariably, the duration of the permit depends on the employment offered. Usually the duration is less than one year, especially for the agricultural sector. The offer of employment is also subject to a labour market test, where the job offer must be advertised to residents and conform to certain minimum wage and contractual criteria.

One of the principal concerns in temporary work programmes for immigrants is to ensure temporariness, to avoid the possible effects of settlement by low-educated workers cited above. Issuing a short-term visa or permit, however, is not always enough to guarantee that a migrant worker leaves at the end of the period allowed by the permit, and some programmes in the past have suffered from high overstay rates.

A number of features of existing programmes have evolved with these difficulties in mind, and most seasonal programmes now see high rates of compliance and return. The most successful programmes from this point of view are aimed at relatively stable or predictable seasonal needs. Generally, employers are allowed to rehire seasonal workers they have hired in the past, and returning workers enjoy priority access and an easing of bureaucratic procedures. Most programmes eventually see many of the same workers cycling through year after year, and successful programmes have incorporated the likelihood of repeat migration into their procedures.[7] France issues migrants a three-year permit allowing for seasonal work for up to six out of every twelve months, with fewer administrative obstacles. Priority access is particularly relevant when the seasonal programme is capped; workers who are repeat participants can be granted priority or exemption from limits. In Canada, in 2002, 70% of seasonal workers were rehired workers, and the average length of participation in the programme was seven years. Compliance rates are very high. Italy grants repeat seasonal workers priority access and even allows conversion of a seasonal permit into a longer term renewable work permit after three seasons of compliance.[8] Italy also allows employers to request a three-year seasonal permit for workers who have already completed two seasons in Italy. The three-year permit frees the employer from the quota limit, although the worker must still apply for a visa each year for entry.

Several other factors influence compliance rates. *A priori* it seems economically sensible to match the nature of the job to the nature of migration, and indeed the most successful temporary programmes have been in sectors with a natural seasonal cycle, such as agriculture and tourism. When the job ends and there are no other employment opportunities, there is little incentive to stay on. Even more effective may be recruiting workers on the basis of specific criteria which increase the likelihood of return. In Spain, for example, the seasonal work programme suffered from substantial overstaying in the early 2000s. The Spanish authorities, together with the Moroccan public employment service, began to recruit married mothers for seasonal work. This group has had very low overstay rates.[9] Selection criteria, along with facilitation of repeat seasonal work, meant that by 2007 most seasonal workers (at least 80%) were rehires who had already worked at least a season in Spain and returned home. Selection criteria of this kind, however, can be very difficult to apply without the involvement of a third-party intermediating agency such as a public employment service or an employers' association.[10]

Employers can also play a role in ensuring return. Employers may be required to post a bond which they forfeit in the event a worker they have recruited fails to return home at

the end of the contract. In Italy, New Zealand and Korea, for example, the employer is liable for expulsion costs in the event of a worker overstaying. In some cases, the employer must take good-faith measures (such as providing transportation to the point of departure, as in Spain). Spain also penalises employers whose workers have high overstay rates by reducing or denying their subsequent applications for foreign workers.

Bilateral agreements make the sending country an active stakeholder in making seasonal and temporary programmes work. In return for access or quota set-asides (reserved for citizens of certain countries), sending countries can be encouraged to implement proper selection of candidates and put collective pressure on participants to comply. Korea reviews its bilateral agreements with sending countries on the basis of cooperation but also of overstay rates. Germany, Spain, Italy, Canada, New Zealand and France open their seasonal work programmes to specific countries, with which they collaborate and whose partnership is subject to review. Most OECD countries use labour recruitment agreements in general as an incentive for greater cooperation in the fight against undocumented migration (OECD, 2004). Bilateral agreements can also target workers whose employment is seasonal in their home country and compatible with short-term cyclical employment abroad (*e.g.* resort workers, or farmers in countries with different growing seasons).

Temporary programmes must both protect migrant workers from exploitation and prevent distortion in the local labour market. Protecting temporary workers may be especially difficult, since they are often geographically and linguistically isolated, live in on-site housing provided by the employer, and not unionised. Most temporary programmes also limit the employee's right to change employers, which increases the potential for abuse. When the temporary migrant workforce is contracted by a labour provider and can be moved from one worksite and labour user to another, labour inspection and verification are difficult. Workers who are exploited may be afraid to complain for fear of losing their sponsorship and being sent home before recovering their investment. Most OECD countries have developed inspection and licensing regimes to address these concerns, and deny authorisation to past violators.

Temporary programmes may also be used for labour needs which are longer term, especially when no permanent programmes are available for lower skilled workers. The US H-2B programme and the Korean Employment Permit System (EPS) both admit temporary workers for periods of several years, following a labour market test which covers only the immediate availability of resident workers. Employers seeking low-skilled foreign workers through legal routes have little option but to use these temporary programmes, even if demand is permanent. In the United States, where the programme is for "seasonal, peak load, intermittent or one-time needs", in 2004 employers were successful in obtaining an extension of the original 10-month duration of the visa for at least two renewals, and are now pushing for a continuation of this extension.

Many OECD countries have also opened their borders to temporary work by young people who come from other OECD countries on working holidays (Table II.4). Most are the product of bilateral agreements in the framework of youth exchange and cultural exchange programmes, and often have a cap.[11] Working holiday programmes are limited to young people – generally under 30, and, in some countries, without dependents. The duration of stay is usually not more than one year, and employment is not meant to become permanent, so changes of status are not favoured. Most do not allow more than three

Table II.4. **Working holiday-makers in selected OECD countries, 1999-2006**

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United States	..	236 837	261 769	253 841	253 866	254 504	275 161	309 951
Australia	62 644	71 531	76 566	85 207	88 758	93 760	104 352	113 935
United Kingdom	..	38 400	35 775	41 700	46 500	62 400	56 560	43 700
New Zealand	..	13 040	17 066	20 308	20 742	21 449	28 996	32 489
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27 979
Japan	3 113	3 383	3 707	4 410	4 651	4 934	4 731	6 130
Korea	64	316	553	797	977	1 137	1 113	..
Italy	..	..	..	60	60	279	358	362

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428234020655

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

months employment in the same job. The beneficiaries of these programmes are different from traditional labour migrants, since they save and remit little of what they earn. English-speaking countries benefit the most from these programmes: English speakers use the programme to travel to other English-speaking countries, and non-English speakers use the programme to improve their language skills. The number of participants going to Korea, France, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy, all of which have bilateral agreements for working holiday programmes, is quite low.

Australia, which has seen its programme increase by 50% in five years, now accepts about 135 000 working holiday-makers annually. Australia meets much of the low-skilled labour demand in the hospitality sector through this supply and has no cap for many participating countries, even when these countries apply a cap to Australian nationals. New Zealand now has bilateral agreements with 25 countries and accepts up to 50 000 working holiday-makers annually, covering a substantial part of its seasonal agricultural as well as hospitality industry labour needs through this form of migration. Canada has more than 25 000 working holiday-makers, concentrated in hospitality sectors, while the United Kingdom accepts 40 000 annually. Ireland also has a programme which attracts several thousand young people. The United States has a similar programme, the J-1 Exchange Visitor programme, which sees an average of 150 000 visa-holders in the country at any time, although categories and conditions vary. The "Work and Travel" subcategory of the J-1 visa allows up to four months work for students, 18-28 years old, and is used extensively by employers in the hospitality industry. A sub-category of the Q-1 visa for Cultural Exchange also provides for longer term (up to 15 months) stays for foreign workers, who often work in the amusement park industry. The US programmes differ from working holiday programmes in that they are run by intermediary agencies which are supposed to ensure an employment offer, while the other programmes allow visitors to find work once in the country.

All of these programmes are designed as short-term stays for cultural and holiday experiences but can contribute significantly to the labour supply in low-skilled sectors such as the hospitality industry. In Australia and New Zealand, particularly, their role in meeting labour market demand is explicitly recognised. Canada's hospitality industry is pushing for an expansion of the 12-month limit to the programme and has already won an additional year for some visitors. There are limits to the role that working holiday programmes can play, however. Australia's attempt to induce working holiday-makers to take on less traditional agricultural jobs in the interior of the country by granting longer

stays has not been successful. Working holiday-makers are attracted by social, recreational and cultural opportunities as much as by the chance to work, and cannot be expected to cover temporary labour needs outside of a few sectors and locations.

Temporary programmes can be designed to meet temporary labour demand, whether seasonal, cyclical or to meet occasional peaks in demand. Or a temporary programme may be designed to meet permanent labour demand while preventing migrants from settling in the country. In either case, the question of duration of stay is important. Employers may not be willing to accept workers for short periods. If employers are liable for recruitment, transportation or housing for workers, these costs may be difficult to recoup if the duration of stay is short and wages are low. Similarly, if the migrant has to bear fees and costs, a short stay may not be enough to recover related costs, increasing the temptation to overstay and seek illegal employment. Employers may have difficulty identifying potential short-term employees who live abroad. The shorter the duration of stay, therefore, the more important it is to reduce administrative and logistic costs. The longer the stay, by contrast, the more important it is to provide sufficient incentives for compliance with the obligation to return.

Allowing only temporary migration for lower educated migrants is one mechanism for ensuring that short-term demand for low-skilled work does not change the skill composition of the labour force, while allowing rapid adjustment of the stock of low-skilled immigrants to changing economic conditions.

Permanent programmes

For some labour needs, temporary programmes are ill-suited, and permanent programmes must be considered: when demand is permanent and when work experience improves productivity within a specific employment relationship. Permanent migration, as defined by the traditional settlement countries (unconditional residence rights and a relatively rapid path to citizenship), however, is sharply limited for low-skilled migrants. Where it is available, it is always conditional on an employment offer. But there is an alternative to these traditional settlement programmes: the renewable temporary permit leading to permanent status; this has long been the normal pathway to permanence in many European countries, although not always open to the less educated in recent decades.

The past decade has, in fact, seen a significant increase in OECD countries opening employer-driven labour migration channels with renewable permits. Within the EU, the adoption of a policy on long-term residents (2003/109/EC) means that most third-country nationals acquire stable residence rights after five years of renewable permits and are largely freed from the obligation to demonstrate employment or to satisfy other criteria.

In Canada, as well, policy is shifting towards allowing persons in Canada on a temporary permit the right to apply for permanent residence. Temporary permits may be considered as an initial phase in a process potentially leading to permanent settlement. “Canadian experience” will count more in granting permanent residence, and temporary workers will be able to take advantage of their experience.

The US permanent employer-sponsored programme for low-skilled workers is quite small. There are only 10 000 “green cards” issued annually, of which half are set aside for specific nationalities. The waiting list for approval is more than six years, making it of little interest to employers.

Labour market test

Both short and long-term low-skilled economic migrations are generally subject to a labour market test. The labour market test varies according to country (Table II.A1.2).

Most countries apply a labour market test requiring the job to be advertised locally or nationally before an employer can apply for authorisation to hire a foreign worker. The requirement may also include listing the vacancy with the public employment service, especially in countries where the latter plays a major role in matching workers with jobs or maintains a list of job-seekers. The length of time a job vacancy must be advertised varies across countries. Employers may also be required to interview candidates sent by public employment services.

In most cases, employers must also submit the job contract for review or specify the conditions of the contract, with particular attention to wages. Wages must meet minimum levels, although some countries require compliance with the collective bargaining agreement for the sector. In the United States, labour market certification involves both a requirement to advertise the job and a review of contractual conditions, which must respect a benchmark sector wage. US employers are in effect required to pay at least the 51st percentile of the prevailing wage distribution within the sector. In Canada, employer requests are evaluated on a case-by-case basis according to advertising attempts and contractual conditions.

The labour market test is meant above all to provide an opportunity for natives and legal residents to apply for the job. It is also meant to protect wages in the sector. France also applies a discretionary consideration of the "added value" of hiring a foreign worker, expressed in terms of any new skills or resources represented by the candidate for France. Norway also considers the specific skills of foreign workers. Such discretionary criteria can be applied very restrictively. Restrictive discretionary criteria can limit admission more than a numeric cap.

In addition to the labour market test, which protects the local labour market, employers may also be required to provide additional guarantees in addition to those concerning wages and working conditions. Employers, in fact, may be held responsible for either directly providing housing or by ensuring access to it. For seasonal workers, employers may be required to cover part of the transportation costs from the country of origin and, once arrived, to and from the worksite. In cases where employers are allowed to deduct some of these costs from the salary, there are generally limits to the deductions allowed.

Shortage lists

In addition to a case-by-case analysis of work-permit requests, the authorisation procedure for a work permit may also involve consultation of a shortage list. Shortage lists are becoming more frequent in the OECD as a way to accelerate processing of work permits for occupations where shortages are particularly acute and processing times long. Shortage lists may also allow limited labour migration channels for lower-skilled occupations in migration regimes which otherwise require higher education for entry.

Shortage lists can be used to exempt employers from a labour market test, speeding up the recruitment process. The broadest application of a shortage list can be found in Spain, where the list has been used since 2005. Every trimester, Spanish public employment authorities use unemployment and job vacancy data[12] to draw up a list of

potential shortage occupations at the regional level ("Catalogue of Hard-to-fill Positions"). The social partners then review and approve the shortage occupations. Employers are then authorised to fill shortage positions without going through a labour market test. A similar system is used in Spain for anonymous recruitment under the parallel contingent system (see Box II.1). In 2007, Canada also adopted a provincial shortage list system; occupations on this list are subject to less stringent labour market test criteria and authorisation is

Box II.1. **Spanish labour migration authorisation system**

Spain has two channels for labour migration: the General Regime and the Contingent. The General Regime allows employers to ask for authorisation to hire a foreign worker by name (nominative system), while the Contingent is for anonymous requests when employers have not identified a specific candidate.

The General Regime allows employers to hire known foreign workers following a labour market test, where the job is listed for at least 15 days and the local public employment office makes an effort to send candidates from among registered job seekers. Each province also has a Catalogue of Hard-to-Find Occupations (CODC), drawn up each trimester based on job vacancies and registered unemployed and discussed and approved by local social partners. There are more than 500 different occupations specified on the 2008 CODC, although a single province may only have some of these occupations on its list. Many are low-skilled, such as kitchen help, bricklaying and basic farm work. If the occupation sought is on the CODC, the employer is exempted from a labour market test and the application is approved more quickly. Most employers seek workers for jobs in the Catalogue, although applications for workers to fill occupations not in the Catalogue are also generally authorised after the labour market test.

The Contingent is for anonymous hiring using mediation by public authorities to meet forecasted rather than immediate demand. Only workers for jobs on a shortage list (the occupations are different but overlapping with the Catalogue) can be hired, subject to caps for each occupation and province. The occupations and caps are set every trimester based on proposals by employers and a review by the public employment services and trade unions, and subject to review at the national level. In practice, the caps have been higher than actual demand. Seasonal workers can be hired under the Contingent with no cap, but these jobs are always subject to a labour market test. Recruitment is done by the Spanish Ministry of Labour in collaboration with employment services in countries with which Spain has bilateral labour recruitment agreements.* The local employment service advertises the positions and does a preselection of candidates, followed by a commission consisting of a representative of the local employment service, the Spanish Ministry of Labour consulate functionary, and sometimes the employer. Some training may also be offered. Employers must recruit at least 10 workers in order to use this system, which effectively excludes small businesses. Small business associations can conduct recruitment for members, but only the agricultural sector does so. Employers pay a small fee, while the costs of the selection process are essentially subsidised by the Spanish government. The process takes four to five months from the time of application to the arrival of a worker.

Between 2004 and 2008, more than 725 000 non-seasonal workers entered under these mechanisms, mostly lower educated immigrants employed in low skill jobs. Most entered under the General Regime.

* Spain has bilateral agreements with Columbia, Ecuador, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Morocco, Senegal and Romania. It also has a health sector agreement with the Philippines and a pilot agreement with El Salvador. Spain is negotiating additional agreements with Mexico and Ukraine.

intended to be faster.[13] Finland has a shortage list drawn up annually for each of 15 regions, based on consultation among the social partners.

In Canada, certain specific occupations can be placed on regional lists of "Occupations under Pressure". The decision is taken by Human Resources and Social Development Canada (HRSDC) and Service Canada (SC). For occupations on these lists, employers are subject to shorter and less comprehensive advertising efforts before being eligible to apply to hire a foreign worker. Many of these positions are lower skilled, such as food service counter staff, truck drivers, fish-plant workers, hospital orderlies, hotel clerks, janitors, and taxi drivers.

Other countries have developed shortage lists which, in principle, exclude the very low-educated and those without specific technical skills. These shortage lists, however, may provide a margin of manoeuvre for opening migration opportunities in low-skill occupations or employment.

France, for example, has developed shortage lists, based on employment data and consultation with social partners. There are two principal shortage lists: one for citizens of the EU subject to the transition period; and a subset of the first list open to non-EEA citizens. Many of the occupations on the first list are at the lower-end of the skill spectrum (*e.g.* domestic work, waiter, chambermaid, door-to-door sales, agricultural worker, window-washer). The remainder of the occupations on the EU list are mostly advanced vocational training positions in construction and food processing. The shortage list for non-EEA citizens, in contrast, includes only higher level technical and a few university-level occupations.

Australia has developed a "Migration Occupations in Demand List" (MODL) for its permanent skilled migration regime. Occupations on the list are not enough to ensure approval, but do provide additional points in the point-based system. The MODL grants points to certain lower-wage occupations which are not traditionally considered high-skilled (*e.g.* hairdressers, bakers and pastry-chefs, bricklayers, butchers). Prospective migrants are, however, required to apply for recognition of the claimed skills and must have the qualification approved before benefiting from the additional points.

New Zealand's temporary programme also has an "Immediate Skills Shortage List", which exempts employers from the existing strict labour market test. Most occupations on the list are vocational positions and require both national certification and experience, although some are open to lower-skilled workers (*e.g.* sheep-shearer with three seasons of experience).

The United Kingdom is currently developing a methodology for its "Shortage Occupation List", which will apply to its Tier 2 employer-driven category. A Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) has been established to determine shortage categories. Tier 2 is meant to exclude low skilled occupations, although the actual educational attainment of the worker may vary.[14] In addition to applying skill definitions, the MAC will also look at wages, vacancies and unemployment, recruitment and benefit changes, and the possibility to draw on resident workers through greater labour force participation or training initiatives. The Shortage Occupation List will exempt the employer from the Resident Labour Market test and will, along with English-language skills, ensure approval of the employer request.

Portugal has chosen to identify occupations which will not be open for international recruitment, making an exclusion, rather than a shortage, list. The Portuguese Ministry of

Labour first proposes an annual cap (*contingente global*) based on an analysis of vacancies, employment trends and expected interest in international recruitment. The proposed cap is submitted to the social partners. The Ministry may then identify occupations where no international recruitment will be allowed.[15]

Shortage lists are usually based on prevailing national classification systems for occupations. The more digits used to define the shortage occupation, the greater is the degree of specificity.[16] A narrow definition is important for the identification of specific skills shortages and may also facilitate foreign recruitment. It is easier for employers to claim and demonstrate a shortage for a narrowly defined occupation in the local labour market.

Skill certification requirements are often used in conjunction with a shortage list, especially in countries where professional certification covers medium and low-skilled technical positions. If a shortage of truck drivers or bricklayers is identified, for example, the national certification system for these professions exerts a decisive influence on how easy it is for an employer to hire a foreign worker. Rigidly applied discretionary certification criteria can represent an obstacle to international recruitment for lower-skilled jobs, as in Australia.

Shortage lists have started to appear in countries outside the OECD which have not yet seen significant labour migration. Lithuania, for example, published a shortage list for 2007 with 60 occupations, mostly in the construction, industrial and health sectors, but also for truck drivers and cooks, open to non-EEA citizens.

Italy, rather than establish a shortage list, makes administrative decisions in its annual quotas reserving a set-aside for broadly defined occupations or sectors: live-in caretakers, construction, transport, and fishing. These categories constituted almost half of the total Italian quota in 2007. None of the categories require proof of skills or experience. As with almost the entire Italian quota, authorisation is not subject to any skill criteria, and most of the employer applications are for low-skill positions.

A key issue with shortage lists is the relationship between local and national labour supply. Most shortage lists have moved towards identifying local rather than national labour shortages. Canada, France, New Zealand and Spain all specify their labour shortage lists at a provincial or regional level. Canada and France both require workers to receive a new work permit for any changes of employer or extensions of stay. Spain requires workers entering on the basis of a labour market test or shortage list to remain in the same province and in the same sector for at least one year, although they are allowed to change employers. After the first year, workers are free to move anywhere and take up any job. Italy assigns quotas at the provincial level, although labour migrants are free to change employers and region once they have received their first work permit.

An alternative to shortage lists is to legislate specific programmes for special categories. This has been the approach in Canada for long-term care workers, with a special live-in caregiver programme.

Finally, both the labour market test and shortage lists are meant to identify, for skilled positions, jobs where there are few or no natives with the right skills available and/or willing to do the job. For lower and unskilled work, however, the labour market test and shortage list are meant to identify the "jobs that natives don't want". When labour force participation is high and employment is almost full, it is relatively easy to justify international recruitment for these jobs. But when native participation rates are low and unemployment is high, the difficulty in finding workers for these jobs may well be due to

low wages and poor working conditions. Whether these can improve enough to attract natives, however, is uncertain.

Labour market tests and shortage lists can help address the question of whether workers are available locally at the right price and conditions. New Zealand's labour test, for example, requires the employer to demonstrate that the labour shortage is not due to the wages and working conditions offered but to the job itself. In Spain, the required consensus of the social partners is meant to ensure that the employment offers opened to foreign recruitment are truly ones which no resident is willing to do.

Caps and limits

In order to provide additional protection against possible medium and long-term effects of low-skilled labour migration on employment, wages and social expenditures, as well as on the skill composition of the labour force, most OECD countries admitting low-skilled labour migrants not only use shortage lists but also apply caps, quotas or targets for admission. Seasonal work is less subject to caps: the United States, Canada, Spain, Poland, France and Germany do not cap their seasonal programmes, while Italy and New Zealand do so.[17] For renewable – and potentially long-term – permits, Italy applies an annual limit to total entries. In 2006 and 2007, this limit was 170 000. Portugal introduced a cap of 8 500 in 2008. Korea also applies a cap to its temporary work programme. The United States has set its annual cap on the temporary work programme (H-2B) at 66 000, although it has allowed renewals which increased the stock of these workers to well over 200 000 in 2007. As noted above, its permanent programme is capped at just 10 000.

A cap serves several purposes. It may match forecast demand, as under the Spanish *contingente*. It may provide some checks to growth in the immigrant population during cyclical or boom periods. Spain, for example, has not capped its General Regime programme, and allowed more than 700 000 foreign workers to be recruited into largely low-skilled jobs during the first four years of application. When the Spanish economy slackened in 2008, the idea of setting a total cap came back into discussion. Caps may also address concerns of the population that migration is completely open, by setting clear limits. In the latter case, the caps may serve their purpose even if the limit is never reached, by assuring the public that there is institutional control over migration inflows.

Recruitment channels

Recruitment of foreign workers can be an issue in both temporary and permanent programmes. High recruitment costs are particularly difficult to amortise in temporary migration. Delays and inefficiencies in processing legal migration applications – many countries record delays of six months or more – may act as an incentive to hire undocumented workers to meet sudden or short-term labour market demand.

One significant complication in the recruitment of foreign workers, especially at the lower end of the skill spectrum, lies in the difficulty of international mediation. Employer-driven migration is usually nominative, with the employer specifying the name of the foreign worker to whom the job is offered. For higher-skilled positions, where candidates have more resources, matching is facilitated by international professional networks, head-hunters and recruitment agencies, internet job listings and international job fairs. These channels are less relevant when looking for lower skilled workers for generic or unskilled positions. Where possible, cross-border service provision may represent a solution, but has been controversial (see Box II.2).

Box II.2. **GATS Mode 4 and international service providers**

An alternative way in which demand for temporary low-skilled workers could be filled from outside the country is through the contracting of firms based abroad to enter the country (with their employees) and provide the required services. This form of cross-border service provision is known as Mode 4 and is covered by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS, 1995). The commitments made by signatory countries regarding this mode of service provision, however, were relatively limited. It has also been the object of negotiations in the on-going Doha round, but with few significant breakthroughs. For a number of reasons, among them the fact that governments cannot go back on their commitments in the trade negotiations without financially compensating other signatory governments, there has been a reluctance to make commitments related to this form of labour migration.

This mode of cross-border service provision was also the object of acrimonious debate in the European Union in the context of the so-called "Bolkestein Directive", which was eventually passed with the restriction that employees of service providers were subject to the same wage and working conditions regulations as domestic workers. In contrast to the situation for movements of workers, there were no restrictions on those of service providers following EU enlargement, except in construction and related branches, industrial cleaning and interior decoration.

Mode 4 introduces a new element into the management of migration, namely the possibility of transferring the responsibility for organising the movements (and the returns) to foreign service enterprises, with access to the market being dependent on good performance in this regard. As of yet, however, there is little experience with the use of Mode 4 in this way. One reason may be that verification that labour standards are being observed may not be as simple for foreign service providers as it is for domestic enterprises.

Several managed solutions for matching workers to low-skilled positions exist. Bilateral agreements often include a mechanism for identifying and selecting candidates through joint selection committees or procedures. Involvement of public agencies is also aimed at increasing transparency and reducing the fees paid by workers themselves. Such selection is common for seasonal work, and is used by Spain, Canada and France for their seasonal programmes. In Spain and Italy, seasonal agricultural work offers are "bundled" by the farmers' associations, which mediate the recruitment. COAG, one of the larger associations of Spanish agricultural cooperatives, brings in more than 15 000 agricultural workers annually and distributes them to small farmers. In Canada, farmers have created non-profit foundations or agencies to handle intermediation (FARMS in Ontario and FERME in Québec). In France, the National Agency for the Reception of Foreigners and for Migration (ANAEM) handles the recruitment and logistics for seasonal employment, charging a nominal fee.

Spain and Korea favour public agencies over private recruitment for longer-term work as well. In Spain, where private labour providers have only been allowed recently, few agencies are active in this area, as they find it difficult to compete with the subsidised public recruitment agency. Spain also requires private agencies to have two contracts: one between the agency and the worker, the other between the agency and the labour user. In Korea, private recruiters are excluded from the process, and recruitment is entrusted to

NGOs licensed by the Ministry of Labour. These agencies provide candidates to the Korean public employment service, which matches them with prospective employers. In the United Kingdom, such recruitment is generally done by private recruitment agencies, many of which have partners or subsidiaries in Poland or other major source countries. While the UK agricultural sector has been made subject to greater regulation under the 2004 Gangmasters Licensing Act, temporary agencies recruiting for other sectors in the United Kingdom are subject to a lighter regulatory regime. The Czech Republic signed a bilateral agreement with Ukraine, valid from 1996 to 2002, under which it used the Ukrainian public employment services to recruit thousands of Ukrainian workers for short-term contracts.

Training in the home country is also part of bilateral selection agreements used to hire non-seasonal workers in Spain and Korea. Both countries are using training in the home country prior to immigration as part of the selection process, focusing primarily on basic language proficiency and workplace safety and practice. The costs of training are borne by the public authorities in the framework of bilateral agreements and tailored to the needs of specific employers. In Spain, home-country training is part of the selection process for the anonymous *contingente* system, and the public employment service works closely with employers to meet their specific needs. One restaurant company in Spain brings in more than 1 000 workers annually under this programme: training is provided by vocational schools and trainers in the country of origin chosen by the company and paid for in part by the Spanish public employment services. Courses rarely last more than one to two months and concentrate on basic skills.

For employers, public involvement in the recruitment process can translate into significant savings over the use of private recruitment agencies. While one concern about collaboration with public employment services in sending countries is rent-taking or other forms of corruption, bilateral cooperation is usually contingent on successful functioning of the recruitment mechanism and transparency in selection and costs. Another concern over such collaboration, when it involves training, regards the role of public employment services in training foreign workers abroad for recruitment into the domestic labour force. Trade unions have argued that vocational training resources should be spent instead on the resident labour force. In most cases, however, as noted above, the training required to perform low-skill tasks is minimal or can be acquired on the job. In any case, when recruitment procedures are simplified and costs reduced and publicly subsidised, trade unions contend, there is no cost premium for employers hiring foreign workers and therefore no incentive to invest in and recruit from the local labour force.

The extent of international recruitment in the face of high costs may, in fact, provide some indication of the strength of labour demand. Costs vary significantly between countries, and include obligatory advertising as part of the labour market test, application fees, legal and administrative costs, transportation and housing. Immigrants must pay visa fees and often fees to intermediary agencies. Most OECD countries have been raising processing fees in recent years, sometimes as a way to fund additional resources and reduce backlog or under the cost-recovery principle, while other countries subsidise the process.[18] Even high fees, however, have not discouraged employers from applying.

An additional criticism of anonymous recruitment through such selection processes is that it favours larger employers seeking more workers. Larger businesses, in fact, are better able to forecast demand, to sustain the costs and accept the delays inherent in

international recruitment. Smaller businesses are also more likely to be concerned about the risks of sponsoring an individual worker who has never been met or seen. For smaller enterprises, trade associations can play an intermediary role in managing labour flows. The seasonal agricultural and tourism sectors through trade associations in some countries collect and bundle job offers and manage the distribution of seasonal workers to small-scale farmers. The fact that employers can nominate returning workers with whom they have established a relationship demonstrates the importance of a trial period. For permanent work, however, no such trial period is usually foreseen, and the question of how to integrate a probationary period into international labour recruitment for small enterprises remains.

When small businesses are excluded from international matching, they may turn to informal networks – current immigrant workers often refer relatives and friends for new positions. An alternative is to recruit workers already in the country – regardless of immigration status. In Italy, in 2006, the long lines of undocumented foreigners waiting at post offices to file applications for authorisation of entry under the quota system was clear evidence of the fact they were already in the country and had established a relationship with an employer. In France, following the end of labour recruitment in 1973, most – at least two-thirds – of the growth in the stock of foreign workers was due to legalisation of those who came irregularly and found employers (Cealis *et al.*, 1983).

One area of particular difficulty for international recruitment is that of live-in and other long-term care workers, as well as other cases where a family contracts with a foreign worker. International anonymous recruitment is ill-suited to this sector, since families generally want to be assured that the caretaker is trustworthy, appropriate and has adequate language skills before undergoing a cumbersome sponsorship process. A face-to-face meeting is important.

Attempts to formalise international mediation for family and care workers have faced obstacles in obtaining the trust of families. Canada has had success with a live-in care programme largely mediated by private agencies. In other countries, however, live-in care is often associated with undocumented immigration. A significant presence of undocumented workers can be found in the domestic work sector in general. Regularisation programmes in southern Europe over the past decade have revealed large numbers of undocumented foreigners working in the care and domestic sector. In Italy, the 2002 regularisation saw 140 000 home-care workers and 190 000 domestic care workers apply for regularisation, comprising half of all applicants; the 2005 regularisation in Spain allowed 218 000 domestic workers to "emerge".

One proposed solution for this sector and other sectors aimed at small businesses and families which need to meet the prospective employee, is the "job-search" visa. Italy granted some job search visas in the late 1990s. Spain, recognising the difficulty of international mediation in the family sector, provides a small allotment of job-search visas (450 in 2007) for prospective domestic and home-care workers. Although candidates are vetted by the Spanish authorities in their home countries, there were not enough applicants in 2007, and this small number of visas went unutilised. This highlights the difficulty in gaining the trust of employers with anonymous recruitment in the domestic sector.

The discussion of managed migration above has pointed out the challenge that formal channels face: competition with faster, more economic and more direct recruitment

through informal channels. The issue of unregulated migration is addressed in the following section.

3. Current unmanaged pathways

In addition to the non-discretionary and discretionary channels cited above, some form of irregular migration of low-skilled workers has continued in all OECD countries.[19] In part, irregular migration is driven by factors which are difficult to control. Push factors, especially such as war and persecution, unemployment, low wages, or agricultural problems in the home country, are beyond the control of receiving countries. Just as these push factors drive irregular and regular migration, so do other factors, such as proximity and high income differences. Irregular migration is also subject to pull factors in receiving countries, such as strong labour demand, especially in segmented labour markets. Other conditions in the receiving country, such as the possibility of work in the informal sector and a history of regularisations, affect irregular migration specifically. For example, interviews with beneficiaries of regularisations in Spain and Italy found that their choice of country was generally linked to ease of employment in the informal sector, and that the prospect of an eventual regularisation was also a pull factor (Reyneri, 2001). Some Italian evidence also suggests that the impact of irregular migration appears to act more by sustaining the informal sector rather than through direct effects on employment in the formal sector (Venturini, 1999).

While unauthorised immigration is always present to some degree in all countries, the existence of a large number of unauthorised foreign workers suggests a dysfunction at one or more points in the migration management system: in the admission system, at the border or in procedures. Indeed, it is very difficult to manage low-skilled migration in a context where irregular migration accounts for a substantial part of labour migration flows. Unauthorised migrants can be found especially where legal channels for unskilled foreign workers are very limited and demand is strong. Countries with significant irregular populations, which have opened their labour markets to larger legal flows of lower-skilled workers, have seen some reduction in irregular flows (*e.g.* Korea, Spain and Italy).

The magnitude of irregular flows has, however, been largely in relation to the characteristics of the labour market. Irregular migrants seek employment, so access to illegal employment or to legal employment (*e.g.* through false documents or limited employer checks) are significant factors in determining flows, while the strength of border controls and enforcement play a less important role (see below).

Evidence from regularisations, inspections and surveys provide some indication of the sectors in which undocumented workers are employed. In Portugal, construction accounted for a third of all regularisations 2001-07, followed by cleaning (16%) and hospitality (13%). In Italy in 2002, the sectors were domestic work (27%), low-skilled industry (22%), long-term home care (20%), and construction (10%). In Spain in 2005, principal sectors were domestic work (32%), construction (21%), agriculture (15%) and hospitality and restaurants (10%). Other sectors with a significant presence of irregular migrants are food processing and storage and warehousing. These sectors had been open to international recruitment on only a limited scale, far less than what emerged through the regularisations. In some sectors, matching supply and demand internationally was not effective, and employers chose from workers who were available locally, regardless of their status. In the presence of legal channels, the persistence of irregular migration can be a

response to real or perceived inefficiency and high costs of legal channels, for both employer and employee.

Irregular migration channels and employment

Undocumented migrants use different means of entry depending on the country: overstaying, fraudulent entry or illegal border crossing. Overstaying occurs when the legal status enjoyed by migrants or visitors expires without renewal, either because the initial stay was not renewable or because the administrative requirements for renewal could not be met. For some countries, especially islands (such as Japan, Australia and New Zealand), overstaying is practically the only channel for unauthorised migration. Fraudulent entry – with false documents – is also a significant means of entry in some countries. Illegal entry, slipping across land borders or arriving by sea, is significant elsewhere, although it rarely plays the large role it is assigned in media representations of irregular migration. For example, overstayers are estimated to make up at least 40% of the undocumented population in the United States (GAO, 2004), and between 60-75% in Italy (Ministry of Interior, 2007). In light of the large numbers of tourist and visitor visas issued by OECD countries to third-country nationals,[20] border controls are not in themselves sufficient to eliminate irregular migration.

Employment opportunities affect irregular migration patterns. Most irregular migrants are working, and irregular migrants have a very high labour force participation rate, higher than natives and legal migrants. In the United States, participation rates for working-age undocumented foreign men reach 94%, although women have lower participation rates of 54% (Passel, 2007). The high participation rates are due in part to the fact that irregular migrants in general have no access to social benefits and are younger than the general population. Since their employment is illegal, undocumented migrants generally face a wage penalty (Tapinos, 1999). Irregular workers are generally paid less than natives. For example, irregular Poles in Sweden earned one-third of the minimum wage set by collective agreements in 1990; irregular Filipinos in Korea earned less than half the prevailing average in 1992; and irregulars in Japan earned 60% less than natives in the same job (Ghosh, 2000). When unauthorised migrants with false documents are declared by their employers, the wage penalty may be less or even non-existent if the employer truly considers the worker to be legal. Acquisition of legal status has meant rapid wage growth for irregular migrants in the USA (Rivera-Batiz, 1999).

The characteristics of irregular migrants also vary according to the country in which they reside. The skill composition of irregular migrants differs from that of regular migrants. In migration systems that do not favour skilled migrants, the differences between irregular and regular immigrants are less visible than in systems where there are relatively limited possibilities of entry for unskilled migrants. Generally, irregular migration is disproportionately composed of lower skilled migrants. Migrants with educational credentials and occupational licenses can expect significantly lower returns if limited to the underground economy due to their undocumented status. Similarly, migrants have little incentive to invest in destination-specific human capital if they face the risk of expulsion (Chiswick, 2001).

Self-selection also plays a role in determining the skill composition of irregular migrants. Just as there is positive selection for migrants in general, there is a positive selection of irregular migrants as well (Chiswick, 1999; Borjas, 1988; Liebig and Sousa-Poza, 2004; Bianchi, 2007), especially in terms of unobservable skills such as the propensity for

risk (Radu, 2003; Yashiv, 2004). Irregular migration may even select for the higher-skilled depending on the related costs. Where the costs of being smuggled amount to many multiples of annual earnings in the home country, emigration may not be an option for the low-educated, and the migrants consequently may be selected among those with a higher level of education. Restrictive policy can raise the cost of irregular migration, affecting self-selection among irregular migrants just as it determines the skill composition of those who can benefit from regular access.

Other factors can cause both immigrants and employers to rely on irregular channels. Chain migration effects may establish powerful irregular channels. Chain migration takes place when settled migrants – with or without residence rights – call relatives and friends to join them. For employers, too, path dependency can lead employers to turn first to irregular migrants. Path dependence in irregular migration occurs when available work for unauthorised migrants increases the supply of irregular workers, nurturing a continuous flow and creating reliance by employers on irregular migrant labour.

Any measures affecting the informal economy and illegal employment will also have an effect on irregular migrants. The OECD has in the past focused on enforcement measures, especially on sanctions applied to employers, which exist in all OECD countries (OECD, 2000). Recent trends in enforcement legislation have, in fact, been moving towards more rigorous employer verification requirements and sanctions. In the United States and some European OECD countries, employers have long been required to check the eligibility of workers before hiring them. These good-faith verification measures, where employers can accept worker documentation without having to verify eligibility, are giving way to more active verification systems. The United States is working towards requiring employers to verify eligibility of foreign workers with a central database. Some US States currently require employers to use this "e-Verify" system to check employment eligibility of applicants before being able to hire them. In Europe, a proposed directive regarding sanctions for employers who employ irregular migrants was submitted to the European Council and Parliament by the European Commission.[21]

Recent regularisations and permanent discretionary regularisations

The policy options for reducing a significant resident population of undocumented foreigners seem limited. Expulsions are difficult to apply on a large scale. Apprehensions of illegally employed workers without valid residence permits, especially in economically and socially important sectors such as agriculture, hospitality, construction and personal care, are often contested by employers and public opinion. Detention facilities are often quickly overcrowded and become flashpoints for legal action and contestation by human rights groups. This has led numerous countries to contemplate regularisations or amnesties.

There are strong arguments both for and against regularisation programmes and the decision to implement such a programme is generally taken only after careful analysis of benefits and risks. The benefits of regularisations include greater protection of the labour market, improved outcomes for irregular migrants, and better public security. Irregular migrants are often forced to accept wages and working conditions below the legal minimum, undercutting legal workers. They are also generally unable to move upward in the labour market. The presence of many irregular migrants also creates broader law enforcement and security problems and makes the fight against illegal employment

chronic. Through regularisation, governments acquire information about who is living in the country, and legal immigrants are less likely to pursue unlawful activities.

The main argument against regularisations, in principle, is that they may encourage further irregular migration and therefore do not solve the problem of irregular migration. There is no doubt that countries where regularisations have been frequent are seen by irregular migrants as offering a possibility of stay, but there are other factors determining migration which are arguably more important, namely the availability of employment and the presence of family and social networks. Another objection to regularisations is that they reward law-breakers and queue-jumpers among both immigrants and employers. Recent regularisations have focused on those who have a record of employment in the host country, many of whom had limited means of entry under existing labour migration programmes.

Regularisations are, by their nature, an exceptional policy intervention. They are almost always accompanied by a change in migration policy, as an attempt is made to eliminate the conditions that led to a large unauthorised population. Nonetheless, frequent recourse to regularisations suggests that getting the right policy mix to redirect irregular movements into legal channels and to wean employers off irregular migrants is a difficult task. In some countries, regularisations are the main channel for entry into the legal labour force for less educated immigrants in low-skill jobs. The 1986 US regularisation saw about 2.7 million irregular migrants participate. The more recent large-scale European regularisations, while smaller in absolute terms, have been larger relative to the population: in Italy (1995, 1998 and 2002), Spain (2000-01, 2005), Greece (1998-99, 2001-02 and 2005) and Portugal (2001 and 2004). These regularisations required proof of employment and, in some cases, payment of retroactive social contributions for a minimum period.

In other cases, regularisations may be a corrective measure addressing processing problems in the asylum system or for other long-term residents who cannot be safely sent to their origin countries. Such limited offers of regularisation have been made over the past decade to long-term residents and asylum seekers in France (1997-98, 2006), Belgium (2000, 2004), Poland (2003), the Netherlands (1996, 2007), Luxembourg (2001), the USA (1997-98) and New Zealand (2000-01).

In addition to large-scale and one-off regularisations, a number of countries foresee mechanisms for exceptional – but continuous – regularisation as part of their ordinary migration policy. In some countries, this is limited to certain long-term asylum seekers, who are not generally in employment. Belgium, Switzerland and Germany have allowed discretionary regularisation of persons in such groups. The Netherlands has also allowed long-term residents with regular employment to be regularised. Japan grants "special residence status" to about 10 000 foreigners annually, usually long-term residents with employment or family ties. Portugal also signed a bilateral agreement with Brazil in 2003 to permit regularisation of Brazilians. In 2007, Portugal incorporated a mechanism for discretionary regularisation in specific cases.

Spain has integrated two regularisation mechanisms into its migration policy since 2005. The first, *arraigo social*, or social "rootedness", requires three years residence and either proof of employment, family ties to a legal resident, or a statement of support from the municipality of residence. In 2006, there were about 34 000 applications, of which 20 000 were approved. Permits issued under *arraigo social* are not conditional on a labour market test or the Catalogue of Hard-to-Fill Occupations. The second, *arraigo laboral*, is

aimed at encouraging illegally employed foreigners to report their employer. It requires two years residence and reporting of an employer for whom the undocumented immigrant has worked for at least a year. There were about 1 100 applications in 2006, of which 500 were approved. Other countries also often issue a special permit to irregular immigrants who report an illegal and exploitative employer to the authorities; such an instrument is a means of fighting illegal employment.

The employment-driven regularisations cited above have granted temporary permits to beneficiaries, with renewal conditional on continued activity in the labour market. Renewal may be difficult, however, because the regularised, by definition, work in sectors with a high rate of precarious and illegal employment. Regularised workers may lose their jobs and return to illegal employment, if they fail to meet permit renewal requirements to renew their permits. For example, one in four beneficiaries of the 2001 Spanish regularisation had failed to renew their permit by 2004, and one-third of Italy's 1990 beneficiaries had not renewed their permits two years later. The failure to renew may be due to these migrants leaving the country, yet some reapply for later regularisation. The 2005 regularisation in Greece was aimed specifically at lapsed permit-holders, many of whom had previously been regularised; 50 000 applied to re-regularise themselves. Problems with renewal not only affect those who have benefited from a regularisation, but extend to all immigrants working in sectors where illegal employment is high.

Another potential problem in implementing regularisations lies in employer pressure on undocumented workers to pay their own social contribution costs or under declare their hours and earnings. Regularisations requiring retroactive payment of social contributions, meant to penalize the employer, may end up being borne by the worker.

Finally, regularisations may not solve shortages in specific sectors, since immigrants who have acquired documents become more mobile actors in the labour market. The most demanding of the low-skilled occupations, and those that pay the least, may not benefit from regularisation. In the United States, the Special Agricultural Worker regularisation regularised 1.2 million workers for the agricultural sector in the late 1980s, but few remained in the sector once they received their papers. Spain regularised almost 100 000 agricultural workers in 2005, but by 2007 only 10-20% were still working in the sector.

Some changes in policy can reduce irregular flows. Because inefficiencies in the migration management system have led to legal residents falling into illegal status, as was evident in Greece, improving the efficiency of permit processing and increasing compliance by employers can help reduce the growth of the irregular population. Similarly, improving legal recruitment channels for small businesses and by individuals and families looking to hire foreign workers to meet immediate and unforeseen demand can keep these employers from turning to irregular migrant workers.

The choice of a regularisation may be a necessary and effective component of a major migration policy shift in a context of widespread irregularity. However, a regularisation without opening channels or finding other effective solutions to meet evident labour market demand will not do much to redirect irregular movements into legal channels.

Conclusion

Migrants with low education are already filling many low-skill jobs in OECD countries. Despite the concerns over the impact of low-skilled migration, some OECD countries have

implemented policies in recent years to admit low-skilled labour migrants because of employer demand. It is expected that specific shortages will be felt in the future in certain occupations. Occupational shortages will be exacerbated as a shrinking number of low-skilled enter the domestic labour force at the same time as new needs are created by an ageing population. This demographic pressure is likely to increase interest in low-skilled labour migration schemes.

The evidence presented in this chapter indicates that there is considerable experience in many countries with the management of low-skilled labour migration, and a number of temporary migration schemes appear to be working well. However, the persistence of unauthorised movements and of irregular employment of immigrants, generally for lesser skilled jobs and often of significant scale, suggests that existing policies are not entirely adequate. Still, current policies and programmes do provide some indication of what the features of an appropriate managed migration policy for the low-skilled might be.

First of all, it is important to note that *all* schemes aimed at lower-educated migrants are demand-driven, with employers initiating and justifying requests. This means that workers arrive in the host country with a job and thus are guaranteed a certain economic support and stability upon arrival.

A careful assessment of labour market demand at regular intervals would appear to be the first essential element of a labour migration programme. This is to ensure that there is an adequate provision of work permits and of entry possibilities to satisfy the labour market needs of the host country.

The methods for identifying shortages tend to vary across countries, but a common principle underlying the various existing approaches is to give priority to resident workers. The effect on the local labour market of non-discretionary migration flows is, however, not always factored in. Approval of single employer requests is often time-consuming and idiosyncratic, which may explain the increased recourse to shortage lists. Shortage lists are revised periodically to reflect the evolution of employment within sectors. However, shortage lists need to be supplemented by vocational training policies aimed at developing the local labour force.

International recruitment for permanent migration of lesser skilled workers has been largely spontaneous and informal, relying on networks. Some formalisation of direct recruitment, especially through bilateral agreements, has been experimented with, involving public employment services and training. The question of how to equitably distribute costs of such intermediation remains. Employers have shown a willingness to use legal channels, when available, that are efficient and reliable, as well as to provide employment contracts to employees eligible for regularisation. Sanctions for illegal employment are an essential part of a comprehensive policy, but any attempt to reduce irregular migration must take into account the legitimate labour needs of employers. The lengthy administrative processes currently in place in many countries discourage employers, especially smaller businesses, from using the system. Procedures must be simple, without excessive delays. This is especially the case for small enterprises, which can neither afford long delays before replacing essential workers nor build them into their planning in the way a major employer can. With both temporary and permanent programmes, there is an issue of the rights of both native and immigrant workers. Due to the employer-driven nature of low-skilled migration programmes and the fact that permits are often tied to specific jobs, the possibility of abuse exists, highlighting the need for

careful monitoring and inspection regimes to guarantee respect for workers' rights, but also to provide employers with incentives to respect legality. Employer needs and expectations need to be balanced with the interests of resident and immigrant workers, in particular with respect to restrictions on job mobility, whether temporal, occupational or geographical.

Temporary immigration programmes have been made to work, especially for labour demand which is truly seasonal or short-term. Attempting to implement temporary migration programmes for permanent or ongoing needs may be a different question, since all parties (employers, the immigrant and indeed even the government itself) may have an interest in preserving the employment relationship. Appropriate selection of employers and employees can help a temporary programme meet mutual expectations. The most successful programmes use intermediation by public or non-profit agencies to handle recruitment and logistics, reduce fees for both parties and allow employers to call back past workers.

Temporary programmes are not, however, realistic for all workers and all jobs, especially where employer and employee interests converge in favour of a longer stay. As a result, immigration policy has experimented with a number of safeguards to reduce risks of negative effects. Permanent migration for the low-skilled, where allowed, is generally subject to an initial probationary phase where renewal requires continued employment. In addition to applying a labour market test, countries may also place a limit on entries based on their perceived capacity to absorb immigrants. More specifically, entries could be contingent on the extent of non-discretionary flows, which also contribute to increases in the labour force.

The existence of significant irregular populations in many countries may well be symptomatic of the fact that one or more of the features described above is absent. Undoubtedly the most common one is the assessment of low-skilled labour needs, which generally reflects the reluctance to acknowledge that such needs exist and that migration is one route to satisfy them that matches the needs of employers and potential migrants. Whether this reluctance will persist in the presence of growing labour needs remains to be seen.

Notes

1. Highly educated immigrants may have better outcomes than less educated immigrants, but the difference relative to the native-born may sometimes be larger for the former than for the latter (OECD, 2008).
2. From the policy perspective, it is the educational level of the migrant which exercises greater influence over longer term outcomes, rather than the skill level of the first job which he or she holds. International recruitment for low-skilled jobs, as will be evident, does not consider the educational level of the worker. For receiving countries, it may be advantageous to have highly educated immigrants in lower skilled jobs, since their longer term outcomes are more favourable. However, such a situation results in brain waste to the detriment of both origin and destination countries.
3. Labour force survey data, for which samples are based on dwellings or population registers, do not usually capture seasonal agricultural work by non-resident immigrants. The data in Chart II.3 regarding employment of lower-educated immigrants in agricultural occupations reflect only permanent jobs such as those involving livestock.
4. The labour force participation of women varies significantly across OECD countries. In those countries where social protection for parents is limited and where child-rearing is not shared with men, women's participation in the labour force is affected by the availability and cost of private child-care and elder care (Jaumotte, 2003; Sleebos, 2003). More recently, Kremer and Watt (2006)

found that high numbers of foreign household workers (7% of the labour force) actually increase overall wealth, by permitting high-educated women to enter the workforce and/or work longer hours. For example, Cortes and Tessada (2007) found that low-skilled migration to the US in the 1990s led to longer hours worked by high-skilled American women.

5. Immigration, by maintaining the supply of labour, may delay investment in new technology and production methods. Martin, Abella and Kuptsch cite the example of mechanisation of tomato harvesting in California (2006). While investment in labour-saving technology can help reduce labour shortages, in some sectors, especially personal care, the potential for such gains is limited. Lewis (2005) found that abundant immigrant labour resulted in less investment in United States factory automation. Similar results can be found for agricultural work in Florida (Napasintuwong and Emerson, 2004). González and Ortega examined the inflow of workers into the construction industry in Spain, and found that, while wages for a given educational level are constant, the skill composition of the construction workforce changes, suggesting employers changing production methods (2008).

6. The trainee programme in Korea, for example, was eliminated after authorities found that trainees were often serving as low-paid employees in low-skill occupations rather than in a real training programme. Japan, which has the largest trainee programme in the OECD, faces similar problems.

7. Programmes where repeat participants are favoured increase compliance and meet employer interests, but when total entries are capped, priority lists have the potential to create an exclusive group of beneficiaries and to deny access – and broader economic and development impact – to the general population in sending countries.

8. Italy subjects the number of conversions from seasonal to renewable permits to an annual limit specified under the quota system (1 500 in 2007).

9. A similar choice was made by Australia in extending its Working Holiday Programme to middle-income countries such as Hong Kong (China), Thailand and Chile: in addition to the requirement that participants be under 30 and have no dependent children, only those with tertiary degrees are admitted. Tertiary-educated young people from these countries, in fact, have no incentive to overstay in Australia.

10. Most OECD countries' consular services also apply a discretionary analysis of "intention to return" before granting temporary visas.

11. These caps have tended to be adjusted upwards as the programme expands, as a sign of closer cooperation and as countries realise that the programme has not had negative effects on the labour market. For example, Japan and Korea have both raised the reciprocal caps on their programmes with Canada and New Zealand.

12. The number of openings in a particular occupation is determined by comparing the number of persons of a given occupation who are unemployed and the number of vacant jobs in the same occupation.

13. Given the proposed move to attribute more weight to "Canadian experience" in applying for permanent residence, the Canadian shortage lists for temporary workers determine which workers can enter and acquire the experience necessary to stay on permanently in Canada.

14. The MAC will define shortages in occupations where at least a specific proportion of its workforce has at least NVQ level 3 qualifications. National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) are work-related, competence-based qualifications; level 3 "involves the application of knowledge in a broad range of varied work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts, most of which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy and control or guidance of others is often required."

15. In 2008, Portugal declined to specify an exclusion list, although the option remains open.

16. Both the Spanish and the Canadian shortage lists provide a narrow definition of shortage occupations (4-digit classification). The Spanish shortage list used for the *contingente* (anonymous recruitment) system uses an 8-digit classification. France applies a 5-digit classification for occupations on its shortage list. New Zealand's "Immediate Skills Shortage List" applies a 6-digit occupation category. The UK's Shortage Occupation List uses the 4-digit classification system in analysing the skill distribution within the occupation.

17. Most seasonal workers in Italy come from the new EU countries and since 2005 the quota for seasonal work has not been fully utilised.

18. For example, the United States imposes almost USD 500 in fees on employers applying for H-2B workers (many also pay the USD 1 000 fee for expedited "premium processing"). Legal services

required for the application can raise the cost significantly beyond this fee. Canada charges employers a CND 150 fee for each SAWP worker, although this may be deducted from pay. Spanish employers pay about EU 170 for each seasonal worker. Italian employers pay only a nominal filing charge (less than EUR 15).

19. Government estimates vary according to methods. In 2006, Australia reported about 50 000 overstayers and Korea 190 000 overstayers. The United States estimates about 12 million undocumented residents, while Spain, Italy, and the UK estimates are around 500 000, France 250-400 000, Greece 300 000 and the Netherlands 125-230 000.

20. For example, the United States admits more than 33 million temporary visitors annually; France issues more than two million short-stay visas.

21. "EU Proposal for a Directive for sanctions against employers of illegally staying third country nationals" EC COM(2007) 249 final, Brussels 16.05.2007; see also the "Impact assessment", SEC(2007)603. The EU proposal, like the United States proposal, requires employers to notify governments when hiring workers; e-Verify relies on the creation of an integrated database for rapid verification of documents and for communication to employers, while the EU proposal is not specific in this regard. Another difference is that the United States requires positive confirmation before an employer can hire a candidate, while under the proposed EU Directive, employers' obligations explicitly end once they have informed authorities of the identity of the person hired.

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ANNEX II.A1

Annex Table II.A1.1. **Temporary work permit programmes for low-skilled workers**

Country	Programme	Maximum length of stay allowed	Guarantees required	Sectors involved	Number of participants	Limits
Canada	SAWP	< 8 months	Labour market test; employer must pay transportation and housing (can deduct from salary)	Agriculture	18 000 (2006)	None
Canada	Temporary Foreign Worker Programme C (intermediate and clerical)	< 2 years	Labour market test; cover all recruitment costs; help find suitable, affordable accommodation; pay full transportation costs from home country; provide medical coverage until the worker is eligible for provincial health insurance coverage	All sectors	34 000 (2006)	None
Canada	Temporary Foreign Worker Programme D (elemental and labourers)	< 2 years	Labour market test; cover all recruitment costs; help find suitable, affordable accommodation; pay full transportation costs from home country; provide medical coverage until the worker is eligible for provincial health insurance coverage	All sectors	3 500 (2006)	None
France	Seasonal Agricultural	< 6 months/ annually for 3 years	Labour market test or shortage list; employers must guarantee housing	Agriculture	17 000 (2006)	None
Germany	Bilateral Agreements	< 8 months	Employers must provide housing (can deduct from salary)	Agriculture, other temporary	290 000 (2006)	None
Italy	Seasonal Work	< 9 months	Demonstrate existence of (but not necessarily provide) housing; must pay repatriation costs for overstayers	Agriculture, tourism	64 540 (2006) (requests)	80 000 (2008)
Korea	Employment Permit System	3 years + 3 year renewal	Labour market test	All sectors	80 000 (2006)	Target 110 000 (2007)
New Zealand	Recognised Seasonal Employer	< 7 months	Labour market test; employer must demonstrate (but not necessarily provide) housing and pay half transportation costs; employer must pay repatriation costs for overstayers	Agriculture	5000 (2007)	Quota of 5 000 (2007)
Spain	Contingent	< 9 months	Labour market test or shortage list	All temporary sectors	78 000 (2006)	None
United Kingdom	Seasonal Agricultural Worker Scheme (SAWS)	< 6 months	Employers must guarantee housing but can deduct costs	Agriculture	16 000 (2005)	Limited to Romanian/ Bulgarian citizens from 01/01/08
United Kingdom	Sector Based Scheme	< 12 months	Employers must guarantee housing but can deduct costs	Food processing	3 500 (2007)	3 500 (2007); to be phased out
United States	H-2A	< 10 months	Employer must pass labour certification test, pay at least enough to counter adverse wage effects, provide housing and cover one-way transportation costs	Agriculture	50 000 (2006)	None
United States	H-2B	< 10 months, renewable up to 3 years	Employer must pass labour certification test	Non-agriculture, especially landscaping, cleaning, hospitality, construction	200 000 (2006)	Capped at 66 000 entries annually

Annex Table II.A1.2. **Labour market tests in different OECD countries**

Country	Programme	Main characteristics
Australia	Work Permit	Must attempt to recruit locally. Verification of prevailing wage.
Canada	Temporary Foreign Worker Programme C and D	Labour market opinion, with demonstration of attempts to fill position (advertisements, etc. and public employment service), verification of prevailing wage and conditions. The labour market opinion also considers whether "employment of the foreign worker will directly create new jobs or retain jobs for Canadians". Trade union approval will accelerate the process. Reduced advertising obligations (7-day listing instead of 2-3 weeks) for shortage list of "occupations under pressure".
Denmark	Work Permit	Danish Immigration Service consults the relevant trade union, except for shortage list occupations. Requests for ordinary skilled-labour vacancies, such as carpenters or bricklayers, or unskilled positions, such as pizza makers, delivery people, cleaners, etc., are generally not granted.
Finland	Permanent Workers	Employers or job applicants must apply for authorisation from the Public Employment Service, which lists the job for 2-4 weeks, except for occupations on the regional shortage list.
France	Seasonal Agricultural	For occupations not on shortage list, either publication with the public employment service or documented listings through private channels.
France	Permanent Workers	Employment must publish position with the Public Employment Service, and submit application to the Departmental Labour, Employment and Vocational Training service for a discretionary review of professional qualifications, contract wage and conditions, the technological and commercial added value of the foreign worker, and the employer's guarantee of available housing.
Iceland	Temporary Work Permit	Employer must apply to regional employment office for workers, except where the Directorate of Labour has confirmed a shortage. The relevant sector trade union, local or national, has 14 days to comment, except for sectors or cases where the employment is not covered by a trade union.
Italy	Work Permit	Listing with public employment service. Automatic approval even without response after 21-day listing.
Korea	Employment Permit System	Listing of at least 3 days (newspaper) or 7 days (public employment service) or 1 month (other means), following check on unemployment of Koreans in sector.
Netherlands	Work Permit	Listing of at least 5 weeks with the public employment service. Centre for Work and Income must approve employer request, which must meet minimum wage to support entire accompanying family.
New Zealand	Recognised Seasonal Employer	Must advertise position locally and take "all reasonable steps" to recruit locally.
New Zealand	Temporary Work Permit	The employer must make "a genuine attempt" to recruit suitable resident workers. The application is rejected if suitable workers are available in New Zealand, but not "prepared to do the work on the terms and conditions proposed by the employer", or if the employer could "readily train" residents to do the work.
Norway	Work Permit	Applications for authorisation of recruitment of a non-EEA worker require a labour market assessment (LMA). Employers are encouraged to request an LMA from the Public Employment Service (NAV) and enclose it with the application. Otherwise, the police contact NAV for an LMA. Prior LMA is required for seasonal and fish processing workers. There is a quota for skilled workers and specialists; beyond this quota, prior LMA is required. Work permits are not granted if the post can be filled by domestic labour, and the position must require specific skills possessed by the candidate.
Poland	Work Permit	Regional employment service must authorise employer following publication with Public Employment Service and local media.
Portugal	Work Permit	Immigrants may be recruited from abroad for any job which has been listed with the Public Employment Service for at least 30 days. If the employer wishes to recruit an immigrant from abroad without listing the job, the Public Employment Service has 30 days to find candidates in Portugal or the EEA.
Spain	Contingent and General Regime	"Negative certification" is required only for seasonal and temporary Contingent workers, and for General Regime workers. Job must be listed with public employment service for 15 days, and employers must interview candidates sent by the Public Employment Service, although they are allowed to reject them. However, no labour market test is applied for shortage list occupations under either Contingent or General Regime.
Sweden	Temporary or Permanent Work Permit	For lower skilled occupations, the Public Employment Service authorises a work permit only if no Swedish, EU, or EEA workers are available or who can be trained "within a reasonable time" to fill the vacancy. Requirement to be eliminated in 2008. Trade Union representatives must continue to approve the contract conditions.
United Kingdom	Tier 2 Work Permit	The "Resident Labour Market Test" requires employers to advertise for an EEA worker, submitting proof of advertisement within the past 6 months, information on applicants and selection process, and justification for not hiring applicants. The proposed Shortage Occupation List will provide an exemption from this test for specific occupations.
United States	H-2A	Labour certification following advertisement of job (at least 10 days with public agency and 3 days in private press), verification of prevailing wage (requirement to pay the highest of: the Adverse Effect Wage Rate, the applicable prevailing wage, or the statutory minimum wage). Response from Department of Labor within 45 days of application. Employer must hire local workers even if they apply during the first half of the foreign worker's contract.
United States	H-2B	Labour certification following advertisement of job (at least 10 days with public agency and 3 days in private press), and justify any rejection of candidates. Verification of prevailing wage. The job must be "seasonal, peak load, intermittent or one-time needs".

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PART III

Return Migration: A New Perspective*

* This paper was written by Jean-Christophe Dumont and Gilles Spielvogel (OECD). It benefited from a contribution by Claire André (ENSAE). The Secretariat has compiled information from member countries by means of a questionnaire, and has also made use of studies produced for an expert meeting on "Return Migration and Development", Paris, 12 November 2007.

Introduction

For many immigrants, returning home is a prospect they cherish and one that sustains them during their migration history. Ties with the home country, even if stretched, keep this aspiration alive. Recently arrived migrants, or those arriving under temporary programmes, lend themselves naturally to these return dynamics. Yet in fact some will return home and others will not; some will move on to a new destination, while others will be caught up in a cycle of circular migration. While return migration is a major component of migratory flows, our knowledge of it is still fragmentary.

What is the scope and nature of return migration? Are young people, women, or skilled workers more likely to return home? Why do some migrants settle permanently in the host country, while others choose to stay only a short time? What role should immigration policies play in this respect? Can return migration be well managed? Finally, what is their impact on the economic development of the home country?

These questions lie at the core of current issues relating to international migration management, from the viewpoint of host countries and home countries alike. On one hand, the growing importance of temporary migration programmes in OECD countries, and on the other hand the expectations aroused by the potential role of migrants in developing their home countries, will readily explain the renewed interest in the issue of return. Developing sound policies will require a good knowledge of return migration as well as a deeper understanding of the factors that determine it. In the absence of suitable data, some of these aspects have been overlooked, especially in the economic literature on international migration. An important body of work has been produced over the last ten years, however, and it brings a new perspective to return migration.

The Secretariat has compiled information from member countries by means of a questionnaire, and has also made use of studies produced for an expert meeting on "Return Migration and Development" (Paris, 12 November 2007).

This report discusses the different dimensions, both factual and political, of the return phenomenon. It is based primarily on a series of new statistical results, and attempts to improve the international comparability of data (Section 1). It then moves on to review the theoretical analyses of the determinants of return as well as the available empirical evaluations (Section 2). Next, it looks in detail at the policies that OECD countries have implemented to promote return (Section 3). Finally, it offers some elements for analysing the impact of return migration on the development of the origin countries (Section 4).

Main findings

- Departures by foreigners from OECD countries can represent anywhere between 20% and 75% of arrivals in any given year. This discrepancy among countries can be explained in part by variations in the outflow/inflow ratios of foreigners by country of origin, and also by the relative importance of temporary migration. In any case, the outflow/inflow ratio

is not an adequate measure of the phenomenon of migrants returning to their home countries.

- In fact, while return can be defined as the situation where a migrant goes back to his home country after living in another country for some period of time, the definition will often conceal more complex situations (secondary or repeat migration, temporary or definitive return, etc.). There are few statistics available for deriving a comprehensive and accurate appreciation of the return phenomenon.
- The estimates presented in this report are based on different methods, using available data sources in the home and host countries (population registers, labour force surveys, and population censuses).
- The results indicate that, depending on the country of destination and the period of time considered, 20% to 50% of immigrants leave within five years after their arrival, either to return home or to move on to a third country (secondary emigration). Some countries, such as Canada, the United States and New Zealand, are more successful than European countries in retaining immigrants.
- The return rate does not generally vary much by gender, but it changes sharply over the life cycle of migrants, with higher rates for the young and for retirees. Returns by level of education also produce a U-curve (*i.e.* the return rate is higher at the extremities of the education spectrum).
- Migrant mobility is greater between countries at a similar level of development, whereas when income disparities are greater, migrants are more likely to stay put. Return rates to OECD countries are on average twice as high as those to developing countries.
- Four main reasons can be offered to explain return migration: *i)* failure to integrate into the host country, *ii)* individuals' preferences for their home country; *iii)* achievement of a savings objective, or *iv)* the opening of employment opportunities in the home country thanks to experience acquired abroad. Moreover, migrants are likely to adjust their objectives over time, and in light of immigration policies in the host country.
- Policies relating to return are attracting growing interest. There are two distinct categories of measures: those intended to support the effective management of temporary migration programmes, and those that involve assistance for voluntary return. In addition, some host country policies (naturalisation, portability of social entitlements, etc.) can affect migrants' length of stay.
- Despite the variety of host country initiatives, programmes for assisting voluntary return have only a limited impact, at least if they are evaluated in light of the numbers involved in comparison with the total of returnees. This no doubt reflects the fact that return is only an option if the political, economic and social situation in the home country is stable and attractive.
- The contribution of migrants to the development of their home countries results from a combination of the resources they transfer before and at the time of their return (human, financial and social capital) and the returns to those resources.
- While there has been no macroeconomic assessment of the effect of return migration on countries of origin, this can be assumed to be limited. The resources contributed by migrants are more likely to boost growth that is already under way, especially if the authorities promote the effective use of these resources.

1. Measuring return migration

For a given host country, the return home of immigrants necessarily involves their departure from the national territory. As shown in the charts presented in Annex III.A1, outflows of foreigners from OECD countries are far from negligible: depending on the country, they can represent anywhere between 20% and 75% of the volume of yearly inflows.[1]

Migrant outflow/inflow ratios also vary by country of origin, a fact that may be explained in part by differences in the level of development: mobility is higher between countries at similar levels of development, while permanent settlement is more likely when income disparities are greater.

The charts in Annex III.A2 reveal two distinct profiles in outflow and inflow trends by country of origin. The first profile represents the case where inflows and outflows are positively correlated: an increase in entries is accompanied by an increase in exits. The second profile, by contrast, implies a negative correlation between inflows and outflows: exits decline when entries increase, and *vice versa*.

An analysis of migrant inflows and outflows offers an initial overview of the scale of return migration and some of its characteristics. Yet this approach does not establish an explicit link between exits and entries, because they do not necessarily relate to the same individuals. It is therefore sensitive to cyclical variations in flows, and cannot be used to estimate return rates. Moreover, inter-country differences in the recording of inflows and outflows limit international comparability. The remainder of this report attempts to circumvent these obstacles, and proposes a detailed and quantified analysis of return migration from OECD countries.

1.A. Definitions and methods

There is little in the way of internationally comparable statistical information available on return migration. Attempts to measure the phenomenon, in effect, face two difficulties: the definition of return migration, and data availability.

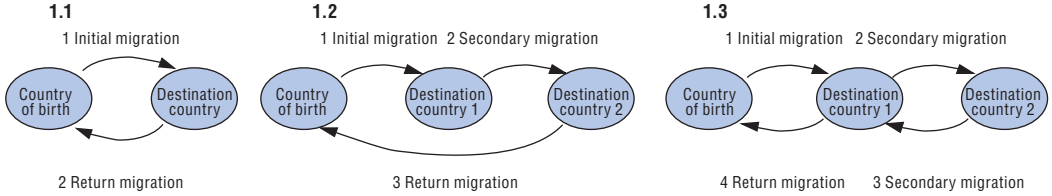
What is a returning migrant?

According to the definition offered by the United Nations Statistics Division for collecting data on international migration (UNSD, 1998), returning migrants are "*persons returning to their country of citizenship after having been international migrants (whether short-term or long-term) in another country and who are intending to stay in their own country for at least a year.*" This definition embraces four dimensions: *i)* country of origin, *ii)* place of residence abroad, *iii)* length of stay in the host country, and *iv)* length of stay in the home country after return.

According to this definition, a migrant's home country refers to his nationality. However, for persons born abroad and naturalised and for those born as foreigners in the host country, a definition based exclusively on the country of nationality does not seem appropriate. Differences in legislation on nationality also pose problems of international comparability. Thus it would appear preferable to take the country of birth as the criterion for identifying returning migrants.

Return can sometimes be part of a more complex migration history, as Chart III.1.1 shows: the last country of residence before return is not necessarily the country of initial

Chart III.1. **Various cases of return migration**



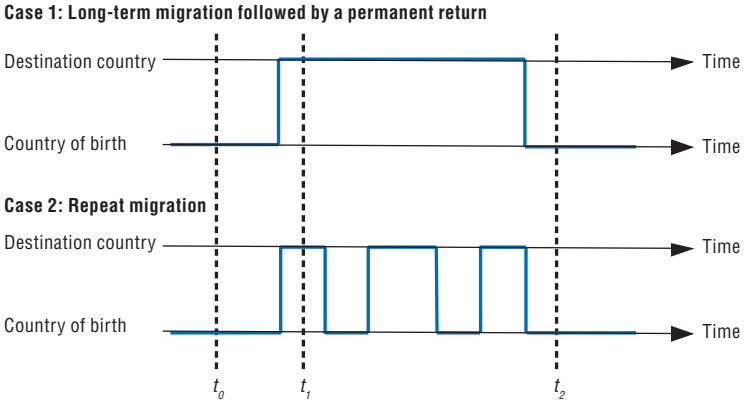
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destination (Chart III.1.2), and a departure from the country of immigration is not necessarily a return to the country of origin (Chart III.1.3).[2]

In the case of a short stay in the host country, return migration is especially difficult to identify, and is therefore frequently underestimated. The length of stay at the time of return can be measured from the declaration given upon exit from the host country, or after return to the country of origin. In the first case, the measure is subject to some uncertainty,[3] while in the second case it is a truncated measure.

The possibility of measuring length of stay in the host and home countries depends on the availability of data. In the example shown in Chart III.2, if place of residence is observed only at dates t_0, t_1 and t_2, then cases 1 and 2 are equivalent. Yet the reality is rather more complex. Even if "temporary" returns are particularly difficult to identify, as are short stays in the host country, it would be particularly important to be able to distinguish true returns from mere visits of migrants to their home country

Chart III.2. **Timing of migration for an individual and observational equivalence**



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Data sources and estimation methods

The sources of data for measuring return migration can be differentiated according to two main dimensions: the place of collection (in the country of origin or the country of destination) and whether the measurement is direct or indirect. If returns are identified from host country data, the measure will be based on immigrants leaving the territory. If the data come from the home country, returns will be identified on the basis of native-born persons entering the country. These two approaches do not necessarily coincide, to the extent that not all departures measured by the host country will necessarily have the home country as destination. The second dimension distinguishes direct measurement of

migratory flows and indirect measurement based on changes in migrant population stocks.

Direct measurement of exits or returns using longitudinal data

A prime source of statistics on returning migrants is data from population registries, which are compiled from a permanent census of the *de jure* population.[4] Residents are required to register upon arrival and to de-register upon departure.[5] These records thus count entries and exits from the country, and can be used to measure the departure of migrants and the return of native-born persons who were residing abroad. The information contained in the registries varies from one country to another, but generally includes country of birth and nationality, as well as destination and planned length of stay abroad for those leaving the country.

The first limitation on the use of population registries for measuring return migration is that people register and de-register on the basis of their planned length of stay in the country (for entries) or the planned length of absence from the country (for exits). Some individuals, then, may leave the country without de-registering if they plan to return shortly. If they do not return as planned, their departure is not recorded. The same holds for people who deliberately fail to "sign out", so as not to lose certain entitlements associated with residency in the country.[6] Moreover, by definition, population registries do not include illegal immigrants, and there is thus no way of measuring their departure from the territory. Nor does the registry always make it possible to identify the destination of persons leaving the country: when this information is available, it expresses a person's intent about the next country of residence, and not necessarily the real or final destination. Among the countries that maintain population registries are Germany, Austria, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, the Nordic countries, Spain and Switzerland.

In some countries, inflow and outflow data are collected at borders points (ports, airports, etc.). These data are collected primarily for immigration control purposes, and information on arrivals is generally more complete than that on departures. Moreover, these sources contain very little information on the demographic and social characteristics of migrants. Australia, New Zealand and Japan collect data of this kind. Another example of data collection at border crossings is the International Passenger Survey in the United Kingdom, the purpose of which is essentially statistical.

A direct measure of outflows can also be derived from longitudinal surveys. If the initial sample is representative of the foreign-born population, and if there is a way of knowing why immigrants leave the sample (*i.e.* death or departure), then we can estimate exits from the territory, and eventual returns. Sample size and structure are the main limitations of these tools. Longitudinal surveys generally have fairly small samples, because of technical and cost considerations, which make them less representative and affects estimates of exit rates. On the other hand, sources of this kind are very useful for studying individual behaviour. Among the available longitudinal surveys, the German socio-economic survey (GSOEP) is probably the one that has been used most for analysing return migration. Some countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Sweden) also have immigrant-specific longitudinal surveys. Finally, some specialised surveys can track the migration path of individuals between the countries of origin and destination (see Box III.1).

Box III.1. **Specialised surveys**

Specialised surveys conducted among migrants in host countries, or among migrant communities in countries of origin, can be used to collect detailed information on individuals' migration history, the length of their various stays abroad, their savings, their motivations and the socio-economic context of migration. In some cases, these data are collected in both the home country and the host country.

These surveys generally have samples of modest size, and are not useful for estimating the scope of initial or return migration, but they can be of great help in understanding the causes and consequences of return migration. Examples are the NIDI (Netherlands) surveys covering Turkey, Egypt, Morocco, Senegal and Ghana (see Schoorl *et al.*, 2000) or the Mexican Migration Project.

The Mexican Migration Project (MMP) is a research project launched in 1982, based at Princeton University in the United States and the University of Guadalajara in Mexico, which studies the migration of Mexicans to the United States. Each year, during the winter months (when seasonal migrants are home), the MMP randomly samples households in communities located throughout Mexico. The sample comprises some 300 households and more than 5 000 individuals each year. In addition to social, demographic and economic information on the household and its members, the interviewers collect data on each individual's first and last trip to the United States. From household heads, they compile a year-by-year history of US migration and administer a detailed series of questions about the last trip northward, focusing on employment, earnings, and use of United States social services.

Following completion of the Mexican surveys, interviewers travel to destination areas in the United States to administer identical questionnaires to migrants from the same communities sampled in Mexico who have settled north of the border and no longer return home. These surveys are combined with those conducted in Mexico to generate a representative binational sample.

Source: MMP site: *http://mmp.opr.princeton.edu/*.

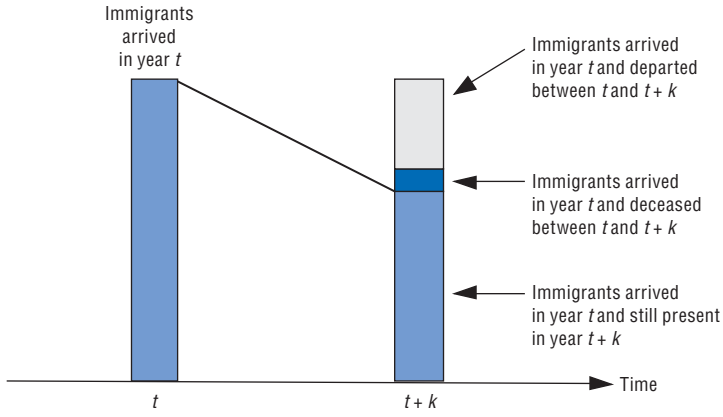
Indirect measurement of departures from the country of destination

Indirect measures of migrant departures, based on data collected in the country of destination, involve estimating, for a cohort that arrived in year *t*, the difference between the initial stock of the cohort and the stock remaining at a later date $t + k$, accounting if possible for deaths within the cohort during the interval (Chart III.3).

The size of the immigrant cohort entering in year *t* can be obtained, for example, from a direct measurement of immigration flows.[7] The size of this cohort in year $t + k$ can then be measured from a large sample survey (labour force surveys, for example) or from a population census. Depending on the available data, it may be possible to obtain detailed results by region or country of origin, gender, education and other variables of interest. However, this approach may be limited by sampling problems, in particular for those countries of origin that are less heavily represented.

Borjas and Bratsberg (1996) apply this method in the case of the United States, using data from the Immigration and Naturalization Service showing the number of foreigners admitted as permanent residents between 1975 and 1980, and also the 1980 census, which gives the remaining size of this cohort at that time. Given the differences in coverage between the two sources – entries do not count irregular immigrants and temporary

Chart III.3. **Indirect estimation method of immigrants' exits from the destination country**



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migrants (non-immigrants), whereas the population census counts them at least in part – the stocks from the census have to be corrected in order to calculate the exit rate of immigrants.

Such adjustments are not needed if the inflows in year *t* and the remaining cohort in *t* + *k* are measured from similar data sources. Thus, for the United States, we can use the 2000 Census and the nation-wide American Community Survey of 2005 to estimate return rates after five years of residence, by country of origin and by selected characteristics, for migrants entered in 1999.[8] The results are detailed in Section 1.B.

A comparable method involves use of annual labour force surveys (LFS) for five European countries (Belgium, Ireland, Norway, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom), with which we can track the cohorts arrived during the 1990s in successive surveys. In this way we can estimate the immigrant retention rate. The results are also shown in Section 1.B. Because of some inherent limitations in these data, specific adjustments had to be made[9] (see Box III.2).

Indirect measurement of returns to country of origin

Returns of migrants can be estimated from the countries of origin, if there is a representative survey available with information on individuals' previous place of residence. This is the case, for example, with the population censuses of a growing number of countries, which include a question on country of residence five years prior to census date. Here, we can not only estimate the number of return migrants for different countries of previous residence, but we can also compare the number of returning migrants with the number who never left the home country. When adequate data are available, it is also possible to match the home country census against the censuses of the principal destination countries. In this way, we can estimate return rates and we can also compare returning migrants with those who have remained in the host country. The method is illustrated in Chart III.5.

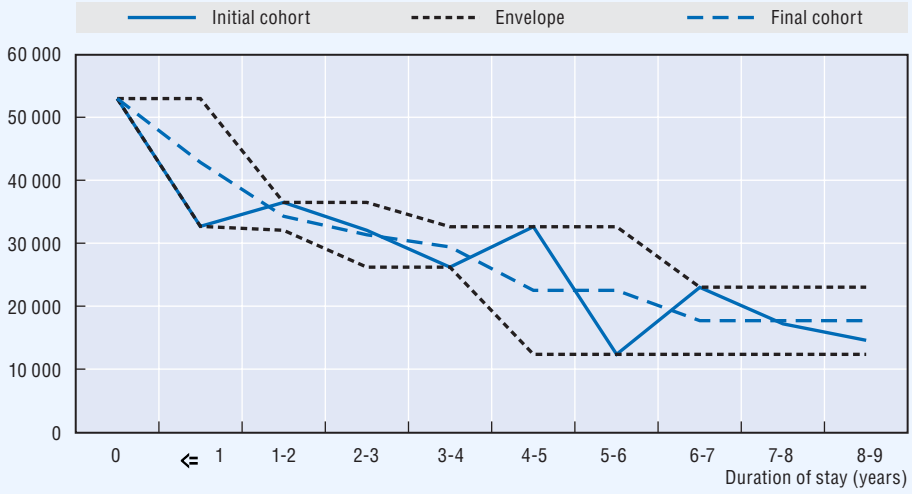
One drawback of this method is that it is generally not possible to control for the date of arrival in the destination country and, consequently, for the length of residence in that country. The "return rates" estimated in this way are not comparable, then, to the return rates by cohort estimated from surveys conducted in the destination countries. In fact, this

Box III.2. **Estimating return migration from labour force surveys**

For each labour force survey (LFS), non-responses about the length of stay are reallocated proportionately so as to maintain the total stock of immigrants.* The stocks for each length of stay are then re-weighted so that the total stock estimated from each survey coincides with official estimates of the immigrant population. The change in the size of the cohort entering in year t is then estimated by tracking the stocks by length of stay in the surveys for years *t* + 1, *t* + 2 and so on. As migrants arriving within the last year are only partially covered and are not very well represented in the LFS, the number of arrivals in each cohort is generally obtained from national administrative data (International Migration Database, see *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo/data*).

Because the employment survey samples are unstable and responses about length of stay are concentrated at certain values (five years in particular), the stocks of these cohorts are volatile and must be smoothed out in order to estimate retention rates. The smoothing method selected involves constructing an envelope around the original cohort, and the final stock for a given length of stay will be the average between the maximum and minimum of the envelope. Chart III.4 presents the adjustments made to the 1993 immigrant cohort in the Netherlands.

Chart III.4. **Evolution of the cohort of immigrants who entered the Netherlands in 1993, by duration of stay**



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Source: Authors' calculations; Labour force surveys of the Netherlands and International Migration Database.

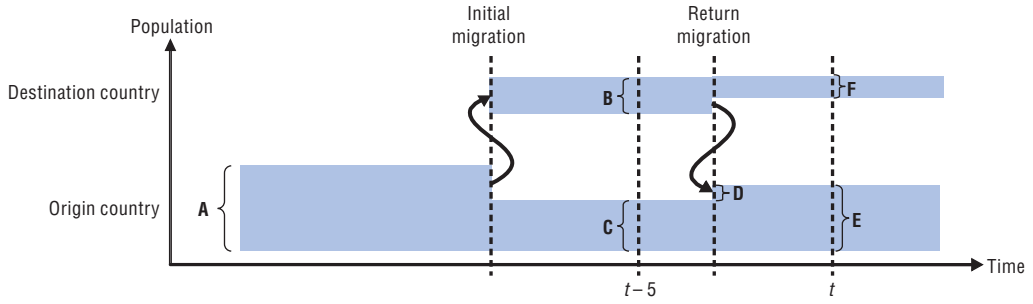
One limitation to this approach is that there are differences among countries in the official rules for recording inflows. Countries that have population registries use them as the sampling base for the LFS; inflows covered by the LFS are thus closely linked to registrations in the registries. Registration rules depend essentially on the immigrant's length-of-stay intention, and they vary from one country to the next. In a country where the registration criterion is the intent to stay more than three months, inflow figures will contain a significant number of persons entering for short stays. In countries where the registration criterion is one year, fewer entries will be recorded and consequently the exit rate will be lower.

* Non-responses about length of stay must be reallocated when the non-response rate varies from one year to the next, as is frequently the case.

method can be used to calculate a proportion of returns among migrants present at a given date, *i.e.* a ratio between outflows and a stock; this is typically lower than a return rate for a given cohort, which relates outflows to inflows.

We use this method for several countries in Latin America (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica and Mexico), matching their censuses with those of the United States and Spain, the main host countries of immigrants from these countries. The results are presented in Section 1.B.

Chart III.5. **Method for estimating returns using a census in the origin country**



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Note: Censuses in the origin and destination countries take place in year *t*. Censuses of both countries include a question on the country of residence 5 years earlier. A: initial population in the origin country; B: number of migrants arrived in the destination country before *t*-5; C: number of non-migrants (A-B); D: return migrants among migrants arrived in the destination country before *t*-5; E: population in the destination country in *t*. D is observed at date *t* in the origin country through the information on the place of residence in *t*-5; F is observed at date *t* in the host country. The proportion of returnees in *t* among the migrants living in the destination country in *t*-5 is equal to D/B = D/(F+D).

1.B. The magnitude of return migration

This section presents the main findings from estimates elaborated using the methods described in the previous section. They are supplemented by results taken from the existing literature on return migration. The following presentation distinguishes between estimates based on "country of destination" sources and those obtained from "country of origin" sources.

The differences in return rates by country of destination can be attributed to three types of factors. First, the nature of residence permits, in particular the requirements for renewal and change of status, varies greatly among the admission categories, and affects the probability of return and the effective length of stay. For example, seasonal workers are likely to return fairly promptly to their home country. Foreign students are not, *a priori*, supposed to settle permanently in the host country, but in many OECD countries (see OECD, 2007) they now have the possibility of changing their status upon completing their studies, under certain conditions. On the other hand, people entering under a selective migration programme in settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand) receive a permanent residence permit upon arrival. In Europe, some temporary stay permits are in effect permanent, and allow for long-term settlement. The composition of migration flows according to these different categories will affect the observed average return rate.

The motives for migration also determine the propensity to return. People immigrating under family reunification provisions are likely to settle permanently.[10] With refugees, by contrast, the likelihood of return will depend essentially on the restoration of

economic, social and political stability in the home country, and the degree of integration in the host country. Finally, individual circumstances such as marital and family status are also a key factor in migratory behaviour.

Given the differences in the nature of flows by country of origin and the features of migration policies in OECD countries, return rates can be expected to vary among countries. In interpreting the results presented in this report, it is important to bear in mind these institutional and structural differences, even if it is generally difficult to identify their impact precisely.

Estimating returns from host country data: overall re-emigration rates by entry cohort

We present here the outcomes of estimates made for several European OECD countries, based on labour force surveys for the period 1992-2005, and for the United States, using the 2000 population census and the 2005 American Community Survey.

Generally speaking, the estimated exit rates (*i.e.* including returns and secondary emigration) are fairly high. As Table III.1 shows, overall exit rates after five years of residence range from 19% for the United States to 60% for Ireland. In other words, of an entry cohort of 100 immigrants arriving year t, 40 were still present in year t+5 in the case of Ireland, 50 in Belgium, 60 in United Kingdom and Norway, 72 in the Netherlands, and 81 in the United States. The US estimate may be understated, since departures during the first year (*i.e.* between 1999 and 2000) are not counted (see Note 8). On the other hand, re-emigration rates for Ireland and Belgium are particularly high. In Belgium's case, this could perhaps reflect the presence of European institutions and of numerous multinational corporate headquarters. As noted in Box III.2, the comparability of the results is limited by inter-country differences in inflow recording criteria.

Table III.1. **Estimates of re-emigration rates in selected European countries and the United States after 5 years of residence**

Population aged 15 and older

	Entry period	Average re-emigration rate after 5 years (%)
Ireland	1993-1998	60.4
Belgium	1993-1999	50.4
United Kingdom	1992-1998	39.9
Norway	1996-1999	39.6
Netherlands	1994-1998	28.2
United States	1999	19.1

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Source: See Box III.2 for the estimation method and the sources for the European countries and Note 8 for the United States.

Existing estimates of re-emigration rates after five years of residence, obtained with comparable methods, provide similar results. For the United Kingdom, Dustmann and Weiss (2007) obtain an average retention rate of 60% after five years of residence, over the period 1992-2002, using data from employment surveys, and this result is identical to what we obtained for the period 1992-98. For the United States, Borjas and Bratsberg (1996) offer estimates of exit rates at the time of the 1980 census for cohorts entering between 1970 and 1974, and between 1975 and 1980. They obtain re-emigration rates of 21.5% after six to ten years of residence, and 17.5% after five years of residence or less. These results are

comparable with the five-year rate we estimate for persons arriving in 1999 (19.1%) and they suggest that the overall immigrant retention rate in the United States has changed little in the last 25 years. For Norway, Bratsberg *et al.* (2007) estimate, for cohorts entering between 1967 and 2003, an average exit rate of around 50% after five years of residence. For the Netherlands, using data from the population register, Bijwaard (2004) finds a re-emigration rate of around 35% after five years for the 1997 entry cohort.

Comparable exit rate estimates are available for other countries. For Canada, Aydemir and Robinson (2006) find a retention rate of 76.3% after five years of residence for male migrants entering in 1996, yielding an exit rate of 23.7%.[11] For Denmark, Jensen and Pedersen (2007) estimate a retention rate of 45% after five years for the cohort of immigrants entering in 1983 (*i.e.* an exit rate of 55%). For New Zealand, Shortland (2006) estimates that 77% of the 1998 cohort were still present in the country in 2003, that is a re-emigration rate of 23%.

Taken as a whole, these estimates indicate that re-emigration rates after five years of residence vary from 20% to more than 50% depending on the host country and the period considered. Some countries, such as the United States, Canada and New Zealand, which figure among the traditional countries of long-term immigration, retain more of their immigrants than do European countries.

Differences by country of origin

Retention rates by entry cohort vary substantially depending on the migrants' home country. The makeup of migration flows in terms of country of origin may also explain in part the differences in re-emigration rates by country of destination, which we have just reviewed.

In the case of the United States, for example, our estimates indicate that the exit rate of Mexican migrants entering in 1999 was 18% after five years, while it was 24% for persons from South America, 43% for immigrants from Canada, and 54% for those from a country of the EU15.

For Norway, the findings of Bratsberg *et al.* (2007) again show great diversity according to region of origin: although the average re-emigration rate after five years is about 50%, the retention rate of immigrants from OECD countries is below 30%, while that for immigrants from non-Western countries is above 75%. For Sweden, the probability that an immigrant will leave the country varies by region of origin as well: migrants from Africa, Asia and Eastern Europe are least likely to depart (Nekby, 2006).

Return migration *versus* secondary migration

According to the definition discussed in Section 1.A, return migration is a particular case of re-emigration, one in which the new country of destination is the same as the country of origin. With secondary migration, the new country of destination is different from the country of origin. It is important to distinguish between return migration and secondary migration, because the implications in terms of immigration policies and in terms of the impact on the country of origin are not the same.

Direct estimates comparing secondary migration and return migration are available for the Nordic countries, thanks to their population registries, which include information on planned destination. For Sweden, Nekby (2006) shows that for the period 1991-2000, 72% of immigrants (aged 26 to 64 years) leaving the country were planning to return to their country of birth, leaving a secondary migration rate of 28%. This percentage varies greatly,

however, by region of origin: the share of secondary migration in total re-emigration is less than 15% for persons born in the Nordic countries and in Western Europe, but it exceeds 20% for North Americans and South Americans, 40% for natives of Eastern Europe, and 50% for Asians and Africans. In the case of Norway, Bratsberg *et al.* (2007) obtain comparable results. Over the period 1967-2003, 93% of Danish and Swedish immigrants who left Norway returned to their home countries, indicating a secondary migration share of around 7%. For immigrants from the United States and the United Kingdom, the share of secondary migration in re-emigration was respectively 14% and 13%. By contrast, for immigrants from emerging or developing countries the secondary migration share was much higher: 22% for Turkey, 19% for Iraq, 30% for Somalia, and 67% for Viet Nam.

In the case of Austria, exit registry data include an indication of migrants' region of destination. For individuals leaving Austria between 2002 and 2006 and born in the EU15 (excluding Austria), between 86% and 93% had the EU15 as their destination. This suggests that the share of secondary migration is relatively small, unless it is assumed that these persons are emigrating to a European country other than their country of birth. In the case of African immigrants leaving Austria, the share having Africa as destination was between 78% and 90%. If we assume that the great majority of Africans returning to Africa from Austria in fact go back to their country of birth, then secondary migration would represent at most 20% of African immigrant departures.

The relative share of secondary migration and return migration seems then to vary significantly by country of origin and country of destination, but also according to the nature and length of residence in the host country. Immigrants from relatively poor countries or regions who have lived in an OECD country are more likely to emigrate to a third country, while immigrants from countries where living standards are comparable to those in the host country have a tendency to go back to their country of origin.

Estimating returns from home country data

From the viewpoint of migrants' home countries, returning native-born persons (or nationals) are detected upon entry. If these return migrants have the nationality of their country of origin, they face no formalities in re-entering their country, and very often there will be no administrative record of such entries (except in countries that have registries covering the entire population, such as the Nordic countries). The most current source of information on returning natives is therefore the population census, when it includes a question on previous place of residence (see Section 1.A for a description of this method).

Table III.2 presents an estimate of the number of return migrants in selected countries of Latin America, by country of destination, using census data. The results show that return rates differ greatly by country of origin and country of destination: the highest return rate is for Chileans who immigrated to Spain (about 16%), while the lowest rate is for Mexicans and Argentines who immigrated to the United States (4%).

1.C. Who are the returning migrants?

This section discusses the principal socio-economic characteristics (age, length of stay, gender and education) of returning migrants.

Table III.2. **Proportion of return migrants among migrants from selected Latin American countries**

Destination countries: United States and Spain

	Census year (t)	Migrants resident in the destination country in 2000 and arrived before year $t-5$		Migrants returned from the destination country after year $t-5$		Share of migrants returned in year t among migrants living in the destination country in $t-5$	
		[1]		[2]		[2/(1 + 2)]	
		United States	Spain	United States	Spain	United States	Spain
Argentina	2001	98 438	61 860	3 860	2 770	3.8	4.3
Brazil	2000	114 085	17 800	11 596	1 519	9.2	7.9
Chile	2002	66 542	9 180	5 080	1 730	7.1	15.9
Costa Rica	2000	51 267	–	4 400	–	7.9	–
Mexico	2000	6 268 985	11 280	239 987	1 404	3.7	11.1

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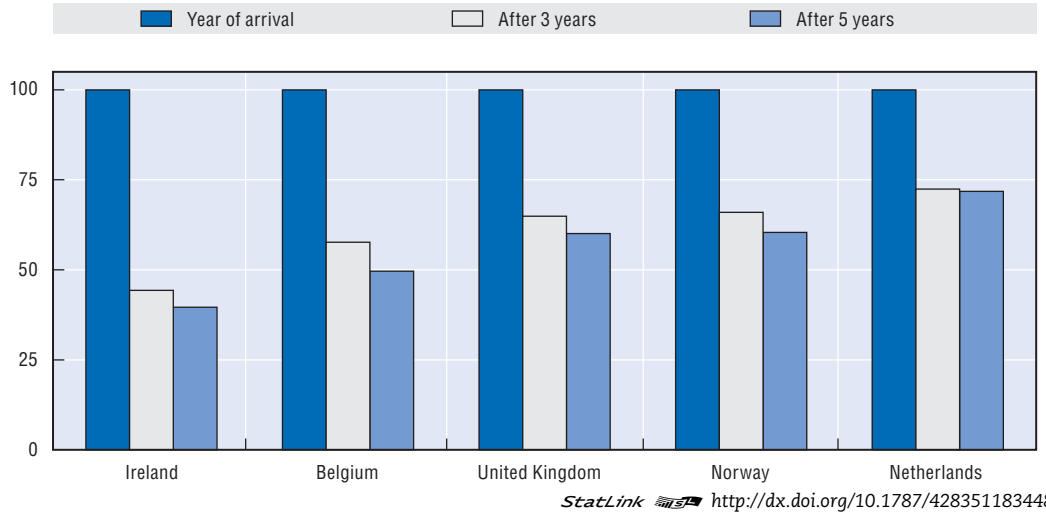
Note: See Chart III.5 for the estimation method.
Source: Column [1]: population censuses of the destination countries (United States (2000) and Spain (2001)); column [2]: population censuses of the origin countries.

Age and length of stay of returning migrants

With the help of European employment surveys, we can compare retention rates after three years of residence with those after five years. A clear tendency emerges from this comparison for all countries analysed: the return rate after five years is not much higher than the return rate after three years. This indicates that immigrants who leave their country of destination do so after a relatively short time abroad. In other words, the longer a migrant stays in the host country, the less likely he is to return home or to emigrate to a third country (see Chart III.6). This result is largely explained by the fact that, in many European countries of the OECD, an immigrant can obtain a long-term residence permit after five years of residence, or can even take out the nationality of the host country.

Chart III.6. **Retention rates of immigrants after 3 and 5 years of residence for selected European countries, population aged 15 and older**

%



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Source: See Box III.2 for the estimation method and sources.

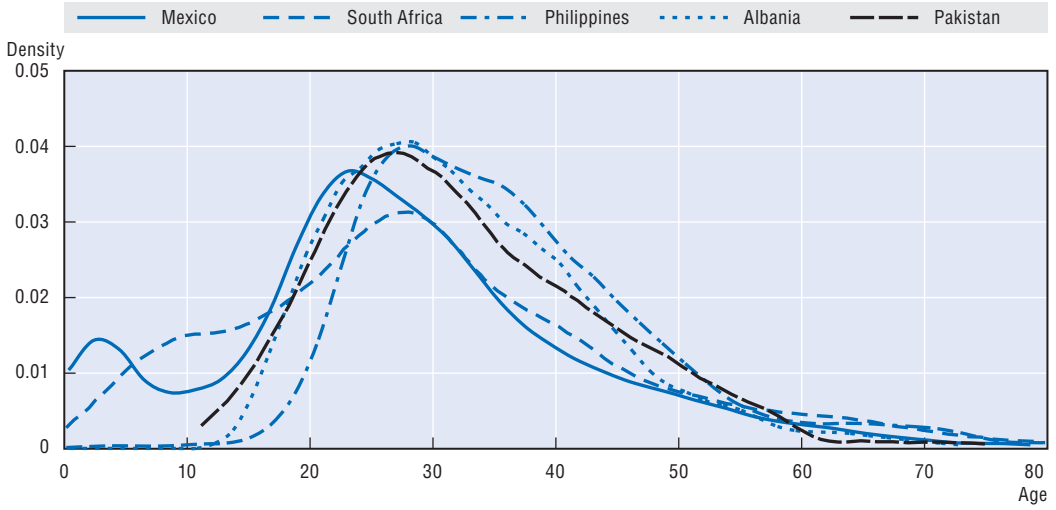
The analyses performed with data from the population registries in Nordic countries confirm this finding. For Sweden, Nekby (2006) shows that a migrant's length of residence in a country diminishes the likelihood that he will return to his home country: controlling for a set of demographic factors, Nekby shows that ten years spent in Sweden will reduce the probability of returning to the home country by nearly eight percentage points. On the other hand, length of stay has less impact on the probability of secondary migration. Similarly, the results obtained by Bratsberg *et al.* (2007) indicate that the average retention rate of immigrants in Norway drops from 60% after three years to 50% after five years, and to 40% after ten years.

For the United States, data from the 2000 Census and the 2005 American Community Survey also show that the propensity to re-emigrate declines with length of stay. While the re-emigration rate of immigrants entering in 1999 is 19% after five years, only 11% of persons who entered in 1998 and were still present at the time of the 2000 Census would leave the United States between 2000 and 2005. For the 1997 entry cohort, this proportion falls to 7.5%, and for immigrants who arrived between 1994 and 1996 it is only 5%.[12]

Monitoring of immigrants over a longer time reveals that, in some cases, the probability of return declines at first and then rises. For Denmark, Jensen and Petersen (2007) estimate that the probability of leaving the country declines in the first 15 years of residence, and then grows, reflecting the lifecycle of the migrants, and in particular a significant propensity to return home upon retirement (see also Box III.3).

However, as McKenzie (2006) shows, a preponderant portion of returning migrants go back home at the early stages of their lifecycle, when they are relatively young. He found that Mexican migrants return to Mexico at an average age of 24 years, after three years abroad, and that Albanians go back to their country at an average age of 25 years, after seven months abroad (see Chart III.7).

Chart III.7. **Distribution of age at return for selected countries**



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Source: McKenzie (2006).

Are women more likely than men to return home?

For European countries, there would seem to be no significant differences in re-emigration rates according to gender. In the United States our estimates show, however, that there is a significant difference between men and women, with re-emigration rates after

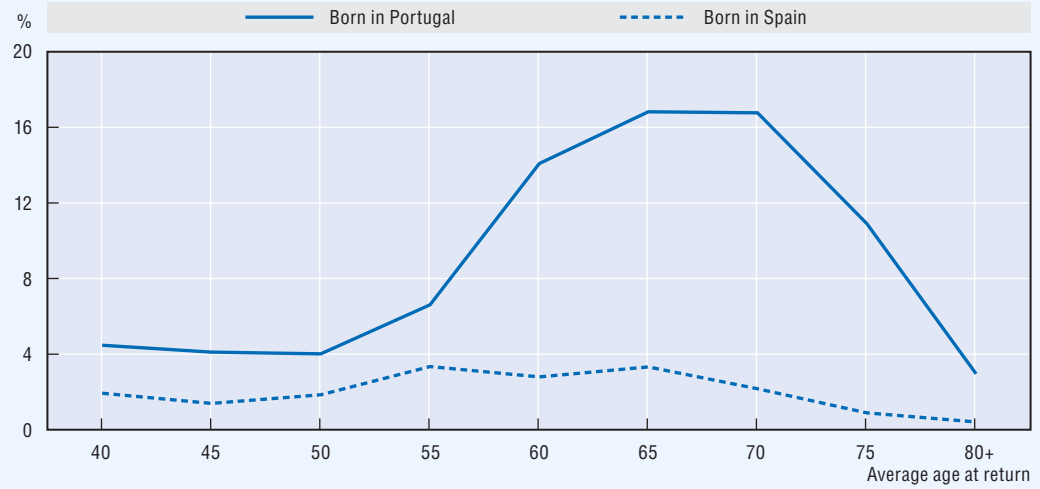
Box III.3. **Return for retirement**

When they reach the age of retirement, some migrants return to their country of origin. In the case of Sweden, for example, Klinthäll (2006) shows that the probability of return increases significantly after age 65, the legal retirement age in that country. This effect is even more pronounced for persons retiring between the ages of 51 and 64 years.

In the case of returning migrants born in Spain and Portugal and living in France, a joint exploitation of the 2001 census data for the two Iberian countries and the 1995 French employment survey allows us to estimate the proportion of Spanish and Portuguese migrants returning to their country of origin, by age group, between 1995 and 2001. As Chart III.8 shows, that proportion rises sharply after 50-55 years for Portuguese immigrants, and much more moderately for Spanish immigrants, who return in much smaller numbers. Thus, among Portuguese immigrants aged 60 to 64 years who were living in France in 1995, nearly 17% had returned to Portugal within the five following years, whereas this proportion is only 3.5% for Spanish immigrants. Differences in integration and in the characteristics of migratory waves contribute to explaining these gaps.

Upon retirement, however, some migrants may choose to split their time between their home and their host countries. In the case of migrants living in France, De Coulon and Wolff (2006) show that the "to and fro" option is far from negligible, particularly among immigrants from southern Europe and those from North Africa and the Middle East. Portuguese immigrants in France are also likely to come and go throughout their working life (especially for spending vacations at home), and they very often maintain ties to their home community. Immigrants who acquire a dwelling in Portugal (often in their home village or town) will end up spending longer periods of time in the country after they retire (Charbit *et al.*, 1997).

Chart III.8. **Share of immigrants born in Portugal and Spain returning from France to their origin countries, by average age at return**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428378574812

Source: Authors' calculations; Labour force survey of France 1995, Portuguese and Spanish censuses 2001.

five years of 22% and 16% respectively. If we exclude Mexican migrants (among whom men are overrepresented), this difference shrinks but it does not completely disappear (21% for men and 18.5% for women). For Mexican immigrants, the re-emigration rate for men after five years is much higher than that for women (23% *versus* 9.6%). For those Latin American countries for which data are available, by contrast, male-female differences are minimal.

Education: are better-educated migrants more likely to return than others?

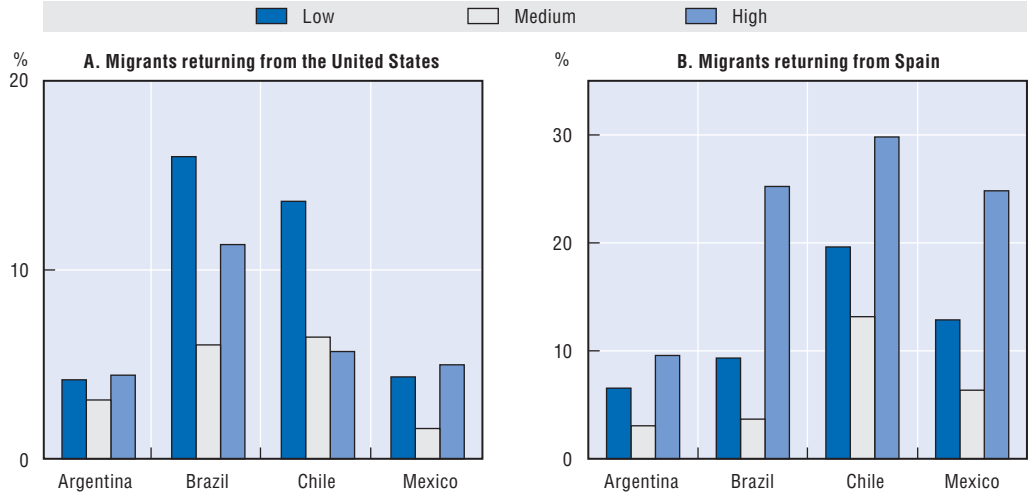
Does the propensity for immigrants to return home vary according to their level of education? For European countries, the re-emigration rate of highly skilled immigrants is above the average. In the United States, less-qualified immigrants (with less than lower secondary education) and those with higher education have a much higher re-emigration rate than immigrants with an intermediate level of education: for men who arrived in 1999 at the age of 30 years or more,[13] the re-emigration rate after five years was 34.3% for the least educated, 4.4% for those with intermediate education, and 23.5% for the highly educated. The same profile can be found for the return rates of immigrants from most Latin American countries returning from the United States or Spain (Chart III.9).

Several other authors (notably Nekby (2006) for the case of Sweden) have identified such a relationship between immigrants' education level and their probability of return.

Highly skilled migrants generally exhibit a high return rate. For the United States, Finn (2007) shows that the retention rate of foreigners who have earned a doctorate in an American university is around 65-70% five years after they received their degree, which suggests a re-emigration rate of 30 to 35%. This retention rate varies significantly, however, by country of origin and by field of study.

Chart III.9. **Proportion of return migrants by educational attainment among immigrants from Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico**

Population aged 25 to 64 years old



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428383021711

Note: Low educational attainment means less than lower secondary, medium means completed upper secondary education and high educational attainement means tertiary education.

Source: Population censuses of the respective countries (see Table III.2).

2. The determinants of return migration: from theory to practice

Gaining a proper understanding of the motivations that underlie migrants' decision to return to their home countries or to move on to a third country is an important matter for preparing migration policies, particularly those relating to temporary or circular migration.

Even if we confine the question to voluntary returns, or more precisely to the case of migrants who are able to make a choice unconstrained by their legal status, we must admit

that the standard theoretical models are inadequate to explain return migration. Economic approaches to the decision to migrate, such as those offered in the seminal contributions of Sjaastad (1962) or Harris and Todaro (1970), are unable to explain return migration to developing countries from OECD countries, which are characterised by negative differentials in expected income. Beginning in the 1980s, however, and more particularly during the 1990s, the question of return migration was the subject of numerous theoretical interpretations and empirical evaluations that succeeded in characterising and identifying the principal mechanisms at work.

We may distinguish essentially between four types of arguments, founded respectively on: *i)* failure to integrate into the host country and changes in the economic situation of the home country, *ii)* individuals' preferences for their home country; *iii)* the achievement of a savings objective, or *iv)* greater employment opportunities for individuals in their home country, thanks to experience gained abroad.

2.A. The failure of migration and the importance of the macroeconomic environment

A first set of studies seeks to explain return migration by positing faulty information about the host country when the decision to emigrate was taken. In a situation of imperfect information, prospective migrants will have an erroneous appreciation of possibilities and conditions for integration in the labour market and the society of the host country. They may for example underestimate the difficulty of mastering the host country language, of gaining recognition for foreign qualifications, or of putting their professional experience to profitable use. When they have an offer of employment, candidates for migration may underestimate the cost of living, and in particular the cost of housing, and thus overestimate the living standard and the savings capacity they will enjoy in the country of destination. Under these conditions, it is those who have "failed" in fulfilling their migration plan who are most likely to return home. In these cases, the return will be fairly prompt, and will be all the more likely if access to information is poor.

The early contributions of Yezer and Thurston (1976) and Allen (1979) pursue this line of reasoning, and apply it to internal migration in the United States. Herzog and Schottmann (1982) attempt to estimate the effect of access to information on return migration,[14] but the results are not very robust and do not permit to validate the model. Da Vanzo (1983) obtains more convincing results however: she finds, in particular, a significant and positive correlation between distance of migration and probability of re-emigrating.[15]

Looking at immigrants to the United States, Duleep (1994) also characterises return migration as "failed migration". He shows that there are two return peaks, one that comes very quickly after emigration, and the other much later, at the time of retirement. Borjas and Bratsberg (1996) model return migration in a framework based on the selection model of Roy (1951), in which the composition of migratory flows depends on the relative distribution of incomes between the home and host countries, and average returns on human capital. Within this framework, return migration is explained primarily by an error in evaluating the shape of the income distribution in the host country. The authors show that return migration selection is inverted in relation to the initial selection process. In other words, if the host country attracts relatively unskilled workers, it will be the better-skilled among them who are most likely to return. There are some empirical studies to validate this model, especially for Puerto Rican immigrants to United States (Ramos, 1992), and more recently for migration between Sweden and Finland (Rooth and Saarela, 2007).

Some studies have tested the hypothesis of "failed migration" by analysing the link between integration into the host country labour market and return migration. The results, however, are to some extent contradictory. Borjas (1989) shows, for example, that the immigrant scientists in the United States who emigrate are the ones who are least successful on the labour market. Reyes (1997) obtains similar results for Mexican workers in the United States. In the case of Germany (Constant and Massey 2002, 2003)[16] and Canada (Lam, 1994), exposure to unemployment increases the probability of return.

For immigrants who find it difficult to join the labour market, access to a social security system can reduce their propensity to emigrate. Reagan and Olsen (2000), Jensen and Petersen (2007), and Nekby (2006) obtain such results for the United States, Denmark and Sweden, respectively.

The fact is that, in making their decision to return, migrants consider not only their situation on the host country labour market, but also the opportunities open to them in their home country. The macroeconomic context in the home country and in the host country is a major determinant of the decision to return. Using census data for the host countries (United States and Spain) and the home countries (Argentina and Mexico), we can compare return rates by age, gender and level of education against the unemployment rate differential observed between the home and host countries for each of these categories (see Chart III.10). Despite the heterogeneity of situations, the calculation shows a positive correlation between the probability of returning to the home country and relatively better employment opportunities. This is especially the case for Mexicans in the United States and for Argentines in Spain.[17]

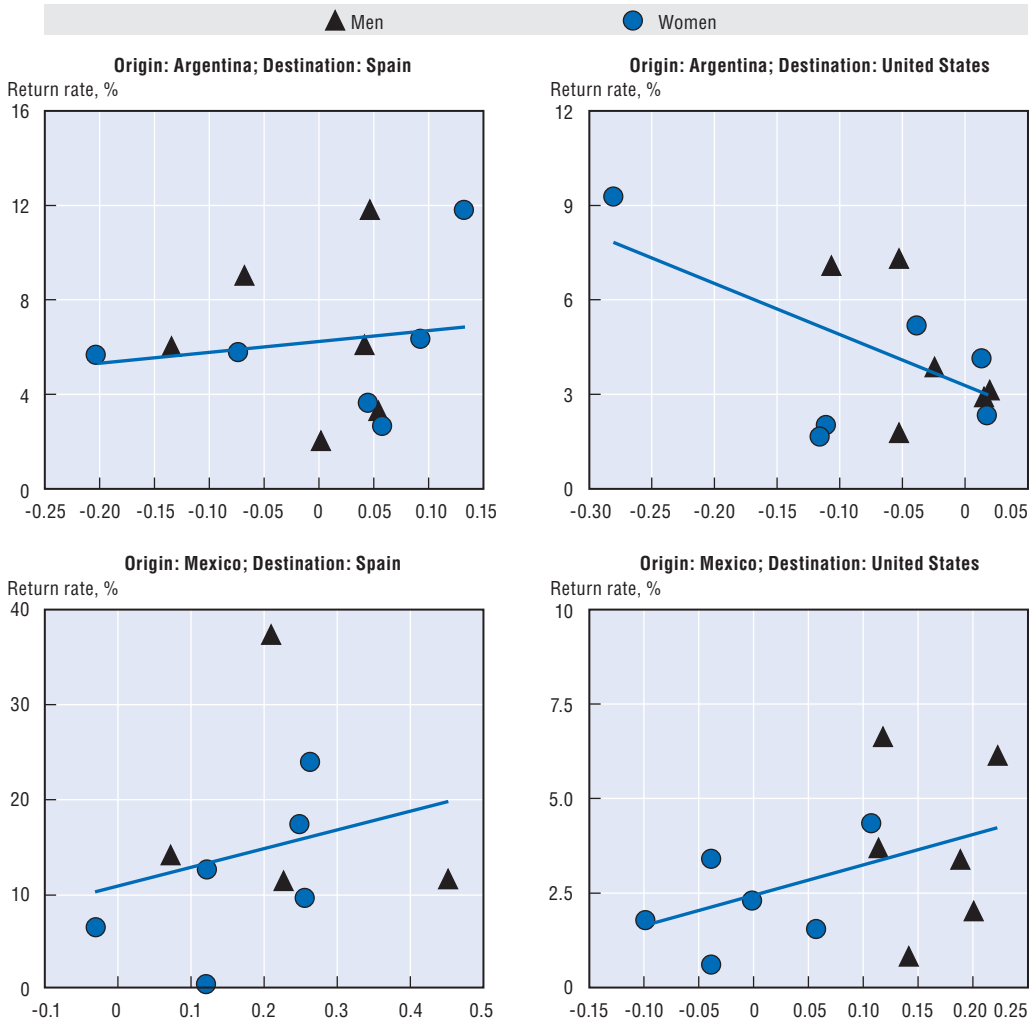
The importance of the home-country macroeconomic situation can also be seen in the behaviour of Turkish immigrants who returned from Germany at times of economic expansion in Turkey. Economic conditions in the host country also matter. Many Portuguese immigrants returned home, for example, at the end of the 1970s and in the early 1980s, when their host countries were in an economic downturn. This example also shows the importance of the political context surrounding economic changes, as Portugal had emerged from dictatorship in 1974.

2.B. Preference for consumption in the home country

Another way of understanding return migration is to consider it as an integral part of the initial migration plan. Assuming that migrants maximise their utility throughout their lives, it might be optimal for them to choose to limit their stay in the host country even if the positive income differential *vis-à-vis* the home country persists.[18] This conclusion holds especially if the utility derived from consumption is higher in the home country than in the host country.[19] If the immigrant does not return during his working life, then he will be bound to do so when he or she retires.

Building on the work of Hill (1987) and Djajic and Milbourne (1988), this literature developed rapidly in the early 1990s. Originally, these authors assumed an exogenous preference for the home country, but that preference could also be explained by the purchasing power differential (Djajic, 1989; Stark, Helmenstein and Yegorov, 1997). For immigrants, time spent in the host country can be used to accumulate money that will be spent upon return. They will return when the marginal benefit of higher savings is offset by the loss of utility associated with residing abroad. Under certain conditions, they will

Chart III.10. **Return rates by origin and destination countries, as a function of observed employment rates differentials, circa 2000**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428437807072

Note: Persons aged 25 to 64 years old, allocated in 12 groups according to gender (two groups), educational attainment (three groups: primary and lower secondary, upper secondary and tertiary) and age (two groups: 25-44 and 45-64). Each data point represents a distinct population group.

Source: Authors' calculations; Population censuses of Argentina, Spain, Mexico and the United States (circa 2000).

return before retirement age. This is more likely if the person immigrated at a young age or has a higher preference for present consumption.

Under these conditions, the length-of-stay effect of a wage increase in the host country will be, *a priori*, ambiguous: the income effect and the relative wage effect will work in opposite directions (negatively and positively) on the optimal length of stay. Using Germany as an example, Dustmann (2003a) shows that migrants compensate for unanticipated wage fluctuations by adjusting their length of stay: *ceteris paribus*, a wage cut (or increase) will weaken (strengthen) the resolve to return.

Galor and Stark (1990, 1991) posit that, given the probability of return, migrants will smooth their consumption over their lifecycle by saving more or working harder in the host

country. This would explain why some immigrants succeed in accumulating more wealth than their fellow workers who were born in the country.

Dustmann (1997a) builds this model into a stochastic environment. He shows that uncertainty about the home country labour market tends to increase migrants' precautionary savings, and can increase the optimal length of stay.

Few empirical studies have tested these models explicitly, but a number have confirmed implicitly the role that attachment to the home country can play in return migration. For Germany, Constant and Massey (2000, 2003) show that having a spouse or children in the home country[20] is an important factor for return; conversely, access to German nationality or emotional ties ("feeling German") can explain a stronger propensity to settle permanently. Lindstrom (1996) obtains similar results for Mexican migrants in the United States.

2.C. Saving to invest

Another type of argument for explaining return migration holds that migration can serve to finance an investment project in the home country. From this perspective, individuals make a joint choice that incorporates migration, savings, return and investment.

While the lifecycle models described above link the savings objective to future consumption, the argument here is that those savings will be used to finance a productive investment. In formal terms, the distinction is subtle, but the two approaches have potentially different implications. For example, the "migrant entrepreneur" faces an additional constraint on the age at which he returns, in that he must be able to enjoy the fruits of his investment over a sufficiently long time before the end of his working life.

Berninghaus and Seifert-Vogt (1993) offer an initial attempt to formalise the behaviour of migrants in terms of savings objectives. They show that, if the initial savings objective cannot be achieved by a certain date, because of unfavourable economic conditions in the home or host country for example, the migration plan is likely to change. In that case, temporary migration could become permanent.

Dustmann and Kirchkamp (2002) propose a model that links savings behaviour in the host country, the decision to return, and the choice of activity in the home country (entrepreneurship, paid employment or inactivity). They show, among other things, that migrants are better placed to develop an individual activity in their home country if they emigrated at a young age. They also show that the effect of a wage increase in the host country on the average length of stay is uncertain. Better pay reduces the length of stay for "migrant entrepreneurs", but for those who initially chose paid work upon their return (because they did not believe they could achieve the minimal savings objective to become entrepreneurs) it can shift them into another migration regime.[21] Under certain conditions, assisted return, particularly systems that help migrants create their own businesses, can have a similarly ambiguous effect on the length of stay.

The authors then test their model on a sample comprising nearly 700 Turks who had lived in Germany and had gone back to Turkey under an assisted return programme. In this sample, more than half of the individuals were engaged in an entrepreneurial activity four years after their return, and 43% were inactive. Dustmann and Kirchkamp confirm the negative effect of age at immigration and they identify a positive effect of education on the probability of being an entrepreneur. The most significant effect, however, is associated with exercise of an independent activity in Germany.[22]

Mesnard (2004) explains the link between return migration and entrepreneurship by the need to overcome problems of access to the credit market in the home country. The estimations applied to Tunisia confirm that there is a constraint on access to credit, and demonstrate the role that international migration plays in this context.

Yang (2006) also tries to test the entrepreneurship argument in the case of the Philippines. According to the author, if migrants have set themselves a savings target, a sharp depreciation of the Philippine peso (such as occurred during the Asian financial crisis in 1997) should encourage them to return. The empirical results do not confirm this mechanism, however, and in fact suggest a reverse effect: a 10% depreciation of the peso reduces the return rate by 1.4 percentage points. Yet if migrants set their savings target in foreign currency, or if they expect higher inflation following depreciation, the preceding results are not enough to invalidate the savings target hypothesis. The findings of Reyes (2004) are the reverse of Yang's in the case of migration between Mexico and the United States. Other studies in different contexts confirm the importance of the link between immigration, return and entrepreneurship. This is notably the case in Pakistan (Ilahi, 1999), in Egypt (McCormick and Wahba, 2001) and in China (Zhao, 2002) (see Section 4 for further details).

2.D. Human capital formation and return migration

Still another type of argument developed in the literature focuses on the fact that migrants acquire human capital in the host country, and this may complement their initial human capital to varying degrees. The existence of externalities in the learning function or exposure to a new technological environment could mean that human capital is accumulated more rapidly in the host country than in the home country. The case of foreign students who return home after studying abroad can be understood in this framework.[23]

The literature in this field however relies more on the effect of complementarity between initial human capital and that acquired abroad. Thus, some authors argue that skills acquired in the host country allow migrants to increase the return on their human capital in the home country. The key factor for the return decision is essentially different here from that described previously, in that it lies, at least partially, in the possibility of investing the expected income differential between the home and host countries.

This mechanism was already present in the model of Borjas and Bratsberg (1996). Dustmann (1995) also incorporates it to show that, given the growth in income upon return, migrants' savings will reveal two peaks: the first in the host country, and the second after return to the home country.[24]

Several empirical studies confirm that there is a wage premium for returning. This is notably the case for Ireland: Barrett and O'Connell (2001) show that men who emigrated and returned to Ireland earned on average 10% more than those who never left (50% for those who emigrated to find employment). On the other hand, they find no significant effect for women. The findings of Co, Gang and Yun (2000), in the case of Hungary, are of the same nature but reversed by gender: women alone benefit from a return premium, in the order of 40%.[25] Wahba (2007a) is one of the few authors to explore this question for developing countries. For Egypt, she shows that individuals with international migration experience will earn on average 38% more than those who never emigrated. The results of these last two empirical studies are particularly interesting, because they are careful to control for the double selection to which returning migrants are subject: the selection

resulting from the non-random nature of migration, and the selection (conventional for wage estimations) deriving from the choice to participate in the labour market.

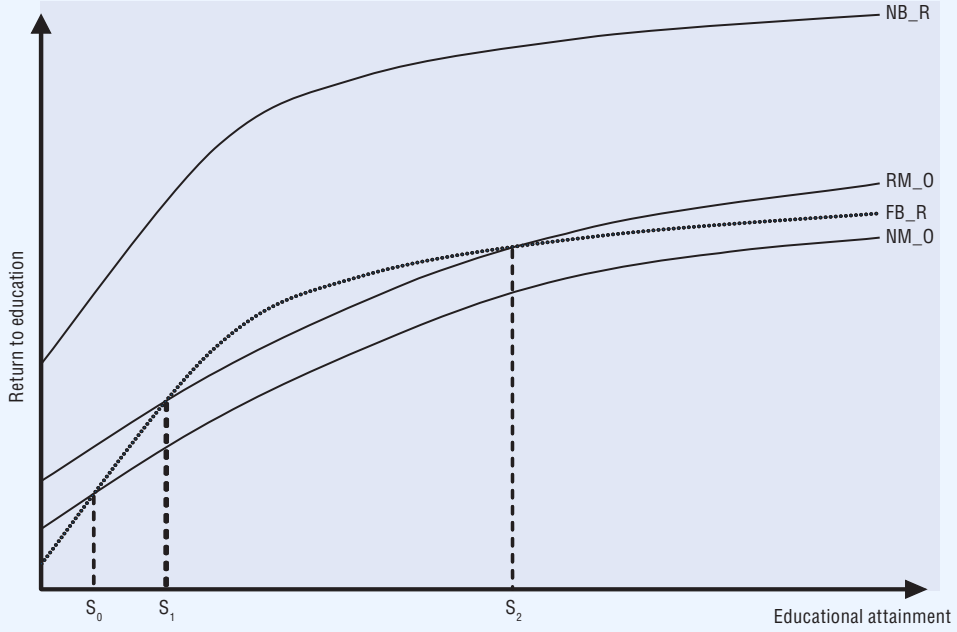
In Section 1, we noted a greater propensity to return at the two extremities of the education spectrum. This finding may be attributable to generational effects, with older, unskilled migrants returning toward the end of their working life, and younger, educated migrants returning for other reasons. In some cases, this finding persists even after controlling for migrants' age structure and length of stay (*e.g.* Nekby, 2006). The human capital accumulation model offers a framework for interpreting this finding, especially for return migration to developing countries (see Box III.4).

Box III.4. **Return to education and return migration**

To the extent that the return to education in the migrant's home country is less concave than in the country of destination, and taking into account the costs of migration and re-emigration, the human capital accumulation model can explain differences in migratory behaviour by education level (see Chart III.11).

In Chart III.11, individuals with very little schooling (below S_0) will not expect to earn enough in the host country to cover their fixed costs of migration, and they will not migrate. For individuals with an education level higher than S_0, emigration will be profitable and will equip them with new skills. The least skilled migrants (those with an education level between S_0 and S_1) and the most highly skilled (education level above S_2) will find it in their interest to return to their country of origin because there they can capitalise on their experience and earn more than they could without emigrating. Migrants with an intermediate level of education (between S_1 and S_2) will also acquire skills, but not to the extent that return will be profitable, which may be explained by the lack of employment opportunities corresponding to their level of skills in their home country.

Chart III.11. **Return to education in origin and destination countries and migration status**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428480032073

Note: NB_R: Natives of the host country; NM_O: Non-migrants in the origin country; FB_R: Immigrants in the host country (taking into account migration fixed costs); RM_O: Return migrants in the origin country.

2.E. "Serial migrants": repeat or circular migration

Returning home does not necessarily mean the end of the migration pathway, and it is not always final. At least two types of arguments can be invoked to explain repeat or circular migration. The first has to do with the psychological cost associated with emigration, which grows with length of residence abroad. If they can afford the travel costs, migrants may be tempted to divide their total expatriation time into a series of shorter stays. Hill (1987) develops a model that is compatible with this interpretation. Reyes (1997) offers an illustration based on migration between Mexico and the United States. A second type of argument relates to the legal framework in which international migration takes place. The average length of stay for a temporary immigrant will reflect the possibility of extending his permit or changing his status. These possibilities hinge on the provisions of immigration policies, and they vary greatly among countries. The available economic studies do not cover these institutional aspects sufficiently.

Several recent studies, however, have sought to evaluate the nature and scope of repeat migration. Constant and Zimmerman (2003, 2007) use the GSOEP survey to show that, over the period 1984-1997, 62% of immigrants from Italy, Greece, Spain, the former Yugoslavia and Turkey left Germany at least once, for a year or more.[26] Having a family in the home country is a major incentive for repeat migration. As well, people who hold a German passport are more mobile. On the other hand, it seems that the least educated are less mobile.

The geographic location of family members certainly plays an important role in explaining repeat migration. Using a French survey that asked immigrants about their intention to return home upon retirement, de Coulon and Wolff (2006) show that having children in the host country can explain why parents choose circular migration between their country of origin and their children's place of residence.

In the case of migration between Hong Kong (China) and Canada, studies have identified similar determinants to those described above, in particular the impact of naturalisation (DeVoretz and Ma, 2002). On the other hand, return and circular migration towards Hong Kong appears very selective (DeVoretz, 2006). More generally, migrants seem to alternate their place of residence over the span of their life cycle in light of opportunities and constraints (Ley and Kobayashi, 2005). This particular case can be characterised as "hypermobility", facilitated no doubt by the accessibility of Canadian nationality, but also by the social level of persons concerned.

2.F. The importance of immigration categories and the role of immigration policies

The concomitance of different motivations for return and the fact that migrants adjust their goals over time, particularly as a function of the situation in the home country and integration problems in the host country, makes it difficult to identify the determining factors of return migration, and calls for a global approach.[27]

The available theoretical and empirical works seldom distinguish between categories of migrants. Klinthäll (2006b) identifies four groups of migrants, according to the level and nature of the constraints imposed by their migratory status: *i)* economic migrants with permanent residence rights, *ii)* economic migrants with temporary residence permits,[28] *iii)* refugees with unlimited residence rights, and *iv)* migrants under temporary protection for humanitarian reasons. This categorisation does not cover the full range of migration modes, however. For example, it does not take account of migration for family reunification, which

could perhaps be included in the first or second category. Nor does it mention the case of foreign students who have a temporary residence permit (group *ii*). Finally, the last category should be expanded to cover asylum-seekers awaiting decision on their claim.

Migrants in the first group are free to make the decision to return with few constraints. The decision will depend, as discussed previously, on a series of identifiable economic factors at the two ends of the migration chain, that is, in the host country and in the home country. Most economic studies of return migration can be situated within this framework.

Migrants in the second group face a restricted choice, since staying on illegally is the only alternative to going home (or re-emigrating) if their permit is not extended or made permanent. Although the great majority of return migration to developing countries fall within this context, analytical studies to date have been poorly equipped to grasp this reality.

Refugees holding an unlimited residence permit (the third group) are dependent on what happens in their home country. Several studies have looked specifically at what determines the return of refugees, highlighting the importance of social and political conditions in the country of origin. For Sweden, Klinthäll (2003, 2007) shows, in the case of Chilean refugees, that political changes are an important but not a sufficient condition, since the economic situation in the home country also plays a determining role.

For migrants under temporary protection, the situation is still more specific, since they are subject to a dual constraint, or more accurately a constraint in the host country that becomes effective when the constraint in the home country is lifted. The majority of voluntary assisted returns take place in this framework (see Section 4). The theoretical and empirical studies discussed above, however, shed no light on this situation.

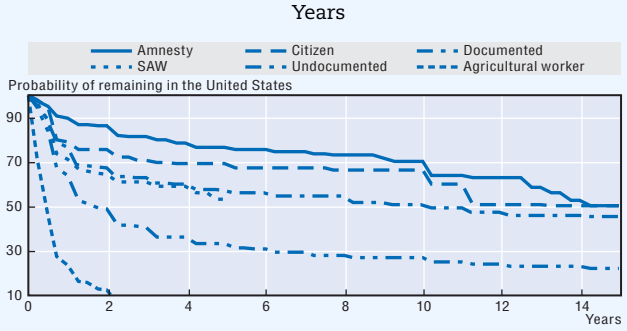
The available results on return rates by category of migrant show without ambiguity that conditions of entry and legal status are important. In New Zealand, for example, 16% of permanent immigrants arriving in 1998 had left the country "definitively" five years later (Shortland, 2006). That proportion varies from 19% for migrants entering as "business people and skilled workers" to around 29% for those admitted on humanitarian grounds. The differences are more pronounced in Canada, and still more so in countries where temporary migration represents a larger share of foreign worker inflows, as in the Netherlands (see Box III.5).

Box III.5. **Some findings on return rates by category of migrants**

Reyes (1997), Dynamics of Immigration: Return Migration to Western Mexico

The Mexican Migration Project identified return migration flows in 31 West Mexican communities between 1982 and 1993. Undocumented immigrants (54% of the sample) were more likely to return to Mexico: nearly 70% of them did so after five years, or almost twice the rate for legal immigrants, and four times that for people who took advantage of a regularisation programme.

Chart III.12. **Probability of remaining in the United States by immigration status and duration**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428531064201

Source: Reyes (1997).

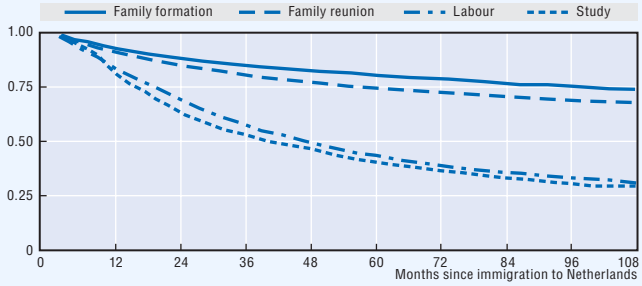
Box III.5. **Some findings on return rates by entry category of migrants** *(cont.)*

Bijwaard (2007), Modeling Migration Dynamics of Immigrants: The Case of the Netherlands

In the Netherlands, inflows and outflows of foreigners can be identified and characterised using data from the Central Register of Foreigners, together with municipal records. For persons entering between 1995 and 2003, the return rate after five years is 20 to 25% for family reunification and family formation migrants, and nearly 60% for foreign students. By comparison, around 55% of labour migrants leave the country within five years.

Chart III.13. **Probability of remaining in the Netherlands by immigration status and duration**

Months



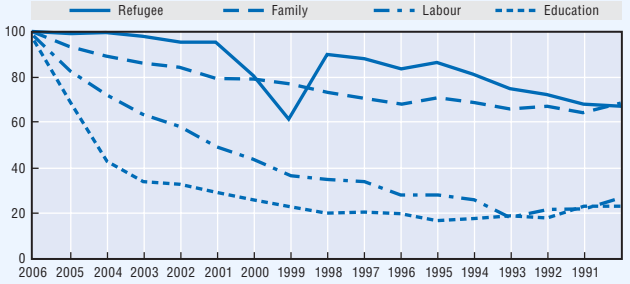
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428576004153

Source: Bijwaard (2007).

Statistics Norway (2007)

The population registry in Norway, as in most Nordic countries, can be used to track immigrants by category of entry. The Chart opposite shows, by year of entry, the proportion of non-Nordics still living in the country in 2006. For example, among entrants from 2001, only 5% of those admitted on humanitarian grounds had left Norway by 2006. The figure is 20% for family reunification immigrants, while it is nearly 50% for workers and 70% for students.

Chart III.14. **Percentage of people remaining in Norway in 2006 by reason for immigration and year of entry, non-Nordic persons**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428722152722

Source: Statistics Norway (2007).

Aydemir and Robinson (2006), Global Labour Markets, Return and Onward Migration

Canada's landing records (LIDS) and the immigration database (IMDB) can be cross-referenced to the tax records of immigrants arriving in the country between 1980 and 1996. Persons who did not complete the tax declaration for four consecutive years are assumed to have left country. It is estimated that 30 to 35% of persons entering as "business" immigrants or skilled workers left Canada after five years. The figure is around 20% for refugees, and 25% for those entering under family reunification provisions.

Chart III.15. **Probability of remaining in Canada by visa class and duration**

Years



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428777410557

Source: Aydemir and Robinson (2006).

Even if the legal and institutional conditions are often missing from the analysis of return migration determinants, it is clear that they are an integral part of the issue. To what extent do the specific features of migration systems and policies influence return migration, or more generally the length of stay of migrants? What are the incentives in place in OECD countries to encourage migrants to return to their home country? What is the role of assisted voluntary return programmes? Are these mechanisms effective? These questions will be addressed in the following section.

3. Immigration policies and their impact on return migration

Return migration is an issue that must be addressed in any global approach of migration flows management. Thus, policies regarding migrant return are attracting growing attention (IOM, 2004; Abella, 2006; EMN, 2006/2007). A first category of measures concerns migrants holding permits under temporary programmes, and seeks to ensure that these programmes function effectively. Some programmes are designed to assist permanent migrants in planning their return, while others focus on the departure of those who are not entitled to remain in the country. In addition, some features of host country policies may affect migrants' choice as to their length of stay. This section looks successively at these different aspects and also addresses the question of repeat or circular migration.

3.A. Ensuring the effective functioning of temporary migration programmes

A notable feature of recent trends in international migration is the growing importance of temporary migration, particularly for employment purposes (notwithstanding the fact that many OECD countries are now building more bridges for permanent immigrants). To ensure that temporary migration programmes achieve their purpose, host countries are also paying increasing attention to measures for "guaranteeing" the return of these migrants. These measures are generally based on a combination of coercion and incentives.

Return and the prospect of future immigration

Generally speaking, all countries make it a condition for granting a new residence permit that the applicant must have complied with the conditions of his previous permit. Consequently, migrants who entered with a temporary visa and who have overstayed their legal limit will be denied a new permit. The prohibition period can be as long as several years, and can be extended if the immigrant has been expelled or if he has exceeded his legal stay by more than one year.[29] Member states of the European Union can also transfer their decision to the Schengen information system (SIS), in which case the ban is applicable to all Schengen visas.[30] Moreover, most countries impose a fine and, in some cases, a prison penalty. These provisions have a dissuasive effect, but it is not enough to guarantee return in all cases, and their effectiveness will depend on the intensity and effectiveness of controls.

In the case of seasonal worker programmes, the incentive to return can be reinforced by the "assurance" that the migrant can join the programme again subsequently. In this spirit, France introduced a new type of permit in 2006, targeted at seasonal workers, allowing them to hold a job for less than six months during three consecutive years, provided they maintain their residence outside France. Few countries have formally adopted multiyear seasonal permits, although in practice the conditions for renewal can be

eased for those who have already participated in the programme. This is the case in Italy, where migrants who have already worked two consecutive seasons may apply for a renewable three-year permanent permit.[31] Until 2007, H2B visa holders in the United States who respected the conditions governing their permits were able to obtain a new permit beyond the quota.[32] In Spain, seasonal workers who have already participated in the programme are allowed entry at the request of their employer (*i.e.* without going through the selection process in their home country). One month after their permit expires, holders must present themselves to the consulate that issued the permit in order to confirm their return.[33] These approaches result in higher return rates, but also in repeat migration, the impact of which on the probability of permanent settlement in the host country is difficult to assess. A better knowledge of the host country and the establishment of lasting ties could indeed generate longer-term immigration.

Financial incentives

Migrants can also be encouraged to return by a clause providing that a portion of their wage earnings will be paid directly in their home country. For example, the "Bracero" programme under which more than 4.5 million Mexican workers were recruited into US agriculture between 1942 and 1964, required that 10% of workers' wages be withheld until after they returned to Mexico. In the same spirit, Cuban migrants working under intergovernmental agreements see a portion of their earnings (generally 30%) paid directly to Cuba. To some extent, this approach amounts to forced savings, which could in fact merely substitute for migrant remittances.[34]

A less coercive approach might be to allow migrants, upon their return, to recover all or part of the contributions they have made to unemployment insurance and old-age security programmes, even if they are not eligible for benefits under those programmes. Temporary migrants in fact often have to make the same contributions as other workers, but they do not do so long enough, or with sufficient continuity, to qualify for social benefits in the host country.

The role of employers and the selection process

Employers may be asked to expedite the return of the temporary workers they have hired. Outside the OECD, Singapore requires employers hiring temporary workers other than Malaysians to deposit SGD 5 000 (around USD 3 200) per employee, and this is refunded when the migrant returns to his home country.[35] In some OECD countries (*e.g.* Korea, Italy and New Zealand), the employer must undertake to foot the bill in the event of an expulsion order.[36] Yet it is questionable whether employers have the means to verify, much less to guarantee, that the migrant will leave at the end of his contract.

Another possible way of ensuring a high return rate is to select candidates according to their probability of return. This approach is apparent, for example, when the recruitment process is contracted out to some institution evaluated by the host country authorities on the basis on its ability to maintain the integrity of the programme. Some of the temporary migration programmes run by the IOM fall in this category. In Morocco, the recruitment agency for temporary workers (ANAPEC) is now giving priority to hiring married women with children for seasonal agriculture work in Spain. Beyond the ethical issues such an approach may raise, it is by no means certain that it can be extended to higher-skilled jobs, or to other sectors.

3.B. Assisted voluntary return programmes

Assisted voluntary return (AVR) programmes are of long standing in several OECD countries. In Germany, they date from 1979.[37] Switzerland, Belgium, France, the Netherlands and most of the Nordic countries[38] have had such programmes in place for more than ten years. Still other countries adopted AVR programmes in the late 1990s, or more recently. There are two types of programmes: those targeting migrants who entered illegally or have overstayed their visa, and are thus in an irregular situation in the host country, and those aimed at migrants with a permanent residence permit.

"Voluntary" return of migrants in an irregular situation

For migrants in an irregular situation, or those who have been ordered to leave the country after their temporary protection status has been revoked (for example rejected asylum-seekers), most OECD countries have introduced provisions to help them return to their country voluntarily. These programmes constitute an alternative to expulsion. They allow migrants to choose the conditions of their return (place and time) and they may also receive financial assistance or help in preparing their return. Australia, Austria, France, Ireland, Hungary, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom have provisions of this kind (see Annex III.A3). These are attractive to host countries for two reasons: *i*) they facilitate repatriation to countries with which no readmission agreement has been signed, and *ii*) the return can be carried out at a lower cost than a removal order.[39] The number of migrants concerned varies greatly from one country to another but it can be substantial, as in Germany, Japan, and to a lesser extent in the United Kingdom (with respectively 9 000, 11 000 and 6 000 returns in 2006).

The distinction between voluntary return and forced return is somewhat tenuous, in the sense that the individuals involved really do not have the option of staying in the country (see Box III.6 for an analysis of forced returns). In Australia, for example, the assisted voluntary return programme is targeted at migrants from Iran and Afghanistan who are under detention. In the United States, the law provides that a "removable alien" may apply for "voluntary departure" to avoid the penalty of a 10-year re-entry ban (US Department of Justice, 1999). In Japan, the voluntary return programme applies only to migrants who have overstayed their visa, and it offers only a partial amnesty from the prohibited re-entry period.

Encouraging permanent migrants to return to their home country

AVR programmes are also used to encourage and assist the return home of migrants who are legally and permanently settled in the host country. Most of these programmes are implemented with the help of non-governmental organisations, which manage logistical aspects. The IOM is one of the main operators in this field.[40] Most programmes are specific to certain countries of origin, particularly those that have produced the largest refugee flows. Many operations have been conducted, for example, for refugees from the Balkans[41] or, more recently, from Afghanistan[42] and Iraq.

AVR programmes targeted at permanent migrants generally cover transportation costs, but they may also include a return bonus and a number of services such as, for example, reintegration assistance, a pre-return preparation trip, or vocational training. Lump sum resettlement allowances can be sizable: the Danish authorities, for example, offer Iraqi immigrants up to USD 9 000 per adult and USD 10 500 per child. Their size varies

Box III.6. **Forced returns**

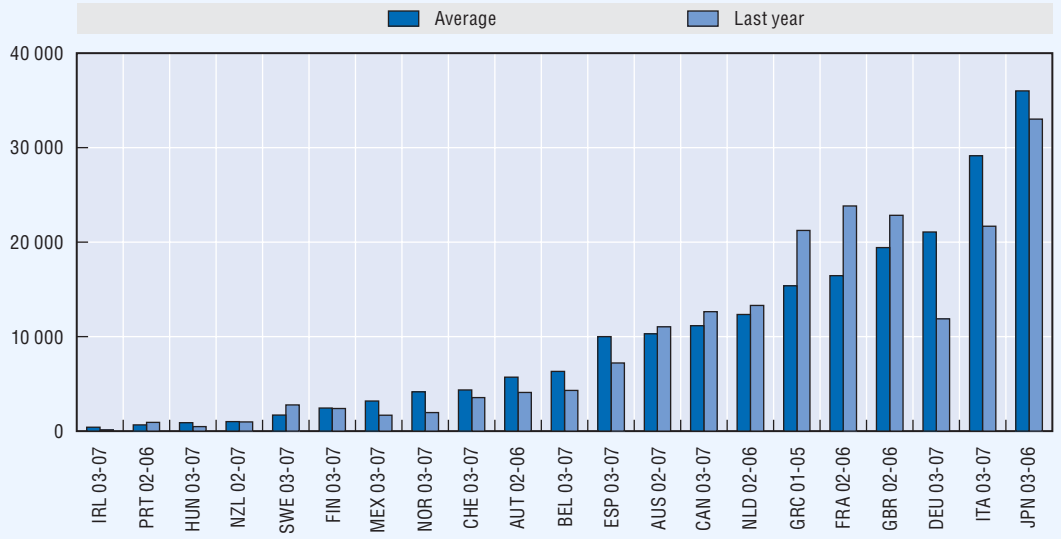
The bulk of the return migration flow is voluntary. Yet some of those returning home have been forced out by a removal order, for having broken the laws on immigration or residency. Some of those forcibly removed will have been imprisoned or held in detention centres since their arrival in the territory. All OECD countries practise forced removal. The scope of the phenomenon varies, however, depending on how systematic the controls and removal procedures are, and on the nature and intensity of immigration flows and the country's geographic location. The number of departure orders issued is often far greater than the number of forced removals, either because the individuals concerned decide to leave of their own accord or because they have evaded enforcement.

The statistics presented in Chart III.16 show the number of forced returns from OECD countries between 2002 and 2007, excluding persons turned back at border points. In most countries, with the notable exceptions of Greece, France and the United Kingdom, there was a gradual decline in expulsions toward the end of the period. This may reflect, in part, the recent drop in asylum requests, since a significant portion of forced returns involves rejected asylum-seekers. In this context, readmission agreements play an important role.

The existence of a readmission agreement* with the migrant's country of origin or of transit is often a necessary condition for enforcing removal orders. The number of readmission agreements signed by OECD countries has multiplied over the last five years. Switzerland, France and Germany have signed the most, at 39, 38 and 28 agreements respectively.

As of June 2007, the European Union had signed five readmission agreements with Albania, Hong Kong-China, Macao, Russia and Sri Lanka. It has signed another batch of agreements with Ukraine, Moldova and the Balkan countries (except Croatia), which are to come into force during 2008. Still other agreements are being negotiated with Algeria, China, Morocco, Pakistan and Turkey. Several directives have been issued to reinforce co-operation among member states in the removal of foreigners (Directives 2001/40/EC and 2003/110/EC, Council Decisions 2004/191/EC and 2004/573/EC).

Chart III.16. **Number of forced returns in selected OECD countries, yearly average for the periods indicated and last available year, 2001-2007**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428831657036

Source: Various national sources and European Migration Network (2006-2007).

* Or a protocol of consent or co-operation, or a police co-operation agreement.

greatly, however, depending on the country of origin, and there is often a limit per family. The bonuses are frequently paid in several instalments, to make the return permanent. While the offer of assistance is unlikely to have any significant effect in changing the mind of migrants who had no intention to return, it may well accelerate a return that was already planned, although the theoretical and empirical studies discussed in the previous section are divided on this point.

Some programmes are targeted more specifically at migrants who are facing problems in the labour market. They may be offered the choice of a monthly pension to be paid once they have returned home. The pension will generally be smaller than the entitlements accumulated in the host country, but it may still seem advantageous, given the cost-of-living differential between the two countries. Such a provision was introduced in France in 1984 through a system of subsidies for the reintegration of foreigners who had been unemployed for three months or were receiving social assistance. In Denmark, persons aged 50 years and older who are no longer able to work can opt for a monthly allowance in their home country, for five years. The Netherlands' emigration law extends this option to foreigners at the age of 45, provided they have lived in the country for at least three years and have been drawing unemployment, disability or retirement allowances for at least six months (EMN, 2006-07). While the attractiveness for the host country is obvious, the migrant will need to base his decision on the economic and social conditions prevailing in his home country: older workers and retirees in particular will be especially concerned about access to health care.

Another aspect of assisted return has to do with reintegration. Access to information is a key factor for successful return, and most programmes include this dimension. In Germany, for example, the Federal Office for Migrations and Refugees has established the "Supported Return Information Centre" (ZIRF). Denmark and Austria have created similar mechanisms. The IOM is working with several European countries (Belgium, Ireland, Portugal, Switzerland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) under its IRRiCO project ("Information on Return and Reintegration in Countries of Origin"). The availability of vocational training adapted to employment prospects in the country of origin can also play an important role in the reintegration process. Germany offers special training to returning migrants, which is provided in Germany but not recognised there. Other countries prefer to offer such services after return (*i.e.* in the country of origin).

Entrepreneurial support in the home country is another important aspect of AVR programmes. The grants seldom exceed a few thousand euros, however (*e.g.* maximum EUR 5 000 in Spain and EUR 4 000 to 7 000 in France, depending on the country of origin and project), which means that they are primarily of benefit for microenterprises. In this area, France has gained valuable experience since the mid-1990s.[43] Activities rely on local operators who offer project coaching services and manage the grants directly. The projects created this way are frequently viable and help create jobs in the country of origin, but they are still few in number. The same holds in other OECD countries with arrangements of this kind. The weakness of financial incentives, given the difficulties in accessing additional credit, and the scarce investment possibilities in the home countries probably explain why these mechanisms have had little impact.

In some cases, return does not seem to be a precondition for participating in the programme, although this objective may be more or less implicit. The TOKTEN programme ("Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals"), which the UNDP has been running

since 1977, fits within this category. The programme allows expatriate volunteers to contribute to projects in their home countries, by returning for a period of up to three months. Over the 20 years of programme operations, some 5 000 persons have participated in projects in nearly 50 developing countries. Similarly, the IOM has developed a specific programme for Africa (Migration for Development in Africa – MIDA, formerly the Return of Qualified African Nationals Programme – RQAN). Between 1983 and 1999, more than 2 000 highly qualified Africans took part in this programme. While unstable economic and social conditions and the lack of social capital specific to the country of origin constitute the major barriers to return, participation in temporary return programmes can facilitate longer-term settlement plans. Such programmes are unlikely, however, to have a major impact.

Despite the many initiatives and the sums spent by host countries, assisted voluntary return programmes are of limited impact, at least when they are assessed in light of the numbers of people involved and in comparison with return flows as a whole (see Annex III.A3). This no doubt reflects the fact that return is only an option if the political, economic and social situation in the home country is restored and stabilised. Yet even in this case, AVR programmes will not make much difference for migrants unless financial constraints are the primary barrier to their return.

AVR programmes are essentially confined to the European OECD countries. In the European Union, many such programmes are supported by the European Refugee Fund or the European Return Fund (see Box III.7). Other countries have not really adopted this mechanism, either because they set their sights explicitly on the permanent integration of new immigrants (as do Australia, Canada and New Zealand) or because, on the contrary, they offer few possibilities for permanent immigration (Korea and Japan).

Box III.7. **The European Return Fund**

The European Return Fund was established in 2007 for the period 2008-2013 as part of the general programme of "Solidarity and management of migration flows" (Com(2005)123/final), and represents continuation of the European return programme in place since 2002. It has a five-year budget of EUR 676 million.

The objective is to help participating member states* to institute "integrated return management": to examine and evaluate the potential group of repatriates, the legal and logistical constraints in the member state, and the situation in the country of return, and to prepare specific and targeted actions.

In this context, particular attention is paid to ensuring common standards in member states' return management. The fund also covers the voluntary return of persons who are not under an obligation to leave the territory, such as asylum-seekers whose applications are still being processed, and persons under temporary protection.

* The United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark do not participate in the Fund.

3.C. Removing the obstacles to return

Beyond specific programmes, it is likely that the propensity of permanent migrants to return to their home countries is influenced by institutional factors, such as the possibility of securing the right to come and go between the host and home countries, or the portability of social entitlements.

Access to the nationality of the host country has been found to be an important factor in international mobility. Naturalised immigrants know that they can always come back to the host country to seek health care, for example, or if conditions in their home country deteriorate (*e.g.* political or economic instability). Migratory movements between Canada and Hong Kong, China, are often cited as an example to illustrate the positive effect of return migration on the country of origin, and access to Canadian nationality has played a significant role here (DeVoretz and Ma, 2002). By recognising dual nationality, the home and host countries facilitate international mobility for their citizens. Most OECD countries accepted dual nationality, with the exceptions of Norway, Japan and Denmark, which impose very strict conditions, and to a lesser extent Germany (exceptional situations), Austria (reciprocity), and Spain (agreements with 12 Spanish-speaking countries).

More generally, the rules under which migrants may acquire permanent status play an important role in mobility as such. Thus, when immigrants are subject to strict rules governing their authorised length of stay abroad, there is a risk that they will be "frozen" in the host country. Conditions on the maximum length and frequency of absences apply for persons seeking to obtain a permanent residence permit[44] or to qualify for the nationality of the host country. The European Commission is considering amendments to the directive on the status of long-term residents (Directive 109/2003) to allow migrants to return to their home countries for more than 12 months without putting their rights at risk (Article 9-1c).

The portability of social benefits is also an important issue in this context. There are two aspects to the question. The first concerns the impact of length of stay on the accumulation of social security entitlements (disability, sickness, old-age); the second concerns the payment of pensions and social benefits abroad. National legislation does not generally recognise universal portability of social benefits, but this question is often dealt with through bilateral social security agreements.

According to Holzmann, Koettl and Chermetsky (2005), OECD countries have signed a total of nearly 2 700 agreements of this kind (see Table III.3). The first one was signed between France and Italy in 1919. Since that time, France has negotiated nearly 400 agreements, and Germany more than 200. By contrast, Japan, Korea and the Central and Eastern European countries have very limited experience in this field. Some agreements have been negotiated in a multilateral framework, such as between member countries of the European Union (EC Regulation 1408/71 and PC 83/2004), and also between the EU and Mediterranean countries following creation of the Euromed Partnership (the Barcelona Declaration of 1995) and in the framework of the association agreements. ILO Convention 157 on Maintenance of Social Security Rights (1982) also addresses the issue of portability, but only three countries (Spain, Philippines and Sweden) have ratified it to date.

Holtzmann *et al.* (2005) find major discrepancies in terms of the coverage of social security agreements, depending on the country of origin. Nearly half of migrants from Europe living in the rest of the world are covered by a bilateral social security agreement, while the comparable figure for persons from Africa, Asia and Latin America is 9%, 7% and 4% respectively.

The portability of old-age benefits, and in particular retirement benefits, has generally received particular attention. Most OECD countries allow immigrants to receive their pension in their home country, for example, sometimes at a reduced replacement rate.[45] In Australia, persons over the age 55 who have contributed for at least ten years may receive a lump sum payment corresponding to their pension entitlement when they return to their

Table III.3. **International social security agreements, 2000**

	Number of agreements
Australia	66
Austria	146
Belgium	167
Canada	180
Czech Republic	10
Denmark	49
Finland	55
France	386
Germany	224
Greece	58
Hungary	18
Iceland	22
Ireland	20
Italy	112
Japan	4
Korea	2
Luxembourg	136
Mexico	6
Netherlands	165
New Zealand	28
Norway	54
Poland	46
Portugal	95
Slovak Republic	12
Spain	140
Sweden	66
Switzerland	124
Turkey	59
United Kingdom	157
United States	97
OECD total	**2 704**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430134724057

Note: Numbers refer to bilateral social security agreements per country, including all additional protocols and modifications to previous agreements. Note that the OECD total may include double counting.

Source: Holzmann, Koettl and Chernetsky (2005).

country of origin. The combined accumulation of entitlements between the host and home countries is generally more difficult, and is not systematically covered by bilateral social security agreements. In the case of Mexico and the United States, an agreement dating from 2004, but not yet ratified, provides for combining the periods during which entitlements can be accumulated in each country, to reach the eligibility threshold of ten years.[46]

Bilateral agreements are generally not very effective in guaranteeing access to health care. Yet this aspect can be a determining factor for migrants' choice of residence, especially for older persons or those who are chronically ill. Most countries provide temporary special visas for people to seek care in their former country of immigration (particularly for pensioners living abroad), while a few countries maintain care facilities in the principal countries of origin of migrants.

Other institutional obstacles to return can exist in the origin country itself. These may relate, for example, to problems with the recognition of qualifications and experience acquired abroad, to the taxation of transferred financial assets, or to administrative restrictions (see Section 4 for a more detailed discussion).

3.D. Circular migration

Circular migration has recently attracted special attention as a new approach to the orderly and balanced management of migration between host and home countries (see Box III.8). While this approach may not be all that "new", in light of the examples presented above, there is still a question as to its expected benefits.

At first sight, circular migration of workers should offer the host country and employers readier access to the manpower they need, while minimising any fiscal costs. They allow the country of origin to reduce the impact of the "brain drain" and they hold out as a potential benefit the new skills acquired by migrants. Finally, they encourage rotation, and they may allow greater numbers of people to enjoy the expected benefits of migration.

Box III.8. **Mobility partnerships and circular migration between the European Union and third countries**

As part of its initiatives on migration and development and its action programme on legal immigration, the European Commission (EC) prepared a series of proposals in 2007 dealing with circular migration and mobility partnerships between the European Union and third countries. Mobility partnerships could represent an innovative approach to sharing responsibility for illegal migration issues, for combating clandestine immigration, and for linking migration and development. The question of circular migration can be addressed in the course of these partnerships, provided they are properly managed in co-operation with all stakeholders. In this context, the EC and EU member countries participating in mobility partnerships are invited to establish mechanisms to facilitate economic immigration, in light of manpower needs. The EC could also help third countries to develop their capacity to manage legal migration flows.

These forms of assistance could range from providing information on manpower needs and on immigration conditions in member countries of the Union, to measures that would encourage the mobility of students, researchers and young professionals, and could even include language or technical training, programmes to facilitate the economic and social reintegration of migrants upon their return, and provisions governing the transfer of migrants' savings. The mobility partnerships could include measures to streamline short-term visa procedures and to encourage circular migration or return migration, while at the same time addressing the "brain drain" risk.

The commitments expected of third countries would relate to re-admitting their own nationals, when they are caught in an irregular situation in the European Union, as well as those who have transited through their territory. Other commitments would include initiatives to discourage illegal migration, to improve border controls, and to make travel documents more secure. A final aspect concern is to enhance the social and economic environment in the third-country partner, so as to reduce the incentives for irregular migration. In December 2007, the European Council adopted the EC proposals and agreed to negotiate mobility partnerships on a pilot basis. These would include circular migration systems managed in close co-operation with all stakeholders.

This approach, then, could produce gains on three fronts (Agunias and Newland, 2007; Agunias, 2006).

This approach raises some questions, however. Under what conditions can migration policies generate the expected benefits? What are the implicit trade-offs among the various stakeholders in circular migration?

From the viewpoint of migrants, greater mobility means, *ceteris paribus*, substituting temporary for permanent migration. This in itself will lead to a reduction in accumulated entitlements, and potentially to redistribution within the home country of the gains from international migration, since more individuals will be able to acquire short-term migration experience. From this perspective, the acceptability of a circular migration system will likely depend on the degree to which individuals are already integrated into the migratory process.

From the viewpoint of employers, it is not clear that they will always favour greater turnover in the workforce, especially if their needs are not exclusively for temporary workers. The costs involved in selection, training and apprenticeship will rise with the turnover rate. The prospect of ready access to foreign manpower may help offset this cost, but perhaps not fully.

From the viewpoint of the origin country, return is economically beneficial only if there are sufficient employment opportunities to absorb this flow of labour. In the least developed countries, in particular, current demographic trends are exerting heavy pressure on labour markets. The expected gain to the home country from the return of highly skilled workers will depend on how long they stay.

From the viewpoint of the destination country, finally, the expected fiscal benefits of circular migration will materialise only if different cohorts are involved (*i.e.* so that it is not always the same migrants who are travelling back and forth). In this case, as noted earlier, it may be difficult to impose return. If some immigrants extend their stay unlawfully or manage by other means to settle permanently (for example by forming a family in the host country), the investments essential for long-term integration in the society and labour market of the host country may be delayed. This is what happened in the 1970s and 1980s, with the end of temporary worker immigration programmes.

When manpower needs relate to fixed-term employment, as is the case with seasonal work, circular migration would seem to be an optimal solution. Yet this approach is unlikely to meet every type of need, especially in the context of an ageing population where recruitment is bound to become increasingly difficult, regardless of the skills level sought.

Faini (1996) drew some lessons from temporary migration programmes that were introduced in the 1960s and 1970s. "*The main shortcoming of Germany's immigration policy, and an explanation for its failure to enforce a sufficiently high rate of returns, stems from the attempt to fill with temporary migrant workers what were in the end permanent jobs. This strategy was strongly resisted by German entrepreneurs, who complained about the need to retrain workers continuously.*" He concluded that: "*The policy debate should focus on two separate but related issues: 1) should policy aim at encouraging temporary migrations? 2) are policy-makers able to control the length of migrants' stay?*" (p. 247).

4. Return migration and the development of the origin country

The contribution of migrants to the development of their origin country results from a combination of the resources they transfer upon their return, and the returns obtained from those resources. Those resources can be of three kinds. First, migrants bring back with them the education and working experience they acquired abroad. Second, they may come back with financial capital, in the form of savings accumulated during their stay abroad, which they may repatriate in various degrees of liquidity. Finally, they have specific social capital obtained from their migration experience.

Beyond the output growth that the increased availability of certain factors makes possible, return migration can also have a positive impact through other channels. For example, by creating new businesses, returning migrants can help improve the functioning of markets in their home country. They can also foster the transfer or adoption of new technologies. Having been exposed to the way businesses work in other contexts, they may also help to disseminate the "good practices" that they were able to observe (see Black *et al.*, 2003).

That said, no macroeconomic assessment of the impact of return migration exists, in part because the required data are missing, and in part because the expected effect is probably weak, given the low volume of flows. In any case, return migration is certainly not enough to jumpstart the development process. In fact, a reverse causality is likely to predominate: migrants will be more inclined to return home if economic conditions are attractive and promise new opportunities. The resources that returning migrants bring with them can, however, give a dynamic boost to growth that has already been unleashed, particularly if the authorities encourage these resources to be put to effective use.

The remainder of this section addresses the impact of the different kinds of resources repatriated by migrants (human, financial and social capital) and the policies that the home countries have adopted to encourage and support return.

4.A. Human capital: reintegrating returning migrants into the labour market and putting their human capital to use

Comparing return migrants and non-migrants in the country of origin shows that return migrants are often better educated. This is the result of the initial migration selection and that of return migration, but it also reflects the fact that migrants acquire skills and experience while they are abroad (see Section 2.D).

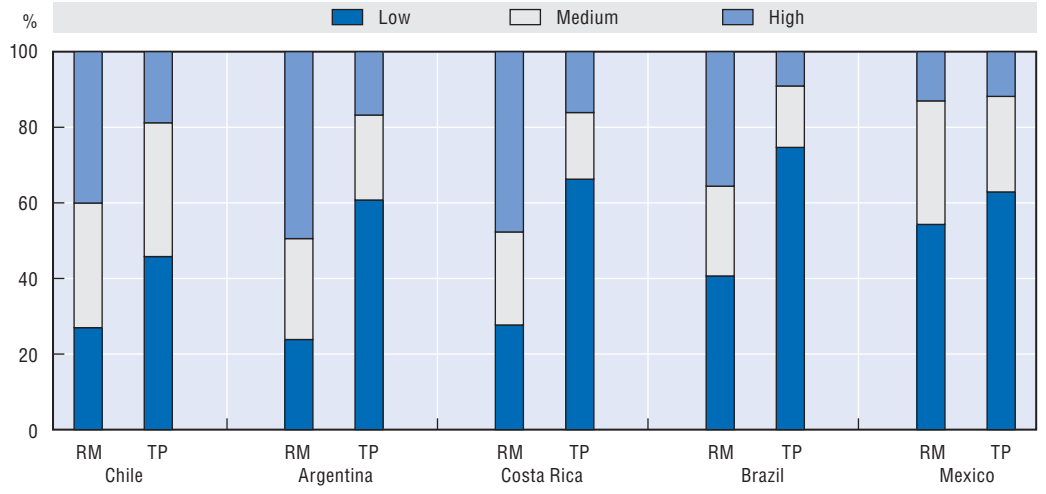
The human capital contribution of returning migrants

Chart III.17 shows that, in Latin American countries, the share of individuals 15 years and older with a higher-education degree is much greater among returning migrants than in the general population, with the exception of Mexico, where there is no difference in the education level between these two groups. Similarly, for Uruguay, Meyer *et al.* (2007) found that about a quarter of returning migrants had a higher-education degree, compared to 11.5% for non-migrants.

In West Africa, the average length of schooling among migrants returning from the OECD area, at 11 years, was double that for non-migrants and for migrants returning from other parts of the world (Gubert *et al.*, 2007). In Egypt, 19% of returning migrants had a university education, *versus* 9.7% for non-migrants (Wahba, 2007b).

Chart III.17. **Educational attainment of return migrants compared to that of the total population**

Population aged 30 and older



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428846422042

Note: RM: return migrants, TP: total population. The population of reference considered here is individuals aged 30 and older, to take into account only persons having completed their education before returning.

Source: Population censuses of the countries.

In Cape Verde, where until recently there was no university, access to education is one of the motivations for migration, especially to Portugal. In this case, 16% of returning migrants have a higher education degree, while the figure is only about 1% among those who have not emigrated (De La Barre, 2007).

Under these conditions, return migration produces human capital gains for the entire economy, and they may in certain cases more than compensate for the loss of human capital initially attributed to emigration (Batista *et al.*, 2007). Yet for this to hold true, there must be sufficient employment opportunities to motivate the return of skilled workers.

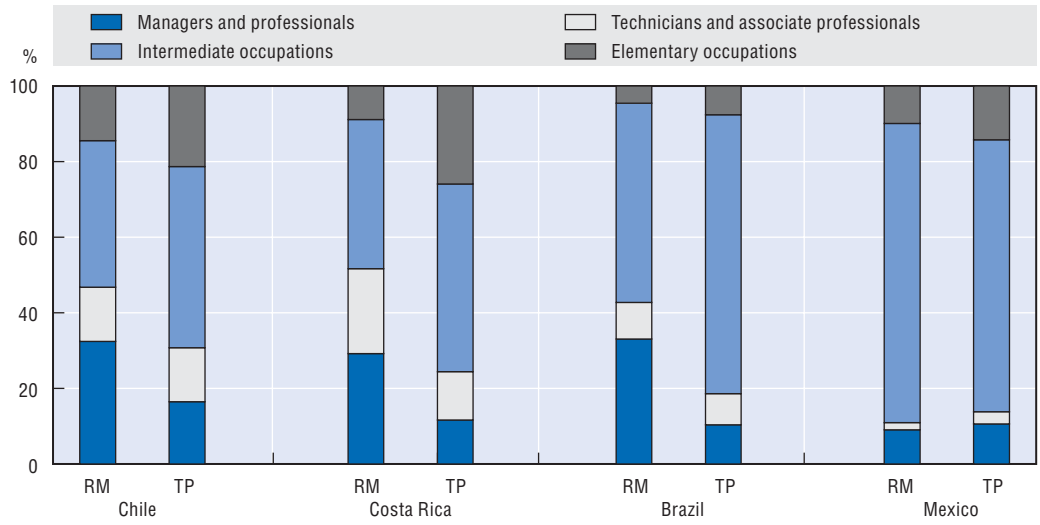
Reintegration into the labour market

For many migrants, return allows them to capitalise on the skills they have acquired abroad by landing a more highly skilled job than they could have hoped for had they stayed at home. In Chile, in Costa Rica and in Brazil, return migrants are clearly overrepresented in the most highly skilled occupations, and underrepresented in the least skilled trades. On the other hand, in Mexico there is no significant difference between the jobs held by return migrants and those held by other people, and indeed return migrants are slightly underrepresented at the top of the skills pyramid (Chart III.18). In Uruguay, 64% of returning migrants are employed, while this is true for only 43% of the general population (Meyer *et al.*, 2007).

Migrants returning to West Africa are also better placed in the labour market than non-migrants (Gubert *et al.*, 2007). Those returning from OECD countries are greatly overrepresented in the public sector and in the formal private sector. However, this result may be attributable in part to the level of education.

A counterintuitive finding is reported by Enchautegui (1993) in the case of Puerto Rico. She shows that migration experience in the United States has a negative impact on the employment situation, and in particular on the wages, of returning migrants compared to

Chart III.18. **Occupations of return migrants compared to those of the total population**



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/428848886612

Note: RM: return migrants, TP: total population. Managers and professionals: ISCO groups 1 and 2; technicians and associate professionals: ISCO Group 3; intermediate occupations: ISCO Groups 4 to 8; elementary occupations: ISCO Group 9.

Source: Population censuses of the countries, circa 2000.

non-migrants. This may reflect the fact that the jobs performed by Puerto Ricans in the United States are insufficiently skilled or are too disconnected from labour market needs at home for there to be any premium on vocational experience acquired abroad.

Co *et al.* (2000) report similar findings for migrants returning to Hungary. The premium for foreign experience is apparently nil for men, while it is positive for women. This can be explained by the fact that the main employment sectors for men and for women after return (construction and industry for men, financial services for women) place very different values on foreign experience. Moreover, migrants who have stayed abroad for a long time may find themselves disconnected from the home labour market: they will lack up-to-date information on the demand for labour or they will have lost their "contacts", which may condemn them to a less successful job search and a lower salary.

Some migrant groups find it harder to reintegrate

Some groups of migrants face special difficulties in rejoining the labour market in their home country. This is especially true of those who emigrated for non-economic reasons (*e.g.* refugees) or for those who were expelled from the country of destination. In these cases, return was not planned as a function of employment opportunities in the home country, and it may be harder to capitalise on the migration experience. This reduces the expected benefits for the home country and also casts doubt on whether the return is sustainable.

For refugees, disappearance of the grounds for exile is a necessary condition for the sustainability of return, but it is not a sufficient condition. When there is a mass return of refugees to a given region, the state of the local labour market will be a key factor in their reintegration, and their return may heighten existing tensions between labour supply and demand. Up-to-date information on the labour market and employment opportunities is

therefore essential, especially for migrants returning after a long absence. From this viewpoint, assisted voluntary return programmes can help guarantee a successful return, by ensuring that migrants are informed about opportunities in their home country, and also by offering targeted support, for example through training adapted to local labour market needs.

Language can also be an obstacle for people who emigrated as children and were schooled in the country of destination (Arowolo, 2000). More generally, there is a whole set of social and cultural factors that can affect the prospects of successful reintegration in the home country.

The legal conditions for return are also very important. In the case of Ghana, Sabates-Wheller *et al.* (2007) show that persons who migrated legally are more likely to have improved their economic status between their departure and their return than those who migrated illegally. In Cape Verde, there are serious problems with the reintegration of migrants expelled from the United States or repatriated from other African countries, and their return is clearly placing an additional burden on the government and on Cape Verdean society (De La Barre, 2007).

4.B. Financial capital: the role of entrepreneurs

As several studies of developing countries have shown, a fairly important proportion of migrants will seek to start a business or arrange independent employment after their return. This is particularly the case for persons who emigrated with the specific objective of accumulating savings by working abroad (see Section 2.C), and also for those who find that creating their own business is the best way to overcome labour market re-entry problems.

Egypt, where return migration is particularly important,[47] is an example of this trend. Wahba (2007b) demonstrates that returning migrants contribute significantly to creating small enterprises, and that they are responsible for 15% of investment and of job creation in this sector. Savings accumulated abroad play a crucial role here. Mesnard (2004) finds that nearly 26% of migrants returning to Tunisia will start their own business, although this figure is not very different from that for the population at large (24%).

In West Africa, Gubert *et al.* (2007) show that migrants returning from OECD countries are more likely to head a business or to be independent than people who never emigrated, or than those returning from other regions of the world. In Cape Verde, by contrast, it appears that returning migrants play only a marginal role in developing new economic activities. This finding may reflect the lack of investment opportunities in the country, as well as the characteristics of returning migrants, most of whom come back for retirement (De La Barre, 2007).

Age at return has an impact on the probability of creating a business, as confirmed by the results from the MIREM project in the Maghreb countries (Cassarino, 2008): persons with relatively short migration experience (less than a dozen years) are much more likely to create an enterprise than those returning at retirement age. Typically, the plan to create a business after return will have been formed before departure, and the purpose of the stint abroad will have been to accumulate the necessary financial and human capital.

There are a number of factors, however, that condition the ease with which a business can be launched in the home country. These include the accessibility of additional credit to finance the investment, and also administrative restrictions. According to Hamdouch and

Ould-Aoudia (2007), a third of returning migrants who have started projects in Morocco cite administrative restrictions as the main obstacle.

4.C. Social capital: the role of networking in the home and host countries

During their stay abroad, migrants have the chance to build social capital specific to the host country, forming networks of relationships and acquiring knowledge of the economic and institutional conditions of their new country of residence. But, at the same time, they may find it difficult to maintain their contacts with their home country.

In some cases, personal and professional contacts forged abroad can be very useful in the pursuit of specific activities after return, particularly in international trade (Rauch and Trindade 2002), for activities based on technology transfer, or for seizing employment opportunities related to direct foreign investment. Here, the acquisition of a foreign language can be a decisive asset. This is a case where return migration and trade are complementary.

Distance and length of stay no doubt have an influence on the number and quality of contacts that emigrants will be able to maintain in their home country. Moreover, returning migrants may in some cases find that they are resented or even rejected by non-migrants, either because they constitute competition for jobs (or for marriage, or for housing) or because they are seen as a privileged group.

In order to avoid this pitfall – and perhaps for personal reasons as well – migrants planning to return will make special efforts to maintain ties with their home community. For Ghana, for example, Mazzucato (2007) cites several studies showing the intensity of migrants' ties with their families and friends, as well as with associations. In addition, more than 60% of returned Ghanaian migrants still maintain the links they forged abroad (40% keep ties to associations). Concerning skilled migrants, Lowell and Gerova (2004) and Meyer and Brown (1999) list more than 60 electronic networks linking diasporas throughout the world, for the purpose of maintaining links within what is often a scattered community and for sharing information on employment opportunities in the home country. In some cases, the countries themselves support these initiatives.

4.D. Home country policies to encourage the return of their nationals

Some countries make great efforts to attract back their nationals residing abroad. They may institute systems of information and cultural outreach to expatriate communities, and they may also encourage migrants to seek representation in institutional structures, and particularly in parliament. They may even offer incentives to encourage return (special access to certain social services, permission to hold convertible foreign-currency accounts or to earn premium interest rates, etc.), as well as reintegration assistance. A comprehensive summary of these provisions would exceed the scope of this report, but a few examples can be cited to illustrate the variety of approaches.

A prime example is Jamaica, where a government programme has been in place since 1993. This programme encourages Jamaicans to come home by providing information, facilitating their move, and helping them enter the labour market (Thomas-Hope, 1999).

The Philippines is another interesting example: the reintegration of returning migrants is one of the government's priority objectives (Go, 2007).[48] The economic component of the reintegration programme consists essentially of training and expedited

access to credit for creating a business, while the "psycho-social" component offers returning migrants services such as family counselling and capacity development training. A "one-stop-shop" for the reintegration of migrant workers was established at the beginning of 2007, providing access to the full range of services that migrant families are likely to need.

In Argentina, following the post-crisis economic recovery, several programmes were introduced to revive scientific and technical activities and resources. One of these is a postdoctoral fellowship programme targeted at Ph.D. holders who have completed their thesis work abroad and are seeking a research position in Argentina (Meyer *et al.*, 2007).

Colombia has also introduced measures to assist reintegration of expatriate scientists. Returning doctoral candidates are enlisted for ongoing research projects. Loans for professionals to set up shop or to create innovative enterprises have recently been established, together with recruitment campaigns targeted at Colombians living abroad. Particular attention is given to recognition of diplomas acquired abroad (Meyer *et al.*, 2007). This is very important for attracting young people studying in other countries. Indeed, it is a growing issue for many developing countries, as students' international mobility has increased sharply in recent years.

Tunisia has a system to facilitate the return and reintegration of emigrés and their families. The economic dimension of this system is designed primarily to encourage Tunisians living abroad to invest in economic projects in Tunisia: they are eligible for tax holidays and import permits for capital goods for such projects, and definitive return is not a precondition. Moreover, Tunisians residing abroad can open a tax-free bank account in foreign-currency or in convertible dinars, and they are free to transfer assets (Bel Haj Zekri, 2007). In Algeria, returning migrants can repatriate all their personal belongings duty-free, and if they create a business they are exempt from tax on the import of equipment (Saib Musette, 2007).

Finally, there is the example of China, which since 2002 has extended its provisions for encouraging the return of young graduates by offering them preferential treatment in terms of job placement, social advancement, wages and salaries, taxation, and social programmes in general. In addition, returnees can retain their dual nationality if they were naturalised in the host country, and they have the possibility of re-emigrating (Zweig, 2006).

The effect of direct incentives for return may however be ambiguous. They can encourage individuals to emigrate in order to benefit from assistance on their return. They can also represent a windfall for migrants who are planning to come home anyway. Finally, they can feed resentment among non-migrants, and so complicate the process of reintegration.

Conclusion

The issue of return is at the heart of the debate on international migration management. Understanding of the phenomenon is still fragmentary, in part because of difficulties in measurement and the lack of comparative data. This report has attempted to overcome this dual obstacle by looking at the definition problems and reviewing the available sources and methods for evaluating return migration. It also includes a detailed analysis of the economic literature on returns. Finally, estimates of return rates are provided for several OECD countries and some origin countries.

An initial finding is that return migration is a major component of migration flows. According to the results presented here, roughly two migrants in five will leave the host country within five years after their arrival. This figure varies greatly, however, by country of origin, by host country, and by category of admission. It also varies according to the individual characteristics of migrants. Return rates to OECD countries are overall twice as high as those observed toward developing countries. Moreover, there is a higher propensity to return among the least educated migrants and also among those with higher education.

Return migration is concentrated at the extremities of the lifecycle, that is they involve primarily young persons recently arrived in the host country, and older persons, particularly those of retirement age. The relationship between length of stay and probability of return is a decreasing one, with fairly marked threshold effects after a few years of residence: the majority of returns occur within the first three years, and after five years the return rate is relatively low.

For migrants, the idea of return is an attractive one, because their departure was often felt as something imposed on them, and even as a form of exile. The studies discussed in this report show that the impact of integration in the host country on the propensity to return is, *a priori*, ambiguous. A more favourable employment situation will allow a migrant to achieve his migration objective sooner, but it may also induce some migrants to prolong their stay abroad, or even to settle abroad permanently. The nature of the relationship is further complicated by the fact that migrants generally pursue several concomitant objectives, and those objectives may vary over their lifecycle. Migrants plan their migration pathway, and their return, in light of their individual and family objectives, but they also take account of opportunities in the home country.

Despite the variety of initiatives in host countries, it is therefore hardly surprising that assisted voluntary return programmes have limited impact, at least if we assess them in light of the numbers of people concerned and in comparison with the total flow of returnees. Another aspect of return policies concerns the need to guarantee the effectiveness and credibility of temporary migration programmes, which have acquired growing importance in most OECD countries over the last 10 years. In this context, OECD countries rely on a mix of incentives and coercion to ensure return, while facilitating access to legal and temporary foreign manpower.

This report has highlighted the importance of entry categories for the probability of re-emigrating (with return treated as a new migration), without offering a detailed analysis of the impact that the grounds for admission and the characteristics of the residence permit (duration, conditions for renewal and change of status) may have on return rates. As well, the role of the migrant's family and marital situation (place of family formation, place of residence of family members) deserves further study. Such analyses would permit assisted return measures to be targeted more effectively, and incentives to be adjusted to individual and family characteristics and migration trajectories.

From the viewpoint of the home country, economic, political and social conditions play a determining role in returns. Except in the case of very short-term migration, the migrants themselves will often see the possibility of retaining a dual foothold in the home country and the host country as essential for maintaining the ties (including family bonds) that they have forged in the host country, and for ensuring access to the social services to which they are entitled. In this context, it is important to take advantage of all the ways in which migrants can contribute to the development of their home country, without

necessarily making return a precondition. Engaging the diasporas, through virtual or temporary return, can also promote the transfer of skills and technologies. This will serve to reinforce ties with the home country, which for some will facilitate their reintegration if they return. Return migration can in this way support, if not actually initiate, the development process.

Notes

1. Inflows and outflows are measured here for a given year and, *a priori*, do not relate to the same individuals. Moreover, outflows do not include returning naturalised immigrants.
2. Another specific case concerns the "return" of immigrants' children to their parents' country of birth. By definition, the children of immigrants born in the host country are not themselves immigrants. When they migrate to their parents' origin country, then, this cannot be properly called a return migration, even if they see it as such. "Returns" of immigrants' descendents can include repatriates from the former French, Portuguese and Spanish colonies, as well as migration of "ethnic minorities" in certain European countries (notably Germany, Finland and Hungary) and Japan.
3. The planned length of stay can differ from the actual length for several reasons: problems of reintegration in the home country or new opportunities abroad may induce people to depart again, or alternatively to extend their stay in the country (for example, by turning a simple visit into a longer stay, see Gmelch, 1980).
4. Depending on the country, this may cover the general population or only the foreign-born population, in which case the registries can only be used to identify departures of foreign-born individuals (*i.e.* excluding naturalised immigrants).
5. The registration rules vary by country, but they generally require a residence permit and the intention to remain in the country for certain period.
6. These registries are updated periodically, however, for the specific purpose of deleting such persons.
7. Inflows can also be estimated using a survey that isolates immigrants arriving within the last year.
8. We use the 2000 Census (a public sample of microdata representing 5% of the population) to identify migrants entering in 1999 on the basis of those present in 2000 who arrived in 1999, and we use the 2005 American Community Survey (sample of 1% of the population) to identify migrants who entered in 1999 and were still present in 2005. Mortality rates by age and by sex were used to account for cohort attrition not related to immigration. This approach tends to underestimate 1999 inflows, because it does not count people who left before the 2000 Census. Thus we estimate a return rate after five years of residence for immigrants who entered in 1999 and stayed at least until the 2000 Census.
9. Dustmann and Weiss (2007) used a comparable approach for the United Kingdom, but with a slightly simplified methodology.
10. Particularly if they emigrate after marrying a native of the host country.
11. Using a methodology that combines lending records and the Canadian population census.
12. Reagan and Olsen (2000) obtained similar results using different data: probability of leaving the country declines with length of stay. For the United States, Van Hook *et al.* (2006) match individual records from successive Current Population Surveys to identify immigrant departures and to estimate the annual departure rates for different categories of immigrants in 2000. The results are consistent with those obtained from other methods. The annual departure rate declines sharply with length of stay in the United States: it is 6.5% for immigrants present for up to four years, 5% for those present between five and nine years, and 2.5% for those present more than ten years.
13. Persons younger than 30 are excluded in order to eliminate, as far as possible, individuals whose level of education may have changed between their arrival in the United States and their departure.
14. Access to information is measured here in terms of distance and size of the migrant's home-country community.

15. In the case of Egyptian migrants, Gang and Bauer (1990) demonstrate a counterintuitive effect of access to information, by showing that a larger community abroad facilitates access to better jobs and thus tends to reduce migrants' length of stay.

16. Kirdar (2008) moderates the findings of Constant and Massey (2002, 2003) by showing that the connection between the choice to return and labour market success cannot be analysed without taking into account the duration of unemployment. He finds that immigrants who have been unemployed for less than a year are more likely to re-emigrate, while the longer-term unemployed tend to remain in Germany.

17. The case of Argentines in the United States constitutes a counterexample, reflecting the fact that the employment situation in Argentina in 2000 was not seen as more favourable than that in the United States for any group of migrants.

18. On the other hand, if we assume that migrants' calculations are confined to income maximisation, then they will return home only if the relative income situation is reversed.

19. For many migrants, the savings accumulated in the host country should be enough to purchase property in the home country, which they will hope to use upon their return. This is a non-productive investment.

20. See also Dustmann (2003b, 2007) for a modelling and assessment of the role of children in the return migration choice.

21. Another relevant work here is that of Lindstrom (1996), who shows that Mexican immigrants from the more dynamic regions tend to create a business and to remain longer in the United States in order to achieve sufficient savings, while other immigrants are inclined to shorter but repeated stays.

22. Tani and Mahuteau (2008) examined factors determining labour market entry for 1 000 migrants returning to Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco. They were able to confirm the effect of age at immigration on the probability of being employed, and the importance of entrepreneurial experience acquired abroad for developing a productive activity in their home country.

23. See for example Güngör and Tansel (2005, 2006) for an analysis of the determinants of return migration for Turkish students earning degrees in Germany.

24. Dustmann (1999) inverts this reasoning to show that the prospect of return (especially if the residence permit is of short duration) has a negative impact on the accumulation of capital that is specific to the host country and is not readily transferable to the home country (*e.g.* mastery of the host country language).

25. Tian and Ma (2006) explore the particular case of individuals who emigrated from Hong Kong, China to Canada during the 1990s and then returned home. According to the 2001 Hong Kong Census, this situation applies to more than 80 000 persons. The authors show that, with a higher education degree, these individuals are 70% more likely to hold a managerial position, and they will earn 80% more, than immigrants who remained in Canada. On the other hand, the authors find no return premium *vis-à-vis* those who never emigrated.

26. Bijwaard (2004) estimates that nearly 40% of immigrants who entered the Netherlands in 1995 had left the country seven years later. However, 16% came back over the same period, and of those, 33% left again.

27. See Dustmann (2000, 2001) and Dustmann and Weiss (2007) for an attempted summary of the main arguments outlined above. See also Cassarino (2004).

28. In most European OECD countries, certain fixed-term residence permits are renewable upon application, or automatically, and are therefore effectively permanent. These permits must be distinguished, however, from those issued under temporary migration programmes (seasonal workers, workers on assignments, students), which are not renewable, even if changes of status are possible in some cases. Holding a temporary permit does not necessarily imply that the migration itself is temporary.

29. In Denmark, for example, the ban is generally for one year. It is three years in Spain and can be as long as ten years in Italy and the United States. A recent amendment to New Zealand's immigration law provides for a variable ban: *i)* "none", in the case of voluntary departure, *ii)* two or five years after an expulsion order, depending on the length of overstay, and *iii)* permanent, for permanent residents who have been expelled.

30. The European Commission has prepared a draft directive [COD(2005)0167] to harmonise return conditions. It calls for a maximum re-entry ban of five years (unless there is a threat to national or

public security) in case of expulsion or overstay. The proposal is currently being debated by the European Parliament and the Council.

31. Another example is Switzerland which, until 2003, offered a seasonal permit (for up to nine months) whereby those who had worked for 36 months in the course of the last four years could obtain a renewable annual permanent (permit B).

32. Although the Senate voted to extend this exemption in 2008, it has not been renewed.

33. This requirement is one of the measures most commonly used by host countries to verify that seasonal migrants have gone home.

34. In home countries with high inflation, moreover, the sums transferred may lose their value swiftly, even before the return, unless they can be held in foreign-currency accounts.

35. See Epstein, Hillman and Weiss (1999) for a theoretical discussion of effects induced by measures of this kind, particularly in terms of the illegal employment of foreigners.

36. In most countries, moreover, the employer is liable to a fine or even a prison sentence for illegally employing foreigners.

37. Germany had already signed a bilateral agreement with Turkey in 1972, to help immigrants return to their country.

38. See Dustmann (1996) for a historical presentation and a comparison of return policies and trends in Germany, France and Switzerland.

39. In the United Kingdom, for example, the cost of expelling rejected asylum-seekers was estimated at GBP 11 000 per person in 2003-04, or ten times the cost of voluntary assisted departures (UK National Audit Office, 2005). In 2006, in a move to encourage rejected asylum-seekers to return home voluntarily, the return premiums under the VARRP (Voluntary Assisted Return and Reintegration Programme) were raised temporarily to GBP 3 000 per person. For further details on this programme, see Home Office (2002, 2005).

40. See *www.iom.int/jahia/Jahia/pid/747* for a complete list of return programmes implemented with IOM support.

41. In the case of Kosovo, for example, the IOM assisted more than 2 700 returns from Belgium between November 2000 and December 2001 (RKB project), 280 from Finland between March 2000 and December 2001 (DRITA I and II projects), 415 from Berlin between July 2000 and March 2003 (BORK project) as well as around 120 families leaving Italy between October 2000 and December 2001. Between July 1999 and the end of 2000, more than 32 000 Kosovars were also repatriated from Switzerland in partnership with the IOM.

42. Since March 2003 the IOM has been running the programme for the "Return of Qualified Afghans from the EU" (EU-RQA), building upon a worldwide programme launched in 2001. Returning migrants receive a lump sum of EUR 600, plus EUR 300 as a monthly wage subsidy for those working in the public administration in Afghanistan. A total of 540 qualified persons were repatriated under this programme since 2001. The IOM and the European Union also signed an agreement to assist up to 5 000 Afghans under the RANA programme ("Return, Reception and Reintegration of Afghans Nationals in Afghanistan"). Between June 2003 and May 2005, nearly 1 800 persons returned to Afghanistan under this programme. Some 300 reintegration projects were also financed (EUR 1 500 per project).

43. The Priority Solidarity Fund for Co-development (*FSP co-développement*) established under the co-development agreements signed with Mali and Senegal in 2006 have replaced the Local Migration and Development Programme (PDLM) that was established in 1995 for countries of the Senegal River Basin. *FSP co-développement* was extended to the Comoros in 2007. The PDLM now embraces other geographic areas, including Romania, where it is known as the Migration and Co-development Programme (PCDM). More-targeted programmes are also financed by the European Refugee Fund (ERF), in Armenia, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea, Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine. They also support investment projects, to a limit of EUR 3 660. Finally, the *FSP Cadre* and *FSP DSTE* (Scientific, Technical and Economic Diasporas) covers several countries in Asia, the Maghreb and sub-Saharan Africa, designed more specifically to mobilise the diasporas through co-development projects (CICI, 2007; ANAEM, 2006; Kaba and Force, 2002).

44. The European Directive on the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents (Directive 109/2003) stipulates, for example, that "periods of absence from the territory of the member state concerned shall not interrupt the period referred to in paragraph 1* and shall be taken into account for its calculation where they are shorter than six consecutive months and do

not exceed in total 10 months within the period referred to in paragraph 1." *Continuous legal residence for five years.

45. Holzmann, Koettl and Chermetsky (2005) mention the example of Germany which, in the absence of a bilateral agreement, generally imposes a 30% discount on pensions paid abroad. This discount also applies to immigrants returning to Turkey and to Tunisia but not, for example, to those settling in Morocco, under the terms of the agreements signed with these countries.

46. Previously, a person who had worked as much as 499 weeks, but less than a full 10 years, in the United States and Mexico was not entitled to retirement benefits in the two countries.

47. In 2000, nearly 2 million Egyptians were living as temporary residence in countries of the Gulf.

48. Nearly half of the 8 million Philippine residents abroad are temporary migrants. Migrant workers make a crucial contribution to the economy through the remittances they send to their families.

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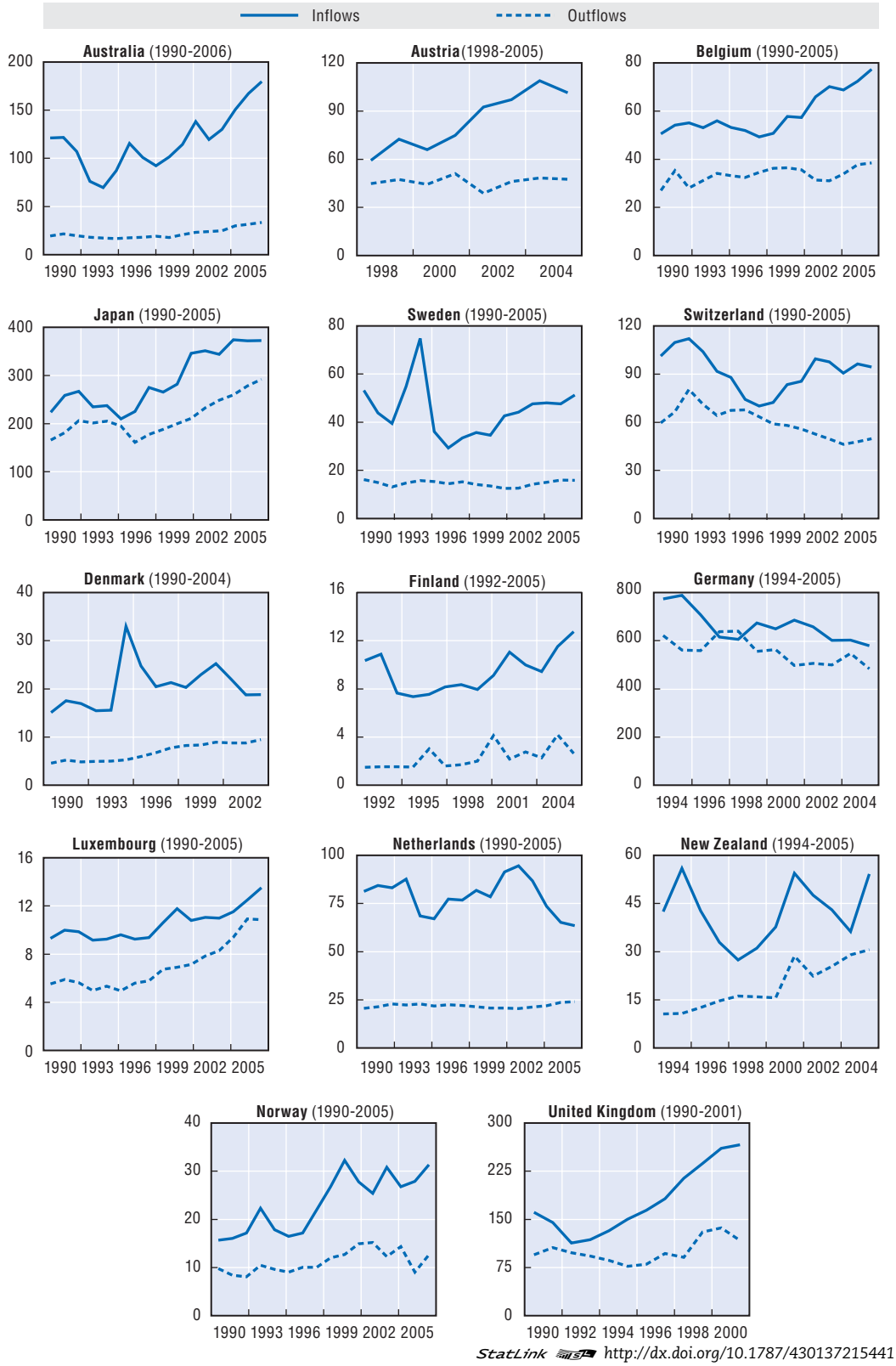
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ANNEX III.A1

Inflows and outflows of foreigners in selected OECD countries

Chart III.A1. **Inflows and outflows of foreigners in selected OECD countries**

In thousands



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430137215441

Source: *Database on International Migration*. See *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo/data*.

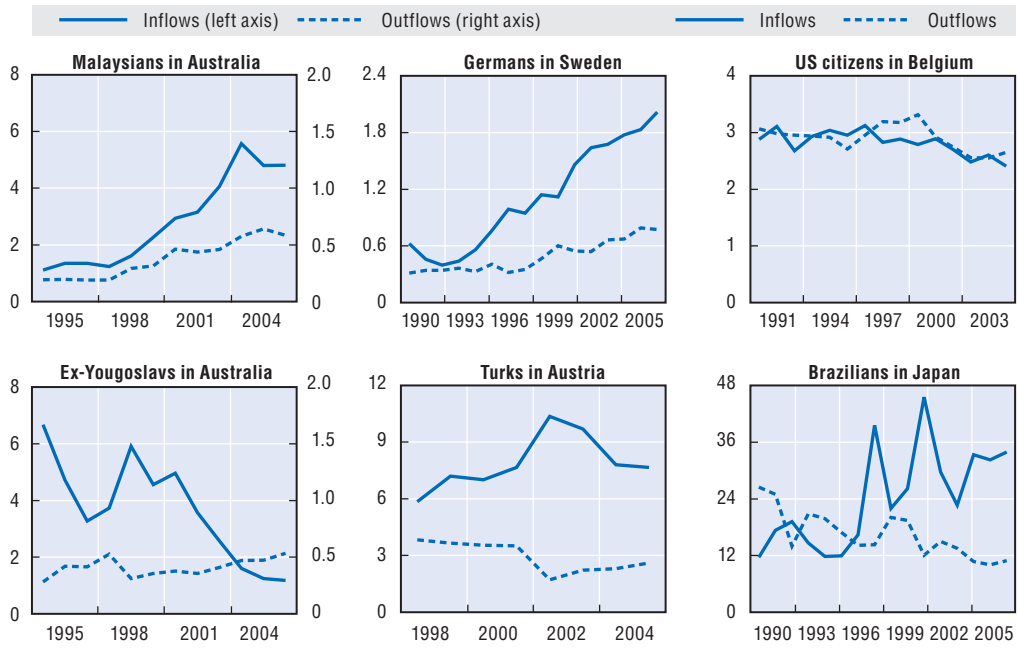
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ANNEX III.A2

Inflows and outflows of migrants from Australia, Belgium, Sweden, Austria and Japan, various nationalities

Chart III.A2. **Inflows and outflows of foreigners in selected OECD countries**

In thousands



StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430144510064

Source: *Database on International Migration*. See *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo/data*.

ANNEX III.A3

Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries

Table III.A3.1. **Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries**

	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark
Main general programme	**Reintegration assistance package**	**General assisted voluntary return**	**Return and emigration of asylum seekers (REAB)**	**No dedicated voluntary assisted return programme**	**Danish repatriation Act**
Since	2004 (AFG:2003, IRQ: 2002).	2000.	1984.		1999.
Target group	Asylum seekers who are not in need of protection with temporary protection visa, temporary humanitarian visa or return pending visa.	Asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers.	Asylum seekers and all foreigners who receive or may benefit from governmental assistance (including irregular migrants but not refugees).		Foreigners with residence permit on humanitarian grounds and other immigrants who wish to return to their home country.
Number	56 Iraqis since 2003, 34 Afghans since 2002, 6 persons from other countries since 2004.	9 340 persons since 2000, 2 164 persons in 2007.	25 196 persons since 2000, 2 593 persons in 2007.		1 415 persons between 2000 and 2006, 148 persons in 2006.
Financial support (except transportation)	2 000 AUD per person, up to 10 000 AUD per family.	370 EUR per person.	250 EUR per adult, 125 EUR per child under 18.		26 634 DKK per adult, 8 523 DKK per child.
Additional counseling and reintegration support	IOM provides support services to Afghans.	Counseling services co-funded with the European Refugee Fund.	IOM provides information on the situation in origin country under the IRRiCO project.		Migrants over 60 or over 50 and unfit for work can get between 1 000 to 4 500 DKK monthly for up to five years.
Service providers	Department of Immigration and Citizenship.	IOM (logistic and general assistance) and other NGOs.	IOM.		The Danish Refugee Council advises on repatriation and local municipalities provide aids.
Other programmes (*e.g.* country-specific) and funds	**Afghans and Iranians in immigration detention**	**Assisted voluntary returns to Afghanistan and Moldova**	**Reintegration (RF) and vulnerable cases (VCF) funds**		**Assisted voluntary return to Iraq and Kosovo**
Since	2002 for Afghanistan, 2003 for Iran.	2003 for Afghanistan, 2005 for Moldova.	2006.		2006 for Kosovo, 2007 for Iraq.
Target group		Refugees and asylum seekers.	VCF: REAB candidates under 18, victims of trafficking, older migrants, pregnant women, etc.		Rejected asylum seekers.
Number	68 Afghans since 2002, 28 Iranians since 2003.		RF: 81 persons in 2006, 271 in 2007. VCF: 12 persons in 2006, 64 in 2007.		80 Kosovars since 2006, 7 Iraqis in 2007.
Financial support (except transportation)	2 000 AUD per person, up to 1 0000 AUD per family.	AFG: 500 EUR per single person, 800 EUR per married couple, 100 EUR per child (up to 1 200 EUR per family). MDA: 300 EUR per person.	700 EUR per person or 1 750 EUR per family. Special programme for Rep. Dem. Congo: 1500 EUR per person (45 persons since 2006).		KOS: No cash grants but in-kind return package. IRQ: 6 000 USD + 3 000 USD after 6 months per adult (3 000 USD + 7 500 USD per child).
Additional counseling and reintegration support		Specific programmes are carried out in Moldova by the Austrian Development Agency.	Medical assistance, temporary housing, tracing of family members…		KOS: Access to micro-credit and assistance. IRQ: Up to 2 200 USD for setting business.
Service providers	Department of Immigration and Citizenship with IOM in some cases.	IOM.	IOM.		KOS: Danish Refugee Council. IRQ: NGOs including IOM and Danish Red Cross.

Table III.A3.1. **Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Finland	France	Germany	Greece
Main general programme	**Assisted voluntary return programme**	**Assisted voluntary return (AVR, previously IQF), Assisted humanitarian return (ARH)**	**Government assisted repatriation (GARP), Reintegration and emigration (REAG)**	**No dedicated voluntary return programme**
Since	1998.	AVR: 2005 (IQF: 1991), ARH: 1992.	1979.	
Target group	Refugees, asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers.	AVR: Irregular migrants, rejected asylum seekers. ARH: Vulnerable groups.	Refugees, asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers, irregular migrants.	
Number	334 persons since 2003.	IQF: 12 778 persons until 2005 (647 in 2005). AVR: 1 991 persons in 2006. ARH: 4 444 persons until 2006 (548 in 2006).	More than 519 200 persons until 2005. 11 300 persons in 2005 and 9 104 persons in 2006.	
Financial support (except transportation)	For refugees except if they were granted Finnish citizenship. Travel cost only for asylum seekers who withdraw their application.	AVR: 3 500 EUR per married couple, 2 000 EUR per single adult, 1 000 EUR per child (up to 3 children), 500 EUR per additional child. Payment after return: 50% after 6 months, 20% after 12 months. IQF: 153 EUR per adult, 46 EUR per child. ARH: 300 EUR per adult, 100 EUR per child.	100 EUR per adult and youth, 50 EUR per child under 12 (up to 600 EUR per family). Additional financial support for some origin countries (resp. 200-500 EUR and 100-250 EUR, up to 750-1500 EUR per family). States and municipalities may provide additional support.	
Additional counseling and reintegration support	Yes.	Yes, see below.	Yes including adult education and vocational training in Germany.	
Service providers	IOM.		IOM.	
Other programmes (*e.g.* country-specific) and funds	**Several country-specific programmes run by IOM**	**Reinsertion programmes to develop economic activities in origin countries:** **– FSP co-development (prev. PDLM, incl. PMIE)** **– Co-development migration programme (PCDM)** **– Public aid to reintegration (APR)**	**United States refugee programme (USRP), Special assistance programme (SMAP)**	**Sponsored country-specific assisted voluntary return programmes**
Since		FSP codev: 2006 (previously PDLM since 1995), PCDM: 2006 (but initiated in 1999), APR: 1984.	SMAP: 1994, USRP: 1997.	
Target group		FSP codev: Mali, Senegal, Comoros. PCDM: Romania. APR: All foreigners unemployed or at risk of losing their job. Special projects (funded by ERF via ANAEM) for Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Cameroon, Rep. Dem. Congo, Georgia, Guinea, Mauritania, Moldavia and Ukraine.	SMAP: People not eligible for GARP or REAG, including ethnic Germans. USRP: "Resettled" refugees in the United States.	Mainly Afghans and Iranians, asylum seekers and irregular migrants.
Number		FSP codev: 133 projects in Mali in 2006 (129 in 2005), 5 projects in Senegal in 2006. PCDM: 67 projects in 2006 (28 in 2005). PMIE: More than 600 projects financed since 1996.	SMAP: 7 085 persons until 2005. USRP: 39 935 persons until 2005.	Less than 100 people since 2003 in total.
Financial support (except transportation)				
Additional counseling and reintegration support		Up to 3 660 EUR per project (Mali and Senegal: up to 7 000 EUR). Training in the origin country or France. FSP programmes also offer to develop joint economic projects in the origin country and France.		Yes.
Service providers				IOM.

Table III.A3.1. **Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Japan	Mexico
Main general programme	**Hungarian assisted return programme (HARP)**	**Voluntary assisted return and reintegration (VARRP)**	**"Return and start again" (Protection system for asylum applicants and refugees - SPRAR)**	**Departure order system**	**Voluntary return assistance program**
Since	1993.	2001.	2003 for the current programme.	2004.	2006.
Target group	Rejected asylum seekers.	Asylum seekers and irregular migrants.	Refugees, asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers.	Foreign nationals who have overstayed and wish to depart from Japan.	All foreigners originating from outside the American continent.
Number	4 471 persons since 1993, 212 persons in 2007.	1 547 persons since 2001through IOM (255 in 2007). 1 516 persons since 2001 through DJELR (63 in 2006).	1991-2001: 5 252 persons. 2001-2003 (Piano Nazionale Asilo): 263 persons. 2003-2007 (SPRAR): 534 persons.	24 245 persons since 2004, 11 100 persons in 2006.	1 164 persons in 2006, 2 498 persons in 2007.
Financial support (except transportation)	50 USD per person.		700 to 1 500 EUR per family.	No (the foreign national may not enter Japan for one year, which is shorter than in case of deportation).	No.
Additional counseling and reintegration support	No.	600 EUR per person, 1 200 EUR per family (600 EUR per unaccompanied minor) for vocational/education training or to start a small business.	Yes.	No.	No.
Service providers	IOM.	Department of Justice Equality and Law Reform (DJELR) and IOM.	IOM.	Immigration Bureau, Ministry of Justice.	IOM.
Other programmes (*e.g.* country-specific) and funds	**2005 and 2006 return programmes**	**Voluntary assisted return programme for vulnerable irregular Nigerian nationals**	**Repatriation fund**		
Since	2005.	2006 (duration 18 months).	1992.		
Target group	People from Afghanistan, Albania, Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, China, Kazakhstan, Serbia, Montenegro, Kyrgyzstan, Moldavia, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine with an expulsion order.	Vulnerable Nigerians who have been refused permission to remain in Ireland (this programme is jointly organised with the Netherlands).	Vulnerable groups and workers in difficulty (0.5% tax on wages contributed to the fund but has been waived by law 286/98).		
Number	160 persons in 2005, 180 persons in 2006.	Up to 100 persons.	571 persons until 2006, but in 385 cases it was for the remains of migrant workers who died in Italy.		
Financial support (except transportation)	200 to 250 EUR.		No.		
Additional counseling and reintegration support	In 24 cases, people were granted 1 500 EUR to set up businesses.		No.		
Service providers	IOM.	IOM.			

Table III.A3.1. **Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Netherlands	New Zealand	Norway	Portugal	Spain
Main general programme	**Return and emigration of aliens (REAN) and Emigration Act (EA)**	**No dedicated programme but will assist persons who are liable to return**	**Voluntary repatriation (VR) and Voluntary assisted return (VAR)**	**Sustaining return information and advice network (SuRRIA)**	**Voluntary return programme**
Since	REAN: 1992 (revised in 2006), EA: 2000.		VR: 1992, VAR: 2002.	2001.	2003.
Target group	REAN: Legal migrants lacking personal resources (but irregular migrants are not automatically excluded). EA: Legal migrants (target origin countries and refugees).		VR: Refugees and foreigners with a residence permit granted on humanitarian grounds. VAR: Foreign nationals denied leave to remain (incl. rejected asylum seekers).	Irregular migrants who have been asked to leave the country but do not have sufficient resources.	Refugees, asylum seekers, persons under temporary protection and irregular migrants.
Number	REAN: 14 842 persons over the last 5 years. EA: 3711 persons between 2000 and 2004.		VR: 6 800 persons since 1999 (small numbers since 2002, 48 in 2006). VAR: 4 921 persons since 2002 (443 in 2007).	277 persons in 2007.	4 669 persons since 2003, 1 003 persons in 2007.
Financial support (except transportation)	REAN: Up to 500 EUR per adult and 100 EUR per child. EA: Basic provision (up to 2 000 EUR) including transportation.	No.	VR: 15 000 NOK per person (no ceiling and nothing has to be repaid if the person stays at least 24 months in the origin country). VAR: No.	About 250 EUR per person (returnees are not allowed to re-enter Portugal for 3 years).	50 EUR per person. Reintegration allowance: 400 EUR per person (maximum of 1 600 EUR per family).
Additional counseling and reintegration support	EA: Re-emigration provision for those who are 45 and older. On average they receive about 480 EUR per month (minus exportable benefits).	No.	Yes.	Reintegration subsidies in some cases for vulnerable migrants or to start a small business.	Special project for Latin American migrants providing notably: – allowance to start a project: 1 500 EUR per person and project (maximum 5 000 EUR), – medical insurance for 1 year, – access to education.
Service providers	IOM.		VAR: IOM and Norwegian People's Aid.	IOM.	
Other programmes (*e.g.* country-specific) and funds	**Assisted return and reintegration**		**Reintegration for Afghan and Iraqi nationals**	**Return of East Timorese refugees**	
Since	2006.		2006 for Afghanistan.	1999.	
Target group	Selected asylum seekers (rejected) not eligible to REAN.		Afghans and Iraqis from Kurdistan, irrespective of their legal status.	East Timorese Refugees.	
Number	3 864 persons in total.		270 Afghans.		
Financial support (except transportation)	1 750 EUR per adult, 875 EUR per child.		3 000 to 15 000 NOK per person.		
Additional counseling and reintegration support	Possibility to have a grant to set up small businesses and receive vocational training.		Counseling, vocational training in the origin country and assistance for establishing a small business.		
Service providers	IOM.			INDE (NGO).	

Table III.A3.1. **Main voluntary assisted return programmes in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom
Main general programme	**Voluntary return migration/repatriation programme**	**Individual return assistance**	**Voluntary assisted return and reintegration (VARRP)**
Since	1993.	1997.	1999.
Target group	Permanent resident, refugees and persons with a residence permit granted for humanitarian reasons and who are not able to return home.	Refugees, asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers.	Asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers.
Number	319 persons between 2002 and 2006, 29 persons in 2006.	More than 65 000 persons over the last 10 years (including current and previous country-specific programmes).	About 16 800 persons until 2006, 6 200 persons in 2006.
Financial support (except transportation)	10 000 SEK per adult, 5 000 SEK per child (maximum 40 000 SEK per family).	320 EUR per adult, 160 EUR per child under 18.	Standard: 1 000 GBP, partly of in kind reintegration assistance. In 2006, the benefits were temporarily increased for those having claimed asylum on or before 31 December 2005: 500 GBP cash grant, 1 000 GBP of in kind reintegration assistance and 1 500 GBP in a series of phased cash payments (or in kind reintegration assistance).
Additional counseling and reintegration support	Since 2006, persons who have received their residence permit due to their need of protection do not lose the benefit of their permit before 2 years.	Maximum 1 675 EUR to establish a small business (since 2002). Additional assistance for medical treatment for up to 6 months.	Yes.
Service providers	Various NGOs.	Federal Migration Office (ODM), Directorate for Development and Cooperation (DDC) and IOM.	IOM.
Other programmes (*e.g.* country-specific) and funds	**Return programme**	**Nine country-specific return programmes currently running**	**Assisted voluntary return for irregular migrants (AVRIM)**
Since		Ethiopia (2006), Afghanistan (2006), Armenia (2004), Georgia (2004), Iraq (2003), North Africa (2005), Nigeria (2005), Western Africa (2005), Balkans (2007).	2004.
Target group	Rejected asylum seekers or migrants whose temporary residence permit has expired.	All foreigners with no criminal record except for the Balkan region programme, which targets vulnerable people and minorities.	Irregular migrants and overstayers.
Number	41 438 persons since 2002, 3 953 persons in 2007.	Ethiopia: 14 persons, Afghanistan: 8, Armenia: 74, Georgia: 72, Iraq: 506, North Africa: 22, Nigeria: 66, Western Africa: 48, Balkans: 48.	667 persons until early 2006.
Financial support (except transportation)	No substantial grant.	Ethiopia, Afghanistan, North Africa, Nigeria: 2 000CHF per adult and 1 000 CHF per child; Armenia, Western Africa, Georgia: 1 000 CHF per adult and 500 CHF per child; Iraq: 2 000 USD per adult and 1 000 USD per child; Balkans: up to 3 000 CHF per person.	1 000 GBP only for people in vulnerable situation.
Additional counseling and reintegration support	Yes.	Yes.	
Service providers		ODM, DDC and IOM.	IOM.

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PART IV

Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies

(COUNTRY NOTES)

HOW TO READ THE TABLES OF PART IV

Annual averages have been calculated for most of the series presented. The averages cover the periods 1995-2000 and 2001-2006. In some cases, depending on the availabilty of data, they may be calculated for shorter periods.

Sources and notes

Migration flows of foreigners

Sources and notes are available in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.1. and B.1.1.)

Long-term migration inflows of foreigners by type

The statistics are based largely on residence and work permit data and have been standardised, to the extent possible (*cf. www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008*).

Temporary migration

Based on residence or work permit data. Data on temporary workers generally do not cover workers who benefit from a free circulation agreement.

Inflows of asylum seekers

United Nations High Commission for Refugees.

Macroeconomic and labour market indicators

Real GDP and GDP per capita

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at the price levels and PPPs of 2000.

Employment and unemployment

Employment Outlook, OECD, 2007. Some series appearing in the latter have been revised since they were published.

Components of population growth

Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2007.

Total population

Foreign-born population

National sources and Secretariat estimates (*cf.*: *www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2008* for more information on methods of estimation). Sources and notes of national sources are provided in the Statistical Annex (see metadata for Tables A.1.4 and B.1.4).

Foreign population

National sources. Exact sources and notes are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.5 and B.1.5).

Naturalisations

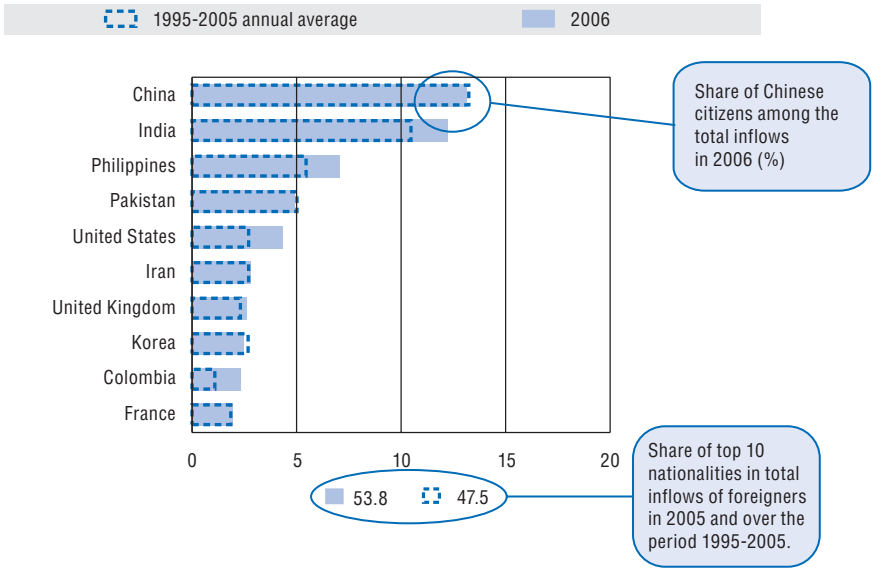
National sources. Exact sources and notes are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.6 and B.1.6).

Labour market outcomes

European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register data except since 2005 where data refer to the European Union Labour Force Survey); Australia: Labour Force Survey; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey, March supplement.

HOW TO READ THE CHARTS

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Australia



Permanent immigration to Australia has continued to grow. Entries under the 2006-07 migration programme were 148 200, the largest in more than a decade. The shift towards skilled migration, which began in the second half of the 1990s, continued, resulting in the largest number of skilled migrants (including accompanying family) ever admitted to Australia.

In 2006, Australia undertook the most extensive review of its skilled migration programme since 1988, at a time of unprecedented emphasis on the skill category (66% of the total migrant intake of 148 200, or almost 98 000 people). In spite of high employment figures for this group (82-83% of Principal Applicants in the two main categories employed within six months of arrival), changes were introduced from September 2007 designed to further enhance employment outcomes. In particular the threshold level of English competence was increased, additional bonus points were provided for applicants with high level English (reflecting employer demand), and greater emphasis was placed on work experience related to field of qualification (in particular for former students).

These points test changes were underpinned by a simpler visa structure, greatly enhanced speed of processing (three weeks for on-shore applicants compared to three months for those off-shore), and a capacity for applications to be electronically lodged anywhere in the world. Accountants dominated 2006-07 skilled migration flows (27% of the category), followed by business and computing professionals (16%). The top five source countries were the United Kingdom (18%), India (15%), China (11%), Malaysia (4%) and the Philippines (3%).

International students represent a primary resource for skilled migration, their numbers expanding in response to migration opportunities. In 2006-07 a record number of almost 230 000 visas were granted, a 20% increase over the previous year. India (about 29 000) had overtaken China (almost 25 000) as the most important origin country, followed by the Republic of Korea (almost 13 000). Rapid growth in demand was evident in the vocational study sector – enrolments rising from below 30 000 in 2005-06 to more than 43 000 in direct reflection of the growing range of trade occupations scoring points for skill migration. Large numbers of international students become permanent residents and stay, the skill migration review demonstrating this applies to 66% of all Indian students, compared to 38% of those from China.

A growing number of migrants were also selected for entry under regional nomination schemes – a programme resulting, for example, in more than doubling the proportion of migrants settling in the previously under-subscribed state of South Australia between 2003-04 and 2006-07, supported by a substantial discount of the number of the points required for skill migration (100 compared to 120).

In terms of other migration categories, 10% growth occurred in 2006-07 in the admission of family members.

A further 1 300 visas were allocated in 2006-07 to Refugee and Humanitarian entrants, with 16% of refugees women at risk. Sudan, Myanmar, Iraq and Afghanistan were the main sources of refugees.

Important changes to the Citizenship Act were approved, extending the period of residence required from two to four years (though in the case of international student applicants, the period of formal study in Australia can be counted). A mandatory test of English ability and knowledge of Australian culture and history for citizenship purposes was introduced in October 2007 (20 questions randomly chosen from a pool of 200), with special arrangements catering to people with low literacy. In addition, about AUD 14 million are available over four years to assist new migrants in the preparation for the test.

Finally, the capacity for employers to recruit international temporary workers has grown strongly in recent years. More than 104 000 persons with such long-stay business visas were present in Australia by the end of June 2007, compared to 58 000 people with this visa in Australia three years earlier.

For further information…

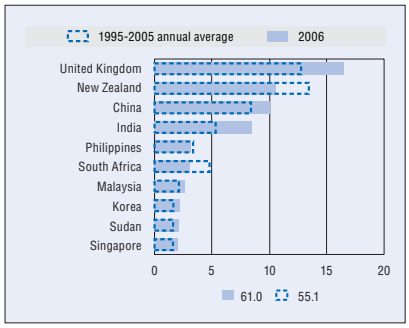
www.immi.gov.au/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	5.8	8.2	8.7	5.6	7.3	*179.8*
Outflows	0.9	1.1	1.6	1.6	1.0	1.4	*33.6*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	45.1	49.6	*25.1*	*25.9*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	92.4	98.0	*51.4*	*51.1*
Humanitarian	17.0	14.2	*9.4*	*7.4*
Free movements	23.8	28.3	*13.2*	*14.8*
Others	1.6	1.8	*0.9*	*0.9*
Total	179.8	191.9		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	74.4	116.7	129.2	104.2
Trainees	7.1	7.0	6.3	6.8
Working holiday makers	71.5	104.4	113.9	90.6
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	54.5	71.6	98.9	64.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	*3.5*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.1	1.9	2.8	2.5	3.9	3.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.7	0.7	1.5	1.1	2.7	1.8	*30 467*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.3	2.7	3.2	2.1	1.6	2.3	*10 210*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	8.2	6.3	5.0	4.8	7.6	5.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	13.1	12.1	13.2	13.5	11.8	12.3
Natural increase	7.2	6.3	6.6	6.4	6.6	6.1
Net migration	5.9	5.8	6.7	7.1	5.2	6.2

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	1.0	1.3	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.9	*15 648*
Foreign-born	1.9	1.0	2.2	2.4	1.2	2.0	*4 957*
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*103 350*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	78.0	78.7	80.5	81.0	78.1	79.4
Foreign-born men	73.4	73.8	74.3	76.1	72.9	74.6
Native-born women	61.7	64.0	68.3	68.7	62.3	66.4
Foreign-born women	53.1	54.4	58.6	58.9	52.7	56.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.4	6.6	4.7	3.8	7.8	5.7
Foreign-born men	10.7	6.6	5.0	4.3	9.0	5.8
Native-born women	7.3	6.2	5.0	4.5	7.1	5.6
Foreign-born women	9.2	7.6	5.2	5.2	8.7	6.2

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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Austria



In 2006, the inflow of foreigners to Austria continued to decline to 85 400 (–16 100 compared to 2005) after having reached a peak of 108 900 in 2004. At the same time, outflows of foreigners increased, resulting in a net migration of 32 500, the lowest level since 2002.

The number of asylum seekers has declined continuously since 2002 and dropped sharply to 13 300 in 2006. This represents a 40% reduction over 2005 and only about a third of the 2002 level. About half of the reduction of the number of asylum seekers in Austria in 2006 was the result of fewer demands from Serbia and Montenegro and the Russian Federation, the two main origin countries of asylum seekers in Austria.

On 1 January 2006, the new immigration law came into effect. This law brought about significant changes in the permit system, making comparisons over time on immigration cumbersome for many categories. On the aggregate, the number of new permanent (settlement) permits for non-EEA nationals declined in 2006 by almost 50% (to about 16 400); the number of new temporary permits even declined by two-thirds. One of the key changes of the law was to make family reunification and formation more difficult, by requiring that the sponsoring partner in Austria needs to have a regular income at or above the minimum wage. As a result, entries in the category of family reunification declined significantly. However, the vast majority of third-country entrants for settlement still come under the heading of family migration. Nevertheless, the more restrictive policy towards family reunification has been associated with a higher proportion of EU nationals in both migration flows.

For foreign students graduating from Austrian universities, the new law provides the opportunity to change their status to become permanent residents as highly skilled workers (outside of the quota system). However, very few persons have taken advantage of this so far – less than 100 graduates in 2006. The required wage to become eligible for a skilled worker title (a monthly wage of EUR 2 250) appears to have been too high for entrants into the labour market. An amendment to lower the income requirement for university graduates is in preparation.

With the new immigration law, access to Austrian citizenship was also made more restrictive. Partly as a result of this, only 26 300 foreigners were naturalised in 2006, compared to 35 500 in 2005. About 50% of the naturalised foreigners came from the successor states of the former Yugoslavia, and a further 30% came from Turkey.

Irregular migration and illegal residence and/or employment are increasingly contentious issues in Austria. In 2006, several court cases concerned undeclared care work in the household sector, which is often undertaken by persons from the new EU member states, in particular from the neighbouring Slovak Republic. To promote the legalisation of these services, new legislation came into effect in 2008. EU nationals, including those from the new EU member states, can now register as service providers and are thus not subject to the transition rules. For persons who have done this by the end of June 2008, there will be no sanctions.

Integration policies are mainly decided upon and implemented in the regions. Thus, little is known on the federal level about the amount of money spent on integration in the various regions, the instruments and measures implemented and their respective effectiveness. The implementation of an "integration platform" in October 2007 constitutes a first measure to co-ordinate efforts in the area of integration policy among different government levels. The aim of the platform is to advance proposals for better integration.

For further information…

www.bmi.gv.at/

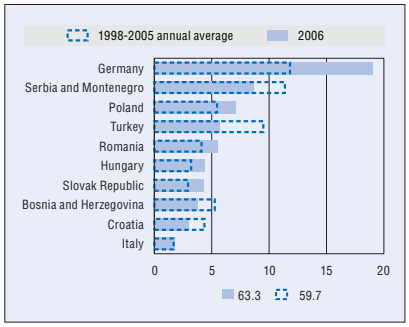
www.statistik.at/web_en/statistics/population/index.html

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	8.1	12.3	10.3	8.1	11.4	*85.4*
Outflows	. .	5.5	5.8	6.4	5.6	5.8	*52.9*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	1.5	0.7	*2.7*	*1.5*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	29.4	19.0	*51.7*	*41.0*
Humanitarian	5.9	5.1	*10.4*	*11.1*
Free movements	19.4	21.4	*34.1*	*46.2*
Others	0.7	0.2	*1.2*	*0.3*
Total	56.8	46.4		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	3.2	6.3	. .	5.0
Trainees	0.9	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	9.1	. .	. .	14.1
Intra-company transfers	0.2	. .	. .	0.2
Other temporary workers	6.3	. .	. .	9.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.7	2.3	2.7	1.6	1.5	3.3	*13.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.9	3.4	2.0	3.3	2.9	1.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.8	3.1	1.3	2.7	2.8	1.3	*31 285*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–0.1	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	0.3	*4 185*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	5.3	4.6	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	1.2	2.3	6.3	3.7	1.6	5.0
Natural increase	0.9	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.3
Net migration	0.3	2.2	5.9	3.3	1.1	4.7

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.7	0.2	–	. .	–0.3	*7 131*
Foreign-born	. .	–3.3	3.9	4.6	. .	5.2	*1 152*
National	. .	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.1	*7 464*
Foreign	. .	1.1	3.3	2.0	0.7	2.6	*818*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	3.5	4.5	3.2	3.3	4.8	*25 746*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	77.5	76.2	74.5	77.8	76.4	75.4
Foreign-born men	78.5	76.1	67.9	72.5	76.3	70.9
Native-born women	59.4	59.9	62.9	65.3	59.5	62.1
Foreign-born women	57.5	58.3	55.9	55.1	56.2	55.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.6	4.3	4.1	3.3	4.3	4.0
Foreign-born men	6.2	8.7	11.6	9.7	9.2	10.2
Native-born women	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.2
Foreign-born women	7.0	7.2	9.7	9.8	8.0	8.9

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433847088066

Belgium



Migration flows continued to increase in 2006, with official figures showing that more than 83 000 foreigners had immigrated to Belgium. This was 8% more than in 2005 and was the highest level recorded for over twenty years. Just over half of these entrants came from European Union countries, with French and Dutch nationals accounting for the bulk of migrants, the latter two nationalities representing more than one-fifth of new entrants. It should be noted, though, that immigration flows from Poland continued to rise steeply (a little over 6 500 people, *i.e.* an increase of nearly 40% compared to 2005).

Where labour migration is concerned, more than 12 000 new temporary permits were issued to wage-earners (*i.e.* not including self-employed workers), twice the number issued in 2005. About 63% of these permits went to EU8 workers, with the vast majority (over 90%) going to Polish nationals. A large proportion of these permits are granted only for occupations suffering from labour shortages, listed by region, to nationals of the new member States. Although Belgium extended restrictive measures during the second phase of the transition period, nationals of the new member States (including Bulgaria and Romania) benefit from more favourable conditions for granting work permits. They are now able to obtain a permit within five working days without an investigation of the job market, provided the permit in question relates to one of the listed occupations. The bulk of the increase is thus attributable to the ever greater number of work permits issued in Flanders to Polish nationals for seasonal work in horticulture and agriculture. At the same time, 7 000 highly skilled workers – half of whom were Indian, Japanese and American – were issued with temporary work permits.

Nearly 11 600 asylum applications were filed in 2006, which was the lowest recorded figure since 1995 and was almost 30% lower than the previous year.

Following the very large number of naturalisations in 2000 and 2001 (in the region of 62 000), prompted by the change in the nationality code, the number of people who acquired Belgian nationality stabilised in 2006 at 31 800. In the same year, over 42% of the foreign-born population resident in Belgium acquired Belgian nationality. This high percentage has triggered a debate in Belgium about the relevance of having "ethnic statistics" based, for example, on the country of birth or even on the parents' country of birth, which can be used to gauge labour market integration and discrimination against immigrants. A number of laws on the entry, stay and departure of foreigners, and also on asylum, came into force in 2007. Noticeable in the new legislation was the tougher conditions on family reunion. From now on, a foreigner who has settled in Belgium and wishes to marry a national of a non-EU27 country has to be 21 years old instead of 18. Once family reunion has been granted, checks on whether people are actually living together may be carried out over a three-year period.

The new legislation also concerns asylum application procedures. The old procedure involved two phases which were handled by two different bodies, the Office for Foreigners examined the form of the application to check that it was admissible and, if it was, the General Commission for Refugees and Stateless Persons (CGRA) examined the substance of the application. The new procedure, in operation since 1 June 2007, involves only one phase and the CGRA is now responsible for considering both the form and the substance of applications.

Subsequently, the CGRA is now the only authority with investigative powers. In simplifying the procedure, the aim of the authorities is to speed it up so that every asylum applicant knows the outcome within a year at the most. One consequence of the reform is that, with the procedure now lasting a maximum of a year, asylum applicants can no longer be awarded a temporary work permit, as was possible previously during the second phase of the old procedure when asylum applicants could hope to obtain a temporary work permit.

For further information…

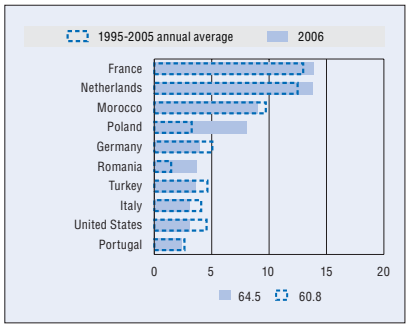
http://ecodata.mineco.fgov.be/
www.statbel.fgov.be/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.2	5.6	7.4	7.9	5.2	7.0	*83.4*
Outflows	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.4	3.4	*39.4*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	2.3	2.9	*6.5*	*8.2*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	13.6	12.8	*38.8*	*35.4*
Humanitarian	3.1	2.4	*8.7*	*6.6*
Free movements	16.1	18.0	*46.0*	*49.8*
Others	–	–	–	–
Total	35.0	36.1		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2005
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	2.7	8.0	3.0
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	2.8	7.8	3.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.1	4.2	1.5	1.1	2.2	1.7	*11.6*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.4	3.7	1.7	2.8	2.7	2.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.2	3.5	1.1	2.2	2.5	1.5	*29 780*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.7	2.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.5	*4 310*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.7	6.9	8.4	8.2	8.9	7.9	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	3.6	3.4	5.9	6.7	3.4	5.2
Natural increase	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.9	1.0	1.1
Net migration	2.7	2.5	4.5	4.8	2.4	4.1

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	*9 229*
Foreign-born	0.2	1.6	4.0	4.0	1.5	3.5	*1 319*
National	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	*9 616*
Foreign	–1.4	–3.9	3.4	3.5	–1.1	1.9	*932*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	2.8	6.9	3.6	3.5	3.7	4.6	*31 860*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	67.8	70.8	68.7	69.0	68.3	69.0
Foreign-born men	59.1	62.2	61.1	60.8	60.7	60.1
Native-born women	46.9	53.8	56.7	56.2	49.5	54.5
Foreign-born women	31.7	37.3	38.9	40.1	34.9	38.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.3	4.2	6.3	6.2	6.0	5.6
Foreign-born men	16.8	14.7	14.8	15.8	16.1	15.6
Native-born women	11.2	7.4	7.5	8.0	10.2	7.1
Foreign-born women	23.8	17.5	20.3	19.3	20.1	17.6

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433852047416

Bulgaria



Migration from and to Bulgaria appears to have increased markedly in 2006 and 2007 in light of Bulgaria's accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007. However, the impact on outflows has been somewhat more limited than expected. Emigration had already accelerated following the liberalisation of the visa regimes for Bulgarian citizens since 2001. Post-accession labour migration from Bulgaria has mainly concentrated in the Southern European countries Spain, Italy and Greece – in spite of the fact that none of these countries have fully opened their labour market to Bulgarian nationals. There are some indications, however, that many of the Bulgarian nationals concerned were already in these countries prior to accession.

In spite of growing labour shortages, policy continues to focus on encouraging emigration. However, with EU accession, Bulgaria fully opened its labour market for EU citizens, who do not require a work permit. This has facilitated entry of labour from the EU, which was previously burdened by long and complicated procedures. This is also important in the context of the growing inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI). In 2006, Bulgaria had the largest per capita FDI in the EU.

Preliminary data for 2007 show a significant increase in immigration. Especially noteworthy are the increases in immigration from Macedonia and the United Kingdom. Almost 4 100 new long-term permits were issued to Macedonians in the first ten months of 2007, compared to less than 2 800 in the whole of 2006. The United Kingdom is now the third most important origin country in terms of newly issued long-term residence permits, following Macedonia and Turkey.

The number of new foreign students has also increased markedly in recent years. They reached a new high of 3 140 in 2006-07, a two-fold increase within four years.

Naturalisations continued their strong upward trend observed since 2001. More than 6 600 were counted in 2006, a new all-time record.

Remittance data showed an unexpected decline in 2006 in the order of almost 13%, to reach a total volume of about EUR 330 million. Data for the first nine months of 2007 show that this decline is continuing.

Migration policy in 2006 and 2007 focused on the completion of legal and institutional harmonisation related to the accession to the EU and the implementation of EU directives. This included an amendment to the law on foreign nationals in 2007, providing easier entry to Bulgaria for foreign researchers, students and trainees. In addition, foreign citizens who have received permanent resident status in another EU member state are granted a resident permit for up to three months and their families have the right to join them. The law also provides for a mutual recognition of decisions taken by other EU member states on the expulsion of third country citizens.

In recent years, Bulgaria has enhanced efforts to conclude readmission agreements. Negotiations with Tunisia are under way. Co-operation with Russia and Turkey in this area is also strong, although formal readmission agreements have not yet been concluded.

Legal harmonisation for applying the Schengen acquis continued in 2006. Further efforts to strengthen border control and combat border crime were made and border facilities are being upgraded. A key priority is attached to the prevention of trafficking. The corresponding law was amended in 2006 to create better conditions for its implementation. A programme against trafficking of people has been initiated by the government in a partnership with local authorities, non-governmental and international organisations. Information campaigns are being organised to target groups at risk; reintegration and financial assistance for victims is being planned and local centres for victims have been established. In early 2007, a Centre for Co-operation with the Black Sea Countries was further strengthened and aimed at better protecting this part of the border. Full compliance with the Schengen requirements is expected to be met by 2009.

For further information…

www.nsi.bg/Index_e.htm

www.aref.government.bg

www.government.bg/cgi-bin/e-cms/vis/vis.pl?s=001&p=0150&n=000004&g=

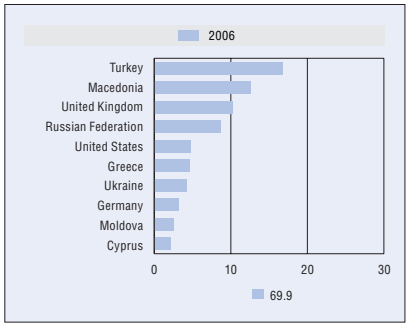
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Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.3	0.5	2.0	2.8	0.4	1.7	*21.8*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 origin countries as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	1.5	2.1	2.3	1.8
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	0.3	0.6	1.1	0.6

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	*0.6*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	. .	. .	2.4	4.2	. .	2.8	*3 072*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	. .	16.4	10.1	9.0	14.9	13.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	. .	–0.5	–0.7	. .	–0.6	*7 624*
Foreign[1]	. .	. .	–2.3	16.0	. .	7.5	*75*

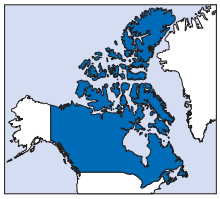
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	8.8	10.2	. .	11.1	*6 632*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433852408546

1. Data on foreign population for 2006 has been estimated.

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

Canada



In 2006, about 252 000 people were admitted to Canada as permanent residents, a 4% decrease over the previous year. Family migration was the only category registering an increase, reaching the highest level in a decade. China and India remained the top two source countries of permanent migration, accounting for 13% and 12%, respectively, of new arrivals.

In 2006, provincial nominee admissions reached more than 13 300, an increase of two-thirds over 2005. The increase is due largely to a growing volume of nominations by provinces in response to strong demand for workers with specialised skills in certain regions and labour markets across Canada. Applications for provincial nominees are generally processed with priority by the federal government.

Citizenship and Immigration Canada has extended its network of framework agreements for cooperation on immigration with Canada's provinces and territories. A comprehensive agreement with Alberta was signed in May 2007 to meet Alberta's growing demand for labour. Among other measures, the agreement removed the limit on the number of immigrants who can be nominated through the provincial nominee programme. The intention to develop an annex to facilitate the entry of temporary foreign workers was also announced. Similar agreements have also been signed with other provinces, including a recent one with Nova Scotia in September 2007.

The Foreign Credential Referral Office (FCRO) was launched in spring 2007 with the aim, among other objectives, of helping internationally trained individuals, both immigrants and native-born, find the information they need to put their skills to work in the Canadian labour market. These services are now being expanded to key origin countries, namely China, India and the Philippines with a view to providing pre-embarkation information on the foreign credential recognition process and the Canadian labour market.

In contrast to the decline in permanent migration, temporary migration has been on the rise, with increases in the order of 10% in all major categories (workers, students and refugee claimants). The largest group among these consists of temporary foreign workers, whose number reached almost 113 000 – the highest level since the 1970s. The United States remained the leading source country, followed by Mexico, France and the Philippines which had a 40% increase.

Changes to the Temporary Foreign Workers Program were announced in 2006-07. These included extending the maximum duration of the work permit for live-in caregivers and for foreign workers with less formal training. Finally, the process for employers hiring a foreign worker will be speeded up.

Status changes of foreign students have increased significantly since 2002. In 2006, almost 11 000 foreign students became permanent residents, and a further 2 800 former students were admitted after having passed through the status of temporary foreign worker. A proposal for a new avenue to immigration, allowing for facilitated status changes of Canadian-educated foreign students and experienced temporary foreign workers, was announced in 2007. In addition, possibilities for international students to work outside of their campus have been extended to students from selected private institutions.

In 2007, Canada strengthened the provisions for the protection of victims of human trafficking to include an extension of the length of the temporary resident permit for which they are eligible from 120 to 180 days. In addition, victims can now apply for a work permit, and normally applicable permit fees will be waived.

In 2006, almost 260 000 permanent residents were granted Canadian citizenship, which represents an increase of one-third compared to the previous year and one of the highest levels ever.

For further information…

www.cic.gc.ca

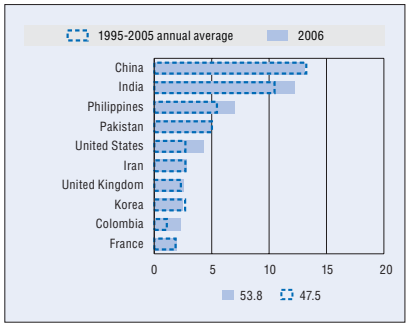
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Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.3	7.4	8.1	7.7	6.9	7.6	*251.6*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	61.6	55.7	*23.5*	*22.1*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	158.0	153.0	*60.3*	*60.8*
Humanitarian	42.4	42.7	*16.2*	*17.0*
Free movements	–	–	–	–
Others	0.1	0.1	–	*0.1*
Total	262.2	251.6		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	60.0	57.5	61.7	61.1
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	28.0	. .
Seasonal workers	18.0	22.1	22.8	20.4
Intra-company transfers	1.6	4.5	5.7	3.5
Other temporary workers	79.0	80.5	89.9	78.5

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.9	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	*22.9*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.8	5.2	3.1	2.8	4.1	2.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.7	4.3	2.1	1.7	3.2	1.7	*31 175*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.8	2.5	1.4	2.0	2.1	2.0	*16 484*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.5	6.8	6.8	6.3	8.5	7.1	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	11.2	10.1	9.9	. .	9.8	10.3
Natural increase	5.7	3.6	3.3	. .	4.5	3.4
Net migration	5.5	6.5	6.6	. .	5.3	6.9

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	*26 436*
Foreign-born	2.2	1.8	2.6	2.7	1.8	2.6	*6 187*
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*259 046*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2003
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.9	77.4	. .	. .	75.8	77.6
Foreign-born men	75.6	77.0	. .	. .	75.3	75.6
Native-born women	62.0	66.0	. .	. .	63.3	67.5
Foreign-born women	55.0	59.6	. .	. .	56.8	58.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.6	5.7	. .	. .	7.5	6.3
Foreign-born men	10.4	6.1	. .	. .	8.3	7.7
Native-born women	9.8	6.2	. .	. .	8.3	6.1
Foreign-born women	13.3	8.7	. .	. .	10.3	9.5

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433886063524

Czech Republic



In 2006 immigration to the Czech Republic reached 68 000, an increase of about 13% as compared to the previous year and the highest level recorded since the establishment of the Czech Republic in 1993. In the meantime, emigration also increased significantly to 33 500. As a result, net migration was more or less stable at about 35 000 in 2006.

As in previous years, Ukrainians comprised the bulk of immigration flows to the Czech Republic (about 30 000, an increase of about 6 500 over 2005). Slovak nationals remained the second largest group, with less than 6 800 immigrants in 2006, continuing their sharp decline since 2003 when the figure was more than 23 700. The next biggest groups were Vietnamese (6 400) and Russian nationals (4 700), both continuing their recent increases.

In 2006, just over 3 000 new asylum applications were recorded. This corresponds to the lowest figure since 1998, far from the 2001 peak of more than 18 000 asylum applications. The decreasing trend has accelerated since the Czech Republic joined the European Union. The Ukraine, followed by Egypt and Kazakchstan are the main countries of origin.

In total, there were 321 000 foreigners in the Czech Republic in 2006, which represents an increase of more than 15% over 2005. 43% of these had a permanent residence permit. About a third of the foreigners were Ukrainians (102 000, more than twice the 2001 number). 18% were Slovak Republic citizens and 12% Vietnamese. Polish, Russians and Germans comprised the main other nationalities.

In the course of 2006, about 4 400 persons were held up during illegal attempts to cross the Czech Republic's border. This was the lowest number recorded since 1993.

On 21 December 2007, a new amendment to the Act on Residence of Aliens entered into force. This amendment established a specific procedure for admitting third-country nationals for the purposes of scientific research, following an EU directive. In addition, the amendment aimed at ensuring conformity with European legislation on cross border movements, the rights of EU nationals and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the member States, and on the rights for family reunification.

The recent amendment also included a number of other changes such as the introduction of a condition to prove Czech language knowledge as a necessary precondition for being granted a permanent residence permit. It also introduced a two-year waiting period for applications for permanent residence for foreigners married to Czech nationals. Previously, a foreigner could apply for permanent residence immediately after having married a Czech national. The aim of this regulation is to prohibit fictive marriages.

In recent years, the Czech government has taken various initiatives to promote immigration of the highly skilled. In July 2003, the government launched a Project of Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers to attract young, qualified people wishing to settle in the Czech Republic. These persons (and their family members) are offered a possibility to obtain a quicker access to permanent residence (two and a half years). Until the end of June 2007, 170 participants in the project and their family members had obtained their permanent residence permit in the Czech Republic.

In 2007, the Ministry of Industry and Trade announced the introduction of a "green cards" system that is planned to begin in 2008 for selected groups of professionals in shortage occupations. The green cards will be a document which entitles a foreigner to reside and to be employed in the Czech Republic. They will be granted a green card for a maximum of two to three years, after which green card holders may apply for formal residence. The green cards will enable a foreigner to enter the Czech Republic through a quickened procedure, reducing the administrative burden both for the foreigner and his/her employer.

Finally, in December 2007, the Czech Republic joined the Schengen area. As a result, checks at internal land (and air borders by March 2008) have been eliminated with other European Union countries.

For further information…

www.mvcr.cz/english/index.html

www.imigracecz.org

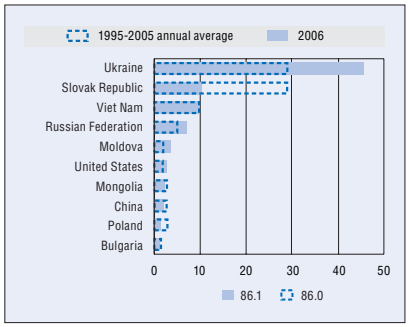
www.cizinci.cz

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.6	0.4	5.7	6.5	0.7	4.7	*66.1*
Outflows	–	–	2.1	3.1	–	2.8	*31.4*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.8	*3.0*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	5.9	3.6	6.4	6.4	1.5	4.5	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	6.0	3.8	6.1	6.0	1.6	4.4	*19 159*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	–0.7	1.4	1.3	–1.0	0.5	*4 811*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	4.1	8.9	8.0	7.2	6.2	7.8	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	–1.1	–1.1	3.0	3.6	–1.1	1.0
Natural increase	–2.1	–1.8	–0.6	0.2	–2.0	–0.9
Net migration	1.0	0.6	3.5	3.4	0.9	1.9

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.1	–0.1	–0.1	. .	–0.2	*9 685*
Foreign-born	. .	–4.7	4.9	8.2	. .	4.8	*566*
National	. .	0.2	–0.1	–0.1	. .	–0.2	*9 930*
Foreign	53.0	–12.2	9.4	15.5	4.8	8.8	*321*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	3.6	1.0	0.8	1.5	1.7	*2 346*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	73.3	73.7	. .	73.3
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	70.3	70.4	. .	67.8
Native-born women	. .	. .	56.1	56.9	. .	56.6
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	50.7	51.0	. .	50.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	6.2	5.8	. .	6.1
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	10.3	8.4	. .	10.3
Native-born women	. .	. .	9.7	8.8	. .	9.2
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	17.1	15.3	. .	14.5

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434032423010

Denmark



In 2005, long-term immigration to Denmark reached 32 800 people, an increase of 1 700 over the previous year. 2006 figures are not yet available, as national statistics define immigrants on an *ex post*-basis as persons who entered in a given year and stayed for at least 12 months.

Behind this modest increase is, however, the continuation of a further shift in the composition of immigration, with a strong increase in labour migration and declining (albeit now somewhat stabilising) levels of humanitarian migration and family reunification. This is most apparent in the number of residence permits for employment, which increased since 2004 by a factor of three, to reach almost 13 600 in 2006. Permits for EEA and Swiss citizens who enjoy freedom of movement and are thus often linked with labour migration also registered a further 30% increase in 2006, and reached more than 12 800. The strong increase in labour migration is linked with the tight labour market – unemployment in Denmark is at its lowest level ever, around 3.4% in 2007.

In light of the labour shortages, Denmark is increasingly focusing on the recruitment of qualified workers from abroad. Already in March 2007, the current job card scheme was expanded by opening 15 occupations in sectors with labour shortages to non-EEA nationals. On 3 October 2007 the Danish government published "Denmark – a good place to work", the governments' new plan for the international recruitment of labour. The government proposes, among other measures, that foreigners with a specific job offer with a yearly salary of at least DKK 375 000 (about EUR 50 300) can obtain a residence permit. This would also apply to sectors in which there is no shortage of labour. The proposal also includes a further expansion of the positive list of the job card scheme to jobs that do not require a master's degree, and an expansion of the current green card scheme for job seekers. In addition, the plan contains a range of measures to facilitate integration of labour immigrants and their families. The proposal is still being discussed, and no bill has been presented to parliament yet.

Furthermore, the government, the Danish Social Democrats, the Socialist People's Party and the Danish Social-Liberal Party entered into an agreement in June 2007 on a further phase-out of the transitional scheme for citizens from the new EU member states. The phase-out of the transitional scheme implies that employees covered by a valid Danish collective agreement are given the same employment opportunities as other EU nationals and thus have easier access to the Danish labour market.

On the basis of the so-called welfare compromise concluded by the Danish Government and the Danish People's Party in June 2006 on future immigration, an immigration test as a further requirement for foreign spouses being granted family reunification was introduced in May 2007. The immigration test includes a test in Danish language skills and knowledge of Danish society. The immigration test is expected to be put into effect in early 2009.

In May 2007 further legislation tightening conditions for being granted permanent residence also took effect. An applicant must now have passed a Danish language test of a certain level or at a lower level combined with an English language test at the same level. Furthermore, the integration exam states that the applicant must have had two and a half years of full time employment prior to the application to be eligible for a permanent residence permit.

In June 2007, new support measures were introduced for certain groups of rejected asylum seekers who cooperate on voluntary return. These may obtain, among other reintegration aid, six to nine months of education and vocational training in Denmark. This is based on the condition that the applicants sign a contract with the Danish Immigration Service to return voluntarily once the training in Denmark has been accomplished. The scheme is currently only open to Iraqi asylum seekers but may later be extended, pending an evaluation in May 2008.

Finally, the Minister of Integration initiated an integration programme for ethnic women in 2007, including a range of initiatives to improve the network of ethnic women, their employment and their ability to further the development and integration of their children.

For further information…

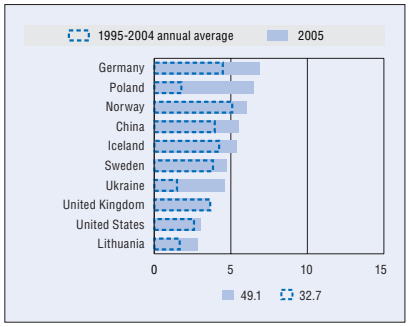
www.nyidanmark.dk/en-us/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows[1] (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	6.3	4.3	3.7	*4.2*	4.5	4.0	*23.0*
Outflows	1.0	1.6	1.7	*1.8*	1.3	1.7	*9.8*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	2.5	3.3	*14.0*	*15.2*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	5.2	5.2	*28.6*	*23.8*
Humanitarian	1.1	1.1	*6.4*	*5.0*
Free movements	8.0	11.0	*44.1*	*50.5*
Others	1.3	1.2	*7.0*	*5.5*
Total	18.0	21.7		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	4.2	6.9	5.0	5.4
Trainees	1.4	1.9	2.6	1.8
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	1.4	2.6	3.3	2.5

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	2.3	0.4	0.4	1.6	0.9	*1.9*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.1	3.5	3.1	3.5	2.9	1.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.6	3.2	2.8	3.2	2.4	1.6	*31 280*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	0.4	0.7	2.0	1.0	0.3	*2 822*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.7	4.3	4.8	3.9	5.4	4.8	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	6.9	3.4	2.9	3.5	4.2	2.9
Natural increase	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.4
Net migration	5.5	1.7	1.2	1.8	2.7	1.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	*5 074*
Foreign-born	11.1	4.0	2.1	3.0	4.3	2.3	*361*
National	–	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	*5 156*
Foreign	13.2	–0.3	0.9	3.0	3.0	0.8	*278*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	2.7	7.3	3.8	2.9	4.2	4.3	*7 961*

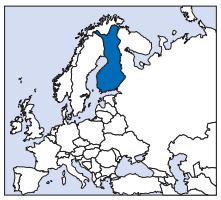
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	78.9	80.9 |	80.8	81.9	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	51.2	59.0 |	69.4	70.6	. .	. .
Native-born women	69.5	73.9 |	72.6	74.8	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	41.5	48.3 |	52.7	58.0	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.4	3.4 |	4.0	3.1	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	20.5	9.5 |	7.2	7.4	. .	. .
Native-born women	8.4	4.3 |	5.0	4.4	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	20.7	9.6 |	12.4	7.7	. .	. .

1. Data for 2006 have been estimated.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434104851625

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter. Data on labour market outcomes refer to population register till 2000 and to labour force survey since 2005.

Finland



Immigration of foreign citizens into Finland has continued to grow. It reached about 13 900 in 2006, which represents a new high and an increase of about 9% relative to 2005. Most of the increase in foreign immigration was due to movements from EU countries, especially Estonia, as a result of the removal of the transition arrangements in May 2006. Finland also fully opened its labour market to Romanian and Bulgarian nationals in 2007.

Permit data indicate that about 7 200 persons from non-EU countries were granted work-related residence permits in 2006, almost half of them Russians. The most common occupations were cooks, truck drivers, garden workers and cleaners. A further 15 000 EU citizens entered Finland for work-related reasons, and another 14 000 persons were visa-exempt, largely berry pickers and seasonal workers in the gardening industry. As is evident by a comparison of the labour migration data and the long-term immigration numbers, many of the foreign workers are in Finland on a temporary basis.

Migration of ethnic Finns (Ingrians) from the former Soviet Union, an important source of migration to Finland in the past, is being phased out. Inflows of these migrants numbered about 600 in 2006, not counting family members. The current migration potential from this source, that is, ethnic Finns registered with the Directorate of Immigration, is about 10 000 persons, 30% of whom hold a degree.

The number of asylum seekers declined from peak of 3 900 in 2004 to 2 300 in 2006. Recognition rates have been running in the order of about 20%.

There were 9 200 international students in Finland in 2006, an increase of almost 20% relative to 2005. The offer of courses and masters programmes in English and in other languages has considerably increased with the attempt to attract potential workers from abroad.

Finland is among the countries that are feeling the upcoming consequences of ageing most acutely, with a small population speaking a language not used outside its borders. By 2010 it is expected that the working-age population will begin to decline despite immigration. It is considered that the labour force shortage will have a considerable impact on the availability and quality of basic services in municipalities.

In this context, in 2007 the government started the gradual implementation of the comprehensive Migration Policy Programme that aims at actively promoting labour migration. Among other measures, it is expected that work rights will be included in every residence permit issued to foreign nationals, with the possible exception of work in certain sensitive fields. This means that the assessment of domestic worker availability will be suppressed. In addition, schemes involving reception of recent arrivals, as well as the promotion of labour migration and forecasting of foreign labour needs are being launched with funding by the European Social Fund (ESF) over the period 2007-13. In this context, it is planned to provide consultation and guidance services for immigrants in "one-stop shops". A further objective is to improve links to employers to accelerate the transition into employment and to develop services in native languages. Increasing the level of co-operation in labour mobility with neighbouring regions and other countries that are Finland's main providers of foreign labour is also planned.

Until 2007, the Ministry of Labour was responsible for the integration of immigrants into society and the promotion of employment, reception of asylum seekers and employment of foreign labour. The new government which took office in 2007 decided to combine all migration related affairs into the Finnish Immigration Service, a new agency under the Ministry of the Interior that was established in January 2008.

For further information…

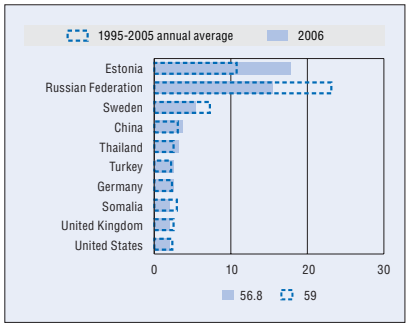
www.migri.fi/netcomm/Default.asp?language=EN

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.6	1.6	2.2	*13.9*
Outflows	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	*2.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	1.3	. .	*9.1*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	5.0	. .	*35.9*
Humanitarian	. .	1.7	. .	*12.4*
Free movements	. .	5.4	. .	*38.7*
Others	. .	0.5	. .	*3.9*
Total	12.7	13.9		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	3.1	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	8.8	12.2	13.0	11.5
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.6	*2.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.9	5.0	2.9	5.0	4.8	3.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	3.5	4.8	2.6	4.6	4.5	2.7	*30 009*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.2	1.7	1.5	1.8	2.5	0.6	*2 434*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	16.7	9.8	8.4	7.7	12.8	8.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	3.3	1.9	3.6	4.0	2.6	3.1
Natural increase	2.7	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.0	1.7
Net migration	0.6	0.4	1.7	1.9	0.6	1.4

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2	. .	0.1	*5 079*
Foreign-born	. .	3.9	6.2	6.4	. .	5.3	*188*
National	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	*5 145*
Foreign	10.6	3.9	5.1	6.9	5.8	4.3	*122*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	1.1	3.4	5.2	3.9	3.2	4.4	*4 433*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	61.8	71.2	71.3	71.9	66.2	71.1
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	62.5	66.5	69.4	65.3
Native-born women	58.4	65.3	68.0	68.6	61.3	67.6
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	49.1	53.4	55.5	50.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	17.7	10.3	9.3	8.6	13.6	9.8
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	23.1	16.0	19.9	20.0
Native-born women	16.1	12.0	9.3	8.9	14.0	9.8
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	23.5	20.4	17.7	22.2

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434140571246

France



After a number of years of strong growth (13% annual average between 1995 and 2003), permanent inflows have slowed down significantly since 2004. In 2006, approximately 135 000 foreigners were admitted for residence, a level comparable to that of 2005. This levelling off is due to the decrease in the number of foreigners granted asylum in France (–6 400 in comparison with 2005) and the increase in family migration (+4 300) and labour migration (+1 500).

The lower number of refugees is due mainly to the sharp decline in asylum applications since 2004 (approximately 30 750 first asylum applications in 2006, or –38% in comparison with 2005 and nearly half the level of 2004). As a result, France has been overtaken by the United States as the OECD country in which the most applications were filed.

Most of the increase in family migration is due to persons entering under the title of "personal and family ties" (+7 800 in comparison with 2005), in particular following the regularisation procedure during the summer of 2006, which was aimed at certain parents of children enrolled in school in France. At the same time, inflows for the purpose of family reunification have decreased (–3 500).

Labour migration, measured by the direct inflows of foreign nationals into the labour market, remains small in comparison with permanent migration as a whole (10 000 persons, or less than 8% of all inflows), but it has risen sharply since 2004 (+19% per year on average between 2004 and 2006).

With regard to the origin of migrants, recent trends continued in 2006: Africa remains the principle region of origin, followed by Asia. In all, one-third of new immigrants come from Algeria and Morocco.

A new law on the management of immigration, integration and asylum entered into force on 20 November 2007, replacing the law of 24 July 2006 on immigration and integration.

The new law stipulates that in order to qualify for family reunification, foreigners between the ages of 16 and 64 are now required to pass a test in their country of residence evaluating their knowledge of the French language and the values of the French Republic. If necessary, they must receive training in their country and then take the test again. This new procedure also applies to foreigners married to a French spouse when they apply for a visa for a stay lasting longer than three months.

Resource requirements for foreigners residing in France who wish to bring their family have also been reinforced: the minimum resource threshold has been raised and is now proportional to the size of the family.

Lastly, the parents of children admitted for residence under family reunification must now sign a reception and integration contract (*contrat d'accueil et d'intégration*, CAI) for the family. Under this contract, they must receive training on the rights and duties of parents in France and make a commitment to respect the requirement to educate their children.

A number of measures are aimed at promoting labour migration: the procedures for issuing "employee on mission" and "competencies and talents" residence cards have been relaxed and those who hold them are not required to sign the reception and integration contract.

In addition, a provision of the law of 24 July 2006 states that foreigners requesting a work permit in certain occupations experiencing recruitment difficulties would no longer be subject to labour market testing. At the end of 2007, the French Government defined two separate lists specifying which occupations were covered: the first concerns the nationals of ten EU member states subject to transitional measures and comprises 150 occupations, including those with low skills; the second concerns the nationals of third countries and comprises 30 professions which are skilled, in general.

Another provision of the new law of 2007 allows temporary "employee" type residence permits to be issued on the basis of an exceptional admission for residence, which opens the way to regularisation on a case-by-case basis to foreigners with highly sought professional skills. The ministerial circular of 7 January 2008 specifies that these regularisations will be limited to the occupations contained on the list of occupations experiencing recruitment difficulties.

The law of 2007 also includes a section on asylum. The most important measure, which responds to a condemnation of France by the European Court of Human Rights, concerns foreigners who reach French borders seeking asylum and are refused entry to France: they can now file an appeal with suspensive effect against the decision to deny entry.

For further information…

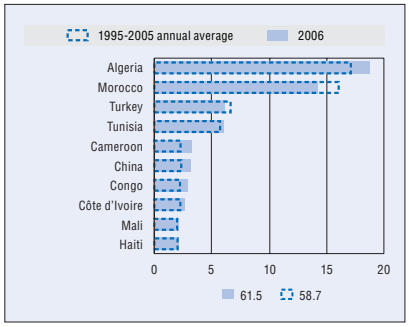
www.premier-ministre.gouv.fr/iminidco
www.anaem.fr
www.ofpra.fr

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.8	1.6	2.2	2.2	1.3	2.2	*135.1*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	8.9	10.3	*5.3*	*6.1*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	95.4	99.7	*56.2*	*59.0*
Humanitarian	13.8	7.4	*8.1*	*4.4*
Free movements	33.8	33.8	*19.9*	*20.0*
Others	17.8	17.7	*10.5*	*10.5*
Total	169.7	169.0		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	36.1	46.2	47.3	47.5
Trainees	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.7
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	7.9	16.2	17.2	13.7
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	7.6	10.5	10.7	9.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.9	*30.7*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.1	3.9	1.7	2.0	2.8	1.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.8	3.2	1.1	1.4	2.4	1.0	*26 821*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.0	2.8	0.6	0.9	1.6	0.5	*25 095*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.9	8.1	8.8	8.8	9.7	8.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	4.1	5.3	5.6	6.1	4.4	5.6
Natural increase	3.4	4.1	4.0	4.5	3.6	4.0
Net migration	0.7	1.2	1.6	1.5	0.8	1.6

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.5	0.4	0.4	. .	0.5	*56 275*
Foreign-born	. .	1.8	2.5	2.4	. .	2.5	*5 078*
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	4.6	. .	4.2	. .	. .	*147 868*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	68.3	69.8	68.6	68.3	68.5	69.5
Foreign-born men	65.6	66.7	66.1	64.6	65.4	65.9
Native-born women	53.6	56.6	58.7	58.9	54.7	58.3
Foreign-born women	44.2	45.6	48.0	47.3	44.3	47.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	9.1	7.7	8.1	8.5	9.2	7.5
Foreign-born men	16.5	14.5	13.3	15.4	16.8	14.0
Native-born women	13.5	11.3	9.2	9.6	13.1	9.5
Foreign-born women	19.0	19.7	16.5	17.1	20.3	16.5

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434141332303

Germany



The decline in long-term migration that has been evident for a number of years continued in 2006. This notably concerns family migration, humanitarian migration, and – in particular – immigration of persons of German origin from the successor countries of the former Soviet Union. Less than 8 000 persons immigrated under this category in 2006, compared to more than 35 000 in 2005 and between 100 000 and 230 000 in the 1990s. Likewise, immigration of Jewish resettlers from the former Soviet Union decreased to about 1 000 in 2006 compared to about 6 000 in 2005 which was already the lowest number since the establishment of the programme in the early 1990s. Family migration also reached its lowest point for more than a decade with only about 50 000 visas for family reunification in 2006. Asylum seeking has also continued its strong decline, reaching about 21 000 in 2006 – the lowest level since the early 1980s.

Data for work-related permanent migration remain difficult to obtain, although there are several indications that this increased in 2006 – in contrast to the other migration categories, reflecting the tightening of the labour market. In 2006, almost 30 000 work permits were issued for labour migrants having a nationality from outside of the EU25, an increase of more than 60% compared to 2005. The settlement permit for the highly qualified, introduced in 2005, has only led to very modest changes in immigration. Only about 1 100 people benefited from this in 2005-06, and the vast majority of these had already been in Germany with a temporary permit on other grounds.

After reaching a peak of about 330 000 in 2004 and 2005, the number of seasonal workers has been declining, reaching a little over 300 000 in 2006. This was a result of a government decree which generally limited the recruitment of seasonal workers from abroad to 90% of seasonal workers employed by the same company in 2005, in order to encourage the employment of persons already resident in Germany.

In light of the favourable economic development and the demographic changes which are gradually beginning to have an impact on the labour market, the government adapted a variety of measures in 2007 to facilitate skilled labour migration. Already with the immigration law of 2005, foreign graduates from German universities could stay in Germany for up to one year to find a job. Since November 2007, foreign graduates of German universities are also exempt from the labour market test if their employment corresponds to their studies. In addition, the government has opened labour market access for nationals from the EU accession countries in a range of engineering professions.

The second national integration summit took place in July 2007. Among the key measures adopted in this context has been a greater flexibility of the integration courses. The 630 hours set previously will be increased to up to 900 lessons for special target groups (*e.g.* young people and illiterate people), and special intensive courses are now also available. Further measures relate to integration into the labour market and the strengthening of early intervention policies for the children of immigrants.

The immigration law was amended in 2007, in part to reflect EC directives. This includes the introduction of a new residence permit for third-country nationals who have been residing in Germany for five years. A further key change relates to spouses from most third countries. These can now generally only enter Germany if they are at least 21 years old, compared to 18 years old previously. They also have to prove basic knowledge of German. Further noteworthy amendments concern facilitating entry for foreign entrepreneurs and researchers.

Finally, a solution has been found for the foreigners without residence permits whose deportation has been suspended and who have been resident in Germany for many years. These can apply for a so-called "trial residence permit" that can later be transformed into a regular residence permit if they generally prove to earn their own living.

For further information…

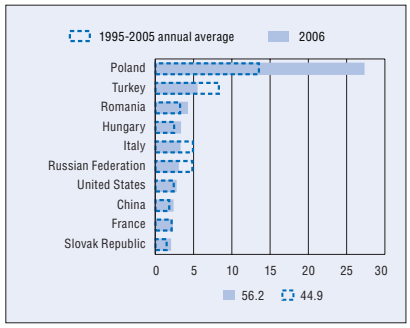
www.bmas.bund.de
www.bmi.bund.de
www.bamf.de
www.destatis.de

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	9.7	7.9	7.0	6.8	8.2	7.5	*558.5*
Outflows	6.9	6.8	5.9	5.9	7.1	6.1	*483.8*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	13.0	13.2	*5.4*	*6.1*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	53.2	50.3	*22.0*	*23.3*
Humanitarian	9.5	6.1	*4.0*	*2.8*
Free movements	130.1	138.7	*53.9*	*64.2*
Others	35.5	7.7	*14.7*	*3.6*
Total	241.4	216.0		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	45.7	55.8	53.6	55.0
Trainees	3.6	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	255.5	320.4	294.5	297.1
Intra-company transfers	1.3	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	99.8	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.6	1.0	0.4	0.3	1.3	0.6	*21.0*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.9	3.2	0.8	2.9	2.0	0.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.6	3.1	0.8	3.0	1.9	0.9	*27 375*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.2	1.9	–0.1	0.6	0.8	–0.1	*39 088*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.1	6.9	9.1	8.1	7.7	8.3	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	3.4	1.2	–0.8	–1.5	1.5	0.1
Natural increase	–1.5	–0.9	–1.7	–1.8	–1.0	–1.6
Net migration	4.9	2.0	1.0	0.3	2.4	1.7

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	–0.2	0.1	. .	. .	–0.1	–	. .
Foreign-born	4.4	0.8	. .	. .	1.8	1.0	. .
National	0.1	0.2	–0.1	–0.1	0.1	0.2	*75 612*
Foreign	2.6	–0.6	0.3	–	0.3	–1.6	*6 756*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	1.0	2.5	1.7	1.8	1.6	2.0	*124 832*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	73.8	72.2	. .	73.6	72.2
Foreign-born men	. .	66.3	66.0	. .	65.7	65.5
Native-born women	. .	59.6	61.8	. .	59.3	60.8
Foreign-born women	. .	46.6	48.0	. .	45.7	47.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	6.9	10.6	. .	7.3	9.1
Foreign-born men	. .	12.9	17.5	. .	14.1	15.7
Native-born women	. .	8.0	10.1	. .	8.3	8.8
Foreign-born women	. .	12.1	16.3	. .	13.8	13.9

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434056180160

Greece



Immigration to Greece has been significant in recent years, although flow data are difficult to obtain and much immigration has been irregular. 85 000 new residence permits were issued in 2006, a 68% increase over 2005. 15% were for family reunification. Likewise, the registered resident foreign population increased by more than 90 000 from 2005 to 2006 – *i.e.* a growth of more than 15%. As in the past, Albanians are the main nationality concerned, although there are some indications of a diversification of the immigrant population. Albanians account for about 70% of the stocks, but for less than 40% of the change in stocks.

The number of asylum applications in Greece has continued to grow in recent years, as Greece is often the first European country entered by asylum seekers from conflict areas. In 2006, there were a record 12 300 applications for asylum, although refugee or protected status was granted to only 1% of applicants. The largest group of applicants were from Bangladesh (3 750 compared to just 550 the previous year), Pakistan (2 400, twice the previous year), Iraq and Afghanistan. These increases seem to reflect shifting transit routes into Europe.

On 1 May 2006, Greece opened its labour market to all citizens of the EU countries which joined in 2004. However, Greece applied a two-year transition period before granting labour market access to citizens of Romania and Bulgaria following their accession to the EU on 1 January 2007.

In 2007, new legislation was introduced aimed at simplifying the permit system, improving integration and facilitating regularisation. The latter set of measures broadened eligibility for the 2005 regularisation. The 2005 law, the third Greek regularisation, had offered an opportunity for regularisation to two categories. The first were formerly legal migrants whose status had lapsed (this concerned about 50 000 applicants in 2006), and the second were those who had paid social contributions for 150 – 200 days work during the prior year (an additional 95 000 applicants in 2006). Because the 2005 law required demonstrating contributions, participation was lower than expected and the new law eases these requirements. Immigrants who cannot demonstrate the necessary minimum days of employment can now pay for up to one-fifth of the shortfall. For some occupations, the required number of days of contributions has been halved. Also, undocumented migrants who had attended public primary or secondary schools or universities were made eligible for regularisation. An additional 20 000 persons filed a request for regularisation under these new provisions.

The main beneficiaries of the third regularisation programme are citizens from Albania, Bulgaria and Romania.

Another important measure related to a simplification of permit procedures. The residence permit and the work permit are now combined into a single residence permit allowing labour market access. The 2007 law also eased residence permit renewal procedures.

Finally, the law contains measures aimed at improving the social integration of immigrants, as well as policies to support them in other areas, including employment.

For further information…

www.imepo.gr

www.inegsee.gr/equal/equal2/para_body.htm

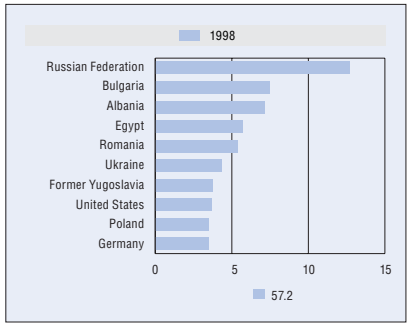
www.statistics.gr/Main_eng.asp

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.5	. .	. .
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.3	0.8	1.1	0.2	0.7	*12.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.1	4.5	3.8	4.2	3.4	4.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.8	4.1	3.4	3.8	2.9	3.9	*23 235*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	–0.2	1.3	2.4	0.6	1.6	*4 248*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.1	11.7	10.4	9.3	10.7	10.5	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	7.5	2.5	3.8	4.2	5.2	3.6
Natural increase	0.1	–0.2	0.3	0.6	–	0.1
Net migration	7.3	2.7	3.5	3.6	5.2	3.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	–	0.2	0.3	. .	–	*10 578*
Foreign	. .	11.2	3.7	3.2	. .	9.9	*571*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	72.3	71.3	73.8	73.9	71.7	72.8
Foreign-born men	70.6	78.1	82.6	83.6	75.7	82.2
Native-born women	37.8	41.6	45.9	47.1	39.6	44.5
Foreign-born women	42.2	45.0	49.3	51.1	44.8	48.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.1	7.5	5.9	5.8	6.7	6.3
Foreign-born men	14.3	9.5	6.4	5.3	11.5	6.8
Native-born women	13.7	17.0	15.2	13.6	16.0	15.0
Foreign-born women	20.6	21.4	15.8	15.1	22.0	17.5

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434206373588

Hungary



Compared to other OECD countries, migration movements play a limited role in Hungary. This appears to be the case for both in- and outflows, although the current registration system is not designed for monitoring long-term emigration. Immigrants account for less than 2% of the population, and the vast majority of these are Hungarian speaking. After the 2005 peak with an inflow of almost 25 600 foreign nationals, immigration to Hungary decreased by 14% to about 19 400 in 2006. In spite of a strong decline in recent years, Romanians remained the main nationality concerned (about 6 800, compared to more than 12 100 in 2004), followed by Ukrainians. Chinese are now the third most important nationality among the inflows, following a strong increase (almost 1 500 in 2006, compared to about 550 in 2005).

In 2006, about 6 100 persons were granted Hungarian citizenship, almost 40% less than the previous year which was marked by legislative changes aimed at facilitating naturalisations of ethnic Hungarian minorities from the neighbouring countries. Indeed, as in previous years, around 90% of those receiving Hungarian citizenship were from neighbouring countries – which mainly concerns ethnic Hungarians. More than 70% of naturalisations were Romanian citizens.

The number of asylum seekers rose by more than 30% in 2006. This is nevertheless still much lower than in the period prior to Hungary's accession to the EU. The largest group of asylum seekers were from Viet Nam (19%), followed by Serbia-Montenegro (18%) and China (13%).

Two new immigration laws entered into force on 1 July 2007. The first concerned the entry and stay of EU/EFTA nationals and their family members. It established the right of permanent residence for these persons after five years of residence. Administrative procedures were also streamlined under this Act.

The second act concerned the entry and stay of non-EU/EFTA nationals. It provided for Hungary's entry into the Schengen regime, which took place on 21 December 2007. This brought about a restructuring of the previous visa and residence permit system.

A substantial change in the new Act is that the upper duration of the residence permit is now five years. Rules on family reunification and on the victims of human trafficking have been adapted to comply with EU legislation in these fields. Provisions for foreign students have also been relaxed.

A government decree in December 2006 concerning Romanian and Bulgarian citizens made their access to the labour market in Hungary subject to authorisation. However, in sectors of labour shortages (currently 219 professions), indicated on a government list, an employment permit is automatically issued. Since January 2007, the government has been reviewing the labour market situation on a quarterly basis to amend the list of professions without labour market testing. These provisions have to be viewed in light of the fact that Romanians have accounted for about 50% of the inflows of foreign nationals since 2000.

Regarding labour market access of nationals from the other EU member countries, Hungary is the only country among those who became EU members in 2004 which maintains the application of the reciprocity principle (*i.e.* only giving access to those nationals whose countries have opened their labour market for Hungarians).

Following the 2006 election in Hungary, a separate Department for Migration, responsible for migration strategy and policy was established within the Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement.

For further information…

www.mfa.gov.hu/kum/en/bal/

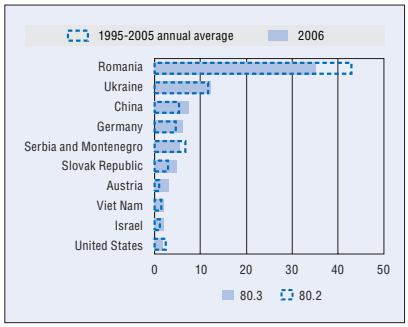
www.magyarorszag.hu/english

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.4	2.0	2.5	1.9	1.6	2.1	*19.4*
Outflows	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	*3.2*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	*2.1*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.5	5.2	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	0.8	5.5	4.3	4.0	4.3	4.5	*15 954*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–1.8	1.6	–	0.8	1.3	0.3	*3 887*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	10.4	6.5	7.3	7.5	8.5	6.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	–1.5	–2.1	–2.2	–1.3	–2.2	–2.2
Natural increase	–3.2	–3.7	–3.9	–3.2	–3.9	–3.6
Net migration	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.4

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	–0.1	–0.3	–0.3	–0.3	–0.3	–0.3	*9 726*
Foreign-born	–	1.8	3.9	4.0	0.8	2.8	*345*
National	–0.2	0.2	–0.3	–0.3	–0.2	–0.3	*9 905*
Foreign	1.4	–28.1	8.6	7.5	–4.7	7.4	*166*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	7.3	4.9	6.9	4.0	5.8	5.0	*6 101*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	62.6	62.8	63.6	61.1	63.1
Foreign-born men	. .	69.4	71.9	71.8	68.5	72.1
Native-born women	. .	49.4	50.9	51.2	47.4	50.5
Foreign-born women	. .	49.8	53.7	51.0	48.8	50.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	7.3	7.0	7.2	8.6	6.5
Foreign-born men	. .	–	–	–	–	2.6
Native-born women	. .	5.8	7.4	7.8	7.0	6.1
Foreign-born women	. .	4.8	7.7	10.3	5.7	7.2

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434208362671

Ireland



Immigration to Ireland continued its strong growth path in 2006. Long-term (over one year) migration of foreign nationals was about 89 000. This represents an increase of more than one third over 2005, which was already the highest immigration on record. Preliminary figures for 2007 show, however, a stagnation at this high level.

Together with Sweden and the United Kingdom, Ireland was the only EU15 member country which had fully opened its labour market for immigrants from all ten new EU member countries at the time of accession. According to survey data, nationals from the EU25 accounted for more than 88% of the employment growth of non-Irish workers in the post-enlargement period up to the second quarter of 2006. The bulk of the labour immigrants from the EU25 were nationals of the new member States (EU8). These currently account for almost half of the foreign workforce in Ireland, compared with 17% in the third quarter of 2004. In comparison to other migrant workers, new member State nationals are over represented in lower skilled sectors of the economy such as agriculture, other production industries, construction and wholesale and retail trade. In light of the significant inflows following the 2004 EU enlargement, the Irish government decided not to give free access to nationals of Romania and Bulgaria following accession of these countries in January 2007.

Asylum seeking remained constant in 2006, but preliminary figures for 2007 again show a significant decline in the order of 10%, to fall below 4 000 for the first time since 1997 and representing only about one-third of the 2002 peak.

There were a number of significant changes in legislation in 2007, starting with the new Employment Permit Act which entered into force in January 2007. Among the key changes were the introduction of a so-called "Green Card" for highly-skilled employees in most occupations with an annual salary above 60 000 euros, and in a restricted number of occupations in sectors with skills shortages in a salary range between EUR 30 000 and EUR 60 000. Applicants do not need to pass a labour market test and are entitled to bring their family with them. The card is issued for two years, after which holders can apply for permanent residence. Almost 3 000 Green Cards were issued in 2007.

In April 2007, the Third Level Graduate Scheme was implemented providing that non-EEA students who graduated on or after 1 January 2007 with a degree from an Irish third-level educational institution may be permitted to remain in Ireland for six months. The scheme allows them to find employment and apply for a work permit or Green Card permit. During this six-month period they may work full time.

The draft of an Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill was published in early 2008. The bill, when enacted, will replace all of the previous legislation on immigration by an integrated statutory framework for the development and implementation of immigration policy. The proposed bill creates the new status of long-term resident. This will be available for immigrants who have had at least five years residence in Ireland (periods as asylum-seeker or short-term student will not be considered) and brings access to the labour market and to state-funded services and benefits on an equal footing with Irish citizens. There will also be provisions to speed up entitlement, notably for certain groups of migrants which Ireland seeks to attract – including Green Card holders.

The bill will also transpose the EU asylum procedures directive, concerning minimum standards on procedures for granting and withdrawing refugee states, into national law. This includes a single asylum procedure, meaning that Geneva Convention asylum claims and subsidiary protection claims would be examined together.

After the General Election of June 2007, a new Minister of State for Integration Policy was appointed. A total of EUR 9 million was allocated to the new Office of the Minister for Integration in the Budget for 2008.

For further information…

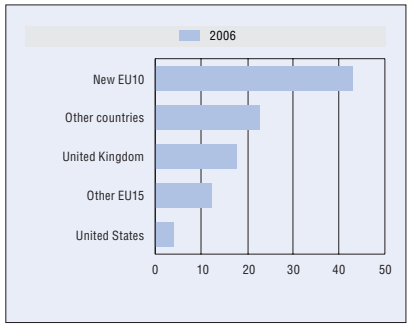
www.inis.gov.ie/
www.entemp.ie/labour/workpermits/
www.ria.gov.ie/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.8	7.3	16.0	21.0	5.9	12.8	*88.9*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows by nationality as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	2.9	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.8	*4.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	9.6	9.4	6.0	5.7	9.5	5.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	9.2	8.0	3.7	3.1	8.3	3.4	*35 290*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.4	5.4	3.2	*2 039*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	12.5	4.3	4.4	4.4	8.8	4.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	6.4	14.5	23.9	. .	10.6	18.7
Natural increase	4.7	6.1	8.1	. .	5.5	7.9
Net migration	1.6	8.4	15.9	. .	5.1	10.7

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.8	*3 633*
Foreign-born	. .	7.4	12.4	14.3	6.9	11.1	*602*
National	. .	1.1	1.3	. .	0.9	1.2	. .
Foreign	. .	7.2	16.4	. .	5.6	13.7	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	66.9	75.8	75.8	76.7	70.5	75.6
Foreign-born men	65.0	74.5	78.8	80.9	69.6	76.9
Native-born women	41.3	53.1	58.0	58.7	46.9	56.2
Foreign-born women	42.0	55.6	57.5	59.9	49.0	56.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	12.0	4.4	4.5	4.4	8.6	4.5
Foreign-born men	16.5	5.3	5.8	6.0	10.6	5.9
Native-born women	11.9	4.1	3.6	3.8	8.1	3.7
Foreign-born women	15.0	5.9	6.4	6.0	10.2	5.5

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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Italy



Permanent immigration to Italy continues to be significant and largely employment based. Labour immigration is subject to annual numerical limits ("quotas") applied to employer requests for foreign workers. These quotas have been raised over the past few years to meet forecasted demand. In both 2006 and 2007 the quotas were set at 170 000, twice the 2005 figure. About 520 000 applications for permits were made in 2006, when employers filed requests through the post office. The government later decided to accept all applications, but administrative delays meant that most applications were not considered until the end of 2006, when Romanian and Bulgarian citizens became exempt from the procedure. Excluding Romanian and Bulgarian citizens, as well as incomplete and duplicate applications, the actual number of applications approved was about 253 000. The 2007 quotas contained a larger number of reserved set-asides than the previous year. 65 000 permits were reserved for home care workers (up from 45 000 in 2006). Construction (14 200), transport workers (500) and fishermen (200) also received a set-aside; as did citizens from countries with which Italy has bilateral agreements and cooperation. 1 000 entries were reserved for the highly skilled, a category which has never been fully utilised – immigration to Italy remains largely oriented towards low-skilled occupations. Another change was the 2007 requirement that employers apply on-line. 684 000 applications were filed, of which half were for the home care worker quota.

Due to processing delays, only 94 000 visas for employment were issued to non-EU citizens in 2006, which was still an increase of 6% from 2005. Family reunification visas declined 12% to 79 000. The number of permit holders rose to more than 2.4 million, of which almost 1.5 million held work permits and 764 000 held family permits. The total stock in the registered foreign population – which includes all minors – increased by more than 10% in 2006 to reach almost 3 million.

Italy completely opened its labour market to citizens of the EU countries which joined in 2004. For Romanian and Bulgarian citizens, no real obstacles are imposed. Workers can be directly hired in key sectors (seasonal work, farming, tourism-hotel activities, domestic work and personal care, construction, metalworking, fishing and maritime activities, entertainment). Management, high skilled work and self-employment are also unrestricted. Other occupations are also open, following approval of wage and contract conditions by the local foreigner's office. During 2007 the legally resident Romanian population was estimated to have risen by about 50% to more than 500 000, replacing Albania as the most important origin country. Following several publicised crimes, a decree was issued in late 2007 facilitating deportation of EU citizens who break laws.

A significant immigration reform was proposed in Parliament in 2007. The main elements of the proposal were changes to the quota system (three-year forecasts, greater involvement of social partners); candidate lists at foreign consulates; sponsored job-search visas; transfer of competence for permits from the Ministry of Interior to municipalities; longer permit durations and easier renewal. Naturalisation requirements would be halved to five years, although a language and culture test would be imposed. The change of government in early 2008 made this reform unlikely.

The number of asylum seekers rose slightly to 10 348 in 2006. The decentralised asylum application system in place since April 2005, significantly reduced processing times and no-show rates. 14 500 cases were reviewed in 2006; only 7.2% received refugee status but 36.7 % received a humanitarian stay permit. The refugee reception system expanded to provide services to more than 5 300 people.

Illegal migration remained steady in 2006 with more than 22 000 unauthorised migrants intercepted along the southern Italian coast, more than 90% around Lampedusa Island, halfway to Tunisia. However, most unauthorised migrants used other methods to enter, either with a visa (60%) or false documents (25%).

For further information…

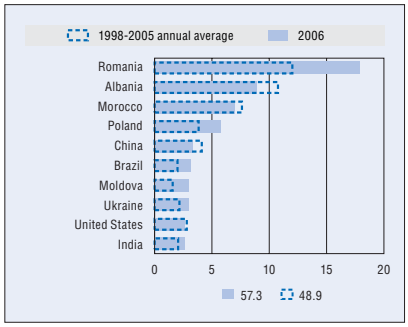
www.interno.it/
www.istat.it/
www.lavoro.gov.it/lavoro/
www.solidarietasociale.gov.it/SolidarietaSociale/
www.caritasitaliana.it/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	4.7	3.6	3.1	3.8	4.6	*181.5*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	57.1	62.9	*28.7*	*30.8*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	96.4	85.1	*48.4*	*41.7*
Humanitarian	5.3	6.4	*2.7*	*3.1*
Free movements	36.6	45.8	*18.4*	*22.4*
Others	3.8	4.1	*1.9*	*2.0*
Total	199.2	204.3		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	31.7	32.9	30.9
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	0.4	0.4	0.2
Seasonal workers	. .	84.2	98.0	70.0
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	*10.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.8	3.6	0.1	1.9	1.9	0.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.8	3.5	–0.6	1.4	1.9	0.1	*26 077*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–0.6	1.9	0.7	2.2	1.0	1.4	*22 798*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	11.3	10.2	7.8	6.8	11.1	8.2	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	1.1	2.8	4.9	6.4	1.7	6.5
Natural increase	–0.5	–0.3	–0.2	–	–0.5	–0.2
Net migration	1.6	3.1	5.2	6.4	2.2	6.7

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.1	–0.1	–0.1	*55 496*
Foreign	7.6	2.9	11.2	10.1	13.6	15.2	*2 939*

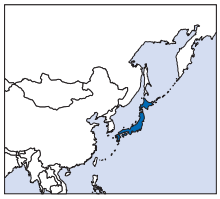
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	1.1	0.7	0.8	1.3	1.0	0.9	*35 766*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	66.4	67.4	69.4	69.6	66.6	69.1
Foreign-born men	80.5	82.4	81.6	81.9	82.1	82.3
Native-born women	35.5	39.3	45.3	46.0	37.1	43.6
Foreign-born women	40.1	40.5	46.7	49.9	42.2	48.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	9.2	8.4	6.2	5.5	9.2	6.7
Foreign-born men	7.0	6.5	6.0	5.7	6.4	5.7
Native-born women	16.1	14.9	9.2	8.5	16.1	10.9
Foreign-born women	24.5	21.2	14.6	12.4	18.9	14.0

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434227630812

Japan



Permanent-type inflows of foreign nationals to Japan increased only slightly in 2006, to reach about 87 000, in relative terms one of the lowest immigration rates among OECD countries. The flows are about evenly split between labour, family and ancestry-based migrants (persons of Japanese ancestry from Latin America). About 10% of the flows concern changes in status among international students who stay on after the completion of their studies, almost 73% of whom are from China, and a further 11% from Korea. Most of these are specialists in the humanities and international services (interpreters and translators), but about 20% are engineers.

Temporary migrants are more frequent and stood at about 230 000 in 2006, a decline of some 50 000 compared to 2005, due largely to a decrease in the number of entertainers. Other major groups among temporary migrants include students (46 000) and trainees (93 000). The number of trainees has been increasing at the rate of about ten per year. In addition to temporary labour migrants, some 107 000 students and dependents of foreign workers obtained the right to work in part-time jobs in 2006.

The proportion of registered foreigners in the population stands at only about 1.6%. The most important origin groups are Koreans (28%), Chinese (27%) and Brazilians (15%). The working-age population (15-64) is currently declining at the rate of almost half a million persons per year and the vacancy-to-unemployment ratio is at its highest level since 1992. Despite this, there are as yet few if any signs of an increasing recourse to immigration to satisfy labour needs. However, there have been significant increases in the participation rate of residents in recent years, in part (but not entirely) attributable to cyclical factors.

The number of overstayers in Japan continued to decline and reached 171 000 in 2006, a 43% fall since 1993. This does not include persons who entered or landed illegally, however. Among persons deported for violations of the Immigration Control Act, those who entered or landed illegally were about one-fourth of the number of overstayers. This suggests an unauthorised population of about 0.2% of the total population, among the lowest in OECD countries. The low percentage reflects the impact of favourable geography (no land borders), but also strict immigration controls and workplace enforcement.

Although Japan does not carry out large-scale regularisations, it is possible for foreign nationals to obtain a special permission to stay from the Minister of Justice for individual circumstances. These are decided on a case-by-case basis and numbered about 9 400 in 2006. They have been at or greater than the 10 000 level since 2003.

Recent policy initiatives include the extension of the right to stay from three to five years to researchers and data processing engineers in facilities or businesses located in special zones. In 2006 the Immigration Bureau created guidelines for granting the status of permanent residence in Japan, which included duration-of-stay criteria, a relaxation of the "contribution-to-Japanese society" criterion and the clarification of other general requirements.

Two changes in administrative procedures are noteworthy. The first relates to the establishment of a reporting system on the employment of foreigners. Because foreign workers have been subject to unstable employment, sometimes poor working conditions and the lack of social insurance coverage, employers who employ foreign workers have been required to report on the employment situation of their foreign workers since October 2007. This reporting system is one key element in a broader effort to ensure that the best use the skills of foreigners in Japan with work permission is being made.

The second key change concerns new entry procedures for foreign nationals. These have been in force since November 2007 and require most foreign nationals entering Japan to have an interview with immigration inspectors, in addition to taking fingerprints and photographs upon entry.

For further information…

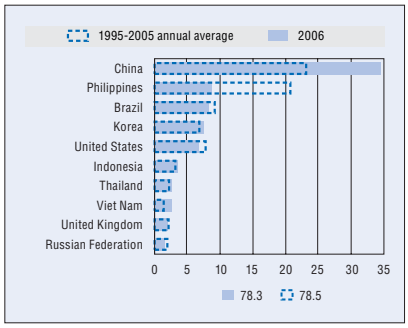
www.immi-moj.go.jp/english/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.7	2.7	2.9	2.5	2.1	2.8	*325.6*
Outflows	1.6	1.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	2.0	*218.8*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	20.6	28.6	*22.4*	*29.8*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	26.9	30.1	*29.2*	*31.3*
Humanitarian	0.2	0.1	*0.3*	*0.1*
Free movements	–	–	–	–
Others	44.4	37.3	*48.1*	*38.8*
Total	92.2	96.1		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	41.9	41.5	45.8	45.3
Trainees	54.0	83.3	92.8	69.7
Working holiday makers	3.4	4.7	6.1	4.6
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	3.9	4.2	5.6	3.9
Other temporary workers	114.3	110.2	59.1	119.5

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	–	–	–	–	–	*1.0*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.0	2.9	1.9	2.2	1.0	1.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.7	2.7	1.9	2.2	0.8	1.6	*27 695*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.1	–0.2	0.4	0.4	–	–0.1	*63 821*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.1	4.7	4.4	4.1	3.9	4.8	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	1.7	2.1	–0.3	–	2.1	0.9
Natural increase	2.1	1.8	0.1	–	2.1	0.8
Net migration	–0.4	0.3	–0.4	–	–	0.1

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	0.4	0.1	–	–0.1	0.2	–	*125 687*
Foreign	0.6	8.4	1.9	3.6	4.4	3.2	*2 083*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	*14 108*

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434233624053

Korea



Long term inflows of foreigners to Korea reached about 315 000 in 2006. This corresponds to an increase of almost 20% compared to 2005, and a two-thirds increase compared to 2004. Net long term migration of foreigners amounted to 132 000 in 2006, one of the highest figures ever recorded.

Foreign students is one of the categories of inflows which have increased the most in recent years. In 2006, there were 30 000 foreign students in Korea, a 50% increase compared to 2005 and more than four times the 2002 figure. Family migration also remained important. International marriages represented 12% of all marriages in 2006 (14% in 2005). This has to be seen in the context of less than 2% foreigners in the total population.

Migration of foreign workers is also gaining importance in Korea, in response to major changes in labour migration management. The Industrial Trainee Scheme which was introduced in 1993, and under which foreign (low-skilled) employees were employed as trainees, was terminated in January 2007. It was replaced by the Employment Permit System, which had been gradually phased in since 2004. Under the Employment Permit System, foreign workers can work for up to three years in Korea but must return to their origin country afterwards. Those who leave Korea after working for three years can re-enter and work for another three years after six months from their departure. Measures are planned to facilitate the reemployment process.

Foreign workers under the EPS are treated equally as domestic workers. Unlike workers under the previous Industrial Trainee System, they are protected by labour laws such as the Labor Standards Act, Minimum Wage Act, Industrial Safety and Health Act and their basic labour rights are guaranteed.

The Employment Permit System was extended in March 2007 to allow ethnic Koreans aged 25 years and above who are living in China and the former USSR with no connection to Korea to work in Korea for up to three years. Ethnic Koreans have to pass a language test and gain a visa through a lottery system whilst Ethnic Koreans who have relatives or connections in Korea can enter with a Visit Cohabitation Visa.

The number of available work permits is controlled by a quota system. For instance, in 2007, there were about 110 000 visas available for the manufacturing sector, including 60 000 for ethnic Koreans. In total, about 69 000 permits are available for the construction sector, 15 000 for services and about 25 000 for agriculture and fishery. Up to May 2007, almost 200 000 foreign workers had benefited from the EPS. Of these, 45% were in the general category and 55% concerned ethnic Koreans (almost exclusively Chinese nationals with an ethnic Korean background).

Recruitment under the EPS is limited to a number of countries identified by the Korean government. When the EPS started, this concerned eight countries. The range of sending countries has been expanded steadily to include fifteen countries as of August 2007. Among the foreign workers who do not have an ethnic Korean background, Vietnamese comprise the biggest group, followed by the Philippines, Thailand, Mongolia, Indonesia and Sri Lanka. Korea has signed bilateral agreements with all of these countries.

The regular employment permit scheme is administered under the Ministry of Labour, whereas the scheme for ethnic Koreans is administered by the Ministry of Justice.

At the end of December 2006, there were about 212 000 overstayers in Korea, a slight increase over the previous year. Overstayers account for about 23% of the foreign population.

For further information…

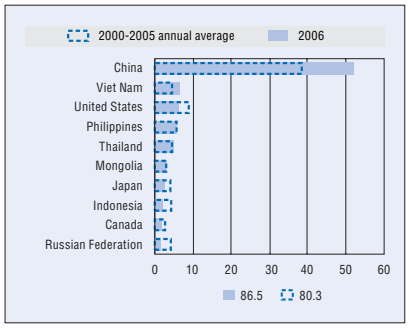
http://english.molab.go.kr

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	3.9	5.5	6.5	3.9	4.5	*314.7*
Outflows	. .	1.9	5.5	3.8	. .	3.4	*183.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	25.6	36.0	23.2
Trainees	. .	51.6	64.7	55.4
Working holiday makers	0.3	1.1	. .	0.8
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	10.0	8.4	8.1	8.7
Other temporary workers	. .	11.9	12.5	10.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	. .	–	–	–	–	–	*0.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	9.2	8.5	4.2	5.0	4.4	4.8	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	8.1	7.6	4.0	4.6	3.5	4.4	*20 993*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.9	4.3	1.3	1.3	0.7	1.4	*23 151*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	2.1	4.4	3.7	3.5	4.1	3.6	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	1.0	0.8	0.2	–	0.8	0.2	*47 637*
Foreign	29.6	24.4	3.9	29.4	13.8	23.5	*661*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	3.5	1.6	. .	2.2	*8 125*

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434247808522

Lithuania



Emigration continues to dominate migration movements in Lithuania, despite some signs that this is gradually slowing down and immigration increasing. Recorded emigration in 2006 was around 12 600. Based on surveys carried out in 2006 and 2007 which showed that around 60% of emigrants are undeclared, the Lithuanian Statistical Department estimates total emigration for 2006 as 27 800. Both declared and undeclared emigration has declined since 2005 (by 19% for declared and 58% for undeclared) despite the fact that in 2006 six additional EU countries opened their labour markets to Lithuanian citizens. The main destination country remains the United Kingdom, followed by Ireland, Germany and Spain. Although relatively lower than in the neighbouring Baltic countries Estonia and Latvia (where they amount to 4% and 10% of GDP, respectively), migrant remittances reached 614 million Euros in 2006 representing 2.6% of Lithuania's GDP.

The large emigration flows – population losses due to net emigration since 1990 amount to an estimated 10% of the population – have strongly impacted the Lithuanian labour market. Shortages in unqualified labour in the construction, transport and garment industries are increasingly evident. Survey data shows that highly skilled non-manual employees and skilled workers form almost 40% of emigration outflow. As a consequence, some areas of the labour market are already experiencing shortages of scientists, engineers, medical professionals and IT specialists. This "brain drain" is causing increasing concern in Lithuania.

In light of this, a new Economic migration regulation strategy was adopted by the Government in April 2007, aiming at reducing net migration to zero by 2012. The focus of the strategy is to encourage return migration to Lithuania. Policies planned include maintaining contacts with and providing information about employment, study and business opportunities to Lithuanians and Lithuanian organisations abroad and to prepare a programme for Lithuanians abroad looking for jobs in Lithuania. Other initiatives include preparing new policy measures facilitating the immigration requirements for qualified labour migrants from third countries.

One of the consequences of current migration patterns is family separation. A survey carried out in 2007 by the Office of Ombudsman on Children's Rights found that 5% of all Lithuanian children under 18 have at least one parent living abroad. In response to this concern, in June 2007 a simplified procedure for children temporarily departing abroad came into force. According to this ruling, only one parent is now required to give certified permission for their child's departure whereas previously permission from both parents was required. Another decree in May 2007 set up rules for foster care for children upon the parent's departure from Lithuania.

Labour migration appears to be on the rise. One indication of this is the number of work permits issued to non-EU nationals, a figure that has increased more than three-fold between 2004 and 2006. The foreign labour force employed in Lithuania originates mainly from Belarus, followed by Ukraine. Taken together, nationals of these two countries account for almost 70% of all work permits issued in 2006.

Until the end of 2006, it was difficult for nationals of non-EU countries to obtain a work permit in Lithuania. in 2006, the Lithuanian government simplified the procedures of issuing work and residence permits for immigrants in shortage professions. These were detailed in a decree by the Minister of Social Security and Labour in July 2007. It is expected that these changes will result in a further significant increase in labour migration in 2007.

Return migration is also increasing and accounts for 70% of inward migration. In 2006, almost 5 000 Lithuanian nationals returned from abroad, almost three times the number of those in 2003. The majority of Lithuanian nationals in 2006 returned from other EU member states, mostly from the United Kingdom.

For further information…

www.migracija.lt/index.php?-484440258
www.pasienis.lt/lit/English
www.socmin.lt/index.php?-846611483
www.ldb.lt/LDB_Site/index.htm

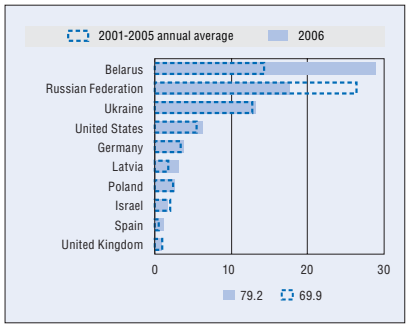
INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OUTLOOK: SOPEMI – 2008 EDITION – ISBN 978-92-64-04565-1 – © OECD 2008

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	. .	0.6	0.7	. .	0.9	*2.2*
Outflows	7.1	6.2	4.5	2.1	6.9	3.1	*7.1*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	. .	0.1	–	–	–	0.1	*0.1*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	. .	–4.8	2.9	1.5	. .	2.1	*1 476*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	. .	16.4	8.3	5.6	14.4	11.3	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	–7.7	–7.1	–6.5	–5.4	–7.3	–5.0
Natural increase	–1.1	–1.3	–3.9	–4.0	–1.1	–3.3
Net migration	–6.6	–5.8	–2.6	–1.4	–6.3	–1.7

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	. .	–0.7	–1.1	. .	–0.6	*3 352*
Foreign	. .	. .	7.9	8.3	. .	3.3	*33*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	1.4	1.4	. .	1.6	*467*

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434356160388

Luxembourg



The recent revision of the population figures for Luxembourg shows that the foreign population is continuing to grow: in January 2007, it accounted for nearly 42% of the resident population, as compared with around 41% in 2005 and 37% in 2001. This is by far the largest proportion among all OECD countries. Although net migration in 2006 accounted for more than 75% of population growth (approximately 5 400 out of 7 100), it should be pointed out that only foreigners make a positive contribution to the natural balance (an increase of nearly 2 400 as opposed to a decrease of approximately 600 for nationals). The totality of Luxembourg's population growth is therefore due to foreigners.

In 2006, inflows of foreigners were close to the figures for 2005, both in terms of numbers (13 700) and in terms of countries of origin: Portugal and France remained the two main sending countries, accounting respectively for 28% and 18% of inflows. Outflows of foreigners increased in comparison with 2005, chiefly because of greater outflows of nationals of EU countries.

Naturalisations have continued to increase: more than 1 100 persons became Luxembourg citizens in 2006, an 18% increase over 2005. The naturalisation rate (*i.e.* the number of naturalisations as a percentage of the foreign population) has been increasing regularly since 2001, in particular following the relaxation of the naturalisation procedure in 2002, but it still remains very low in comparison with other countries (it is some ten times lower than in neighbouring countries such as France, Belgium and the Netherlands).

The downward trend in the number of asylum applications that began in 2005 continued in 2006 and 2007 (preliminary figures), with only around 520 and 430 applications filed respectively during these two years, as against 1 500 in 2004. Nationals of the former Yugoslavia accounted for roughly half of asylum seekers in 2006 and 2007, with Kosovo being by far the main region of origin.

Foreign residents are of course strongly represented in Luxembourg's labour market, but not as much as their proportion of the population would suggest because of the very large share of the workforce who work in Luxembourg but do not live there (approximately 129 000 in 2006). These cross-border workers, who live in France, Belgium and Germany, accounted for nearly 40% of employment in Luxembourg in 2006 (as compared with roughly 27% in 1996). The French constitute by far the largest group of cross-border workers (62 000), followed by Belgians (31 000) and Germans (28 000).

To better evaluate the educational needs of the many young people who arrive every year in Luxembourg with their parents and to prepare their integration into school, a school reception centre was set up at the beginning of the 2005 school year. Between December 2005 and December 2006, this centre received nearly 600 pupils over 12 years of age, informed them about school in Luxembourg, assessed their mathematics and language skills and steered them to a secondary school that matched their profile. Since over half the new arrivals were Portuguese speakers, reception in Portuguese is provided two days per week.

On 1 May 2006, the transitional measures enabling nationals of the new EU member states to obtain work permits were extended for three years and their application was broadened to include nationals of Bulgaria and Romania in January 2007. For these nationals, access to the Luxembourg labour market is subject to labour market testing.

As from the beginning of the 2007 academic year, students enrolled in the University of Luxembourg who are nationals of a third country may obtain a work permit allowing them to work on a part-time basis while pursuing their studies. They may only work ten hours per week during the academic year, but this restriction is lifted when the university is not in session. This permit is renewable upon presentation of proof of re-enrolment in the university, but may be withdrawn if a student fails to attend classes on a regular basis.

For further information…

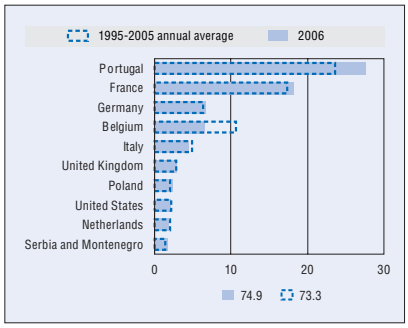
www.mae.lu/
www.statistiques.public.lu/
www.cge.etat.lu/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	23.2	24.7	30.2	29.9	24.1	27.4	*13.7*
Outflows	12.0	16.3	15.8	16.7	14.5	16.8	*7.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	1.4	1.8	1.1	2.5	2.3	*0.5*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.4	8.4	5.0	6.1	6.1	4.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	–	7.0	3.4	4.4	4.7	3.0	*62 991*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	4.2	1.8	2.1	2.2	1.6	*206*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.0	2.6	4.7	4.4	3.1	3.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	15.1	12.8	9.7	. .	13.7	8.1
Natural increase	3.9	4.5	3.8	3.8	4.0	3.6
Net migration	11.2	8.3	5.8	. .	9.6	4.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.7	0.2	–0.7	–0.4	0.4	0.2	*300*
Foreign-born	3.3	2.2	2.6	3.7	2.6	2.0	*160*
National	0.2	–0.5	–1.5	–1.2	–0.2	–0.5	*268*
Foreign	4.2	3.3	3.3	4.1	3.6	2.8	*191*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	*1 128*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	70.7	73.2	68.8	68.1	71.4	69.6
Foreign-born men	81.3	78.1	80.1	79.2	80.0	79.9
Native-born women	38.8	46.5	50.5	51.9	42.6	49.0
Foreign-born women	48.9	55.3	58.3	58.6	51.9	57.1
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	2.1	1.4	3.0	2.6	1.7	2.2
Foreign-born men	2.1	2.5	4.2	4.7	2.5	3.6
Native-born women	3.7	3.0	4.5	4.1	3.2	3.5
Foreign-born women	5.5	3.3	7.5	8.9	4.8	6.9

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434357388783

Mexico



Mexican migration continues to be dominated by migration flows to the US – either of Mexicans or of immigrants from other Central and South American countries that use Mexico as a transit state.

Unauthorised immigration from Mexico to the US is estimated to be at about 315 000 persons per year, adding to the about 6 570 000 unauthorised Mexicans already in the US. With the increased physical border controls that are the result of legislation to increase border security passed by the US government in 2006, there are signs that the flows may have somewhat diminished since then. This conclusion was drawn by the Pew Hispanic Center based on consistent patterns in four key indicators: 1) the size of the Mexican-born population in the US; 2) the number of Mexican-born workers employed in the US, especially in construction; 3) remittance receipts reported by the Bank of Mexico and 4) apprehensions of persons illegally crossing the border. Nevertheless, it still seems early to conclude that this trend decline will continue or whether instead it merely reflects a temporary slowdown. It also appears that this diminished flow may be linked with the slowdown of the US economy, especially in the housing sector where Mexican workers have met a sustained demand in recent years.

The southern border of Mexico has experienced a significant increase in legal and illegal flows over the past decade, in particular for migrants seeking to transit Mexico to reach the United States. The Mexican southern border has many easy-access points for undocumented migrants. Between June 2006 and June 2007, there were more than 145 000 detentions of undocumented immigrants, mainly from Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador and Nicaragua. This number can provide an idea of the actual flows of undocumented immigrants which is estimated to be at around 2 million individuals per year.

Permanent-type legal immigration remains low. It declined by about 10% in 2006-07 to reach about 43 000. In addition, there is an inflow of about 40 000 agricultural workers per year. The main country of origin is Guatemala.

Mexico's government changed at the end of 2006. The development plan of the new government envisages a five-tiered strategy related to migration policies:

- Improvement of migration management, quality and services in Mexico.
- An enhanced Southern Border Migration Program, aiming at the gradual development of an orderly, safe, secure and modern border region. In order to achieve this, four strategies are planned: *i)* improving documentation of migration flows, both by systematically documenting legal crossings and by better supervising undocumented flows; *ii)* increasing the protection of migrants' rights; *iii)* strengthening of border security by taking actions against smuggling and trafficking; *iv)* improving and expanding technological and physical facilities.
- Consistency between the policies towards the Northern and Southern borders. In practice, this means that Mexico will seek to ensure that its demands to the US government are consistent with its own policies towards migrants crossing through its southern border. A new and enhanced awareness of the development and security needs of the Southern border is at the core of the government's migration policy.
- Enhanced International co-operation. Among the main priorities are fighting international gangs that abuse migrants in Central America and in the South East of Mexico, as well as establishing safe and orderly repatriation programmes.
- Active protection and promotion of the rights of Mexicans living abroad.

For further information…

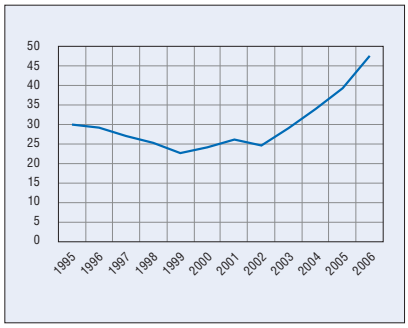
www.migracion.gob.mx

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	*47.6*
Outflows	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	*31.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of foreign population in Mexico
Thousands



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	6.3	5.1	5.8	6.2
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	69.0	45.5	40.2	46.2
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	–6.2	6.6	2.8	4.8	5.5	2.8	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	–8.0	4.7	1.8	3.9	3.9	1.7	*9 838*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–0.9	2.2	0.6	3.4	3.2	2.1	*41 849*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.9	2.6	3.5	3.2	4.2	3.1	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434372371301

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter. As data by nationality are not available, chart presented for Mexico differs from the other countries.

Netherlands



In 2006, the number of immigrants to the Netherlands increased for the first time since 2001, reflecting growing labour migration in the context of a tightening labour market. More than 101 000 immigrants came to the Netherlands in 2006, compared to about 92 000 in 2005. At the same time, however, emigration from the Netherlands (including both Dutch and foreign nationals) rose for the seventh year in a row, from 83 400 in 2005 to just over 91 000 in 2006. When correcting for unreported emigration, total emigration even exceeded total immigration by more than 31 000 – the largest figure for several decades.

The largest immigrant group in 2006 were the Polish (8 100), an increase from 6 500 in 2005. Immigration from the other EU25 member countries and from the United States also registered significant increases. Also noteworthy is that immigration from India sharply increased to 1 900 in 2006, more than tripling in number since 2004. At the same time, the number of immigrants coming from traditional sending countries such as Turkey and Morocco continued to decline in 2006.

The number of foreign workers coming to the Netherlands with a temporary work permit rose from about 46 000 work permits issued in 2005 to more than 74 000 in 2006. The growth was entirely attributable to labour migrants from Poland, who accounted for almost 75% of all work permits in 2006. These were mainly employed in the agriculture and horticulture sectors, which constituted 63% of all work permits issued in 2006. Labour migration was facilitated by changes in the work permit procedure that were introduced in 2006, abandoning the obligatory five week period for reporting job vacancies for specific and often temporary jobs.

Since May 2007, work permits are no longer required for labour migrants from the ten new EU countries. However, the Dutch government decided not to open the labour market for nationals from Romania and Bulgaria.

In June 2007, the Dutch government agreed to further facilitate the admission of research scientists and their families who no longer need a work permit. In addition, scientists are exempted from the requirement to apply for a provisional residence permit once they have obtained a residence permit for conducting research in another EU country.

The number of asylum seekers increased by almost 50% between 2004 and 2006, from about 9 800 to almost 14 500. This is the largest increase in absolute numbers in the OECD and stands in contrast to the general decline observed across the OECD. However, with about 14 500 requests, the number of asylum seekers in 2006 was still three times lower than in 2000. In 2007, the Dutch parliament decided to give a "general pardon" to asylum seekers who had applied for asylum before 2001 and who were still present in the Netherlands. According to recent estimations, about 27 500 individuals will receive a residence permit in the Netherlands as a consequence of the "general pardon". At the end of January 2008, 25 000 foreign nationals received a written notice that they were eligible for a residence permit on the basis of the regulation. Five thousand foreign nationals were refused a residence permit. The most important ground for refusal has been that the individuals involved had not lived in the Netherlands continuously.

In January 2007, a new Civic Integration Act came into effect. The new Act replaces existing legislation and regulations concerning civic integration of both newly arrived immigrants and of immigrants who have lived in the Netherlands for a prolonged period of time but still have insufficient command of the Dutch language. One fundamental change of the new Act is that civic integration is now obligatory for both new arrivals and established migrants from non-EEA countries, if the latter are aged between 18 and 65 years old and did not live in the country for at least eight years during their years of compulsory education. Non-Dutch nationals who do not meet this requirement and cannot prove sufficient command of the Dutch language are obliged to pass a civic integration test. Sanctions can be either financial (an administrative fine) or juridical (refusal of a permanent residence permit).

For further information…

www.ind.nl/EN/

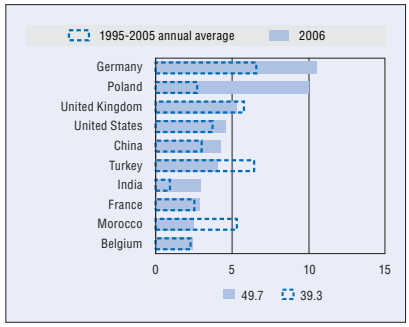
www/cbs.nl/en-GB/default.htm

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.3	5.7	3.9	4.1	5.0	4.6	*67.7*
Outflows	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4	*26.5*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	4.4	3.2	*7.0*	*5.4*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	28.1	27.7	*45.0*	*46.6*
Humanitarian	17.9	14.4	*28.7*	*24.3*
Free movements	12.1	14.0	*19.4*	*23.6*
Others	–	–	–	–
Total	62.5	59.4		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	6.4	10.0	9.3	8.8
Trainees	4.8	9.9	8.7	6.6
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	27.7	46.1	74.1	42.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.9	2.8	0.8	0.9	2.3	1.0	*14.5*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.1	3.9	1.5	3.0	4.0	1.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.6	3.2	1.3	2.9	3.4	1.1	*31 312*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.3	2.3	0.2	1.9	2.6	0.2	*8 366*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.8	3.0	4.9	4.1	4.9	3.9	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	5.7	8.7	3.7	3.7	7.1	5.5
Natural increase	3.6	4.2	3.1	3.1	3.7	3.5
Net migration	2.1	4.5	0.6	0.6	3.4	2.0

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	*14 614*
Foreign-born	1.4	3.8	–0.1	–0.1	2.8	0.7	*1 732*
National	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.4	*15 664*
Foreign	–4.2	2.5	–1.1	–1.4	–1.6	–0.2	*682*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	9.4	7.7	4.1	4.2	9.3	4.9	*29 089*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	77.0	84.0	81.6	82.2	80.3	82.9
Foreign-born men	56.2	69.9	69.0	68.2	63.0	69.7
Native-born women	54.9	65.6	68.5	69.2	59.7	68.1
Foreign-born women	38.4	48.8	52.6	50.9	44.8	52.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.3	3.2	2.8
Foreign-born men	19.6	5.4	11.9	10.4	11.9	8.6
Native-born women	7.7	3.0	4.5	4.3	5.8	3.5
Foreign-born women	19.5	7.6	9.6	11.0	11.6	8.4

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434406883728

New Zealand



Nearly 47 000 people were approved for residence in New Zealand in 2006-07 which was around 4 000 people less than in the previous year. The largest source countries were the United Kingdom (26%), China (12%), India (9%) and South Africa (8%).

Temporary labour migration continued to grow at a significant rate. Almost 115 500 work permits were granted in 2006-07, an increase of more than 16% from the previous year. Increases were due to greater numbers of working holiday makers, seasonal workers and foreign graduates. In contrast to the increase in temporary labour immigration, the number of student permits continued to decline, albeit at a lower pace than in previous years. The number of student permits granted reduced from almost 69 000 in 2005-06 to around 67 150 in 2006-07. This was attributable to a continuing decline of student numbers from China (about 20 200, less than half of the 2002-03 figure), while numbers from all other key source countries, with the exception of Japan, increased in 2006-07.

Given sustained economic growth, New Zealand has intensified its recruitment of temporary as well as permanent migrant workers in the past year – a process supported by the gradual implementation of the comprehensive Immigration Change Programme which brought about a number of significant policy changes in 2007. In August 2007, a new immigration bill was introduced to parliament and is currently being reviewed.

A new Immigration Advisers Licensing Act was passed in 2007. It requires anyone providing New Zealand immigration advice to be licensed (unless exempt). The Act also establishes the Immigration Advisers Authority, an independent Authority that will administer the licensing process for advisers both within New Zealand and abroad.

Important changes were also made to the Skilled Migrant Policy, notably in the allocation of points for different attributes (including increased number of bonus points for skilled employment, recognised qualifications and work experience in an identified future growth area) and a better definition of "skilled employment").

In addition, a new Active Investor Migrant Category was introduced in November 2007. Depending on the amount to be invested, candidates are ranked in different priority classes. Smaller investments require the additional passing of a special points test.

Changes were also made to the Family Sponsorship stream involving the development of a fourth stream for the partner and dependent children categories (as distinct from parent, adult children and adult sibling categories). This policy is designed to further facilitate the entry of skilled migrants to New Zealand and the return of New Zealanders who have been working overseas. This should be viewed in the context of a larger set of measures aimed at forming links with New Zealand expatriates while attracting a proportion of the highly skilled home. This is an important issue for New Zealand, since the total 87 000 permanent and long term arrivals in 2006-07 translated to a net migration gain of just 10 100 people.

Other changes included introducing character requirements for sponsors of some family migrants, a new minimum income requirement for sponsors of parents (to ensure they can support them while they are in New Zealand), and the introduction of a new multiple entry visitor visa for parents and grandparents to enable them to travel more easily to New Zealand.

Measures were introduced in April 2007 to help meet the labour requirements of the New Zealand horticulture and viticulture industries when no suitable New Zealanders are available. This allows employers to recruit with priority from the Pacific (and subsequently other countries), with workers having an opportunity to return the next season.

A Refugee Family Support Category replaced the Refugee Family Sponsored policy. The objective is to help refugees living in New Zealand to settle by allowing them to sponsor family members for residence while maintaining a clear prioritisation mechanism.

Finally, a range of measures was implemented in 2007 within the framework of the Settlement National Action Plan (SNAP). The plan aims, among other objectives, to address gaps in service delivery for migrants and the identification of good practice for new or extended services across a range of areas.

For further information…

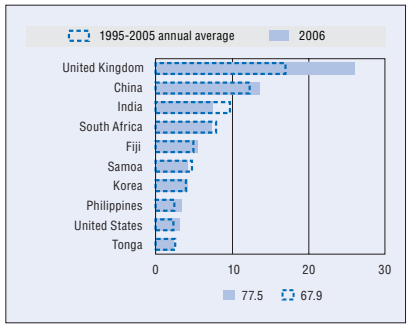
www.immigration.govt.nz/
www.dol.govt.nz/actreview/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	15.2	9.8	13.2	12.0	10.1	11.8	*49.8*
Outflows	2.9	4.0	7.5	5.0	3.8	6.5	*20.5*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	14.5	12.9	*24.4*	*23.6*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	34.8	31.7	*58.6*	*57.9*
Humanitarian	4.9	5.2	*8.2*	*9.6*
Free movements	5.2	5.0	*8.8*	*9.0*
Others	–	–	–	–
Total	59.4	54.8		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	45.8	69.2	67.1	72.6
Trainees	0.8	1.8	1.2	1.5
Working holiday makers	13.0	29.0	32.5	22.0
Seasonal workers	. .	2.9	5.6	4.2
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	24.1	44.3	47.3	38.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	*0.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.2	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.6	3.1	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.6	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.6	1.8	*23 350*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.5	1.7	2.8	2.1	1.3	2.7	*2 117*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.2	6.0	3.7	3.8	6.5	4.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	15.9	4.8	9.3	11.1	9.4	12.2
Natural increase	8.1	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.8	7.2
Net migration	7.7	–2.9	1.7	3.6	1.6	5.0

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.1	–0.2	0.1	0.5	0.5	*3 260*
Foreign-born	. .	3.0	5.5	4.6	2.3	4.7	*880*
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*29 017*

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Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

Norway



According to national statistics, immigration of foreign nationals in 2006 was 37 400, an increase of more than 6 000 compared to 2005. This is the highest level ever recorded. The significant increase was mainly the result of the high level of labour immigration, especially from Poland. Inflows of Polish citizens more than doubled since 2005 to reach 7 500 in 2006. In total, one-third of all immigrants came from the new member states. But labour migration from non-EEA countries has also increased. The number of permits issued for skilled labour – which mainly concern non-EEA nationals, with Indians now being the leading nationality – almost doubled to 2 000. Preliminary figures for 2007 indicate a further increase.

In spite of a strong increase in share of labour migration in total immigration flows, family ties remained the most important source of long-term immigration from non-Nordic countries. In this context, it is noteworthy that more than 20% of all marriages in 2006 in Norway involved a Norwegian and a foreign national.

Since August 2007, the same transitional regulations as for eight of the countries joining the EU in 2004 apply for workers from Bulgaria and Romania and will be applicable in principle until May 2009. In the context of the prolongation of the transitional arrangements, the government launched an action plan against social dumping.

In view of the current labour market situation with high demand for labour, as well as the long term outlook of demographic change, a white paper on the future need for labour migration was presented to the Norwegian parliament in the spring of 2008. In this context, possible amendments to the current legislation and relevant policy measures for the entry and stay of labour migrants will also be discussed.

A proposal for a new immigration and asylum act was submitted to the Norwegian parliament in June 2007. The proposal was adopted in April 2008, and is expected to enter into force in January 2010. The main objective of the new act is to modernise the current legislation in light of international legal obligations. In the field of asylum, the main change is a broader definition of refugees. In particular, those who are eligible for subsidiary protection status under the EU asylum qualification directive will be granted refugee status under the new act. A practical result of this change will be a strengthening of the right to family reunification for those who fall under the new refugee concept. In the proposal the government furthermore signals that it intends to tighten the rules regarding subsistence requirements related to family migration.

Within the framework of the ongoing action plan for integration and social inclusion of the immigrant population, measures to prevent forced marriages, to provide better assistance and protection to victims of such marriages, as well as language instruction for adult immigrants and young children will receive particular attention in 2008. Moderate affirmative action for persons with immigrant background to public administration positions will be tried out in a two-year pilot project, starting in 2008. This means that if candidates have equal or approximately equal qualifications, a candidate with an immigrant background is to be preferred. The funding in the fiscal budget of the plan of action for integration and social inclusion is increased for 2008, totalling EUR 80 million.

A Commission to propose comprehensive anti-discrimination legislation was appointed by the government in June 2007. This relates to the prohibition of both direct and indirect discrimination based on ethnicity, national origin, descent, colour, language, religion or belief. The government intends to present a new national action plan against racism and discrimination by the end of 2008.

One significant change in legislation concerning international students took effect in May 2007. Students are now granted a general part-time (maximum 20 hours per week) work permit together with their first residence permit for education. An offer of employment is no longer required. Further measures facilitating the transition to work after completion of education are being considered.

For further information…

www.ssb.no/innvandring_en/

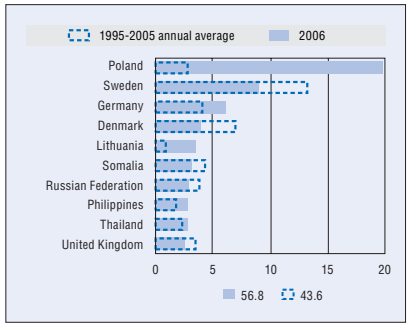
www.udi.no/default.aspx?id=2112

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.8	6.2	6.8	8.0	5.4	6.5	*37.4*
Outflows	2.1	3.3	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.9	*12.5*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	1.3	2.1	*5.2*	*7.6*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	13.0	14.0	*50.7*	*50.0*
Humanitarian	4.4	3.4	*17.2*	*12.0*
Free movements	6.9	8.5	*26.9*	*30.4*
Others	–	–	–	–
Total	25.7	28.0		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	2.3	4.3	4.9	3.4
Trainees	. .	0.3	0.4	0.4
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	9.9	20.9	36.1	19.7
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	2.5	1.1	1.2	2.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.3	2.4	*5.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.2	3.3	2.7	2.2	3.7	2.2	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	3.7	2.6	2.1	1.3	3.1	1.6	*39 633*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.2	0.5	0.6	3.2	1.8	0.7	*2 363*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	4.9	3.4	4.6	3.4	3.9	4.1	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	4.8	5.3	7.4	9.0	5.9	6.4
Natural increase	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.9	3.4	3.1
Net migration	1.4	2.0	3.9	5.1	2.4	3.3

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	*4 265*
Foreign-born	3.0	4.3	5.3	6.5	4.9	5.1	*405*
National	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.5	*4 432*
Foreign	–1.9	3.2	4.2	7.2	2.8	5.1	*238*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	7.2	5.3	5.9	5.4	6.4	5.0	*11 955*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.7	82.3	78.6	79.0	80.9	79.6
Foreign-born men	63.6	75.3	67.2	71.7	72.6	71.8
Native-born women	68.4	74.6	72.4	73.3	72.5	73.6
Foreign-born women	55.6	63.3	60.2	61.3	61.2	62.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.1	3.4	4.2	3.1	4.1	3.8
Foreign-born men	11.0	6.8	12.4	8.9	7.5	9.6
Native-born women	6.1	3.2	4.3	3.0	4.4	3.7
Foreign-born women	11.9	. .	8.6	7.7	5.3	6.6

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434414510846

Poland



Migration flows in Poland are still largely outward and have increased steadily during the last decade and especially since the country's accession to the EU in May 2004. Precise figures on emigration are difficult to obtain, as most people do not declare emigration. The national Labour Force Survey provides a lower-bound estimate of about 537 000 Poles who had been abroad for more than two months in the second quarter of 2007, up 38% from the same quarter of 2006. About half of these Poles were abroad for more than 12 months. Post-accession labour emigration has been disproportionately female, younger and better educated. The main destinations are the UK and Ireland, although migration to Germany, Norway and Sweden has also been high. With the ongoing expansion of Poland's economy, an improving exchange rate and rising wages, there are some signs of a slowdown of emigration in the second half of 2007.

Immigration to Poland remains low. According to the population register, approximately 55 000 foreigners were permanent residents of Poland at the end of 2006, 0.14% of the total population of Poland. The three main national groups were Germans (21%), Ukrainians (9%), and Russians (6%). About 11 000 longer-term work permits were issued, about the same as in 2005. The main nationalities were Ukranians (3 300) and Vietnamese (1 000).

Asylum applications were affected by Poland's entrance into the Schengen area on 21 December 2007. Concern over stricter entry procedures led to a temporary rush to file asylum applications prior to entry (3 420 in the last two months of 2007, which brought the total to 10 000 and represented most of the increase over the previous year's total of 7 100). As in previous years, most were nationals of the Russian Federation (particularly Chechens). The entry into the Schengen area made it more difficult to obtain some types of visas, and was also linked with a significant increase in visa fees.

Three important migration policy changes were implemented in 2007. The most relevant change was a greater opening to temporary and seasonal workers from Ukraine, Belarus, and the Russian Federation. Employer fees for hiring workers were significantly reduced. Workers may now be hired without a visa not only in agriculture but in other sectors. Workers already present were granted portability among authorised employers. The same limit of three months in any given period of six months applies, although in 2008, the limit was changed to 6 months out of every 12. About 24 500 workers, mainly from Ukraine, took up short-term and seasonal work in Poland in the second half of 2007.

Facilitation of labour migration from these countries was partly due to demand from employers and partly to reduce undeclared work by undocumented foreigners (about one-third of undeclared workers found during inspections were foreigners). The labour inspection system was changed in July 2007 to grant labour inspectors authority to examine migration status.

The second event was a regularisation for two groups: residents for at least ten years who have housing and economic means or employment; and those who were eligible for the 2003 regularisation but failed to apply. Both receive one year renewable permits. There were 1 240 applicants. As in the 2003 regularisation, Armenians and Vietnamese were the main nationalities concerned.

The third policy change was the creation of a residence permit for the descendents of Poles living in the former Soviet Union (up to the third generation). Some knowledge of the language and culture is required. Beneficiaries receive a residence permit, with full access to employment or economic activity.

These changes were associated with a comprehensive revision of the Aliens' Act and several related acts, which were in part motivated by transforming a number of EU directives into national law. Along with this, a range of institutional changes took place, which strengthened the role of the Ministry of Interior and Administration with respect to migration.

The Polish government has created a Migration Policy Committee to review all aspects of migration policy from labour migration to return. A significant migration reform package is expected to emerge from the Committee.

For further information…

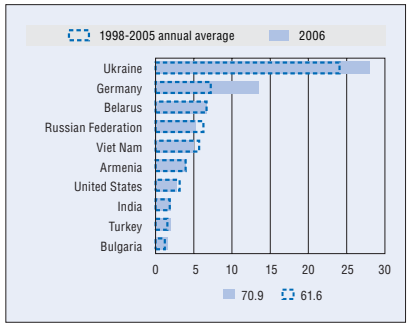
www.uric.gov.pl
www.stat.gov.pl
www.mpips.gov.pl

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	0.4	1.0	0.9	0.3	0.8	*34.2*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	*4.4*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	7.0	4.3	3.6	6.1	5.4	4.1	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	6.9	4.3	3.7	6.2	5.4	4.1	*13 082*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	–1.5	2.3	3.4	–0.4	0.5	*14 594*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	13.3	16.1	17.7	13.8	12.9	18.0	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	0.8	–0.3	–0.4	–0.8	0.3	–0.6
Natural increase	1.2	0.3	–0.1	0.1	0.7	–0.1
Net migration	–0.5	–0.5	–0.3	–0.9	–0.4	–0.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*38 077*
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*55*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*989*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	58.3	60.9	. .	58.7
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	31.1	42.5	. .	36.2
Native-born women	. .	. .	46.6	48.3	. .	47.1
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	24.4	29.1	. .	23.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	17.4	13.2	. .	16.5
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	–	.-	. .	–
Native-born women	. .	. .	19.4	15.1	. .	18.2
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	19.2	–	. .	17.3

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434514374888

Portugal



The declining trend of immigration to Portugal observed since 2003 apparently stopped in 2006. The different components of legal migration totalled more than 42 000 in 2006, an increase of almost 50% compared to 2005. The largest increases were observed among migrants from Eastern Europe, most of whom appear to have come to Portugal for family reunion motives.

At the same time, however, the stock of legal foreigners resident in Portugal increased only marginally, by about 2 800 people. This appears to be linked to the fact that many immigrants from Eastern Europe (especially Ukrainians) who came to Portugal around the turn of the millennium for employment reasons have subsequently left the country. This is indicative of both the labour market which has become less favorable and the change in the nature of immigration flows to Portugal which is now shifting from labour migration to migration on family reunion grounds.

A very significant increase in the number of foreigners who obtained Portuguese nationality was observed in 2006. About 3 600 persons obtained citizenship, almost four times the 2005 figure. This is partly a result of the new, more liberal regulations regarding access to Portuguese nationality that entered into force in December 2006.

In 2007, there were several key changes in the legal and institutional framework of migration to Portugal. The most important change concerns the new law on the "Entry, Stay, Departure and Expulsion of Foreigners". This law transposes a set of EU directives into Portuguese legislation. At the same time, it aims at establishing a more realistic and effective framework to direct labour migration into legal channels by adjusting the number of immigrants entering Portugal to the Portuguese labour market needs and simultaneously improving official procedures related to migration. This also includes measures to facilitate family reunion and strengthened measures against trafficking and exploitation of immigrants.

The changes included a simplification of the visa system, by reducing the former nine juridical categories to two types of visa: a temporary stay visa and a residence visa. The former is intended for people who come temporarily to Portugal to pursue medical treatment, for research, or for temporary professional tasks for periods of less than six months. The residence visa is given to people who intend to set up "permanent" residence in Portugal for purposes such as regular work, highly qualified work, entrepreneurial activities, study or family reunion. Persons with a residence visa are therefore supposed to have this transformed into a residence permit within four months after arrival.

The former quota system that governed the admission of labour migrants has been replaced by a so-called "global contingent" based on annual estimates of labour market needs that cannot be filled by the domestic labour market (including by other EU nationals). The Institute for Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP) will advertise, using an internet database in conjunction with the Portuguese consulates network, the labour shortages reported by Portuguese employers that cannot be met by the domestic labour market. Foreign workers interested in these offers are expected to contact the employer and to obtain either a work contract, the promise of a work contract or a "personal and explicit manifestation of interest in her/his recruitment" and can subsequently apply for a residence visa at a Portuguese embassy or consulate.

In May 2007, the Portuguese government presented a comprehensive Plan for the Integration of Immigrants. The plan covers all dimensions of the integration of immigrants and co-ordinates a series of actions undertaken by all ministries involved in integration. It features 122 measures from initial reception to housing, education, health and other areas.

In the area of institutional reforms, in May 2007 the ACIME (the former High Commissariat for Integration and Ethnic Minorities) became a Public Institute with the new name of High Commissariat for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI). Linked with this was a strengthening of its financial and administrative autonomy, although the nature of its mandate did not change.

The Portuguese consular services are engaged in a comprehensive restructuring process, involving, among other measures, the modernisation of the computing system and some changes in the consulates network. Similarly, the Services for Foreigners and Border Control (SEF) undertook a modernisation programme in 2006 and 2007.

For further information…

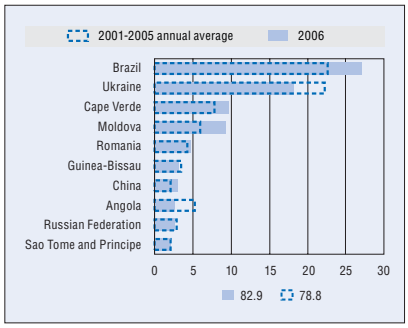
www.acidi.gov.pt/
www.ine.pt

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.5	1.6	2.7	4.0	0.7	5.8	*42.2*
Outflows	0.1	–	–	–	0.1	–	*0.1*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	4.0	7.2	*35.1*	*28.7*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	4.4	15.6	*37.9*	*62.1*
Humanitarian	–	–	–	–
Free movements	3.1	2.2	*26.6*	*8.8*
Others	–	0.1	*0.4*	*0.4*
Total	11.5	25.1		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	3.9	4.1	4.5	4.0
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	3.4	7.7	6.8	5.6

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	–	–	–	–	–	*0.1*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.3	3.9	0.7	1.2	4.1	0.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	3.9	3.4	0.3	0.9	3.7	0.1	*17 399*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–0.6	2.3	0.1	0.7	1.7	0.2	*5 130*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.2	4.0	7.7	7.7	5.8	6.2	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	2.6	6.1	3.7	. .	3.9	6.0
Natural increase	0.4	1.5	0.1	. .	0.7	0.5
Net migration	2.2	4.6	3.6	. .	3.2	5.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.8	0.6	*9 937*
Foreign-born	. .	0.7	–7.4	–1.8	–0.4	–0.1	*649*
National	–	0.4	0.9	0.2	0.7	0.4	*10 151*
Foreign	7.2	8.8	–7.9	0.7	4.3	3.8	*435*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.4	*3 627*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	71.5	76.2	73.1	73.7	76.3	74.9
Foreign-born men	65.5	75.5	78.4	76.8	70.2	78.3
Native-born women	54.5	60.2	61.4	61.5	59.5	61.3
Foreign-born women	49.7	65.2	67.5	67.1	56.8	66.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.6	3.1	6.8	6.9	3.7	5.3
Foreign-born men	10.8	6.0	8.3	8.2	8.2	7.5
Native-born women	7.8	4.9	8.4	9.3	5.0	7.2
Foreign-born women	13.6	6.9	9.5	11.4	11.2	9.4

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434530220150

Romania



Migration movements in and out of Romania were marked by the country's accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007. Although data on migration flows for Romania are difficult to obtain, there are several indications that this was associated with significant increases in migration movements, which continue to be strongly dominated by emigration.

In 2006, about 68 000 persons emigrated from Romania under mediated temporary employment contracts (53 000 through the Office for Labour Force Migration and 15 000 by private agencies). However, as in other countries with significant emigration, official figures from Romania strongly underestimate actual emigration as persons emigrating do not necessarily report this to the authorities. An indication of actual flows is given by immigration data from key destination countries, that is, Spain and Italy. These figures show a strong increase in immigration from Romania in 2006, a trend which accelerated in 2007. The year-by-year increase in the stock of Romanian nationals with permits between 31 December 2006 and 31 December 2007 in Spain was about 393 000, which represents almost a tripling of the stock in one year. Romania is now the most important origin country of immigration to Spain. For Italy, preliminary figures indicate a doubling of the stock of resident Romanian citizens for 2007 (the 2006 stock was about 340 000). In both Spain and Italy, however, it seems that many of the persons registered as inflows in 2007 were already in the country before January 2007.

Remittances to Romania continued their strong increase in recent years. In 2006, remittances amounted to EUR 5.3 billion, more than 5% of GDP, and a 40% increase over 2005.

Inflows to Romania remain modest, despite an apparent increase in the context of accession. The total number of foreigners with valid permits amounted to about 54 000 in 2006, which represents just 0.2% of the total population. This is a slight increase of 8% compared to 2005. However, the number of persons with a permanent permit (about 5 400 in total) rose by more than 50%.

The main origin countries of the migrant stock remained Moldova (11 400), Turkey (6 300) and China (5 000) – all of these showing increases in 2006 in the range of 10-19%. Initial figures for 2007 show a continuation of this trend for these three countries.

In 2006, the total number of work permits amounted to almost 8 000, more than twice the 2005 number. Turkish citizens held 27% of work permits in 2006, followed by Moldavians and Chinese citizens.

In July 2007, a new central authority, the Romanian Office for Immigration, was established under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior and Administrative reforms. The new office unites a number of tasks from previously separate offices and agencies, including the Office for Labour Force Migration. The new Office for Immigration is responsible for a broad range of tasks including the granting of visas, employment authorisations, receiving and deciding on asylum applications, and for managing national data and information on foreigners.

Also effective as of June 2007, several changes were made to Romania's work permit scheme. It introduced a new residence permit for work purposes, replacing the previously required separate work and temporary residence permits. Along with these changes, citizens from EU/EEA countries and their family members were exempted from the previous requirement to have a work permit. This also applies to third country nationals who are seconded from an EU/EEA country, provided they were previously resident in an EU/EEA country.

In addition, penalties for businesses employing foreign nationals without the proper authorisation were raised significantly.

For further information…

www.insse.ro/cms/rw/pages/index.ro.do

www.mai.gov.ro/engleza/english.htm

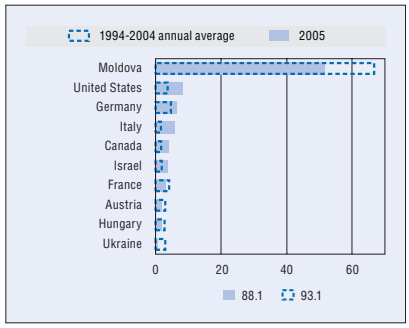
http://aps.mira.gov.ro/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.2	0.5	0.2	. .	0.3	0.2	. .
Outflows	1.1	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.5	*14.2*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	–	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	*0.5*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	. .	–0.1	0.2	2.2	. .	–1.5	*8 838*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	. .	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.4	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	–1.6	–0.9	–1.9	. .	–1.6	–2.2
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	–0.1	–0.2	–0.2	. .	–0.2	*21 512*
Foreign	. .	11.7	0.2	8.3	. .	–4.5	*54*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	0.6	–	0.1	0.9	0.3	*29*

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434578860661

Slovak Republic



With significant emigration in 2006 and a solid GDP growth of more than 8% the Slovak Republic has started to exhibit labour shortages. Nevertheless, few measures aimed at encouraging immigration of foreign workers have been taken and immigration thus far has been modest. Based on national statistics which use self-reporting of permanent address by residents, immigration increased only slightly to 5 600 persons in 2006, compared to 5 300 persons in 2005, the first year after EU accession.

Officially reported emigration amounted to about 1 700 persons in 2006. This figure, however, is only a small fraction of actual outflows as most persons do not de-register when they emigrate. An idea of the actual magnitude is given by preliminary figures for the United Kingdom which show in that single country an increase in the stock of Slovak nationals in the order of 30 000 between 2006 and 2007.

Since 2005, residence permits are differentiated between those granted to EEA nationals, for whom registration is no longer compulsory, and those granted to nationals of other countries. In 2006, this latter group accounted for almost half of the about 28 000 resident permit holders. The key origin country was the Ukraine (about 3 900 persons), followed by the Russian Federation (1 300 persons) and Viet Nam (almost 1 100 persons).

Illegal migration to the Slovak Republic seems to have continued its decline in 2006. One indication of this is the number of apprehensions at the border. This figure was 4 100 persons in 2006, compared to 5 200 persons in 2005. However, in addition to border apprehensions, there were 3 500 apprehensions of foreigners without authorised residence inside the country in 2006, an increase from 2 900 in the previous year.

Changes to the act on citizenship entered into force in October 2007 and made naturalisations more difficult to obtain. Notably, the period of continuous residence required for granting citizenship increased from five years to eight years and from two to three years for people of Slovak descent previously living abroad. For persons granted asylum status, a new requirement of a four-year period of continuous residence was introduced. In addition, the waiting period for the decision on the application for citizenship increased from 9 to 24 months. Finally, knowledge of Slovak language – a requirement for naturalisation – is now more rigorously tested.

Modifications to the act on asylum took effect in January 2007, accounting for EU legislation. These changes introduced supplementary protection for foreigners (and their spouse and children) who were not granted asylum but may be subject to persecution in their country of origin. Supplementary protection can be granted for a renewable period of one year. In addition, persons granted asylum are now entitled to a social benefit amounting to up to 1.5 times the minimum living standard.

Furthermore, the status of "tolerated residence" can now be given to victims of human trafficking. This entitles them to a stay of up to 180 days. Persons entitled to tolerated residence are now also entitled to accommodation if they cannot provide it by themselves.

The act on the stay of foreigners was also amended in 2007 to relax the conditions for the stay of foreign students and researchers. These no longer require a temporary residence permit if their stay does not exceed 90 days.

The Slovak Republic joined the Schengen area on 21 December 2007. In preparation for this, the Slovak Republic took a variety of measures, including enhanced international co-operation. An agreement with Ukraine regarding cross-border co-operation is under negotiation.

For further information…

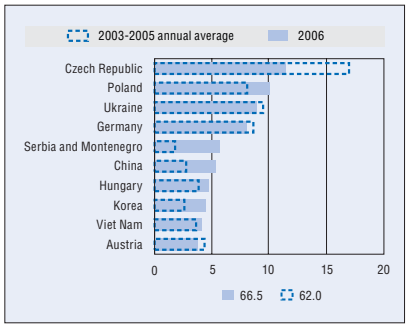
www.minv.sk/en/index.htm
www.employment.gov.sk/new/index.php?SMC=1&lang=en

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.3	0.9	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.3	*11.3*
Outflows	. .	. .	0.5	0.6	. .	0.8	*3.1*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.1	1.4	*2.9*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	5.8	0.7	6.0	8.3	3.4	5.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	5.5	0.6	5.9	8.2	3.3	5.5	*14 919*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.7	–1.4	2.1	3.8	–0.4	1.6	*2 302*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	13.1	18.8	16.2	13.3	14.0	17.2	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	2.2	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4	0.5
Natural increase	1.6	0.4	0.2	0.1	1.1	–
Net migration	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.4

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	–0.7	–0.9	. .	–0.7	*5 090*
Foreign-born	. .	. .	20.1	21.0	. .	20.4	*302*
National	0.2	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	*5 359*
Foreign	29.7	–2.4	14.9	25.7	5.7	1.8	*32*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	6.3	4.4	. .	6.1	*1 125*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	64.1	67.0	. .	64.4
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	66.7	69.6	. .	66.8
Native-born women	. .	. .	50.9	52.0	. .	51.5
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	42.1	41.2	. .	43.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	15.7	12.3	. .	15.7
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	–	–	. .	9.2
Native-born women	. .	. .	17.0	14.7	. .	17.1
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	27.3	–	. .	25.4

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434605260884

Spain



Spain continued to receive significant inflows during 2006 and 2007. According to municipal register statistics, more than 800 000 foreigners moved to Spain in 2006, up 17% over the previous year. The main source countries were Romania (110 000), Bolivia (69 000) and Morocco (60 000). According to registries, there were 4.5 million foreigners in Spain in early 2007, accounting for 10% of the population. The main nationalities were from Morocco (583 000), Romania (527 000), Ecuador (427 000) and the United Kingdom (315 000).

The stock of permit-holders rose by 10% during 2006 to reach 3.1 million foreigners, led by Morocco (544 000), Ecuador (376 000) and Columbia (226 000). Spain applied a transition period for citizens from Romania and Bulgaria following their accession to the EU on 1 January 2007. Labour market access requires authorisation and registration, although it is not subject to any restrictions. The number of Romanian permit holders more than doubled from 211 000 at the end of 2006 to 506 000 by 31 October 2007.

The Spanish labour force has grown significantly over the past decade as unemployment fell below 9% in 2006-2007, the lowest level since the late 1970s. From 2005 through 2007, the proportion of foreign workers in the labour force rose from 8% to almost 12% and accounted for about half of the expansion in the active population. This has to be seen in context of the fact that total employment and the participation rate for Spanish citizens – especially women – also rose during the same period.

The Spanish immigration reforms applied in 2005 were meant to facilitate employer recruitment of foreign workers and have significantly expanded legal labour inflows. Employers are able to recruit foreign workers to fill a position on a recognised regional shortage list ("catalogue") which is reviewed each trimester. For jobs not on the shortage list, employers must submit to a labour market test ("negative certification"). Most labour migration comes through these channels. Larger employers also use the foreign recruitment system organised by the Spanish Ministry of Labour in co-operation with counterparts in sending countries ("contingent"). The latter defines caps for each region and occupation. In some cases, training may be offered, ranging from basic language and workplace safety to custom vocational training, with subsidies from the Spanish government. Immigrants must remain in the same sector and region for the first year, although they may change employer. Seasonal work has no caps. For all categories, 827 000 work authorisations were issued in 2006. Leading recipients were citizens of Ecuador (158 000), Romania (123 000), and Morocco (113 000).

Permits may be renewed with a job contract. After five years, immigrants can apply for permanent residence status; 118 000 applied in the first half of 2007 alone.

Prior to 2005, legal labour migration channels were very limited, and much of the migration into Spain was irregular. The Spanish government claims that these new labour migration mechanisms have sharply reduced the stock of irregular migrants. A discretionary continuous regularisation mechanism is also in place for undocumented immigrants who demonstrate integration. 20 000 were regularised in 2006. The official estimate of irregular migrants was about 300 000 in early 2008.

New opportunities, including easy recruitment of Romanians and Bulgarians, have directed much of the migration to Spain into legal channels. While irregular migration to Spain continues, mostly through visa overstaying, the smaller but most visible flow is across the dangerous maritime passage from Africa. There were 31 000 landings in 2006 in the Canary Islands. Border co-operation between Spain, the EU, and Morocco halved these landings in 2007, although fatalities remained significant. Spain expanded co-operation with the key origin countries in Africa in migration-related matters, especially Morocco and Senegal. The Spanish Ministry of Labour co-operates directly with the Ministry of Labour in these countries in recruiting labour migrants, in exchange for help in preventing unauthorised departures. Development assistance in Africa is also linked to the policy of reducing irregular migration to Spain.

For further information…

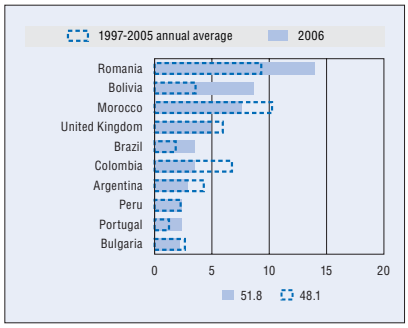
http://extranjeros.mtas.es/
www.inem.es

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	8.2	15.7	18.2	3.3	13.3	*803.0*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	28.8	30.7	33.3	30.3
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*5.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.8	5.0	3.6	3.9	4.1	3.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.6	4.2	1.9	2.3	3.6	1.7	*23 732*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.5	5.6	4.8	4.1	4.4	4.0	*19 748*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	18.7	10.8	9.2	8.5	15.0	10.1	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	1.3	9.9	16.8	. .	3.9	15.5
Natural increase	0.4	0.9	1.8	2.5	0.4	1.7
Net migration	0.9	8.9	15.0	. .	3.5	14.0

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	–0.4	0.7	0.7	. .	0.4	*38 818*
Foreign-born	. .	33.7	10.2	8.5	. .	15.1	*5 250*
National	. .	–0.3	0.8	0.8	. .	0.4	*39 548*
Foreign	. .	48.4	11.1	9.1	. .	18.0	*4 520*

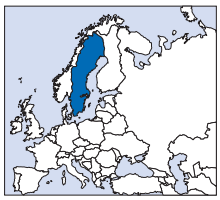
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	1.3	1.1	1.5	2.9	1.2	*62 339*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	62.0	70.8	74.4	75.4	65.8	73.3
Foreign-born men	61.1	75.4	79.5	81.9	70.1	79.6
Native-born women	31.6	41.0	50.0	52.3	35.5	46.8
Foreign-born women	36.7	45.7	60.4	57.5	41.8	55.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	17.8	9.4	7.0	6.1	14.2	7.3
Foreign-born men	24.2	11.8	9.5	7.7	15.8	9.9
Native-born women	30.8	20.4	12.0	10.8	26.3	14.1
Foreign-born women	30.4	20.0	13.5	15.7	25.4	15.9

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434133480140

Sweden



Permanent-type migration movements of foreign nationals to Sweden increased by almost 40% from 2005 to 2006, reaching approximately 74 000 persons. This is the highest level observed in the statistics of (harmonised) permanent-type migration since 1995 and this is also mirrored in the national statistics. Much of the increase relative to 2005 is attributable to a temporary amendment to the Aliens Act, which gave asylum seekers who had been denied a residence permit but had stayed in Sweden for a long period the right to a new assessment. As a result of this amendment, 17 350 were granted a residence permit. Iraq, Serbia and Somalia were the countries of origin with the largest number of reviewed cases.

Family migration also increased by about 20% and labour-related residence permits (largely to non-Nordic EU nationals) are at all time high at about 9 500. Permanent-type labour migration from non-EEA countries, however, remains limited, at less than 400 persons per year.

International student flows (from non-EEA countries) have been increasing steadily over the last decade and have more than tripled since 1997. It is not known how many of these students remain in Sweden after the end of their studies.

After showing a steady decline since 2002, the number of asylum seekers increased by almost 40% to reach 24 300 persons in 2006. On a per capita basis, these numbers are the highest in the OECD. The absolute numbers are exceeded only by France and the United Kingdom. Preliminary figures for 2007 indicate a further strong increase. Most of the increase is attributable to asylum seekers from Iraq, for whom Sweden has been the principal destination country. In the light of the increases, in July 2007 the Swedish Migration Board clarified the requirements for asylum seekers from Iraq to be granted a residence permit in Sweden. An applicant for asylum must be personally at risk of abuse in order to be considered a refugee.

There have also been a number of other changes regarding immigration regulations in Sweden concerning asylum seekers. The first of these concerns the granting of the right to work to asylum seekers, in situations when it is expected that the decision on their cases will take longer than four months. Since early 2006 appeals against migration decisions have been transferred to newly established "migration courts" from the Alien Appeals Board. Under the former system, the cases at the Aliens Appeals Board were most often decided without a hearing.

Under the new Aliens Act, residence permits can no longer be granted on "humanitarian grounds". Instead, the concept of "exceptionally distressing circumstances" has been introduced. A residence permit may be granted in such cases, subject to an assessment of the applicant's state of health, adjustment to Sweden and the situation in the country of origin.

A Committee on Labour Immigration, with a mandate to propose a regulatory framework to allow more extensive labour migration from outside the EU/EEA, presented its report in October 2006. It proposed in particular that there be broader possibilities for foreign students who find a job in Sweden to stay and work after completion of their studies.

Many of the selective labour market programmes were replaced in 2007 with a general subsidy of payroll costs for people excluded from the labour market. Newly arrived immigrants are among the groups eligible. Employers hiring them are exempt from payroll taxes and social security contributions for at least a year. A job and development guarantee was introduced in 2007, to help long-term unemployed return to working life by means of individually tailored measures.

A project for newly arrived immigrants has been piloted since 2006. It is centred on early contact with the labour market, a rapid assessment of education and experience and Swedish language instruction combined with job-oriented initiatives. A new labour market scheme known as "Step-in jobs" was introduced in July 2007, which offers possibilities for new arrivals to combine language training with part-time employment in their field of education or competence. On the administrative side, the Swedish integration board closed down in July 2007.

A new bill on anti-discrimination is expected to be presented to parliament in 2008.

For further information…

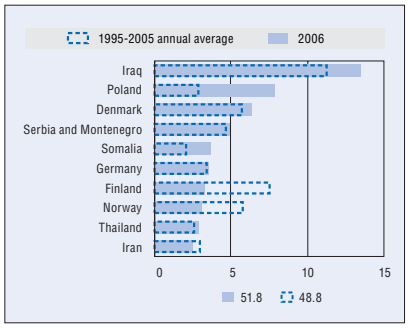
www.migrationsverket.se/english.html

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.1	4.8	5.7	8.9	4.0	5.9	*80.4*
Outflows	1.7	1.4	1.8	2.2	1.6	1.7	*20.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	0.3	0.3	*0.5*	*0.5*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	22.8	27.5	*42.4*	*37.1*
Humanitarian	8.1	20.7	*15.0*	*27.9*
Free movements	22.6	25.5	*42.0*	*34.5*
Others	–	–	–	–
Total	53.8	74.0		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	5.2	10.8	10.8	8.3
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	6.6	6.8	7.5

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	1.8	1.9	2.7	1.2	2.8	*24.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.0	4.4	3.3	4.1	3.3	3.2	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	3.4	4.2	2.9	3.5	3.2	2.7	*31 988*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.6	2.2	1.0	2.0	0.8	0.5	*4 340*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.7	4.7	5.8	5.3	6.8	4.9	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	2.3	2.5	4.0	7.3	1.3	4.3
Natural increase	1.0	–0.3	1.0	1.7	–0.1	0.7
Net migration	1.2	2.8	3.0	5.6	1.4	3.6

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.4	–0.1	0.1	–	–0.1	0.1	*7 906*
Foreign-born	1.5	2.3	2.3	4.4	1.4	2.7	*1 175*
National	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	*8 589*
Foreign	–1.0	–2.0	–0.3	2.5	–2.1	0.7	*492*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	6.0	8.9	8.2	10.7	6.9	7.8	*51 239*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.2	75.8	76.3	77.1	73.8	76.7
Foreign-born men	51.7	59.6	64.1	65.6	56.1	64.9
Native-born women	71.7	73.2	72.9	73.1	71.4	73.8
Foreign-born women	50.0	54.7	57.5	58.0	50.6	58.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.8	5.1	7.9	6.0	8.2	5.7
Foreign-born men	28.1	13.5	15.6	13.6	22.0	13.1
Native-born women	7.0	4.3	7.8	6.4	6.8	5.3
Foreign-born women	19.9	11.2	14.1	13.3	17.7	11.4

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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Switzerland



Immigration into Switzerland increased in 2006, reaching a total of 102 700 persons, 63% of whom came from an EU country. This was the highest level since the beginning of the 1990s. Germans and Portuguese remained the two largest groups, accounting respectively for 24% and 12% of new arrivals. There was a decline in immigration from Italy (5%), Serbia (5%) and Spain (1.5%), which were formerly the main sending countries of foreign workers. This increase in immigration is primarily due to the growth of labour migration, although immigration for family and humanitarian reasons also rose in 2006. According to the OECD's standardised statistics, slightly more than 38 000 people immigrated to Switzerland for work purposes, a 20% increase over the previous year, accounting for approximately 44% of total permanent immigration in 2006.

In 2006, 10 530 asylum applications were filed (500 more than in 2005), reflecting a trend towards levelling off that marked, together with 2005, the lowest levels since the end of the 1980s. Among asylum seekers, some 1 200 were from Eritrea, which was a sharp increase over 2005 when 160 applications from this country were filed.

The number of naturalisations rose significantly (+20%) to approximately 46 700 in 2006 following the legislative amendments that entered into force on 1 January 2006 limiting costs and facilitating the naturalisation of certain groups of persons of Swiss ancestry. This is the highest level observed for several decades. Serbian nationals formed the largest group among those granted Swiss citizenship and accounted for over 25% of all naturalisations (roughly 11 700 persons).

In April 2006, the provisions of the treaty on the free movement of persons from EU15/EFTA countries were extended to the ten new EU member States, but these contain transitional arrangements that will apply until 2011 to salaried workers who are nationals of these states, with the exception of Cypriot and Maltese nationals. These transitional arrangements include quotas and gives priority to residents for labour market access. In addition, a provision is made for monitoring of wages and working conditions. Since June 2007, the labour market has been open to EU17 countries (EU15 as well as Cyprus and Malta) and to self-employed workers who are nationals of Central European countries (EU8). The negotiations with the EU aimed at extending the agreement on the free movement of Bulgarian and Romanian nationals ended in February 2008. The protocol on this extension provides for maintaining national restrictions on labour market access for a seven-year period. After these transitional arrangements end, a unilateral safeguard clause would allow Switzerland to reintroduce quotas for three years if there is considerable immigration. This protocol will be submitted to Parliament and to Swiss citizens if a referendum is held.

The new Alien Act entered into force on 1 January 2008. For the first time, the main objectives of policies concerning admission and labour market integration have been included in legislation. Among its other provisions, the new act limits the labour migration of nationals of countries outside the European Economic Area to skilled workers, eliminates certain barriers to professional and geographic mobility inside Switzerland and introduces stricter measures against illegal immigration, undeclared work and marriages of convenience. It also provides for the possibility of linking granting of residence permits and short stay permits with participation in a language or integration course through an integration agreement signed between the authorities and the migrant.

The new Asylum Act that entered into force in 1999 was partially amended between 2007 and 2008. Since January 2008, the asylum procedure has been streamlined and accelerated and the full asylum procedure similar to that practiced inside the country can now be conducted at airports. In addition, a flat-rate integration allowance is granted to recognised refugees and persons admitted on a provisional basis, new models of financing between the cantons and the Confederation have been established and return assistance programmes have been developed. In parallel with these legislative amendments, pilot projects – such as the "learning programme for refugees" – have been established.

The Schengen and Dublin association agreements, which involve, among other provisions, the removal of checks on persons at borders within the Schengen area and co-operation in determining the State responsible for examining an asylum application, are scheduled for implementation in autumn 2008. Since these agreements were signed in 2004, Switzerland has participated on a provisional basis in all working groups and committees dealing with these issues in the European Union.

As part of integration policy, major efforts are being made to provide language and other training through the development of skills centres. In this context, significant reform projects are being prepared, in particular in the fields of urban and employment policy.

For further information…

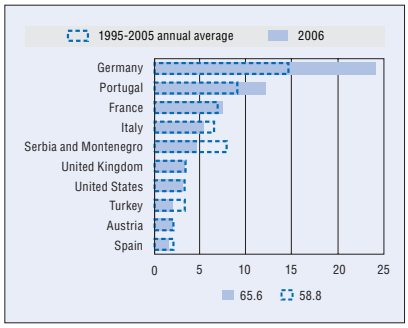
http://www.bfm.admin.ch

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	12.5	12.2	12.6	13.7	11.5	13.4	*102.7*
Outflows	9.6	7.8	6.7	7.1	8.7	6.8	*53.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	1.4	1.6	*1.8*	*1.9*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	19.7	18.1	*25.0*	*20.9*
Humanitarian	3.3	4.3	*4.2*	*5.0*
Free movements	52.4	60.3	*66.5*	*69.9*
Others	1.9	2.0	*2.5*	*2.4*
Total	78.8	86.3		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	8.6	9.4	9.0
Trainees	. .	0.3	0.2	0.3
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	49.3	–	–	–
Intra-company transfers	. .	1.8	4.0	6.9
Other temporary workers	. .	101.6	112.4	118.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.4	2.5	1.3	1.4	3.8	2.3	*10.5*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	0.4	3.6	2.4	3.2	2.0	1.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	–0.3	3.0	1.8	2.5	1.7	0.9	*33 119*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–	1.0	0.4	2.3	0.7	0.6	*4 291*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.3	2.5	4.3	3.8	3.3	3.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	4.7	5.0	6.5	6.4	3.4	7.1
Natural increase	2.7	2.2	1.6	1.7	2.5	1.5
Net migration	2.1	2.8	4.8	4.7	0.9	5.5

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.3	*5 698*
Foreign-born	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.2	0.9	2.3	*1 811*
National	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.6	*5 985*
Foreign	2.3	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	1.4	*1 524*

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	1.3	2.1	2.6	3.1	1.6	2.5	*46 711*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	85.1	85.8	. .	85.7
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	80.7	81.6	. .	81.3
Native-born women	. .	. .	73.1	73.7	. .	73.2
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	63.0	64.2	. .	63.6
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	2.7	2.4	. .	2.7
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	7.8	6.8	. .	7.3
Native-born women	. .	. .	3.7	3.3	. .	3.3
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	9.7	9.4	. .	9.4

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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Turkey



Although migration data for Turkey remains difficult to obtain, there are several indications that migration from and to Turkey in 2006 broadly continued similar trends to those observed in prior years.

Official emigration figures are not reported. The number of Turkish nationals seeking asylum continued to strongly decline, falling to around 8 000, a drop of about 30%. In contrast, contract-dependent temporary labour migration via the intermediary of the Turkish Employment Office increased by 35% in 2006 to reach about 81 000 persons. About half of this temporary migration is towards the Middle East (about 40 000, an increase of 60% over 2005). Within this region, Saudi Arabia stands out, accounting for 20 000 persons in 2006 – a three-fold increase compared to 2005. The remainder of the flows is essentially towards the Commonwealth of Independent States (about 37 000, an increase of 30%). Together, these two regions accounted for about 95% of the flows under this category. Temporary migration flows from Turkey to other OECD countries have been comparatively small for the past few years and in constant decline.

The number of granted residence permits in Turkey increased by almost one third and reached more than 186 000 in 2006. This increase is mainly due to permits granted on grounds other than work and study, including family migration. Irregular migration, *i.e.* clandestine workers (mainly from the Commonwealth of Independent States) and transit migrants (mainly from the Middle East) remains a significant element in international migration to Turkey. After a temporary fall in 2005, the number of apprehensions within Turkey (overstayers, mainly labour migrants) reached more than 50 000 in 2006, an increase of 19% compared to 2005). This figure is nevertheless still well below the peak of 95 000 in 2000. A similar evolution was observed with respect to apprehensions at the border (illegal entries and departures, mainly transit-type migrants).

Asylum seeking in Turkey increased by more than 15% compared to 2005 to reach 4 550 in 2006. This increase was due to the higher number of asylum applicants from Iran (+32%), in addition to a greater number of asylum seekers from Somalia and Sudan, whereas application figures showed a decline of 31% of the number of applicants from Iraq.

For the first time since 1998, remittances increased markedly (more than 30%) and reached USD 1.1 billion or 0.3% of GDP in 2006. This is nevertheless still well below the 1998 height of USD 5.4 billion. In addition, cash transfer by travel almost doubled compared to 2005, to reach about USD 6.4 billion – the highest figure in a decade.

Attempts by several institutions to improve the collection and compilation of data on international migration in Turkey have not progressed significantly. Likewise, discussions on integrating immigration and emigration statistics into the computer-based central population registration system, established in 2004, have not yet concretised.

The 1934 settlement law which generally restricts immigration to persons of "Turkish descent and culture" was altered in September 2006 to relax this restriction for refugees to ensure compatibility with the 1951 Geneva Convention.

This measure forms part of the national action plan of 2005 which envisages a complete reform of immigration legislation and comprehensive institutional changes by 2012, to gradually align the Turkish immigration framework with the EU *acquis*.

Also in the context of the action plan, various measures were taken in 2006 to improve reception and housing of migrants. This included the opening of a Refugee Acceptance Shelter in Istanbul. It is planned to establish such shelters in seven different provinces by 2010. Further integration measures for refugees are envisaged for the following years, including training programmes and provisions for health related issues, ensuring labour rights, providing social assistance and access to social and cultural events.

For further information…

www.iskur.gov.tr

www.tuik.gov.tr

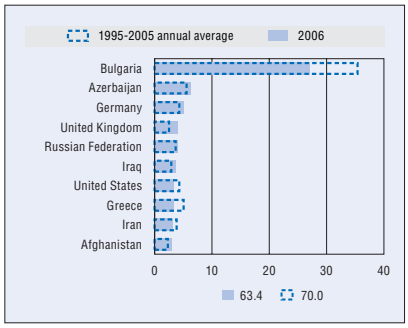
www.nvi.gov.tr/Hakkimizda/Projeler,Spot_Mernis.html

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) ***National definition***	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.3	*191.0*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type ***Permit based statistics (standardised)***	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	*4.6*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	7.2	7.4	7.4	6.1	3.9	7.2	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	5.3	2.4	7.0	4.8	2.1	5.9	*7 904*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.8	–2.1	1.7	1.2	0.9	0.7	*22 846*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.5	6.4	10.0	9.7	6.9	9.7	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	18.5	14.1	12.7	. .	17.3	13.2
Natural increase	16.9	14.1	12.7	. .	16.0	13.2
Net migration	1.6	–	–	. .	1.3	–

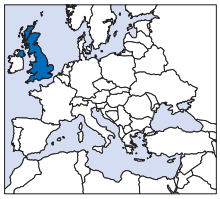
Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*5 072*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/434618123512

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

United Kingdom



The United Kingdom remains an important destination country for international migration flows as well as experiencing high levels of emigration by its own citizens. In 2006, the estimated number of people arriving to live in the UK for at least a year was 591 000, with an estimated 400 000 people leaving the UK giving a net gain of 191 000. There was a net gain of 71 000 citizens from the Eastern Europe states which joined the EU on 1 May 2004 (A8). The inflows of workers from the A8 countries, which were granted access to the UK labour market, have remained fairly steady since accession. 218 000 citizens of these countries registered under the Worker Registration Scheme between June 2006 and June 2007, in keeping with the annual average for the previous two years. More than two-thirds of these were Poles, with Lithuanians and Slovaks the next largest groups. Indeed, Poles are now the largest group of foreign citizens, with 406 000 (292 000 working) in 2007. The total number of A8 citizens was 587 000, of whom 409 000 were working, a much higher proportion than among the native-born.

The significant inflows of A8 citizens led the United Kingdom to impose a transitional period on citizens of Romania and Bulgaria following their entry into the EU on 1 January 2007.

Work permit approvals for non-EEA citizens totalled 141 000 in 2006, with computer services (about 22%) and health and medical services (about 18%) the main beneficiaries. Indians were the largest national group receiving work permits, accounting for 37% of the total approved. Indians also accounted for more than 40% of the about 22 000 entries under the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme.

The number of asylum applications declined 8% to 28 000 in 2006. 85% were made by people who had already entered the United Kingdom rather than at a port of entry.

In the policy domain, the main structural changes were the creation within the Home Office of the Border and Immigration Agency (BIA) and of two new advisory committees, the Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) and the Migration Impacts Forum (MIF). The BIA replaces the Immigration and Nationality Directorate and is intended to grant greater operation freedom while increasing accountability and clarifying responsibility.

The Migration Advisory Committee (MAC), composed of independent experts, is to identify labour market shortage areas where immigration might ease skill gaps. It will produce a biannual shortage occupation list starting in August 2008. The Migration Impacts Forum (MIF), active since the summer of 2007, assesses the wider, more qualitative, social implications of immigration.

The main reform in the UK is the ongoing introduction of a Points Based System (PBS) for labour migration. The five tiers into which the system is divided are being gradually implemented. Tier 1 (highly qualified) was implemented in the first quarter of 2008, to replace the former Highly Skilled Migrant Programme. At the same time, the register for employers who wish to sponsor labour migrants has been opened in preparation for the implementation of the sponsored tiers (that is, tiers 2 and 5) later in the year.

Tier 2 (for skilled workers with a job offer, religious workers, athletes and intra-company transferees) and Tier 5 (youth mobility and certain temporary workers) will become operational in the third quarter of 2008. Finally, Tier 4 (students) will commence in the first quarter of 2009. Some of the prior channels for migration will be integrated into the system (*e.g.* entrepreneurs and investors) while others, such as domestic workers, will be closed. Tier 3, intended for lower-skilled migrants, will not be activated. Existing seasonal and lower-skilled work programmes are open exclusively to Romanians and Bulgarians.

In February 2008, the Government published a proposal for a three stage route to citizenship, including a new probationary period between temporary and permanent residence or citizenship. Full access to benefits will be delayed until completion of the probationary period. To finance transitional impacts of migration on the provision of public services, fees increases for certain immigration applications are envisaged. Migrants who tend to consume more in public services – such as children and elderly relatives – are expected to pay more than others.

For further information…

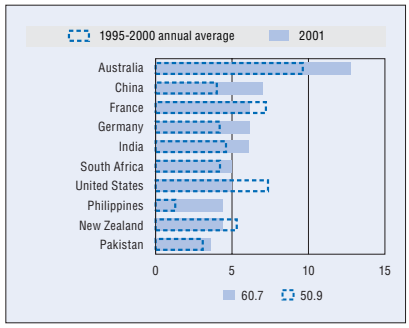
www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk/

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.9	6.4	7.9	8.4	4.8	7.5	*509.8*
Outflows	1.7	2.7	2.9	3.2	2.2	2.8	*193.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands		% distribution	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Work	89.8	99.3	*24.7*	*28.9*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	98.1	109.2	*27.0*	*31.8*
Humanitarian	67.8	30.6	*18.7*	*8.9*
Free movements	88.2	83.5	*24.3*	*24.3*
Others	19.2	20.7	*5.3*	*6.0*
Total	363.1	343.2		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	76.0	117.0	137.0	106.4
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	38.4	56.6	43.7	46.4
Seasonal workers	10.1	15.7	16.1	16.0
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	58.0	202.6	206.1	114.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.9	1.7	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.0	*28.3*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.9	3.8	1.8	2.8	3.2	2.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	2.7	3.4	1.2	2.3	2.9	2.1	*28 887*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.3	0.9	*29 017*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	8.6	5.5	4.8	5.5	6.9	5.1	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	2.6	3.7	. .	. .	3.0	. .
Natural increase	1.6	1.2	. .	. .	1.5	. .
Net migration	1.0	2.5	. .	. .	1.6	. .

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	0.1	–	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	*54 471*
Foreign-born	2.3	4.0	5.2	4.7	3.0	4.7	*6 116*
National	0.4	0.1	0.3	–	0.2	0.2	*57 195*
Foreign	–4.1	6.1	6.2	11.8	3.8	5.6	*3 392*

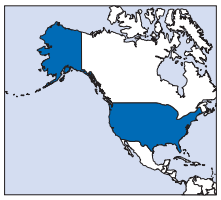
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	2.0	3.7	5.7	5.1	2.5	4.9	*154 095*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.4	78.3	77.9	77.1	76.9	77.9
Foreign-born men	67.3	71.1	72.4	76.2	69.8	73.1
Native-born women	62.3	65.7	67.0	67.0	64.1	66.7
Foreign-born women	51.3	53.1	56.1	56.5	53.0	55.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	9.9	5.9	4.7	5.5	7.8	5.1
Foreign-born men	14.2	9.6	7.5	7.4	11.3	7.7
Native-born women	6.7	4.6	3.7	4.5	5.5	4.0
Foreign-born women	11.0	7.8	7.1	7.9	8.8	7.1

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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United States



Permanent immigration to the USA rose again during the US Fiscal Year 2006 (1 October 2005 through 30 September 2006), with 1 266 000 people receiving lawful permanent residency status. This represents a 13% increase over FY (Fiscal Year) 2005 and the highest level since 1991. The increase mostly comprised humanitarian migrants, whose numbers increased sharply over the previous year from 143 000 to 216 000, and those migrating for family reunification, which rose from 649 000 to 803 000 – mainly the unrestricted class of immediate family members. Admissions under the employment-based preferences category, on the other hand, fell sharply from 247 000 to 159 000. The decline in employment-based immigration was largely due to administrative delays rather than a drop in demand or a change in the caps. More than half of the employment-based visas went to family members of the principal applicant.

Temporary H-1B visas for employment are the usual pathway from a temporary visa category to permanent residence. The number of H-1B visa holders has been steadily rising and reached 432 000 in 2006. Demand is much higher than availability: when 65 000 H-1B visas were made available in 2007, 150 000 applications were received on the first day alone.

The US continues to be the major global destination for international students, as enrolment rose 10%, to more than 580 000, in 2006-07. India (15%), China (12%) and South Korea (11%) are the main source countries. 20% of students are PhD level, and many of these acquire H-1B visas upon completion of their doctorates.

Estimates by both government and research bodies place the undocumented population in the US at between 11 and 12 million in 2006, representing a net inflow of about 400-500 000 undocumented immigrants annually since the last regularisation in the late 1980s. More than 7 million are estimated to be active in the labour force (about 5% of the labour force).

Temporary migration schemes for lower-skilled workers played a smaller role. While there is no cap for the category, fewer than 50 000 seasonal agricultural workers (H-2A) entered in 2006. Temporary workers for other sectors (H-2B) face a cap of 66 000, but returning workers were exempted and reached 134 000 in 2006. Demand far exceeded available visas. The law exempting returning workers from the cap expired at the end of 2007 and by early March 2008 had not been renewed.

Fee increases in mid-2007, as well as concern about changes in the migration system and interest in political participation, led to a sharp increase in applications for naturalisation in the first part of 2007, reaching 1 million. Fee increases for "green cards" also led to a spike in applications.

A comprehensive immigration reform bill was introduced in the US Senate in 2007. The bill addressed five critical areas: securing the border; holding employers accountable for the workers they hire; creating a temporary worker program; resolving the status of the millions of illegal immigrants already in the country; finding new ways to help newcomers assimilate into society. The reform package failed to gain sufficient support. A subsequent attempt to pass reform of the seasonal agricultural worker programme ("AgJOBS") was also defeated.

The continuation of the Diversity Immigrant Visa programme (the Green Card lottery) has been placed in doubt as during FY 2007 both chambers of the US Congress passed bills that would eliminate funding for the program. The final outcome of this potential legislation now rests with a bicameral conference committee.

While attempts at reform at the national level were unsuccessful, state and local governments have increased their regulatory activity in the domain of immigration. In 2007, about 1 600 pieces of legislation related to immigration were presented at the state level, three times the previous year's total. The main areas of legislative change related to the issuance of drivers' licenses to undocumented foreigners, access to benefits, and employment. Some states have increased sanctions and enforcement for employment of undocumented workers, while others have attempted to extend benefits and access.

For further information…

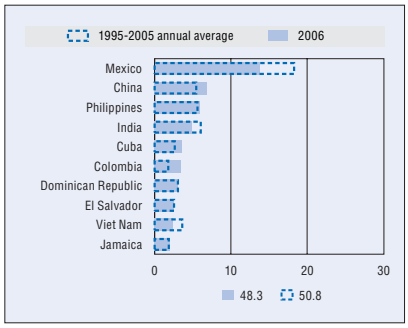
www.dhs.gov/ximgtn/
www.foreignlaborcert.doleta.gov/
www.dol.gov/compliance/laws/comp-ina.htm

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.7	3.0	3.8	4.2	2.8	3.5	*1 266.3*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2005	Thousands 2006	% distribution 2005	% distribution 2006
Work	114.0	71.4	*10.2*	*5.6*
Family (incl. accompanying family)	782.1	890.4	*69.7*	*70.3*
Humanitarian	143.0	216.5	*12.7*	*17.1*
Free movements	–	–	–	–
Others	83.3	88.0	*7.4*	*7.0*
Total	1 122.4	1 266.3		

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2000	2005	2006	Annual average 2000-2006
Thousands				
International students	284.1	237.9	273.9	251.2
Trainees	1.5	1.8	2.4	1.6
Working holiday makers	236.8	275.2	310.0	263.7
Seasonal workers	30.2	31.9	37.1	32.0
Intra-company transfers	55.0	65.5	72.6	61.4
Other temporary workers	226.7	260.8	256.0	248.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	*41.1*

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.5	3.7	3.1	2.9	4.1	2.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	1.3	2.5	2.1	1.9	2.9	1.7	*37 572*
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.1	*144 419*
Unemployment (% of labour force)	5.6	4.0	5.1	4.6	4.8	5.3	

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Total	10.3	10.3	9.7	9.6	10.3	9.7
Natural increase	6.0	5.7	5.8	5.6	5.8	5.7
Net migration	4.4	4.6	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.1

Total population	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level ('000) 2006
(Annual growth %)							
Native-born	. .	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.6	*260 344*
Foreign-born	. .	5.1	2.0	1.9	4.8	3.8	*39 055*
National	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006	Level 2006
As a percentage of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*702 589*

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2005	2006	Average 1995-2000	Average 2001-2006
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.0	76.7	73.3	73.8	76.2	73.9
Foreign-born men	76.9	81.6	81.7	82.9	79.3	81.0
Native-born women	65.2	67.8	65.3	65.4	66.6	65.9
Foreign-born women	53.3	57.3	56.4	58.2	56.2	57.1
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.2	4.5	6.3	5.8	5.6	6.4
Foreign-born men	7.9	4.5	5.1	4.1	6.1	5.5
Native-born women	5.3	4.2	5.2	4.8	4.7	5.1
Foreign-born women	8.2	5.5	5.2	4.9	6.5	6.2

Notes and sources are at the beginning of the Chapter.

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STATISTICAL ANNEX

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex are taken from the individual contributions of national correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of Member countries. Consequently, these data have not necessarily been harmonised at international level. This network of correspondents, constituting the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI), covers most OECD Member countries as well as Lithuania, Bulgaria and Romania. SOPEMI has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It is an observatory which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well-documented statistics.

No data are presented on the native population, since the purpose of this annex is to describe the "immigrant" population (generally the foreign-born population). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population and immigrant labour force, together with data on acquisition of nationality. The presentation of the tables in a relatively standard format does not imply that the data have been fully standardised and are comparable at an international level, since few of the data sources used are specifically designed to record migration movements. Because of the great variety of sources used, different populations may be measured. In addition, the criteria for registering population and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if a theoretically unique source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of illegal migrants. Part of this population can be counted through censuses. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to account for a far from negligible fraction of illegal immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible to better evaluate the volume of the foreign population at a given time, although it is not always possible to classify these immigrants according to the year they entered the country.

The series have been presented in the following order: first the series on the total population (series 1.1 to 1.6 consisting of inflows and outflows of the foreign population, inflows of asylum seekers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign populations, acquisition of nationality); then the series on the labour force (series 2.1 to 2.4): inflows of foreign workers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign labour force).

Since the nature of the sources used differs considerably across countries, each series is preceded by an explanatory note aimed at making it easier to understand and use the data presented. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each host

country), and finally the tables by nationality or country of birth, as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides the sources and notes of the data presented in the tables for each country.

General comments on tables

a) The tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1997-2006).

b) The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other tables, nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.

c) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.

d) Tables on inflows of asylum seekers by nationality (series B.1.3) are presented for the top ten host countries in 2006. The data on outflows of the foreign population (series 1.2) and inflows of workers (series 2.1) are not broken down by nationality. Only totals are presented, in Tables A.1.2 and A.2.1 respectively. However, data on outflows of foreigners by nationality (series B.1.2) are available via the OECD Database on International Migration under *http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/Index.aspx?datasetcode=MIG*.

e) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.

f) The symbols used in the tables are the following:

. . Data not available.

– Nil, or negligible.

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

OECD countries seldom have tools specifically designed to measure the inflows and outflows of the foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. This note is aimed at describing more systematically what is measured by each of the sources used.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners. To register, foreigners may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as the minimum registration period. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, although the period of (intended) absence is not always specified.

When population registers are used, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform about his departure to avoid losing rights related to the presence on the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries (as the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants ranges from three months to one year), which poses major problems of international comparison. For example, in some countries, register data cover a portion of temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants) and international students.

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called "settlement countries" (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been granted the right of permanent residence. Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries since the legal duration of their residence is often similar to long-term migration (over a year). In the case of France, the permits covered are those valid for at least one year (excluding students). Data for Italy and Portugal include temporary migrants.

Another characteristic of permit data is that flows of nationals are not recorded. Some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, either because the type of permit they hold is not tabulated in the statistics or because they are not required to have a permit (freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: *i)* permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; *ii)* permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit.

Permit data may be influenced by the processing capacity of government agencies. In some instances a large backlog of applications may build up and therefore the true demand for permits may only emerge once backlogs are cleared.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Data for the United Kingdom are based on a survey of passengers entering or exiting the country by plane, train or boat (International Passenger Survey). One of the aims of this survey is to estimate the number and characteristics of migrants. The survey is based on a random sample of approximately one out of every 500 passengers. The figures were revised significantly following the latest census in each of these two countries, which seems to indicate that these estimates do not constitute an "ideal" source either. Australia and New Zealand also conduct passenger surveys which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants' stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Inflow data based on population registers:										
Austria	. .	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8	92.6	97.2	108.9	101.5	85.4
Belgium	49.2	50.7	57.8	57.3	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4	77.4	83.4
Czech Republic	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2 |	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8	58.6	66.1
Denmark	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2	22.0	18.7	18.8	20.1	*23.0*
Finland	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5	12.7	13.9
Germany	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2	579.3	558.5
Hungary	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	22.2	25.6	19.4
Japan	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0	372.3	325.6
Luxembourg	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0	12.6	12.2	13.8	13.7
Netherlands	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1	63.4	67.7
Norway	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9	31.4	37.4
Slovak Republic	6.1	6.4	5.9	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	7.9	7.7	11.3
Spain	35.6	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8	682.7	803.0
Sweden	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6	48.0	47.6	51.3	80.4
Switzerland	72.8	74.9	85.8	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0	96.3	94.4	102.7
Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:										
Australia										
Permanent inflows	104.6	94.2	101.0	111.3	131.2	121.2	125.9	150.0	167.3	179.8
Temporary inflows	147.1	173.2	194.1	224.0	245.1	240.5	244.7	261.6	289.4	321.6
Canada										
Permanent inflows	216.0	174.2	190.0	227.5	250.6	229.0	221.4	235.8	262.2	251.6
Temporary inflows	194.4	198.4	232.8	260.9	282.0	262.0	243.3	244.3	246.7	268.1
France	74.5	110.7	82.8	91.9	106.9	124.3	136.4	141.6	135.9	135.1
Greece	. .	38.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ireland	23.7	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	42.4	41.8	66.1	88.9
Italy	. .	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	. .	319.3	206.8	181.5
Korea	. .	. .	. .	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3	188.8	266.3	314.7
Mexico	27.1	25.3	22.7	24.2	26.1	24.6	29.1	34.0	39.3	47.6
New Zealand	32.9	27.4	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2	54.1	49.8
Poland	. .	5.2	17.3	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.9	38.5	34.2
Portugal	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9 |	151.4	72.0	31.8	34.1	28.1	42.2
Turkey	128.5	143.0	154.3	162.3	154.9	151.8	147.2	148.0	169.7	191.0
United Kingdom	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2	406.8	494.1	473.8	509.8
United States										
Permanent inflows	797.8	653.2	644.8	841.0	1 058.9	1 059.4	703.5	957.9	1 122.4	1 266.3
Temporary inflows	999.6	997.3	1 106.6	1 249.4	1 375.1	1 282.6	1 233.4	1 299.3	1 323.5	1 457.9
EU25 (among above countries) + Norway and Switzerland	. .	**1 604.7**	**1 945.2**	**2 226.4**	**2 487.7**	**2 713.2**	**2 209.4**	**2 857.5**	**2 769.0**	**2 957.5**
North America (permanent)	**1 013.9**	**827.4**	**834.7**	**1 068.5**	**1 309.5**	**1 288.4**	**924.9**	**1 193.7**	**1 384.6**	**1 517.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430155301562

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Outflow data based on population registers:										
Austria	. .	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0	38.8	46.1	48.3	47.5	52.9
Belgium	34.6	36.3	36.4	35.6	31.4	31.0	33.9	37.7	38.5	39.4
Czech Republic	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2 |	20.6	31.1	33.2	33.8	21.8	31.4
Denmark	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.9	8.7	8.7	9.4	9.4	*9.8*
Finland	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3	4.2	2.6	2.7
Germany	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.4	497.0	505.6	499.1	547.0	483.6	483.8
Hungary	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.6	3.5	3.3	3.2
Japan	177.8	188.1	199.7	210.9	232.8	248.4	259.4	278.5	292.0	218.8
Luxembourg	5.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.8	8.3	6.9	7.5	7.2	7.7
Netherlands	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9	23.5	24.0	26.5
Norway	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3	13.9	12.6	12.5
Sweden	15.3	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.7	14.3	15.1	16.0	15.9	20.0
Switzerland	63.4	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7	49.7	46.3	47.9	49.7	53.0
Outflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:										
Australia										
Permanent departures	18.2	19.2	17.9	20.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	29.9	31.6	33.6
Long-term departures	28.6	30.3	29.4	30.0	42.2	31.9	29.5	29.6	31.8	34.4
Korea	. .	. .	. .	89.1	107.2	114.0	152.3	148.8	266.7	183.0
Mexico	27.0	25.0	21.5	22.6	25.7	26.8	24.4	24.1	30.3	31.7
New Zealand	14.7	16.2	15.9	15.6	28.6	22.4	25.4	29.0	30.6	20.5
United Kingdom	130.6	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7	170.6	146.5	173.8	193.7

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430166546443

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	12.8	12.2	11.7	12.1	13.2	14.1	17.6	24.0	24.5	29.7
New Zealand	13.1	14.7	18.7	21.9	25.2	15.7	12.4	14.4	17.4	19.0
China	9.9	5.5	7.3	9.7	11.5	9.9	10.0	13.3	16.0	18.1
India	3.1	3.2	3.0	5.1	7.1	7.8	8.3	11.4	12.9	15.3
Philippines	3.5	3.4	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.6	3.8	4.7	5.0	5.6
South Africa	3.6	4.9	5.9	6.7	7.5	7.5	6.3	7.6	6.3	5.5
Malaysia	1.3	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.7	2.7	3.9	5.1	4.8	4.8
Korea	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.2	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.5	4.0
Sri Lanka	2.2	1.7	1.3	1.7	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.2	3.1	3.3
Viet Nam	3.3	2.6	2.5	2.0	2.2	2.6	3.2	2.8	2.5	3.1
Indonesia	2.1	2.4	3.1	3.5	4.5	5.8	4.8	4.4	3.9	3.3
Thailand	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.2
United States	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.8	2.9
Sudan	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	1.2	1.1	2.8	4.6	5.7	3.8
Singapore	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.7	2.0	2.5	3.1	4.1	3.7
Other countries	43.7	37.3	36.9	37.1	42.6	39.5	41.5	45.2	52.9	55.3
Total	**104.6**	**94.2**	**101.0**	**111.3**	**131.2**	**121.2**	**125.9**	**150.0**	**167.3**	**179.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430403765750

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Germany	6.6	7.5	7.7	10.4	8.3	10.9	13.2	15.1	16.2
Serbia and Montenegro	9.4	13.5	6.4	6.2	8.8	9.3	11.4	11.6	7.4
Poland	5.0	5.1	3.5	3.5	2.5	2.9	7.2	7.1	6.0
Turkey	5.9	7.2	7.0	7.7	10.4	9.7	8.3	7.8	4.9
Romania	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.4	4.2	5.1	5.5	5.3	4.8
Hungary	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1	2.2	2.5	3.2	3.5	3.7
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.3	3.6	3.7	3.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.3	3.8	4.4	5.4	4.0	4.8	5.2	4.6	3.2
Croatia	2.6	3.9	4.1	6.5	3.1	2.9	3.3	2.9	2.5
Italy	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6
Czech Republic	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2
Macedonia	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.4	0.9
Slovenia	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6
Other countries	17.2	20.9	22.4	21.9	42.7	42.5	43.2	35.1	28.5
Total	**59.2**	**72.4**	**66.0**	**74.8**	**92.6**	**97.2**	**108.9**	**101.5**	**85.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430408525031

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
France	7.0	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	9.5	10.4	11.6
Netherlands	6.3	6.2	6.2	7.2	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.8	10.1	11.5
Morocco	3.9	4.3	4.9	5.7	7.1	8.5	8.4	8.0	7.1	7.5
Poland	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.9	2.4	2.1	3.5	4.8	6.7
Germany	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.3
Romania	0.4	. .	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	2.3	3.1
Turkey	1.4	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.4	3.0
Italy	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.6
United States	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.6
Portugal	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0
United Kingdom	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0
Spain	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.8
India	0.4	. .	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5
China	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.5
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Other countries	13.0	14.0	18.6	15.1	18.5	19.9	19.3	20.2	21.5	21.7
Total	**49.2**	**50.7**	**57.8**	**57.3**	**66.0**	**70.2**	**68.8**	**72.4**	**77.4**	**83.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430462127204

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CANADA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	18.5	19.8	29.1	36.8	40.4	33.3	36.3	36.4	42.3	33.1
India	19.6	15.4	17.5	26.1	27.9	28.8	24.6	25.6	33.1	30.8
Philippines	10.9	8.2	9.2	10.1	12.9	11.0	12.0	13.3	17.5	17.7
Pakistan	11.2	8.1	9.3	14.2	15.4	14.2	12.4	12.8	13.6	12.3
United States	5.0	4.8	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.5	9.3	10.9
Iran	7.5	6.8	5.9	5.6	5.7	7.9	5.7	6.1	5.5	7.1
United Kingdom	4.7	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.2	6.1	5.9	6.5
Korea	4.0	4.9	7.2	7.6	9.6	7.3	7.1	5.3	5.8	6.2
Colombia	0.6	0.9	1.3	2.2	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.4	6.0	5.8
France	2.9	3.9	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.1	5.0	5.4	4.9
Sri Lanka	5.1	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.0	4.4	4.1	4.7	4.5
Romania	3.9	3.0	3.5	4.4	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.7	5.0	4.4
Bangladesh	2.9	1.9	1.8	2.7	3.4	2.6	1.9	2.4	3.9	3.8
Viet Nam	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.8	3.1
Germany	2.1	2.1	2.9	2.4	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0
Other countries	115.4	85.7	82.2	92.8	101.6	92.1	88.2	96.9	99.7	97.4
Total	**216.0**	**174.2**	**190.0**	**227.5**	**250.6**	**229.1**	**221.4**	**235.8**	**262.2**	**251.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430484630112

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ukraine	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.1	2.8	10.7	15.5	16.3	23.9	30.2
Slovak Republic	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.0	2.4	13.0	23.7	15.0	10.1	6.8
Viet Nam	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.3	2.2	5.7	3.6	4.5	4.9	6.4
Russian Federation	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	2.4	1.8	2.0	3.3	4.7
Moldova	0.1	–	0.1	–	0.2	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.7	2.4
United States	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.8
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.5
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.9
Bulgaria	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.4	0.8
Belarus	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5
Romania	0.2	0.2	0.1	–	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Other countries	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.8	1.5	5.9	5.2	5.3	6.0	6.3
Total	**9.9**	**7.9**	**6.8**	**4.2** |	**11.3**	**43.6**	**57.4**	**50.8**	**58.6**	**66.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430505345363

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Germany	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.4
Poland	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3
Norway	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2
China	. .	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.5	1.3	1.1
Iceland	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1
Sweden	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0
Ukraine	. .	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9
United Kingdom	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7
United States	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Lithuania	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6
France	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Philippines	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5
India	. .	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5
Thailand	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5
Spain	. .	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Other countries	13.6	12.9	12.0	14.5	16.3	12.8	9.1	8.0	7.8
Total	**20.4**	**21.3**	**20.3**	**22.9**	**25.2**	**22.0**	**18.7**	**18.8**	**20.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430505862748

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Estonia	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.5
Russian Federation	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1
Sweden	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
China	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5
Thailand	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Turkey	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Somalia	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Viet Nam	0.1	0.2	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	–	0.3
Iran	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Serbia and Montenegro	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.3	–	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Iraq	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.9	4.1	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8	5.1
Total	**8.1**	**8.3**	**7.9**	**9.1**	**11.0**	**10.0**	**9.4**	**11.5**	**12.7**	**13.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430602626620

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Algeria	12.2	16.7	11.4	12.4	15.0	23.4	28.5	27.9	24.8	25.4
Morocco	10.3	16.1	14.3	17.4	19.2	21.8	22.6	22.2	20.0	19.2
Turkey	5.1	6.8	5.8	6.6	6.9	8.5	8.6	9.1	8.9	8.3
Tunisia	3.6	5.3	4.0	5.6	6.6	7.8	9.4	8.8	7.9	8.2
Cameroon	1.3	2.4	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.1	4.3	4.4
China	2.8	5.7	1.7	1.8	2.3	1.8	2.4	2.9	2.8	4.3
Congo	1.0	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.3	3.3	3.8	4.2	4.1	4.0
Côte d'Ivoire	1.5	2.5	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.8	3.6
Mali	1.5	4.2	2.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.9
Haiti	1.9	1.9	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.1	2.8
Senegal	1.6	3.0	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.7
Russian Federation	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.0	2.5
United States	2.8	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.3
Madagascar	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
Romania	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8
Other countries	26.7	38.2	29.5	31.0	36.6	37.8	38.1	40.9	42.4	40.8
Total	**74.5**	**110.7**	**82.8**	**91.9**	**106.9**	**124.3**	**136.4**	**141.6**	**135.9**	**135.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430608418756

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Poland	71.3	66.3	72.4	74.3	79.0	81.6	88.2	125.0	147.7	152.7
Turkey	57.0	49.2	48.1	50.0	54.7	58.1	49.8	42.6	36.0	30.7
Romania	14.1	17.0	18.8	24.2	20.1	24.0	23.8	23.5	23.3	23.7
Hungary	11.1	13.3	14.9	16.1	17.0	16.5	14.3	17.4	18.6	18.7
Italy	39.5	35.6	34.9	33.2	28.8	25.0	21.6	19.6	18.3	18.3
Russian Federation	28.9	26.4	32.8	32.7	35.9	36.5	31.8	28.5	23.1	17.1
United States	14.9	16.0	16.8	16.5	16.0	15.5	14.7	15.3	15.2	15.4
China	6.8	7.2	10.1	14.7	19.1	18.5	16.1	13.1	12.0	13.2
France	14.4	14.3	15.3	15.3	13.5	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.3	12.7
Slovak Republic	6.9	6.5	9.1	10.8	11.4	11.6	10.6	11.6	11.8	11.4
Serbia and Montenegro	31.2	59.9	87.8	33.0	28.3	26.4	22.8	21.7	17.5	11.3
Netherlands	7.0	6.5	6.5	7.0	8.4	9.9	9.1	9.1	10.1	10.7
India	5.3	4.7	5.1	6.5	8.9	9.4	9.2	9.1	8.4	9.5
Austria	10.5	11.1	11.9	11.9	11.6	10.2	9.2	9.0	8.6	8.9
Croatia	10.4	10.1	12.6	14.4	14.1	13.1	11.6	10.5	9.3	8.6
Other countries	285.9	261.5	276.8	288.2	318.2	289.5	256.8	233.6	207.1	195.4
Total	**615.3**	**605.5**	**673.9**	**648.8**	**685.3**	**658.3**	**601.8**	**602.2**	**579.3**	**558.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430505663881

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	1998
Russian Federation	4.8
Bulgaria	2.9
Albania	2.7
Egypt	2.2
Romania	2.1
Ukraine	1.7
Former Yugoslavia	1.4
United States	1.4
Poland	1.3
Germany	1.3
United Kingdom	1.2
Philippines	1.0
Turkey	0.8
Syria	0.7
Lebanon	0.7
Other countries	12.0
Total	**38.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430672553585

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Romania	4.0	5.5	7.8	8.9	10.6	10.3	9.6	12.1	8.9	6.8
Ukraine	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.6	3.6	2.1	2.4
China	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.5
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.1	3.9	1.2
Serbia and Montenegro	0.8	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.0	0.4	0.7	1.6	1.1	1.1
Slovak Republic	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.9
Austria	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.8	0.6
Viet Nam	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4
Israel	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4
United States	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3
Russian Federation	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.3
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.3	0.2
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2
Mongolia	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other countries	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.3	5.0	2.6
Total	**13.3**	**16.1**	**20.2**	**20.2**	**20.3**	**18.0**	**19.4**	**22.2**	**25.6**	**19.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430702256283

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.4	9.0	7.4	9.1	7.4	8.9	9.9
United States	4.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.7	2.7	2.1	2.3	2.1	1.7
Other countries	11.1	10.8	11.5	16.9	20.0	29.8	31.2	32.1	55.1	77.3
Total	**23.7**	**21.7**	**22.2**	**27.8**	**32.7**	**39.9**	**42.4**	**41.8**	**66.1**	**88.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430743384138

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Romania	5.9	20.9	20.7	18.7	50.2	. .	62.3	37.2	32.5
Albania	11.2	37.2	31.2	27.9	39.1	. .	29.6	17.1	16.1
Morocco	7.3	24.9	24.7	17.8	26.1	. .	24.6	11.5	12.7
Poland	3.9	6.7	7.1	8.7	15.3	. .	14.3	13.1	10.5
China	3.4	11.0	15.4	8.8	15.4	. .	10.6	9.3	6.0
Brazil	2.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	6.9	. .	8.0	7.1	5.8
Moldova	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .	. .	5.1	5.2	5.4
Ukraine	1.0	2.6	4.1	5.1	8.1	. .	11.2	6.8	5.4
United States	4.7	5.7	7.2	7.3	11.2	. .	8.0	6.4	4.8
India	2.6	5.4	7.0	4.8	7.2	. .	5.7	4.2	4.8
Serbia and Montenegro	5.7	24.5	5.3	6.0	8.2	. .	6.3	3.4	3.9
Macedonia	1.6	5.7	3.9	4.7	5.2	. .	4.3	3.4	3.6
Tunisia	1.5	5.8	6.8	6.5	8.0	. .	6.0	4.3	3.3
Bangladesh	. .	3.2	6.6	. .	4.7	. .	3.5	2.5	2.9
Peru	1.6	4.8	4.7	. .	7.7	. .	4.4	2.7	2.8
Other countries	58.2	106.3	121.2	111.9	174.9	. .	115.5	72.8	61.0
Total	**111.0**	**268.0**	**271.5**	**232.8**	**388.1**	**. .**	**319.3**	**206.8**	**181.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430781516622

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	52.3	55.7	59.1	75.3	86.4	88.6	92.2	90.3	105.8	112.5
Philippines	43.2	47.6	57.3	74.2	84.9	87.2	93.4	96.2	63.5	28.3
Brazil	39.6	21.9	26.1	45.5	29.7	22.7	33.4	32.2	33.9	27.0
Korea	17.9	17.1	23.1	24.3	24.7	22.9	21.9	22.8	22.7	24.7
United States	27.7	27.7	24.7	24.0	20.6	21.5	21.5	21.3	22.1	22.2
Indonesia	10.2	8.6	8.8	9.9	10.6	9.7	11.1	10.7	12.9	11.4
Thailand	6.4	7.5	6.4	6.6	6.8	5.9	6.6	7.1	9.0	8.7
Viet Nam	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.6	6.5	7.7	8.5
United Kingdom	6.9	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.6
Russian Federation	5.1	4.6	4.3	6.4	6.3	6.6	7.7	7.1	6.2	5.0
Other countries	62.8	65.0	62.0	68.7	69.7	66.9	73.1	71.4	82.2	70.7
Total	**274.8**	**265.5**	**281.9**	**345.8**	**351.2**	**343.8**	**373.9**	**372.0**	**372.3**	**325.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430786828458

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	66.6	70.6	60.0	57.7	72.6	119.3	163.4
Viet Nam	7.6	. .	3.2	6.8	8.0	18.2	20.2
United States	14.7	16.2	19.0	17.1	17.7	18.8	19.4
Philippines	13.4	7.8	8.1	10.2	10.2	16.7	17.9
Thailand	8.0	6.7	6.8	7.2	9.7	13.7	15.8
Mongolia	4.8	4.9	. .	. .	5.1	8.3	9.8
Japan	7.2	8.0	8.5	7.3	7.7	8.6	7.8
Indonesia	7.9	7.2	10.0	9.3	5.2	10.3	6.9
Canada	. .	4.2	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.8	5.9
Russian Federation	7.5	8.0	9.5	10.8	6.6	6.2	5.2
Other countries	47.6	39.0	40.3	46.5	40.4	40.6	42.4
Total	**185.4**	**172.5**	**170.9**	**178.3**	**188.8**	**266.3**	**314.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430821381342

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Portugal	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.8
France	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.5
Germany	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9
Belgium	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3
United States	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Netherlands	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Other countries	2.8	3.5	4.5	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	4.2	3.7
Total	**9.4**	**10.6**	**11.8**	**10.8**	**11.1**	**11.0**	**12.6**	**12.2**	**13.8**	**13.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430844473051

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Germany	5.7	4.7	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.3	5.9	7.2
Poland	1.4	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	4.5	5.7	6.8
United Kingdom	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.9	4.8	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.6
United States	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.5	3.1
China	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.0	3.0	2.9
Turkey	6.5	5.1	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.4	6.2	4.1	3.1	2.8
India	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.0
France	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0
Morocco	4.5	5.3	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.9	4.5	3.3	2.1	1.7
Belgium	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7
Italy	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6
Portugal	. .	. .	. .	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4
Spain	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4
Japan	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2
Indonesia	. .	. .	. .	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1
Other countries	41.6	47.9	46.7	54.0	54.6	46.6	35.3	29.2	27.6	27.3
Total	**76.7**	**81.7**	**78.4**	**91.4**	**94.5**	**86.6**	**73.6**	**65.1**	**63.4**	**67.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430863180453

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	5.5	4.4	4.4	5.0	6.8	6.6	8.2	8.7	17.1	13.0
China	4.5	3.5	3.1	4.3	7.9	7.6	5.9	4.0	5.6	6.8
India	2.2	2.2	2.7	4.3	7.4	8.2	4.8	3.1	3.5	3.7
South Africa	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	4.8	3.3	2.4	2.4	4.5	3.6
Fiji	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.2	3.6	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.7
Samoa	2.2	1.5	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.1
Korea	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.1
Philippines	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.7
United States	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.1	1.6
Tonga	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.2
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9
Malaysia	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7
Myanmar	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6
Japan	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.6
Other countries	8.9	6.9	9.0	10.1	13.2	10.6	9.1	8.2	9.6	7.7
Total	**32.9**	**27.4**	**31.0**	**37.6**	**54.4**	**47.5**	**43.0**	**36.2**	**54.1**	**49.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430867650530

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Poland	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.6	3.3	7.4
Sweden	4.9	6.0	4.5	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.7	3.4
Germany	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.3
Denmark	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5
Lithuania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.3
Somalia	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.1	1.2
Russian Federation	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.1
Philippines	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1
Thailand	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1
United Kingdom	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.0
Iraq	0.7	1.1	2.1	4.5	1.2	2.7	1.1	1.0	1.4	0.9
Netherlands	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8
United States	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
China	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Afghanistan	–	–	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.7	0.8	0.6
Other countries	9.1	10.7	17.2	10.6	11.2	12.4	10.8	11.6	11.9	12.5
Total	**22.0**	**26.7**	**32.2**	**27.8**	**25.4**	**30.8**	**26.8**	**27.9**	**31.4**	**37.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430865154376

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ukraine	0.9	2.6	3.4	4.8	6.9	8.4	10.2	9.8	9.6
Germany	0.2	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.2	6.1	4.6
Belarus	0.2	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3
Russian Federation	0.4	1.1	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.8
Viet Nam	0.8	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.9	1.7
Armenia	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.3
United States	0.2	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9
India	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
Turkey	–	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7
Bulgaria	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6
France	–	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.1	0.5
Korea	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Japan	–	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5
United Kingdom	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.4
China	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4
Other countries	1.5	6.2	4.6	6.4	8.9	8.1	9.6	8.9	7.6
Total	**5.2**	**17.3**	**15.9**	**21.5**	**30.2**	**30.3**	**36.9**	**38.5**	**34.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430867755085

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Brazil	0.3	0.7	1.2	1.7	26.6	14.7	6.7	14.4	9.5	11.4
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.5	17.5	4.1	1.9	1.6	7.7
Cape Verde	0.2	0.8	1.0	2.1	9.1	5.9	3.4	3.1	3.5	4.1
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.1	4.0	1.4	1.7	1.8	3.9
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.8	3.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	2.0
Guinea-Bissau	0.1	0.2	1.0	1.6	5.1	2.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.3
China	. .	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.9	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	1.3
Angola	–	0.4	0.9	2.5	7.6	4.7	2.1	1.1	1.2	1.1
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.6	2.0	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.1
Sao Tome and Principe	–	0.1	0.3	0.6	2.6	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9
United Kingdom	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.8
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.7
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6
United States	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4
Mozambique	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4
Other countries	2.1	3.3	5.1	5.9	20.4	10.5	7.4	5.5	4.7	4.3
Total	**3.3**	**6.5**	**10.5**	**15.9 |**	**151.4**	**72.0**	**31.8**	**34.1**	**28.1**	**42.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430878542440

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2003	2004	2005	2006
Czech Republic	0.6	1.6	1.1	1.3
Poland	0.1	0.9	0.5	1.1
Ukraine	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.0
Germany	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9
Serbia and Montenegro	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6
Hungary	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5
Korea	–	0.1	0.3	0.5
Viet Nam	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5
Austria	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4
Romania	–	0.1	0.1	0.4
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
United States	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
France	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	1.3	1.7	1.7	2.2
Total	**4.6**	**7.9**	**7.7**	**11.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430881306604

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Romania	0.2	0.5	1.8	17.5	23.3	48.3	55.0	49.5	94.0	111.9
Bolivia	0.1	0.2	0.5	3.3	4.9	10.6	18.1	35.3	38.3	69.5
Morocco	6.9	10.6	14.9	38.3	39.5	40.2	40.9	58.8	69.3	60.8
United Kingdom	2.7	4.5	7.9	10.9	16.0	25.3	32.1	44.3	41.6	39.5
Brazil	0.6	0.9	1.6	4.1	4.3	4.7	7.3	13.0	20.8	28.2
Colombia	1.0	2.3	7.5	46.1	71.2	34.2	10.9	16.6	20.5	27.9
Argentina	0.9	1.2	1.9	6.7	16.0	35.4	24.8	23.2	23.7	23.0
Peru	1.2	2.1	2.9	6.0	7.1	8.0	13.3	13.0	17.1	18.9
Portugal	0.9	1.4	2.1	3.0	3.1	3.5	5.1	8.0	12.0	18.7
Bulgaria	0.1	0.2	0.7	6.5	11.8	15.9	13.6	17.9	15.5	17.7
Germany	4.1	7.1	9.3	10.2	10.7	11.2	11.1	11.8	13.5	15.4
Ecuador	0.6	2.0	9.0	91.1	82.6	89.0	72.6	11.9	11.6	14.3
Poland	0.2	0.4	0.8	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.5	6.1	7.2	13.8
China	0.8	1.0	1.6	4.8	5.2	5.7	7.3	14.4	14.7	13.2
Dominican Republic	1.3	2.2	2.9	5.5	5.4	5.5	6.6	8.2	10.5	12.3
Other countries	14.0	20.7	33.7	73.0	89.3	101.8	107.4	313.7	272.5	317.9
Total	**35.6**	**57.2**	**99.1**	**330.9**	**394.0**	**443.1**	**429.5**	**645.8**	**682.7**	**803.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430506507576

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Iraq	3.7	5.4	5.5	6.6	6.5	7.4	5.4	2.8	2.9	10.9
Poland	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0	2.5	3.4	6.3
Denmark	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	5.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	1.8	2.1	4.0
Somalia	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.3	3.0
Germany	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.9
Finland	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.6
Norway	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0	3.5	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.5
Thailand	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3
Iran	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.1	2.0
China	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.0
Afghanistan	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.7
Turkey	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.6
United Kingdom	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.5
Russian Federation	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.4
Other countries	16.1	16.3	14.5	18.1	18.0	18.7	18.0	18.7	21.5	30.6
Total	**33.4**	**35.7**	**34.6**	**42.6**	**44.1**	**47.6**	**48.0**	**47.6**	**51.3**	**80.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431014682308

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Germany	8.6	9.3	11.0	12.5	14.6	15.5	14.9	18.1	20.4	24.8
Portugal	5.6	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	9.3	12.3	13.6	12.2	12.5
France	5.0	5.4	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.6
Italy	5.4	5.3	6.0	5.4	5.6	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.5
Serbia and Montenegro	8.1	7.5	8.4	6.7	7.5	7.7	6.3	5.7	4.9	4.8
United Kingdom	2.4	2.7	3.4	3.7	3.9	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.4
United States	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.3	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.2
Turkey	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.8	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.1	2.0
Austria	1.3	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0
Spain	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.6
Netherlands	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2
Canada	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9
Other countries	27.1	29.3	34.4	35.3	44.8	40.7	34.6	32.7	31.0	33.2
Total	**72.8**	**74.9**	**85.8**	**87.4**	**101.4**	**101.9**	**94.0**	**96.3**	**94.4**	**102.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430502785145

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Bulgaria	49.1	54.0	61.4	61.7	58.7	54.9	48.2	44.9	53.7	51.7
Azerbaijan	4.9	6.4	8.0	10.6	10.0	9.9	9.5	10.5	10.5	12.3
Germany	6.5	6.6	5.1	5.3	5.4	5.9	6.3	7.1	8.4	9.8
United Kingdom	3.0	3.7	3.2	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	6.4	7.8
Russian Federation	4.5	5.4	5.2	6.9	6.2	6.5	6.1	6.3	6.4	7.8
Iraq	2.6	3.5	5.4	5.5	5.5	4.3	4.5	4.6	6.1	7.0
United States	7.4	6.4	6.2	6.4	5.5	5.8	5.8	5.6	6.1	6.6
Greece	7.4	8.0	7.7	7.3	6.6	6.5	6.6	6.6	5.9	6.3
Iran	4.6	4.8	6.0	6.1	6.6	5.7	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1
Afghanistan	2.9	3.2	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.0	3.6	5.7
Moldova	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.6	3.1	5.5
Ukraine	1.3	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.4	4.3
Kazakhstan	1.7	2.4	2.6	3.7	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.2
France	2.6	3.1	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	3.0	3.3
Denmark	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	3.3
Other countries	29.2	32.4	34.0	35.4	34.1	36.6	37.4	36.6	42.7	49.4
Total	**128.5**	**143.0**	**154.3**	**162.3**	**154.9**	**151.8**	**147.2**	**148.0**	**169.7**	**191.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431042155345

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	10.0	11.0	9.0	12.0	13.0	14.0	27.2	26.4	23.8	33.5
China	1.0	1.0	2.0	5.0	3.0	1.0	5.8	15.1	18.6	18.5
France	9.0	4.0	3.0	12.0	11.0	21.0	15.0	13.6	14.7	16.2
Germany	6.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	8.0	8.0	9.1	9.2	11.4	16.1
India	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	10.0	6.2	10.3	17.2	16.0
South Africa	1.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	6.0	11.7	12.0	14.2	13.1
United States	11.0	14.0	15.0	11.0	15.0	11.0	21.1	16.9	14.0	13.1
Philippines	1.0	1.0	. .	1.0	2.0	1.0	0.1	5.4	6.1	11.6
New Zealand	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	7.0	14.5	13.4	12.4	11.6
Pakistan	6.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	4.2	6.6	9.5	9.6
Greece	3.0	8.0	3.0	3.0	6.0	9.0	12.5	10.3	5.5	5.6
Malaysia	5.0	5.0	8.0	10.0	5.0	10.0	5.1	4.1	5.5	5.4
Korea	2.0	1.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	. .	1.7	1.4	4.3	5.3
Japan	4.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	8.0	7.1	7.9	7.3	4.8
Bangladesh	2.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	5.0	1.7	3.2	3.1	4.5
Other countries	42.0	42.0	58.0	60.0	64.0	66.0	71.1	81.0	93.1	81.5
Total	**113.0**	**118.0**	**132.0**	**150.0**	**164.0**	**182.0**	**214.0**	**237.0**	**260.5**	**266.2**
Total (adjusted figures)	**175.0**	**179.2**	**206.2**	**228.0**	**224.2**	**237.2**	**287.3**	**337.4**	**379.3**	**373.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430612840132

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Mexico	146.8	131.4	147.4	173.5	205.6	218.8	115.6	175.4	161.4	173.8
China	41.1	36.9	32.2	45.6	56.3	61.1	40.6	55.5	70.0	87.3
Philippines	49.1	34.4	30.9	42.3	52.9	51.0	45.3	57.8	60.7	74.6
India	38.0	36.4	30.2	41.9	70.0	70.8	50.2	70.2	84.7	61.4
Cuba	33.5	17.3	14.0	19.0	27.5	28.2	9.3	20.5	36.3	45.6
Colombia	13.0	11.8	9.9	14.4	16.6	18.8	14.7	18.8	25.6	43.2
Dominican Republic	27.0	20.4	17.8	17.5	21.2	22.5	26.2	30.5	27.5	38.1
El Salvador	18.0	14.6	14.6	22.5	31.1	31.1	28.2	29.8	21.4	31.8
Viet Nam	38.5	17.6	20.3	26.6	35.4	33.6	22.1	31.5	32.8	30.7
Jamaica	17.8	15.1	14.7	15.9	15.3	14.8	13.3	14.4	18.3	25.0
Korea	14.2	14.2	12.8	15.7	20.5	20.7	12.4	19.8	26.6	24.4
Guatemala	7.8	7.7	7.3	9.9	13.5	16.2	14.4	18.9	16.8	24.1
Haiti	15.1	13.4	16.5	22.3	27.0	20.2	12.3	14.2	14.5	22.2
Peru	10.8	10.1	8.4	9.6	11.1	11.9	9.4	11.8	15.7	21.7
Canada	11.6	10.1	8.8	16.1	21.8	19.4	11.4	15.6	21.9	18.2
Other countries	315.4	261.7	259.0	348.1	433.1	420.3	278.3	373.1	488.2	544.2
Total	**797.8**	**653.2**	**644.8**	**841.0**	**1 058.9**	**1 059.4**	**703.5**	**957.9**	**1 122.4**	**1 266.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431052258182

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2 and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries**

Flow data based on Population Registers

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Austria	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 weeks.	Until 2001, data are from local population registers. Starting in 2002, they are from the central population register, where the nationality field is optional. The "other countries" line includes persons whose nationality is unknown.	Statistics Austria.
Belgium	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Figures do not include asylum seekers who are recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	*Criteria for registering migrants:* foreigners with a permanent or a long-term residence permit or asylum granted in the given year.	Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders whose stay exceeds a year.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data presented in the tables count immigrants who live legally in Denmark, are registred in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least one year. Data for 2006 in Tables A have been estimated. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits are excluded from the data.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit, intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Foreign persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
Germany	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 week.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans.	Central Population register, Federal Statistical Office.
Hungary	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data include foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Outflow data do not include people whose permit has expired.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior and Central Statistical Office.
Japan	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a valid visa and intending to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Luxembourg	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 4 of the next 6 months. Outflows exclude administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Includes asylum seekers awaiting decisions on their application for refugee status. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
Slovak Republic	Data from 1993 to 2002 refer to newly granted long term and permanent residence permits. In accordance with the 2002 law, data include permanent residence, temporary residence, and tolerated residence.		Register of foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Spain	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* residing in the municipality. Data refer to country of origin and not to country of birth.	Statistics on changes of residence (EVR).	Local register (Padron municipal de habitantes), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a permanent or an annual residence permit.Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Data for 2006 refers to Serbia and not to Serbia and Montenegro.		Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2 and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries**

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	*A. Permanent migrants:* Permanent arrivals are travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle. Permanent departures are persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. From 1996 on, inflow data include those persons granted permanent residence while already temporary residents in Australia.	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Population Research.
	B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (*i.e.* excluding students). Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, *e.g.*, top managers, executives, specialist and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers. Long-term departures include persons departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated). Data for 2002 and 2003 have been corrected.	
Canada	*Permanent:* Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status. *Temporary:* Inflows of people who are lawfully in Canada on a temporary basis under the authority of a temporary resident permit. Temporary residents include foreign workers (including seasonal workers), foreign students, refugee claimants, people allowed to remain temporarily in Canada on humanitarian grounds and other individuals entering Canada on a temporary basis who are not under the authority of a work or a student permit and who are not seeking protection.	All data on inflows of permanent residents includes people who were granted permanent residence from abroad and also those who have acquired this status while already present in Canada on a temporary basis. Table B.1.1 presents the inflow of persons who have acquired permanent resident status only. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
France	Data consist of those entering as permanent workers plus those entering under family reunification. Persons entering as self-employed and persons entering under other permits relating to family reunification are also included.		ANAEM (Agence nationale de l'accueil des étrangers et des migrations).
Greece	Issues of residence permits.	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order.
Ireland	Figures are derived from the CSO series of Annual Labour Force Surveys over the period from 1987 to 1996 and the QNHS series from 1997 on. The estimates relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad at a point in time twelve months earlier. Data for EU refer to EU25. Major revision applied to inflows data since 2003.		Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Issues of residence permits, including short-term ones (excluding renewals) which are still valid at the end of the year. In principle, this excludes seasonal workers.	New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000. Other permits are first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for regularisation in 1998.	Ministry of the Interior.
Korea	Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.
Mexico	*Inflows:* Entries of *inmigrantes (*retirees, highly skilled workers, family members, artists, sportsmen.), including re-entries. *Outflows:* Data refer to *inmigrantes*.	Data are not available by country of origin.	National Statistical Office *(INM).* Instituto Nacional de Migracion.
New Zealand	*Inflows:* Residence approvals. *Outflows:* Permanent and long term departures (foreign-born persons departing permanently or intending to be away for a period of 12 months or more).	Data refer to calendar years.	New Zealand Immigration Service and New Zealand Statistics.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-time" residence permits issued.		Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 figures include foreigners that entered the country with Long Term Visas (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year and also foreigners with Stay Permits which were yearly delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation (126 901 in 2001, 47 657 in 2002, 9 097 in 2003 and 178 in 2004). In 2005 and 2006, inflows comprehend residence permits and yearly issued long term visas.		SEF, National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Turkey	Residence permits issued for a duration of residence longer than one month.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of Interior.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2 and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
United Kingdom	*Inflows:* Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Data in Table A.1.1 have been adjusted to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. Data by nationality (Table B.1.1.) on inflows are not adjusted. *Outflows:* Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom.		*International Passenger Survey,* Office for National Statistics. Data by nationality are provided by Eurostat.
United States	*Permanent inflows*: Issues of permanent residence permits. *Temporary inflows*: Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, excluding visitors and transit passengers (B and C visas) and crewmembers (D visas). Includes family members.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States, that is, those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State. Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Inflows of asylum seekers

The statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (*www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/statistics*).

These statistics are most often derived from administrative sources, but there are differences depending on the nature of the data provided. In some countries, asylum seekers are enumerated when the application is accepted. Consequently, they are shown in the statistics at that time rather than at the date when they arrived in the country. Acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities will review the applicants' claims and grant them certain rights during this review procedure. In other countries, the data do not include the applicants' family members, who are admitted under different provisions (France), while other countries count the entire family (Switzerland).

The figures presented in the summary table (Table A.1.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.1.3, which give data by country of origin. This is because the data received by the UNHCR by country of origin combine both initial applications and appeals, and it is sometimes difficult to separate these two categories retrospectively. The reference for total asylum applications remains the figures shown in summary Table A.1.3. For further details by host country, refer to Chapter VII of the *2006 Statistical Yearbook* of the UNHCR.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Australia	9 312	8 156	9 451	13 065	12 366	5 863	4 295	3 201	3 204	3 515
Austria	6 719	13 805	20 096	18 284	30 135	39 354	32 359	24 634	22 461	13 349
Belgium	11 788	21 965	35 780	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 357	15 957	11 587
Bulgaria	429	833	1 331	1 755	2 428	2 888	1 549	1 127	822	639
Canada	22 584	23 838	29 393	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 873
Czech Republic	2 109	4 085	7 220	8 788	18 094	8 484	11 396	5 459	4 160	3 016
Denmark	5 092	9 370	12 331	12 200	12 512	6 068	4 593	3 235	2 260	1 918
Estonia	. .	23	21	3	12	9	14	14	11	7
Finland	973	1 272	3 106	3 170	1 651	3 443	3 221	3 861	3 574	2 331
France	21 416	22 375	30 907	38 747	54 291	58 971	59 768	58 545	49 733	30 748
Germany	104 353	98 644	95 113	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 607	28 914	21 029
Greece	4 376	2 953	1 528	3 083	5 499	5 664	8 178	4 469	9 050	12 267
Hungary	209	7 097	11 499	7 801	9 554	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 609	2 117
Iceland	6	19	17	24	52	117	80	76	88	39
Ireland	3 883	4 626	7 724	10 938	10 325	11 634	7 900	4 769	4 324	4 314
Italy	1 858	11 122	33 364	15 564	9 620	16 015	13 455	9 722	9 548	10 348
Japan	242	133	223	216	353	250	336	426	384	954
Korea	44	17	4	43	39	37	86	145	412	278
Latvia	. .	58	19	4	14	30	5	7	20	8
Lithuania	320	163	133	199	256	294	183	167	118	139
Luxembourg	431	1 709	2 921	621	687	1 043	1 549	1 577	802	523
Netherlands	34 443	45 217	42 733	43 895	32 579	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 347	14 465
New Zealand	1 495	1 972	1 528	1 551	1 601	997	841	580	348	276
Norway	2 271	8 373	10 160	10 842	14 782	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 402	5 320
Poland	3 533	3 373	2 955	4 589	4 529	5 170	6 909	8 079	6 860	4 430
Portugal	297	365	307	224	234	245	88	113	114	128
Romania	1 425	1 236	1 670	1 366	2 431	1 151	1 077	662	594	460
Slovak Republic	645	506	1 320	1 556	8 151	9 743	10 358	11 395	3 549	2 871
Spain	4 975	6 654	8 405	7 926	9 489	6 309	5 918	5 535	5 254	5 297
Sweden	9 662	12 844	11 231	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530	24 322
Switzerland	23 982	41 302	46 068	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 248	10 061	10 537
Turkey	5 053	6 838	6 606	5 685	5 041	3 795	3 952	3 908	3 921	4 553
United Kingdom	41 500	58 500	91 200	98 900	91 600	103 080	60 050	40 625	30 840	28 320
United States	52 200	35 903	32 711	40 867	59 432	58 439	43 338	44 972	39 240	41 101
EU25, Norway and Switzerland	**284 835**	**376 401**	**476 141**	**442 503**	**470 998**	**467 188**	**377 363**	**289 906**	**244 498**	**209 391**
North America	**74 784**	**59 741**	**62 104**	**75 119**	**103 470**	**97 937**	**75 275**	**70 722**	**60 026**	**63 974**
OECD	**375 451**	**453 033**	**555 901**	**538 000**	**593 638**	**575 851**	**462 026**	**368 776**	**312 732**	**282 826**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430206570135

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.
The symbol (". .") indicates that the value is zero or not available.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

AUSTRIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Serbia and Montenegro	1 084	6 647	6 834	1 486	1 637	4 723	2 526	2 835	4 403	2 515
Russian Federation	37	59	120	291	366	2 221	6 709	6 172	4 355	2 441
Moldova	7	22	43	106	166	819	1 178	1 346	1 210	902
Afghanistan	723	467	2 206	4 205	12 955	6 651	2 357	757	923	699
Turkey	340	210	335	592	1 868	3 561	2 854	1 114	1 064	668
Georgia	–	25	33	34	597	1 921	1 525	1 731	954	564
Mongolia	1	–	2	23	43	143	140	511	640	541
India	253	472	874	2 441	1 802	3 366	2 822	1 839	1 530	479
Nigeria	202	189	270	390	1 047	1 432	1 849	1 828	880	421
Iraq	1 478	1 963	2 001	2 361	2 118	4 466	1 446	232	221	380
Armenia	11	76	180	165	1 235	2 038	1 098	414	516	350
Iran	502	950	3 343	2 559	734	760	979	343	306	274
Bosnia and Herzegovina	84	78	172	96	162	212	214	198	188	231
China	14	32	64	91	154	779	661	663	492	212
FYROM	10	19	51	21	947	786	415	323	452	193
Other countries	1 973	2 596	3 568	3 423	4 296	5 476	5 586	4 328	4 327	2 479
Total	**6 719**	**13 805**	**20 096**	**18 284**	**30 127**	**39 354**	**32 359**	**24 634**	**22 461**	**13 349**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431066858230

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

BELGIUM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Russian Federation	213	277	1 376	3 604	2 424	1 156	1 680	1 361	1 438	1 582
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 230	1 714	1 402	1 421	1 371	1 789	1 778	1 471	1 272	843
Serbia and Montenegro	1 290	6 057	13 067	4 921	1 932	1 523	1 280	1 294	1 203	778
Iraq	243	231	293	569	368	461	282	388	903	695
Iran	97	101	165	3 183	1 164	743	1 153	512	497	631
Guinea	165	336	342	488	494	515	354	565	643	413
Armenia	604	697	1 472	1 331	571	340	316	477	706	381
Turkey	436	403	518	838	900	970	618	561	453	380
Rwanda	565	1 049	1 007	866	617	487	450	427	565	370
Afghanistan	112	200	401	861	504	326	329	287	253	365
Cameroon	99	166	267	417	324	435	625	506	530	335
Togo	82	128	108	184	153	364	365	331	409	260
Georgia	207	490	887	1 227	481	313	302	211	256	232
Nepal	12	53	146	366	550	210	100	373	557	216
Angola	93	224	240	198	303	406	355	286	230	211
Other countries	6 340	9 838	14 087	22 217	12 393	8 767	6 953	6 308	6 042	3 895
Total	**11 788**	**21 964**	**35 778**	**42 691**	**24 549**	**18 805**	**16 940**	**15 358**	**15 957**	**11 587**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431074134006

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CANADA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Mexico	926	1 158	1 172	1 310	1 669	2 397	2 560	2 918	3 541	4 948
China	900	1 420	2 443	1 855	2 413	2 862	1 848	1 982	1 821	1 645
Colombia	71	270	622	1 063	1 831	2 718	2 131	3 664	1 487	1 361
Sri Lanka	2 665	2 634	2 915	2 822	3 001	1 801	1 270	1 141	934	907
India	1 166	1 157	1 346	1 360	1 300	1 313	1 125	1 083	844	764
Haiti	212	174	295	354	237	256	195	175	378	759
Nigeria	482	580	583	800	790	828	637	589	591	685
Pakistan	1 047	1 607	2 335	3 088	3 192	3 884	4 257	1 006	746	652
Zimbabwe	11	9	27	178	2 653	257	70	95	683	582
Israel	416	360	302	254	443	632	533	447	300	507
Burundi	78	63	85	171	357	251	164	156	166	443
Democratic Republic of the Congo	767	744	880	985	1 245	649	435	394	330	417
United States	72	51	45	98	92	213	317	240	228	389
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	–	68	63	96	178	459	402	322	418	375
Lebanon	268	197	345	444	486	449	416	245	149	363
Other countries	13 503	13 346	15 935	19 374	24 151	20 529	15 577	11 293	8 170	8 076
Total	**22 584**	**23 838**	**29 393**	**34 252**	**44 038**	**39 498**	**31 937**	**25 750**	**20 786**	**22 873**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431102338512

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

FRANCE

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Serbia and Montenegro	717	1 283	2 480	2 053	1 591	1 629	2 704	3 812	3 997	3 047
Turkey	1 548	1 621	2 219	3 735	5 347	6 582	7 192	4 741	3 867	2 758
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 347	3 331	3 080	2 313
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 348	1 778	2 272	2 950	3 781	5 260	5 093	3 848	3 022	2 283
Sri Lanka	1 831	1 832	2 001	2 117	2 000	1 992	2 129	2 246	2 071	2 145
Haiti	134	357	503	1 886	2 713	1 904	1 488	3 133	5 060	1 844
Armenia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 106	1 292	1 642	1 684
China	1 754	2 076	5 174	4 968	2 948	2 869	5 330	4 196	2 590	1 214
Algeria	895	920	1 306	1 818	2 933	2 865	2 794	4 209	2 018	1 127
Azerbaijan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	532	773	1 112	878
Côte d'Ivoire	13	44	101	350	727	600	1 420	1 106	1 147	859
Guinea	139	205	313	544	745	753	808	1 020	1 147	859
Congo	304	387	1 158	1 592	1 943	2 266	1 952	1 489	1 172	827
Angola	269	263	538	611	993	1 590	1 409	996	851	668
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	956	959	860	607
Other countries	13 685	11 609	12 842	17 151	21 570	22 777	21 508	21 426	16 097	7 635
Total	**22 637**	**22 375**	**30 907**	**39 775**	**47 291**	**51 087**	**59 768**	**58 577**	**49 733**	**30 748**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431204310456

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

GERMANY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Serbia and Montenegro	30 962	34 979	31 451	11 121	7 758	6 679	4 909	3 855	5 522	3 182
Iraq	14 189	7 435	8 662	11 601	17 167	10 242	3 850	1 293	1 983	2 117
Turkey	25 937	11 754	9 065	8 968	10 869	9 575	6 301	4 148	2 958	1 949
Russian Federation	1 592	867	2 094	2 763	4 523	4 058	3 383	2 757	1 719	1 040
Viet Nam	2 855	2 991	2 425	2 332	3 721	2 340	2 096	1 668	1 222	990
Iran	4 490	2 955	3 407	4 878	3 455	2 642	2 049	1 369	929	611
Syria	2 025	1 753	2 156	2 641	2 232	1 829	1 192	768	933	609
Lebanon	1 456	604	598	757	671	779	637	344	588	601
Afghanistan	6 033	3 768	4 458	5 380	5 837	2 772	1 473	918	711	531
India	3 027	1 491	1 499	1 826	2 651	2 246	1 736	1 118	557	512
Azerbaijan	1 245	1 566	2 628	1 418	1 645	1 689	1 291	1 363	848	483
Nigeria	1 568	664	305	420	526	987	1 051	1 130	608	481
Pakistan	3 774	1 520	1 727	1 506	1 180	1 084	1 122	1 062	551	464
China	1 843	869	1 236	2 072	1 532	1 738	2 387	1 186	633	440
Ghana	698	308	277	268	284	297	375	394	459	413
Other countries	50 006	25 120	23 125	20 613	24 236	22 170	16 711	12 240	8 693	6 606
Total	**151 700**	**98 644**	**95 113**	**78 564**	**88 287**	**71 127**	**50 563**	**35 613**	**28 914**	**21 029**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431168777555

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Iraq	9 641	8 300	3 703	2 773	1 329	1 020	3 473	1 043	1 620	2 766
Somalia	1 280	2 775	2 731	2 110	1 098	533	451	792	1 315	1 462
Afghanistan	5 920	7 118	4 400	5 055	3 614	1 067	492	688	902	932
Iran	1 253	1 679	1 527	2 543	1 519	663	555	450	557	921
Serbia and Montenegro	1 652	4 289	7 126	3 851	908	514	393	395	336	607
Burundi	64	147	204	335	427	448	402	405	419	455
Azerbaijan	315	1 268	2 450	1 163	634	326	265	253	287	384
Turkey	1 135	1 222	1 491	2 277	1 400	629	414	338	289	341
Sudan	678	1 875	1 694	1 426	869	512	293	255	339	320
China	1 161	919	1 246	1 406	706	534	298	285	356	318
Syria	458	828	850	1 077	522	325	234	180	278	293
Armenia	432	711	1 248	812	529	417	203	247	197	280
Democratic Republic of the Congo	592	411	252	539	500	522	194	103	185	266
Russian Federation	459	519	960	1 021	918	426	245	206	285	254
Nigeria	298	342	240	282	401	550	414	223	155	243
Other countries	9 105	12 814	12 611	17 225	17 205	10 181	5 076	3 919	4 827	4 623
Total	**34 443**	**45 217**	**42 733**	**43 895**	**32 579**	**18 667**	**13 402**	**9 782**	**12 347**	**14 465**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431226762340

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Iraq	3 057	3 843	3 576	3 499	6 206	5 446	2 700	1 456	2 330	8 951
Serbia and Montenegro	2 115	3 446	1 812	2 055	3 102	5 852	5 305	4 022	2 944	1 976
Somalia	364	228	289	260	525	1 107	3 069	905	422	1 066
Russian Federation	232	229	449	590	841	1 496	1 361	1 288	1 057	755
Bolivia	14	37	55	57	51	292	286	321	363	747
Lebanon	75	125	176	124	196	299	398	354	228	679
Bulgaria	31	17	11	18	461	767	688	567	751	639
Eritrea	21	27	73	127	151	266	641	395	425	608
Afghanistan	176	330	351	374	593	527	811	903	435	594
Iran	356	613	854	739	780	762	787	660	582	494
Mongolia	–	–	3	38	259	376	342	346	326	461
Uzbekistan	13	18	24	36	344	640	403	258	349	446
Romania	37	22	45	67	82	534	490	179	108	441
Syria	131	226	307	335	441	541	666	411	392	433
Belarus	33	35	84	231	327	722	901	519	372	432
Other countries	3 007	3 648	3 122	7 753	9 156	13 389	12 500	10 577	6 446	5 600
Total	**9 662**	**12 844**	**11 231**	**16 303**	**23 515**	**33 016**	**31 348**	**23 161**	**17 530**	**24 322**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431230061732

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Serbia and Montenegro	6 913	20 396	28 913	3 613	3 425	3 692	2 921	1 777	1 506	1 225
Eritrea	25	99	137	82	68	203	235	180	159	1 201
Iraq	522	2 041	1 658	908	1 201	1 182	1 444	631	468	816
Turkey	1 395	1 565	1 453	1 431	1 960	1 940	1 652	1 154	723	693
China	41	86	123	64	161	394	228	70	87	475
Russian Federation	192	193	263	254	456	507	534	505	375	426
Sri Lanka	2 137	1 901	1 487	898	684	459	340	251	233	328
Iran	129	168	206	728	336	286	262	200	291	302
Georgia	300	813	323	179	273	687	756	731	397	287
Somalia	884	610	517	470	369	387	471	592	485	273
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 987	1 891	1 513	1 304	1 230	1 548	729	301	301	261
Ethiopia	254	243	221	269	257	359	317	166	87	255
Afghanistan	215	245	363	433	530	237	218	207	238	233
Mongolia	11	86	164	180	176	261	295	119	68	223
Nigeria	210	239	116	226	289	1 062	480	418	219	209
Other countries	8 767	10 726	8 611	6 572	9 218	12 921	9 924	6 946	4 424	3 330
Total	**23 982**	**41 302**	**46 068**	**17 611**	**20 633**	**26 125**	**20 806**	**14 248**	**10 061**	**10 537**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431150855782

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED KINGDOM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Eritrea	–	–	–	–	620	1 315	1 070	1 265	1 900	2 725
Iran	585	745	1 320	5 610	3 415	3 370	3 495	3 990	3 505	2 675
Afghanistan	1 085	2 395	3 975	5 555	9 000	8 065	2 590	1 605	1 775	2 650
Somalia	2 730	4 685	7 495	5 020	6 465	9 425	7 195	3 295	2 105	2 155
Zimbabwe	60	80	230	1 010	2 115	8 695	4 020	2 520	1 390	2 095
China	1 945	1 925	2 625	4 000	2 390	3 725	3 495	2 410	1 775	1 970
Pakistan	1 615	1 975	2 615	3 165	2 860	3 780	3 145	3 030	2 290	1 805
Iraq	1 075	1 295	1 800	7 475	6 705	15 635	4 290	1 880	1 595	1 305
Nigeria	1 480	1 380	945	835	870	1 220	1 110	1 210	1 230	940
Sudan	230	250	280	415	390	770	1 050	1 445	990	755
India	1 285	1 030	1 365	2 120	1 850	1 975	2 410	1 485	1 000	735
Democratic Republic of the Congo	690	660	1 240	1 030	1 395	2 750	1 920	1 825	1 390	685
Sri Lanka	1 830	3 505	5 130	6 395	5 510	3 485	810	400	480	600
Turkey	1 445	2 015	2 850	3 990	3 700	3 495	2 990	1 590	950	550
Bangladesh	545	460	530	795	500	825	820	550	465	485
Other countries	15 900	23 615	38 745	32 900	23 585	34 550	19 640	12 125	8 000	6 190
Total	**32 500**	**46 015**	**71 145**	**80 315**	**71 370**	**103 080**	**60 050**	**40 625**	**30 840**	**28 320**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431217758653

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED STATES

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	2 377	3 074	4 210	5 541	8 008	10 237	4 906	5 627	7 623	9 362
Haiti	4 310	2 676	2 492	4 257	4 938	3 643	3 316	5 107	5 299	5 135
El Salvador	4 706	3 553	2 008	1 736	1 264	640	376	1 423	1 755	2 393
Colombia	251	200	334	2 631	7 144	7 950	4 661	3 215	2 064	1 810
Mexico	13 663	4 460	2 251	3 669	8 747	8 775	3 955	1 763	1 581	1 673
Guatemala	2 386	2 526	1 107	890	1 131	1 193	2 236	1 569	1 411	1 515
Ethiopia	961	868	1 101	1 445	1 467	1 287	890	1 118	807	1 168
Honduras	473	278	67	43	58	59	50	603	781	986
Indonesia	–	154	2 330	867	1 671	1 577	2 833	1 822	766	960
Venezuela	–	33	18	–	96	259	899	1 509	1 226	954
Russian Federation	554	1 073	770	856	844	837	761	783	669	638
Cameroon	219	229	349	528	560	1 307	1 626	1 293	710	610
India	3 776	1 764	1 180	1 289	1 894	1 708	1 241	866	620	602
Albania	952	850	784	918	1 425	1 230	818	902	626	601
Pakistan	548	364	354	338	410	567	513	859	551	512
Other countries	17 041	12 936	13 356	15 859	19 775	17 135	14 257	16 513	12 751	12 182
Total	**52 217**	**35 038**	**32 711**	**40 867**	**59 432**	**58 404**	**43 338**	**44 972**	**39 240**	**41 101**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431255101522

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.3 and B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by UNHCR, Population Data Unit. *www.unhcr.org/statistics*
General comments:
All data are based on annual submissions.
Prior to 2003 data for the United Kingdom refer to number of cases, and not persons.
Data for the United States for 2004-2006 is a combination of INS affirmative applications and EOIR defensive applications (INS = number of cases; EOIR = number of persons).
From 2003 on, data for France include unaccompanied minors.
Data for Serbia might include asylum seekers from Serbia, Montenegro, Serbia and Montenegro, and/or FR Yugoslavia.
Data for Table A.1.3 generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.1.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications. This explains why totals in Tables A.1.3 and B.1.3 may be slightly different for some countries.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born population

Two questions must be asked before examining stocks of immigrants in OECD countries: 1) Who is considered an "immigrant" in OECD countries, and 2) What are the problems related to international comparability?

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, *i.e.* Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may include persons born abroad who retained the nationality of their country of origin but also second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. The nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives foreigners have to naturalise both play a role in determining the extent to which native-born persons may or may not be foreign nationals.

Sources for and problems in measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries that have a population register and in those that use residence permit data, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, as some countries instead use census or labour force survey data to estimate the stock of the immigrant population. In studying stocks and flows, the same problems are encountered whether population register or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of purging the files regularly to eliminate permits that have expired.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, especially where they tend not to be registered for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys generally do not cover those living in institutions such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources may detect a portion of the illegal population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Australia	4 314.5	4 332.1	4 369.3	4 412.0	4 482.1	4 565.8	4 655.6	4 736.3	4 840.7	4 956.9
% of total population	23.3	23.2	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.2	23.4	23.6	23.8	24.1
Austria	. .	895.7	872.0	843.0	893.9	873.3	923.4	1 059.1	1 100.5	1 151.5
% of total population	. .	11.2	10.9	10.5	11.1	10.8	11.4	13.0	13.5	14.1
Belgium	*1 011.0*	*1 023.4*	*1 042.3*	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	1 220.1	1 268.9	1 319.3
% of total population	*9.9*	*10.0*	*10.2*	10.3	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.7	12.1	12.5
Canada	*5 082.5*	*5 165.6*	*5 233.8*	*5 327.0*	5 448.5	*5 600.7*	*5 735.9*	*5 872.3*	*6 026.9*	6 187.0
% of total population	*17.7*	*17.8*	*18.0*	*18.1*	18.4	*18.7*	*19.0*	*19.2*	*19.5*	19.8
Czech Republic	. .	*440.1*	*455.5*	*434.0*	448.5	*471.9*	*482.2*	*499.0*	*523.4*	*566.3*
% of total population	. .	*4.3*	*4.4*	*4.2*	*4.4*	*4.6*	*4.7*	*4.9*	*5.1*	*5.5*
Denmark	276.8	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4	350.4	360.9
% of total population	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.5	6.6
Finland	118.1	125.1	131.1	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4	176.6	187.9
% of total population	*2.3*	*2.4*	*2.5*	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.6
France	. .	. .	4 306.0	*4 384.6*	*4 477.9*	*4 588.3*	*4 710.6*	*4 837.6*	4 958.5	*5 078.3*
% of total population	. .	. .	7.3	*7.4*	*7.5*	*7.7*	*7.8*	*8.0*	8.1	*8.3*
Germany	*9 918.7*	*10 002.3*	*10 172.7*	10 256.1	*10 404.9*	*10 527.7*	*10 620.8*	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	*12.1*	*12.2*	*12.4*	12.5	*12.6*	*12.8*	*12.9*	. .	. .	. .
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 122.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Hungary	284.2	286.2	289.3	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0	331.5	344.6
% of total population	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4
Ireland	*271.2*	*288.4*	*305.9*	*328.7*	*356.0*	390.0	*428.9*	*468.6*	*526.6*	601.7
% of total population	*7.4*	*7.8*	*8.2*	*8.7*	*9.3*	10.0	*10.8*	*11.6*	*12.7*	14.4
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 446.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Luxembourg	*134.1*	*137.5*	*141.9*	*145.0*	144.8	*147.0*	*148.5*	*150.0*	*154.0*	*159.7*
% of total population	*31.9*	*32.2*	*32.8*	*33.2*	32.8	*32.9*	*33.0*	*33.2*	*33.8*	*34.8*
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	406.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	434.6	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	0.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	. .
Netherlands	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1	1 734.7	1 732.4
% of total population	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.6
New Zealand	*620.8*	*630.5*	*643.6*	*663.0*	698.6	*737.1*	*770.5*	*796.7*	*840.6*	879.5
% of total population	*16.4*	*16.5*	*16.8*	*17.2*	18.0	*18.7*	*19.2*	*19.6*	*20.5*	21.2
Norway	257.7	273.2	292.4	305.0	315.2	333.9	347.3	361.1	380.4	405.1
% of total population	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.8	6.9	7.3	7.6	7.8	8.2	8.7
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	776.2	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .	. .	. .
Portugal	*523.4*	*516.5*	*518.8*	*522.6*	651.5	*699.1*	*705.0*	*714.0* |	*661.0*	*649.3*
% of total population	*5.3*	*5.1*	*5.1*	*5.1*	6.3	*6.7*	*6.7*	*6.8* |	*6.3*	*6.1*
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	119.1	*143.4*	*171.5*	207.6	*249.4*	*301.6*
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.5	*2.7*	*3.2*	3.9	*4.6*	*5.6*
Spain	1 173.8	1 259.1	1 472.5	1 969.3	2 594.1	3 302.4	3 693.8	4 391.5	4 837.6	5 250.0
% of total population	3.0	3.2	3.7	4.9	6.4	8.0	8.8	10.3	11.1	11.9
Sweden	954.2	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3	1 125.8	1 175.2
% of total population	10.8	11.0	11.8	11.3	11.5	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.4	12.9
Switzerland	*1 512.8*	*1 522.8*	*1 544.8*	1 570.8	*1 613.8*	*1 658.7*	*1 697.8*	*1 737.7*	*1 772.8*	*1 811.2*
% of total population	*21.3*	*21.4*	*21.6*	21.9	*22.3*	*22.8*	*23.1*	*23.5*	*23.8*	*24.1*
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	1 278.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	*4 222.4*	*4 335.1*	*4 486.9*	*4 666.9*	4 865.6	*5 075.6*	*5 290.2*	*5 552.7*	*5 841.8*	*6 116.4*
% of total population	*7.2*	*7.4*	*7.6*	*7.9*	8.2	*8.6*	*8.9*	*9.3*	*9.7*	*10.1*
United States (revised)	*29 272.2*	*29 892.7*	*29 592.4*	31 107.9	*32 341.2*	*35 312.0*	*36 520.9*	*37 591.8*	*38 343.0*	*39 054.9*
% of total population	*10.7*	*10.8*	*10.6*	11.0	*11.3*	*12.3*	*12.6*	*12.8*	*12.9*	*13.0*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430220580850

Note: Estimated figures are in italic. Data for Canada, France, Ireland, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, the United Kingdom and the United States are estimated with the parametric method (PM). Data for Belgium (1995-1999), the Czech Republic, Germany, Luxembourg, Portugal and Switzerland are estimated with the component method (CM).
For details on estimation methods, please refer to *www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn*.
For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	1 156.5	1 148.5	1 139.9	1 132.6	1 126.9	1 123.9	1 126.2	1 131.9	1 139.2	1 153.3
New Zealand	323.7	331.5	349.3	369.0	394.1	413.7	428.0	439.9	457.0	476.7
Italy	255.1	251.2	247.0	242.7	238.5	235.2	231.6	228.0	224.4	220.5
China	131.6	135.0	141.3	148.0	157.0	164.9	173.1	180.8	192.2	203.1
Viet Nam	167.5	168.7	169.6	169.6	169.5	171.6	174.6	176.2	177.9	180.4
India	87.8	89.3	91.1	95.7	103.6	110.6	118.3	127.7	139.4	153.6
Philippines	104.3	105.5	108.1	110.1	112.2	115.8	120.1	124.6	129.7	135.6
Greece	140.5	138.7	136.6	134.5	132.5	131.2	130.0	128.6	127.2	125.8
South Africa	66.1	69.4	74.8	80.7	86.9	95.3	101.6	108.6	114.1	118.8
Germany	120.5	119.7	118.9	118.1	117.5	117.1	116.6	115.9	115.3	114.9
Malaysia	83.8	84.0	84.5	85.3	87.2	89.6	93.2	97.3	100.5	103.9
Netherlands	94.8	93.9	92.9	92.0	91.2	90.4	89.6	88.6	87.8	87.0
Lebanon	78.2	78.6	78.7	79.1	80.0	81.2	83.1	84.2	85.5	86.6
Hong Kong (China)	79.1	79.1	78.2	76.7	75.2	75.6	76.3	76.2	76.5	76.3
Sri Lanka	53.8	54.7	55.2	56.3	58.6	61.4	63.8	65.5	68.1	70.9
Other countries	1 371.1	1 384.1	1 403.3	1 421.6	1 451.3	1 488.3	1 529.5	1 562.3	1 605.7	1 649.4
Total	**4 314.5**	**4 332.1**	**4 369.3**	**4 412.0**	**4 482.1**	**4 565.8**	**4 655.6**	**4 736.3**	**4 840.7**	**4 956.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431263227467

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
										2004	2005	2006
Former Yugoslavia	129.9	123.8	111.0	114.4	124.2	131.2	158.3	152.4	169.4	80.7	75.8	84.6
Turkey	118.8	124.5	110.1	128.0	121.2	127.6	141.9	143.1	146.5	66.6	69.3	69.1
Germany	122.8	122.2	126.0	125.3	114.2	126.7	140.4	138.1	146.5	86.1	82.3	84.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	113.1	125.1	115.4	132.3	130.1	132.3	139.7	151.4	145.2	68.1	73.7	75.7
Former Czechoslovakia	52.5	47.4	45.6	41.1	47.1	33.7	60.6	64.5	66.9	36.4	41.2	41.7
Poland	41.2	41.0	42.3	44.1	34.8	35.4	51.4	49.6	58.9	28.9	30.8	33.3
Croatia	50.8	50.5	54.7	53.4	42.4	33.8	42.8	43.1	47.9	21.9	20.9	24.1
Romania	40.5	34.0	31.2	36.9	38.0	41.0	42.6	49.4	47.9	23.7	28.7	26.5
Hungary	24.2	22.3	18.0	23.3	28.8	27.6	26.3	35.5	29.7	15.0	19.0	17.5
Italy	24.8	18.8	23.2	19.5	21.8	23.6	23.4	21.0	20.5	11.9	10.4	9.3
Slovenia	29.1	17.9	15.9	17.7	14.0	16.8	14.9	16.8	15.9	8.5	9.9	10.1
Other countries	148.0	144.5	149.6	157.8	156.6	193.7	216.8	235.6	256.2	114.3	126.4	130.2
Total	**895.7**	**872.0**	**843.0**	**893.9**	**873.3**	**923.4**	**1 059.1**	**1 100.5**	**1 151.5**	**562.0**	**588.4**	**606.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431316706805

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
								2004	2005	2006
France	150.3	151.9	152.5	153.0	154.2	156.2	159.3	87.2	88.2	89.6
Morocco	107.3	118.8	126.5	134.2	141.3	147.9	155.1	65.2	68.8	72.6
Italy	135.2	132.2	130.5	128.7	126.7	125.1	123.6	61.3	60.7	60.0
Netherlands	92.3	97.8	101.3	104.4	107.7	111.6	115.8	54.8	56.6	58.6
Turkey	66.5	71.6	78.6	78.6	81.0	83.8	86.4	39.2	40.7	41.9
Germany	83.7	83.4	80.1	83.3	83.5	83.6	83.6	46.6	46.6	46.5
Democratic Republic of the Congo	46.8	50.8	52.7	53.8	66.8	68.5	70.5	37.8	35.8	37.0
Spain	37.3	37.0	36.6	36.2	35.7	35.5	35.4	19.4	19.4	19.3
Poland	18.4	20.4	21.9	23.0	25.2	29.0	33.7	16.2	17.9	19.8
Serbia and Montenegro	21.5	20.9	23.2	25.8	27.6	29.8	31.8	13.4	14.6	15.5
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	14.6	17.6	25.1	29.8	11.4	15.4	18.0
United Kingdom	26.1	26.1	25.9	25.6	25.3	24.9	24.2	12.5	12.2	11.8
Portugal	21.2	21.3	21.7	22.3	22.8	23.3	24.0	11.6	11.9	12.1
Algeria	14.0	15.1	16.0	17.0	17.7	18.5	19.4	7.8	8.2	8.6
Romania	6.2	7.7	8.7	9.5	10.6	12.6	15.3	6.0	7.1	8.4
Other countries	232.0	257.2	275.6	275.3	276.2	293.6	311.4	142.3	154.7	163.9
Total	**1 058.8**	**1 112.2**	**1 151.8**	**1 185.5**	**1 220.1**	**1 268.9**	**1 319.3**	**632.8**	**658.5**	**683.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431333744366

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	1996	2001	2006	*Of which:* Women		
				1996	2001	2006
United Kingdom	655.5	606.0	579.6	352.2	323.1	305.8
China	231.1	332.8	466.9	122.2	177.6	253.0
India	235.9	314.7	443.7	117.0	156.6	222.5
Philippines	184.6	232.7	303.2	111.7	139.3	178.5
Italy	332.1	315.5	296.9	158.0	152.2	144.4
United States	244.7	237.9	250.5	139.8	136.6	142.2
Hong Kong (China)	241.1	235.6	215.4	124.3	122.3	112.2
Former USSR	142.0	142.0	174.2	73.4	76.3	94.4
Germany	181.7	174.1	171.4	95.2	90.9	89.7
Poland	193.4	180.4	170.5	100.1	95.7	91.6
Viet Nam	139.3	148.4	160.2	69.7	75.7	83.7
Portugal	158.8	153.5	150.4	79.3	77.5	76.2
Former Yugoslavia	122.	145.4	148.6	59.3	71.1	74.2
Jamaica	115.8	120.2	123.4	67.3	69.6	71.4
Netherlands	124.5	117.7	112.0	60.9	56.9	54.7
Other countries	1 668.6	1 991.6	2 420.1	835.1	1 004.5	1 228.4
Total	**4 971.1**	**5 448.5**	**6 187.0**	**2 565.7**	**2 825.9**	**3 222.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431342647256

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Turkey	27.3	28.2	29.0	29.7	30.4	30.8	30.9	30.9	31.0	31.1	14.6	14.7	14.7
Germany	22.6	22.9	22.9	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.5	22.6	23.0	23.9	12.0	12.2	12.6
Iraq	8.7	10.8	12.5	15.1	18.0	19.7	20.7	20.8	20.7	20.7	9.3	9.2	9.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.9	18.0	18.0	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.2	17.9	17.7	17.6	8.8	8.8	8.7
Poland	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.3	12.4	14.7	7.4	7.8	8.4
Norway	12.6	12.9	13.1	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.9	14.0	14.1	14.2	8.9	9.0	9.1
Sweden	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.7	7.7	7.8	8.0
Lebanon	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.0	12.0	5.5	5.5	5.5
Iran	10.7	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.8	4.8	4.8	4.9
Former Yugoslavia	12.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	11.9	11.7	11.5	5.9	5.8	5.7
United Kingdom	10.5	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.8	11.1	3.8	3.8	3.9
Pakistan	9.4	9.7	9.9	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.5	4.9	4.9	4.9
Somalia	9.9	10.7	11.3	11.8	12.2	12.3	11.8	11.2	10.7	10.4	5.4	5.1	4.9
Afghanistan	1.9	2.3	2.9	4.3	7.2	8.4	9.0	9.4	9.5	9.6	4.4	4.4	4.5
Viet Nam	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.7	4.4	4.4	4.5
Other countries	91.2	95.7	100.3	105.7	111.4	117.1	121.8	127.3	133.4	140.5	68.1	71.4	75.2
Total	**276.8**	**287.7**	**296.9**	**308.7**	**321.8**	**331.5**	**337.8**	**343.4**	**350.4**	**360.9**	**175.8**	**179.6**	**184.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431362537514

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Former USSR	28.8	31.4	33.5	32.9	34.4	36.3	37.3	38.5	40.2	41.9	24.5	25.6	26.7
Sweden	27.4	27.8	27.9	28.0	28.3	28.6	28.9	29.2	29.5	29.8	14.2	14.3	14.4
Estonia	6.5	7.0	7.4	7.8	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.2	12.6	14.5	6.1	6.8	7.8
Somalia	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3	2.2	2.4	2.5
Former Yugoslavia	3.7	3.8	5.9	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2	2.2	2.3	2.4
Germany	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	1.7	1.8	2.0
China	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.6	4.1	4.6	2.1	2.5	2.7
Iraq	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	1.9	1.9	2.0
Thailand	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.1	2.4	2.8	3.2
United Kingdom	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.7	1.0	1.0	1.0
Turkey	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.7	0.8	0.9	0.9
United States	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.5	1.4	1.5	1.6
Iran	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	1.2	1.3	1.5
Viet Nam	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	1.6	1.7	1.8
India	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.5	0.7	0.8	0.9
Other countries	27.2	28.9	28.6	34.3	38.3	40.0	42.5	45.1	48.9	52.9	20.3	21.9	23.5
Total	**118.1**	**125.1**	**131.1**	**136.2**	**145.1**	**152.1**	**158.9**	**166.4**	**176.6**	**187.9**	**84.3**	**89.3**	**94.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431362637334

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1999	2005	*Of which:* Women
			2005
Algeria	574.0	679.0	315.0
Morocco	523.0	625.0	293.0
Portugal	572.0	567.0	279.0
Italy	379.0	338.0	172.0
Spain	316.0	276.0	154.0
Turkey	174.0	222.0	103.0
Tunisia	202.0	222.0	93.0
Germany	123.0	128.0	78.0
United Kingdom	75.0	125.0	63.0
Belgium	94.0	102.0	58.0
Poland	99.0	91.0	59.0
Viet Nam	72.0	73.0	40.0
Senegal	54.0	67.0	30.0
China	31.0	63.0	35.0
Mali	36.0	54.0	19.0
Other countries	982.1	1 326.5	710.5
Total	**4 306.1**	**4 958.5**	**2 501.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431385127466

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Albania	403.9	166.6
Germany	101.4	54.5
Turkey	76.6	45.1
Russian Federation	72.7	42.1
Georgia	71.7	38.6
Bulgaria	38.9	23.8
Egypt	32.7	15.6
Romania	26.5	12.7
Kazakhstan	24.4	12.9
United States	23.1	12.9
Cyprus	22.5	13.0
Australia	20.4	11.0
Ukraine	16.7	12.5
Poland	15.5	8.7
United Kingdom	13.3	8.5
Other countries	162.7	78.9
Total	**1 122.9**	**557.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431472566757

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women
											2006
Romania	141.7	142.0	142.3	144.2	145.2	146.5	148.5	152.7	155.4	170.4	92.5
Former Czechoslovakia	40.3	38.9	37.5	36.0	34.6	33.3	33.4	31.4	32.6	30.4	19.2
Former Yugoslavia	33.3	33.5	34.4	35.1	33.4	30.3	30.7	29.9	29.6	28.6	14.6
Former USSR	28.3	29.2	30.2	31.5	30.4	31.0	31.4	32.2	31.9	27.4	18.0
Germany	13.6	13.8	14.1	14.4	15.3	15.9	16.3	18.8	21.9	24.5	13.3
Austria	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.2	3.0
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.9	3.0
China	1.0	1.7	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	2.3
United States	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.4	4.0	2.0
Poland	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.4	2.3
Other countries	17.3	18.4	19.5	21.1	28.8	32.7	33.9	39.2	43.7	39.9	17.6
Total	**284.2**	**286.2**	**289.3**	**294.6**	**300.1**	**302.8**	**307.8**	**319.0**	**331.5**	**344.6**	**187.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431476653127

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002	2006
United Kingdom	242.2	266.1
Poland	2.1	62.5
United States	21.0	24.6
Lithuania	2.1	24.6
Nigeria	8.9	16.3
Latvia	2.2	13.9
Germany	8.5	11.5
China	5.6	11.0
Philippines	3.9	9.4
India	3.3	9.2
France	6.7	9.1
Romania	5.8	8.5
South Africa	6.1	7.6
Australia	5.9	6.5
Spain	4.5	6.1
Other countries	61.1	114.7
Total	**390.0**	**601.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431620275447

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Portugal	41.7	20.0
France	18.8	9.9
Belgium	14.8	7.2
Germany	12.8	7.6
Italy	12.3	5.4
Serbia and Montenegro	6.5	3.0
Netherlands	3.3	1.6
United Kingdom	3.2	1.4
Cape Verde	2.4	1.3
Spain	2.1	1.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.7	0.8
Denmark	1.5	0.8
United States	1.1	0.5
China	1.0	0.5
Poland	1.0	0.6
Other countries	20.6	11.3
Total	**144.8**	**73.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431624012271

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2005
United States	108.7
Canada	21.4
Guatemala	17.3
Japan	13.9
Argentina	11.6
France	11.6
Venezuela	10.6
El Salvador	9.4
China	9.3
United Kingdom	8.0
Other countries	212.8
Total	**434.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431627730522

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	172.7	175.5	178.0	181.9	186.2	190.5	194.6	195.9	196.0	195.4
Suriname	182.2	184.2	185.0	186.5	188.0	189.0	189.7	190.1	189.2	187.8
Morocco	145.8	149.6	152.7	155.8	159.8	163.4	166.6	168.5	168.6	168.0
Indonesia	172.1	170.3	168.0	165.8	163.9	161.4	158.8	156.0	152.8	149.7
Germany	126.8	125.5	124.2	123.1	122.1	120.6	119.0	117.7	116.9	116.4
Former Yugoslavia	46.7	47.5	50.5	53.9	55.9	56.2	55.5	54.5	53.7	53.0
Belgium	44.0	44.6	45.3	46.0	46.5	46.8	47.1	47.1	47.1	47.4
United Kingdom	42.3	42.7	43.6	45.7	47.9	48.5	48.3	47.5	46.6	45.8
Former USSR	11.7	13.7	16.1	21.6	27.1	30.8	32.8	34.5	35.3	36.0
China	18.0	19.4	20.6	22.7	25.8	28.7	31.5	33.5	34.8	35.5
Poland	15.1	15.9	16.3	17.4	18.6	20.1	21.2	25.0	30.0	35.3
Iraq	20.4	27.3	29.9	33.7	36.0	35.8	36.0	35.9	35.3	34.8
Afghanistan	10.8	14.6	19.8	24.3	28.5	31.0	32.1	32.4	32.0	31.3
Iran	18.5	19.3	20.1	21.5	23.2	24.2	24.2	24.1	23.8	23.8
United States	18.6	19.5	20.3	21.4	22.1	22.5	22.6	22.6	22.8	23.0
Other countries	423.5	444.3	465.6	494.3	523.2	544.7	551.9	550.9	549.9	549.3
Total	**1 469.0**	**1 513.9**	**1 556.3**	**1 615.4**	**1 674.6**	**1 714.2**	**1 731.8**	**1 736.1**	**1 734.7**	**1 732.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431670520534

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2001	2006
United Kingdom	218.4	245.1
China	38.9	78.1
Australia	56.3	62.7
Samoa	47.1	50.6
India	20.9	43.3
South Africa	26.1	41.7
Fiji	25.7	37.7
Korea	17.9	28.8
Netherlands	22.2	22.1
Tonga	18.1	20.5
United States	13.3	18.3
Philippines	10.1	15.3
Cook Islands	15.2	14.7
Malaysia	11.5	14.5
Chinese Taipei	12.5	10.8
Other countries	144.3	175.2
Total	**698.6**	**879.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431678180001

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Sweden	29.3	32.6	33.4	33.3	33.0	33.0	33.1	33.1	33.9	35.0	17.3	17.6	18.0
Denmark	21.1	21.7	21.7	22.0	22.1	22.3	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.3	11.1	11.1	11.1
Poland	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.0	8.3	11.2	18.0	4.9	5.5	7.0
Iraq	3.8	4.9	6.9	11.3	12.3	14.7	14.9	15.4	16.7	17.4	6.3	6.9	7.2
Germany	10.1	10.8	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.9	13.5	14.1	15.2	16.7	7.2	7.6	8.2
Pakistan	12.4	12.9	13.3	13.6	14.1	14.6	14.9	15.2	15.6	15.9	7.3	7.4	7.6
United Kingdom	13.6	14.1	14.3	14.2	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.6	14.7	15.1	6.3	6.3	6.4
United States	15.0	15.1	15.0	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.6	14.8	7.6	7.6	7.7
Somalia	4.3	5.3	6.4	7.8	8.6	10.7	12.1	12.8	13.5	14.5	5.7	6.2	6.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11.1	11.2	11.6	11.7	11.8	13.5	13.2	12.6	12.6	13.2	6.4	6.4	6.6
Viet Nam	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.9	12.1	12.3	12.5	6.2	6.4	6.5
Iran	7.7	8.3	8.9	9.3	10.1	10.7	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	5.1	5.2	5.3
Russian Federation	2.0	2.5	3.1	3.9	4.7	6.0	7.5	8.9	10.1	10.9	5.9	6.7	7.3
Turkey	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.6	7.9	8.4	8.8	9.1	9.4	9.7	3.9	4.1	4.2
Philippines	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.7	9.6	6.0	6.5	7.2
Other countries	99.2	104.9	116.5	120.7	125.6	132.9	140.5	148.5	157.8	167.7	76.9	82.3	87.5
Total	**257.7**	**273.2**	**292.4**	**305.0**	**315.1**	**333.9**	**347.3**	**361.1**	**380.4**	**405.1**	**184.1**	**193.8**	**204.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431672257214

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	*Of which:* Women
		2002
Ukraine	312.3	191.0
Belarus	105.2	63.2
Germany	98.2	56.8
Lithuania	79.8	48.6
Russian Federation	55.2	35.7
France	33.9	18.9
United States	8.4	5.0
Czech Republic	6.3	3.7
Austria	3.9	2.0
Kazakhstan	3.8	2.1
Serbia and Montenegro	3.6	1.9
Romania	3.4	2.0
Italy	3.3	1.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.3	1.9
United Kingdom	2.8	1.1
Other countries	52.8	25.0
Total	**776.2**	**460.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431687852512<no value>

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Angola	174.2	91.7
France	95.3	50.7
Mozambique	76.0	40.1
Brazil	49.9	25.4
Cape Verde	45.0	22.0
Germany	24.3	12.4
Venezuela	22.4	11.7
Guinea-Bissau	21.4	8.6
Spain	14.0	8.3
Switzerland	12.9	6.4
Sao Tome and Principe	12.5	6.7
South Africa	11.2	5.9
United Kingdom	10.1	5.1
Canada	7.3	3.8
United States	7.3	3.7
Other countries	67.8	28.0
Total	**651.5**	**330.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431701236586

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2001	2004
Czech Republic	71.5	107.7
Hungary	17.2	22.5
Ukraine	7.1	13.3
Poland	3.4	7.2
Russian Federation	1.6	5.8
Germany	0.6	4.7
Macedonia	0.1	4.6
Romania	3.0	4.4
Austria	0.7	3.9
United States	0.7	3.5
France	1.3	3.4
Viet Nam	0.6	2.4
Bulgaria	1.0	1.7
Belgium	0.2	0.9
Serbia and Montenegro	1.4	0.8
Other countries	8.4	21.0
Total	**119.1**	**207.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431757444524

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Morocco	190.5	196.6	236.5	299.9	370.7	438.2	474.5	557.2	606.0	621.3	194.1	212.5	226.3
Romania	3.1	4.0	7.5	33.0	68.6	137.8	206.4	312.1	397.3	511.0	141.5	184.7	241.3
Ecuador	5.3	8.4	21.7	140.6	259.8	387.6	470.1	487.2	456.6	434.7	251.3	235.7	224.7
United Kingdom	87.8	95.5	105.7	120.0	140.6	173.6	187.5	238.2	283.7	322.0	119.1	141.3	160.0
Colombia	17.9	21.6	35.7	99.9	205.3	259.4	264.5	288.2	287.0	291.7	164.2	163.8	166.3
Argentina	61.3	64.0	70.5	84.9	118.9	191.7	226.5	260.4	271.4	273.0	125.7	130.8	131.7
Germany	115.4	125.3	142.6	158.0	173.0	189.4	176.9	193.1	208.9	222.1	97.3	104.8	111.3
France	143.0	146.9	155.2	162.5	170.6	180.2	178.1	188.7	199.4	208.8	98.7	103.6	108.0
Bolivia	2.6	2.8	3.7	8.4	15.5	30.6	54.4	99.5	140.7	200.7	55.2	79.4	113.3
Peru	26.9	30.6	37.5	47.3	59.0	72.9	88.8	108.0	123.5	137.0	59.5	66.9	73.4
Venezuela	46.4	49.5	54.7	62.3	71.6	83.5	100.3	116.2	124.9	130.6	61.5	66.3	69.5
Bulgaria	1.6	2.0	3.3	12.4	30.2	53.4	70.4	93.0	100.8	120.2	40.9	45.4	54.9
Brazil	19.2	20.9	25.0	31.9	39.5	48.0	55.0	73.1	93.4	113.4	45.1	56.5	67.2
Portugal	51.3	54.1	58.4	62.6	67.3	71.8	71.1	80.8	93.8	111.6	37.2	41.0	46.2
China	12.0	14.0	19.0	27.6	37.5	51.1	62.3	87.0	104.8	108.3	41.4	50.0	52.9
Other countries	389.5	422.8	495.5	617.6	765.9	933.2	1 007.1	1 208.9	1 345.6	1 443.8	562.7	622.1	675.3
Total	**1 173.8**	**1 259.1**	**1 472.5**	**1 969.3**	**2 594.1**	**3 302.4**	**3 693.8**	**4 391.5**	**4 837.6**	**5 250.0**	**2 095.4**	**2 304.9**	**2 522.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431831616346

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Finland	201.0	198.8	197.0	195.4	193.5	191.5	189.3	186.6	183.7	180.9
Iraq	32.7	37.9	43.1	49.4	55.7	62.8	67.6	70.1	72.6	82.8
Former Yugoslavia	70.9	70.9	70.4	72.0	73.3	74.4	75.1	74.6	74.0	73.7
Iran	49.8	50.3	50.5	51.1	51.8	52.7	53.2	54.0	54.5	55.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	48.3	50.0	50.7	51.5	52.2	52.9	53.9	54.5	54.8	55.5
Poland	39.6	39.7	39.9	40.1	40.5	41.1	41.6	43.5	46.2	51.7
Norway	42.7	41.9	41.8	42.5	43.4	44.5	45.1	45.0	44.8	44.7
Denmark	38.9	38.2	37.9	38.2	38.9	39.9	40.9	41.7	42.6	44.4
Germany	36.8	37.2	37.4	38.2	38.9	39.4	40.2	40.8	41.6	43.0
Turkey	. .	31.0	31.4	31.9	32.5	33.1	34.1	35.0	35.9	37.1
Chile	26.7	26.6	26.6	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.8	28.0
Lebanon	21.4	20.2	20.0	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.8	21.1	21.4	22.7
Thailand	. .	9.0	9.6	10.4	11.2	12.4	14.3	16.3	18.3	20.5
United Kingdom	13.3	13.7	14.0	14.6	15.5	16.1	16.4	16.8	17.2	17.8
Syria	. .	12.8	13.6	14.2	14.6	15.2	15.7	16.2	16.8	17.8
Other countries	332.0	290.5	297.5	307.6	318.7	329.7	342.1	356.5	373.8	398.8
Total	**954.2**	**968.7**	**981.6**	**1 003.8**	**1 028.0**	**1 053.5**	**1 078.1**	**1 100.3**	**1 125.8**	**1 175.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431834313478

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1990	2000	*Of which:* Women	
			1990	2000
Bulgaria	462.8	480.8	237.9	252.5
Germany	176.8	273.5	88.3	140.6
Greece	101.8	59.2	54.0	32.3
Netherlands	9.9	21.8	5.0	11.1
Russian Federation	11.4	19.9	5.1	12.1
United Kingdom	6.5	18.9	3.3	10.1
France	10.3	16.8	5.0	8.2
Austria	7.0	14.3	3.5	7.2
United States	12.9	13.6	5.2	6.1
Iran	10.5	13.0	3.9	4.9
Cyprus	9.2	10.4	4.8	5.6
Switzerland	8.1	10.4	4.1	5.4
Other countries	310.1	326.1	154.4	167.6
Total	**1 137.2**	**1 278.7**	**574.5**	**663.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431848275880

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2006	*Of which:* Women
		2006
India	570.0	280.0
Ireland	417.0	236.0
Pakistan	274.0	139.0
Germany	269.0	155.0
Poland	229.0	109.0
Bangladesh	221.0	101.0
South Africa	198.0	104.0
United States	169.0	90.0
Kenya	138.0	71.0
Jamaica	135.0	70.0
Nigeria	117.0	60.0
Australia	116.0	60.0
France	111.0	64.0
Sri Lanka	102.0	48.0
Philippines	95.0	65.0
Other countries	2 596.0	1 332.0
Total	**5 757.0**	**2 984.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/431450248218

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Mexico	7 298.2	7 382.4	7 429.1	8 072.3	8 494.0	9 900.4	10 237.2	10 739.7	11 053.0	11 132.1	4 807.2	4 922.4	4 984.3
Philippines	1 205.6	1 324.6	1 549.4	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1	1 457.5	1 449.0	1 621.3	1 677.7	827.1	930.2	971.9
India	770.0	747.7	849.2	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4	1 183.6	1 296.7	1 438.3	1 478.5	630.2	688.8	697.4
China	961.4	865.9	890.6	898.0	968.2	986.9	1 167.6	1 463.0	1 398.0	1 460.3	773.3	736.3	809.0
El Salvador	645.4	791.6	811.3	787.7	840.9	882.8	1 025.3	958.4	1 130.1	1 095.6	465.2	511.8	521.1
Germany	1 204.2	1 200.8	986.9	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8	1 091.5	1 093.0	1 036.1	1 088.1	632.4	589.2	649.7
Korea	659.0	657.6	660.7	801.8	889.2	811.2	916.2	854.1	770.6	1 002.6	486.6	424.8	546.1
Cuba	927.3	930.6	960.9	957.3	859.6	935.7	1 005.2	1 075.0	965.9	994.8	527.3	478.1	519.6
Viet Nam	805.9	1 013.8	988.1	872.7	768.2	831.5	946.7	985.7	1 037.7	942.6	515.1	534.3	479.3
Canada	739.9	787.3	825.1	879.3	957.4	921.2	852.6	831.9	833.2	840.4	451.9	445.3	468.9
Dominican Republic	643.4	646.8	692.1	699.2	640.1	668.6	725.9	641.4	713.5	827.2	388.8	445.2	476.4
United Kingdom	713.4	761.9	796.2	758.2	715.3	745.1	700.7	730.9	724.6	665.7	409.6	367.2	355.4
Colombia	381.4	414.9	495.6	440.1	528.5	552.2	491.7	453.9	499.7	641.5	248.2	288.7	358.0
Jamaica	400.1	355.6	405.2	422.5	488.4	537.8	671.1	660.0	615.3	588.8	377.5	365.0	331.4
Guatemala	454.8	474.3	407.2	328.7	315.6	408.1	448.5	526.7	556.6	567.3	217.0	225.9	203.1
Other countries	9 938.9	9 981.3	9 304.7	10 099.9	10 702.5	11 320.6	11 698.9	11 876.2	11 953.7	12 019.3	6 043.5	6 068.6	6 027.7
Total	**27 748.8**	**28 337.1**	**28 052.4**	**29 489.0**	**30 658.1**	**33 474.4**	**34 620.3**	**35 635.5**	**36 347.6**	**37 022.5**	**17 800.9**	**18 021.9**	**18 399.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432007253048

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Metadata related to Tables A.1.4 and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population**

Data in italic in Table A.1.4 are estimated. Estimates by country of birth are not available. Therefore all data presented in Tables B.1.4 are observed numbers.
For details on sources for observed figures, refer to ® below.

Legend: ® Observed figures.
ε Estimates with the component method (CM) or with the parametric method (PM).

For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to *www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn*.

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	® Estimated resident population (ERP) based on Population Censuses. In between Censuses, the ERP is updated by data on births, deaths and net overseas migration. *Reference date:* 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS).
Austria	® *Reference date:* March of the given year. There is a break in time series in 2004.	Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	® Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers are recorded in a separate register.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Canada	® For 2001 and 2006: Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents). "Other countries" include "not stated". ε PM for other years.	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
Denmark	® Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad by parents that are both foreign citizens or born abroad. When no information is available on the country of birth, the person is classified as an immigrant.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	® Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	® 1999 Census and 2005 (2004-2005 average from the continuous Labour force surveys). ε PM for other years.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	® 2000. ε CM for other years.	Database on immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).
Greece	® Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the census (Usual resident population).	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	® Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	® For 1996, 2002 and 2006: Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. ε PM for other years.	Census, Central Statistics Office.
Italy	®*Reference date: 2001.*	Census, ISTAT.
Luxembourg	® For 2001. ε CM for other years.	Census 2001, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	® Population aged 5 and over.	2000 Census, National Council on Population (CONAPO).
Netherlands	® *Reference date:* Presented data is count on 1 january of the next year. Thus population 2006 is the population on 1 january 2007.	Register of Population, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	® For 1996, 2001 and 2006. ε PM for other years.	Census of population, Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	® *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	® Excluding foreign temporary residents who at the time of the census had been staying at a given address in Poland for less than 12 months. Country of birth in accordance with political (administrative) boundaries at the time of the census.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	® 2001 Census data. ε CM for other years.	Census of population, National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	® Census of population who had permanent residence at the date of the Census, 1996 and 2004. ε PM for other years.	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	® Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the population register.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	® *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	® For 2000 Census data. ε CM for other years.	Population Census.
Turkey		Census of Population, State Institute of Statistics (SIS).
United Kingdom	® For 2001 (Table A.1.4). ε PM for other years. Table B.1.4. Foreign-born residents. Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Census, Office for National Statistics. Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	In Table A.1.4, the statistic for the year 2000 is from the population census. Starting with this level the series is estimated using the trend in foreign-born levels from the CPS. On the other hand, the statistics by country of birth (Table B.1.4) are taken directly from CPS estimates.	Current Population Survey March Supplement and Census, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Austria	683.4	686.5	694.0	701.8	718.3	743.3	759.6	776.1	801.6	817.5
% of total population	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.5	9.7	9.9
Belgium	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	900.5	932.2
% of total population	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.8
Czech Republic	209.8	219.8	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3	278.3	321.5
% of total population	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.1
Denmark	249.6	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	270.1	278.1
% of total population	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.1
Finland	80.6	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	113.9	121.7
% of total population	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3
France	. .	. .	3 258.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 506.5	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.6	. .
Germany	7 365.8	7 319.6	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8 |	6 738.7	6 755.8	6 755.8
% of total population	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9 |	8.2	8.2	8.2
Greece	. .	292.0	273.9	304.6	355.8	436.8	472.8	533.4	553.1	570.6
% of total population	. .	2.8	2.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	4.5	5.0	5.2	5.3
Hungary	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	154.4	166.0
% of total population	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6
Ireland	114.4	110.8	117.8	126.3	155.0	187.7	222.2	222.8	259.4	. .
% of total population	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8	5.6	5.5	6.3	. .
Italy	1 022.9	1 090.8	1 340.7	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 503.3	2 227.6	2 402.2	2 670.5	2 938.9
% of total population	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.9	4.2	4.6	5.0
Japan	1 482.7	1 510.0	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7	2 011.6	2 083.2
% of total population	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
Korea	176.9	147.9	169.0	210.2	229.6 |	271.7	460.3	491.4	510.5	660.6
% of total population	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5 |	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.4
Luxembourg	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	174.2	177.8	183.7	191.3
% of total population	34.9	35.6	36.0	37.3	37.5	38.1	38.6	39.3	40.4	41.6
Netherlands	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	691.4	681.9
% of total population	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2
Norway	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	222.3	238.3
% of total population	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.1
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.2	. .	. .	. .	54.9
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Portugal	175.3	177.8	190.9	207.6	360.8	423.8	444.6	469.1	432.0	434.9
% of total population	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	3.5	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.1
Slovak Republic	24.8	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3	25.6	32.1
% of total population	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6
Spain	637.1	749.0	923.9	1 370.7	1 977.9	2 664.2	3 034.3	3 730.6	4 144.2	4 519.6
% of total population	1.6	1.9	2.3	3.4	4.9	6.4	7.2	8.7	9.5	10.3
Sweden	522.0	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1	476.1	481.1	479.9	492.0
% of total population	5.9	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4
Switzerland	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0	1 511.9	1 523.6
% of total population	19.0	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.0	20.2	20.3	20.3
United Kingdom	2 066.0	2 207.0	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0	3 035.0	3 392.0
% of total population	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.8

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430251362813

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Former Yugoslavia	314.4	315.8	319.9	322.2	316.9	314.1	313.9	311.1	310.2	305.7
Turkey	133.0	132.2	129.6	127.3	126.9	126.8	124.8	120.0	115.5	111.0
Other countries	235.9	238.4	244.4	252.3	274.5	302.3	320.8	345.7	376.0	400.9
Total	**683.4**	**686.5**	**694.0**	**701.8**	**718.3**	**743.3**	**759.6**	**776.8**	**801.6**	**817.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432035827673

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Italy	205.8	202.6	200.3	195.6	190.8	187.0	183.0	179.0	175.5	171.9	81.5	80.1	78.5
France	103.6	105.1	107.2	109.3	111.1	113.0	114.9	117.3	120.6	125.1	60.9	62.7	65.1
Netherlands	82.3	84.2	85.8	88.8	92.6	96.6	100.7	105.0	110.5	117.0	47.8	50.6	53.8
Morocco	132.8	125.1	122.0	106.8	90.6	83.6	81.8	81.3	80.6	80.6	38.7	38.8	39.3
Spain	47.4	46.6	45.9	43.4	45.0	44.5	43.8	43.2	42.9	42.8	21.6	21.5	21.4
Turkey	73.8	70.7	69.2	56.2	45.9	42.6	41.3	39.9	39.7	39.4	20.1	20.0	19.9
Germany	33.3	34.0	34.3	34.6	34.7	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.0	37.6	18.2	18.6	18.9
Portugal	25.3	25.5	25.6	25.6	25.8	26.0	26.8	27.4	28.0	28.7	13.6	13.9	14.1
United Kingdom	26.1	25.9	26.2	26.6	26.4	26.2	26.2	26.0	25.7	25.1	11.6	11.5	11.3
Poland	6.0	6.3	6.7	6.9	8.9	10.4	11.6	14.0	18.0	23.2	8.1	9.9	11.9
Greece	19.2	18.8	18.4	18.0	17.6	17.3	17.1	16.6	16.3	15.7	7.9	7.9	7.7
Democratic Republic of the Congo	12.1	12.4	12.5	11.3	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.2	13.5	14.2	6.5	6.8	7.2
United States	12.6	12.4	12.2	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.1	5.8	5.7	5.6
Romania	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.4	3.3	4.0	4.6	5.6	7.5	10.2	3.2	4.2	5.5
China	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.5	6.0	6.9	7.3	7.5	7.8	3.9	4.0	4.2
Other countries	117.2	116.6	124.9	120.5	125.0	132.4	140.6	147.4	166.1	181.6	75.8	85.4	93.3
Total	**903.1**	**892.0**	**897.1**	**861.7**	**846.7**	**850.1**	**860.3**	**870.9**	**900.5**	**932.2**	**425.2**	**441.4**	**457.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432065325133

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ukraine	43.4	52.7	65.9	50.2	51.8	59.1	62.3	78.3	87.8	102.6
Slovak Republic	52.2	49.6	40.4	44.3	53.2	61.1	64.9	47.4	49.4	58.4
Viet Nam	21.0	22.9	24.8	23.6	23.9	27.1	29.0	34.2	36.8	40.8
Poland	25.0	22.2	18.3	17.1	16.5	16.0	15.8	16.3	17.8	18.9
Russian Federation	8.9	10.0	16.9	13.0	12.4	12.8	12.6	14.7	16.3	18.6
Germany	5.9	5.1	6.1	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.8	7.2	10.1
Moldova	2.1	3.1	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.3	4.1	4.7	6.2
Bulgaria	6.6	6.0	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6
United States	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.2
China	4.5	4.2	4.3	3.6	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.4	3.6	4.2
Serbia and Montenegro	3.8	3.9	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.7
United Kingdom	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.2	3.5
Austria	2.3	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.4	3.4
Belarus	3.4	3.8	3.6	2.6	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2
Romania	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9
Other countries	22.3	25.8	26.1	22.9	23.3	24.7	24.4	29.2	32.3	36.2
Total	**209.8**	**219.8**	**228.9**	**201.0**	**210.8**	**231.6**	**240.4**	**254.3**	**278.3**	**321.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432104405028

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Turkey	37.5	38.1	36.6	35.2	33.4	31.9	30.3	30.0	29.5	28.8	14.6	14.4	14.1
Iraq	9.4	11.3	12.7	13.8	16.5	18.0	19.4	19.2	18.7	18.1	9.0	8.8	8.5
Germany	11.9	12.4	12.7	12.7	12.9	13.0	13.3	13.6	14.2	15.4	6.4	6.7	7.2
Norway	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0	13.2	13.4	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.2	8.1	8.2	8.4
United Kingdom	12.8	12.9	12.7	12.6	12.8	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.9	13.2	4.5	4.5	4.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	17.8	17.2	14.0	12.7	12.2	6.8	6.2	5.9
Sweden	10.0	10.4	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.2	11.6	6.3	6.5	6.7
Poland	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.2	7.4	9.7	4.2	4.6	5.2
Afghanistan	2.0	2.4	2.9	4.2	7.1	8.2	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.4	4.4	4.5	4.5
Somalia	11.9	13.1	14.3	14.4	14.6	13.3	13.1	11.3	9.8	9.0	5.5	4.8	4.4
Former Yugoslavia	33.9	34.5	35.1	35.0	34.8	10.8	10.7	9.8	9.4	8.7	4.8	4.6	4.3
Iceland	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.4	7.7	8.0	3.8	3.9	4.1
Pakistan	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.2	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.6	3.6	3.5	3.5
Thailand	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	4.6	4.9	5.2
China	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.2	3.9	5.2	5.9	6.2	6.1	3.1	3.2	3.3
Other countries	84.6	84.5	84.1	81.2	83.7	87.2	90.2	90.9	94.6	100.8	46.9	48.7	51.7
Total	**249.6**	**256.3**	**259.4**	**258.6**	**266.7**	**265.4**	**271.2**	**267.6**	**270.1**	**278.1**	**136.5**	**137.9**	**141.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432124108457

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Russian Federation	14.3	16.9	18.6	20.6	22.7	24.3	25.0	24.6	24.6	25.3	15.2	15.1	15.0
Estonia	9.7	10.3	10.7	10.8	11.7	12.4	13.4	14.0	15.5	17.6	7.8	8.6	9.0
Sweden	7.5	7.8	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.3	8.2	8.3	3.6	3.5	3.6
Somalia	5.2	5.4	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.6	2.4	2.3	2.3
China	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	1.4	1.6	1.6
Serbia and Montenegro	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.6	4.2	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Iraq	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.0	1.5	1.4	1.4
Thailand	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.0	1.9	2.2	2.4
Germany	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
United Kingdom	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	0.6	0.6	0.6
Turkey	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	0.7	0.8	0.8
Iran	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	1.1	1.1	1.2
United States	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	0.8	0.8	0.9
Afghanistan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
India	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.6	2.0	0.5	0.6	0.7
Other countries	26.4	26.1	26.2	26.7	28.4	31.2	30.5	30.0	32.4	35.6	13.0	13.9	14.5
Total	**80.6**	**85.1**	**87.7**	**91.1**	**98.6**	**103.7**	**107.0**	**108.3**	**113.9**	**121.7**	**53.9**	**56.1**	**57.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432154240864

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1999	2005	*Of which:* Women	
			1999	2005
Portugal	555.0	493.0	260.0	230.0
Algeria	475.0	488.0	203.0	219.0
Morocco	506.0	475.0	230.0	219.0
Turkey	205.0	229.0	97.0	107.0
Italy	201.0	178.0	87.0	79.0
Tunisia	153.0	147.0	63.0	60.0
Spain	160.0	137.0	80.0	70.0
United Kingdom	75.0	123.0	38.0	60.0
Germany	77.0	90.0	40.0	49.0
Belgium	67.0	80.0	35.0	41.0
China	28.0	61.0	15.0	32.0
Mali	35.0	59.0	13.0	21.0
Senegal	39.0	48.0	16.0	21.0
Switzerland	28.0	41.0	14.0	21.0
Congo	36.0	40.0	18.0	20.0
Other countries	618.5	817.5	319.7	438.4
Total	**3 258.5**	**3 506.5**	**1 528.7**	**1 687.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432155133261

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Turkey	2 107.4	2 110.2	2 053.6	1 998.5	1 947.9	1 912.2	1 877.7	1 764.3	1 764.0	1 738.8	820.3	826.5	818.0
Italy	607.9	612.0	615.9	619.1	616.3	609.8	601.3	548.2	540.8	534.7	224.3	221.7	219.2
Poland	283.3	283.6	291.7	301.4	310.4	317.6	326.9	292.1	326.6	361.7	160.0	173.9	186.4
Greece	363.2	363.5	364.4	365.4	362.7	359.4	354.6	316.0	309.8	303.8	143.8	141.1	138.6
Serbia and Montenegro	721.0	719.5	737.2	662.5	627.5	591.5	568.2	125.8	297.0	282.1	58.6	139.7	134.4
Croatia	206.6	208.9	214.0	216.8	223.8	231.0	236.6	229.2	228.9	227.5	115.7	116.3	115.7
Russian Federation	69.1	81.1	98.4	115.9	136.1	155.6	173.5	178.6	185.9	187.5	105.0	110.2	112.2
Austria	185.1	185.2	186.1	187.7	189.0	189.3	189.5	174.0	174.8	175.7	81.4	81.9	82.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	281.4	190.1	167.7	156.3	159.0	163.8	167.1	156.0	156.9	157.1	75.2	75.8	75.9
Ukraine	51.4	63.8	76.8	89.3	103.5	116.0	126.0	128.1	130.7	129.0	76.4	78.8	78.4
Netherlands	112.8	112.1	110.5	110.8	112.4	115.2	118.7	114.1	118.6	123.5	51.9	53.9	55.8
Portugal	132.3	132.6	132.6	133.7	132.6	131.4	130.6	116.7	115.6	115.0	52.9	52.7	52.4
Spain	131.6	131.1	129.9	129.4	128.7	127.5	126.0	108.3	107.8	106.8	53.7	53.7	53.5
France	103.9	105.8	107.2	110.2	111.3	112.4	113.0	100.5	102.2	104.1	54.3	55.2	56.0
United States	110.1	110.7	112.0	113.6	113.5	112.9	112.9	96.6	97.9	99.3	41.0	41.8	42.6
Other countries	1 898.7	1 909.4	1 945.8	1 986.1	2 043.8	2 090.0	2 112.2	2 290.2	2 098.3	2 109.4	1 102.9	1 037.4	1 049.0
Total	**7 365.8**	**7 319.6**	**7 343.6**	**7 296.8**	**7 318.6**	**7 335.6**	**7 334.8**	**6 738.7**	**6 755.8**	**6 755.8**	**3 217.5**	**3 260.5**	**3 270.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432110426427

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
										2004	2005	2006
Albania	169.4	153.3	185.7	209.5	262.1	294.7	325.6	341.0	347.4	148.3	154.0	159.1
Bulgaria	6.7	7.0	8.1	12.6	18.6	17.3	25.3	27.9	29.5	16.4	18.8	19.2
Romania	4.3	6.0	5.2	7.2	13.8	14.6	16.2	18.9	18.9	7.6	10.9	9.7
Russian Federation	21.1	10.5	15.6	19.9	22.0	17.8	16.8	17.6	18.9	10.8	10.5	12.6
Poland	6.7	10.4	11.2	13.5	14.1	15.9	17.0	16.1	16.6	9.9	9.0	10.7
Georgia	5.9	6.3	4.4	10.2	12.0	9.5	14.1	16.9	15.1	8.4	10.5	9.1
Ukraine	3.8	6.1	2.5	6.4	11.3	10.2	13.1	12.2	12.2	9.0	10.4	8.7
Cyprus	6.1	9.5	6.8	5.2	7.7	8.1	12.2	11.0	10.6	6.3	5.2	6.0
United Kingdom	2.9	5.2	4.0	5.3	3.6	6.2	7.1	7.7	7.6	4.9	4.8	4.1
Philippines	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.9	3.8	3.2	7.2	8.9	7.5	5.5	6.0	5.4
Armenia	5.9	3.5	2.9	5.1	4.0	4.7	7.3	6.1	7.1	3.8	3.1	3.6
Germany	4.5	3.9	4.8	3.5	2.3	4.3	3.8	5.6	6.7	3.1	4.1	4.1
Pakistan	4.6	2.1	3.7	2.9	4.8	6.2	4.2	5.5	6.7	0.1	0.1	0.1
Iraq	4.6	2.5	3.1	4.6	4.2	5.7	4.3	5.5	5.4	1.1	1.8	1.9
Former Yugoslavia	2.1	3.3	2.4	2.9	1.9	3.6	2.5	4.1	5.0	1.5	2.8	3.4
Other countries	40.3	41.8	41.5	44.1	50.5	50.9	56.5	47.9	55.3	27.0	22.5	27.8
Total	**292.0**	**273.9**	**304.6**	**355.8**	**436.8**	**472.8**	**533.4**	**553.1**	**570.6**	**263.8**	**274.7**	**285.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432228736858

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Romania	62.1	57.4	57.3	41.6	45.0	47.3	55.7	67.5	66.2	67.0	34.8	33.4	33.6
Ukraine	7.2	9.9	11.0	8.9	9.8	9.9	13.1	13.9	15.3	15.9	7.3	8.0	8.3
Germany	9.0	9.4	9.6	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.4	6.9	10.5	15.0	4.5	5.8	7.9
China	7.8	8.3	8.9	5.8	6.8	6.4	6.8	6.9	8.6	9.0	3.1	3.8	4.0
Serbia and Montenegro	7.1	9.9	10.9	8.6	8.4	7.9	8.3	13.6	8.4	8.5	6.3	3.9	3.9
Slovak Republic	1.0	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.2	3.6	4.3	0.8	2.1	2.5
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.1	. .	3.7	4.2	. .	1.6	1.8
Former USSR	7.9	7.1	6.3	5.6	5.1	5.7	4.0	5.1	3.0	3.1	3.5	2.1	2.2
Viet Nam	1.8	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.1	1.1	1.5	1.5
Russian Federation	2.5	2.8	3.0	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.6	1.7	1.7
Poland	4.5	4.4	4.1	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.7	1.4	1.5	1.7
Austria	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.5	2.2	0.2	0.5	0.8
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .	0.8
United Kingdom	1.1	1.3	1.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.5	1.9	0.2	0.5	0.6
Former Czechoslovakia	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.4
Other countries	32.0	32.1	32.4	20.7	21.2	20.2	17.7	16.4	22.1	22.7	6.8	9.2	9.3
Total	**148.3**	**150.2**	**153.1**	**110.0**	**116.4**	**115.9**	**130.1**	**142.2**	**154.4**	**166.0**	**73.5**	**77.1**	**82.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432242604210

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002	2006
United Kingdom	101.3	110.6
Poland	2.1	62.7
Lithuania	2.1	24.4
Nigeria	8.7	16.0
Latvia	1.8	13.2
United States	11.1	12.3
China	5.8	11.0
Germany	7.0	10.1
Philippines	3.7	9.3
France	6.2	8.9
India	2.5	8.3
Romania	4.9	7.6
Italy	3.7	6.1
Spain	4.3	6.0
South Africa	4.1	5.3
Other countries	50.0	101.5
Total	**219.3**	**413.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432268058841

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women 2006
Albania	72.6	87.6	133.0	146.3	159.3	171.6	240.4	316.7	348.8	375.9	166.7
Morocco	122.2	128.3	155.9	162.3	167.9	170.7	231.0	294.9	319.5	343.2	137.4
Romania	28.8	33.8	61.2	70.0	83.0	94.8	244.4	248.8	297.6	342.2	180.0
China	35.3	41.2	56.7	60.1	62.1	64.0	105.0	111.7	127.8	144.9	68.1
Ukraine	1.9	3.1	6.5	9.1	12.6	14.8	117.2	93.4	107.1	120.1	97.0
Philippines	57.3	59.1	67.4	65.1	67.7	65.6	76.1	82.6	89.7	101.3	59.7
Tunisia	41.4	41.1	46.8	46.0	53.4	51.1	62.7	78.2	83.6	88.9	30.6
Poland	22.9	23.3	29.5	30.4	32.9	35.0	64.9	50.8	60.8	72.5	51.9
India	20.5	22.0	27.6	30.0	32.5	34.3	49.2	54.3	61.8	69.5	27.2
Ecuador	4.7	4.9	10.5	11.2	12.3	12.3	48.3	53.2	62.0	68.9	41.9
Peru	23.0	23.6	29.1	30.1	31.7	31.3	48.8	53.4	59.3	66.5	40.6
Egypt	23.6	23.8	34.0	32.4	31.8	31.1	47.1	52.9	58.9	65.7	18.9
Serbia and Montenegro	31.7	36.1	41.2	40.2	39.3	40.2	46.8	58.2	64.1	64.4	28.8
Senegal	32.0	31.4	40.9	39.2	37.8	37.0	49.7	53.9	57.1	59.9	10.4
Sri Lanka	24.8	27.4	32.0	33.8	38.8	35.7	43.0	45.6	50.5	56.7	25.1
Other countries	480.1	504.1	568.4	573.7	585.2	613.8	753.0	753.5	822.0	898.3	481.4
Total	**1 022.9**	**1 090.8**	**1 340.7**	**1 379.7**	**1 448.4**	**1 503.3**	**2 227.6**	**2 402.2**	**2 670.5**	**2 938.9**	**1 465.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432313122500

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women 2006
Korea	645.4	638.8	636.5	635.3	632.4	625.4	613.8	607.4	598.7	598.2	322.0
China	252.2	272.2	294.2	335.6	381.2	424.3	462.4	487.6	519.6	560.7	327.5
Brazil	233.3	222.2	224.3	254.4	266.0	268.3	274.7	286.6	302.1	313.0	141.5
Philippines	93.3	105.3	115.7	144.9	156.7	169.4	185.2	199.4	187.3	193.5	152.3
Peru	40.4	41.3	42.8	46.2	50.1	51.8	53.6	55.8	57.7	58.7	27.4
United States	43.7	42.8	42.8	44.9	46.2	48.0	47.8	48.8	49.4	51.3	17.9
Thailand	20.7	23.6	25.3	29.3	31.7	33.7	34.8	36.3	37.7	39.6	29.2
Viet Nam	11.9	13.5	14.9	16.9	19.1	21.1	23.9	26.0	28.9	32.5	15.2
Indonesia	11.9	15.0	16.4	19.3	20.8	21.7	22.9	23.9	25.1	24.9	7.7
India	7.5	8.7	9.1	10.1	11.7	13.3	14.2	15.5	17.0	18.9	5.5
United Kingdom	14.4	14.8	15.4	16.5	17.5	18.5	18.2	18.1	17.5	17.8	5.3
Canada	8.8	9.0	9.2	10.1	11.0	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.0	11.9	4.0
Australia	6.9	7.6	8.2	9.2	10.6	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.3	11.4	4.0
Bangladesh	6.1	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.9	8.7	9.7	10.7	11.0	11.3	2.4
Pakistan	5.6	6.0	6.6	7.5	7.9	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	1.2
Other countries	80.7	82.8	88.3	99.2	107.7	116.1	121.8	125.2	127.5	130.3	52.5
Total	**1 482.7**	**1 510.0**	**1 556.1**	**1 686.4**	**1 778.5**	**1 851.8**	**1 915.0**	**1 973.7**	**2 011.6**	**2 083.2**	**1 115.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432314837236

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
China	35.4	30.9	39.7	59.0	73.6	84.5	185.5	208.8	217.0	311.8	105.9	115.6	161.0
Viet Nam	13.5	8.1	10.0	15.6	16.0	16.9	23.3	26.1	35.5	52.2	9.6	12.4	20.4
United States	27.9	26.1	25.8	22.8	22.0	37.6	40.0	39.0	41.8	46.0	9.5	18.9	21.0
Philippines	13.1	8.0	10.8	16.0	16.4	17.3	27.6	27.9	30.7	40.3	11.7	11.9	13.4
Thailand	1.9	1.6	1.8	3.2	3.6	4.8	20.0	21.9	21.4	30.2	7.1	5.2	6.3
Indonesia	13.6	9.7	13.6	16.7	15.6	17.1	28.3	26.1	22.6	23.7	4.4	3.0	2.9
Chinese Taipei	23.2	22.9	23.0	23.0	22.8	22.7	22.6	22.3	22.2	22.1	10.3	10.3	10.3
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	9.2	11.0	13.7	19.2	4.6	4.6	6.0
Japan	13.7	13.0	13.2	14.0	14.7	15.4	16.2	16.6	17.5	18.0	11.2	11.9	12.2
Uzbekistan	2.2	2.0	2.3	3.7	4.0	4.1	10.7	11.5	10.8	11.6	2.1	1.9	2.1
Canada	4.2	3.0	3.0	3.3	4.0	7.0	8.0	8.8	10.0	11.3	2.3	4.3	4.9
Sri Lanka	3.7	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.9	5.5	8.5	11.1	0.7	0.7	0.7
Pakistan	1.7	1.3	1.8	3.2	3.3	3.7	7.1	9.2	8.7	8.9	0.2	0.2	0.2
Bangladesh	7.9	5.7	6.7	7.9	9.1	9.0	13.6	13.1	9.1	8.6	0.4	0.3	0.3
Nepal	1.2	1.0	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	4.2	5.3	4.9	5.0	0.7	0.6	0.6
Other countries	13.7	12.2	13.7	17.3	20.0	25.1	39.1	38.4	36.3	40.7	9.8	12.1	13.7
Total	**176.9**	**147.9**	**169.0**	**210.2**	**229.6|**	**271.7**	**460.3**	**491.4**	**510.5**	**660.6**	**190.6**	**213.9**	**276.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432342048286

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Portugal	54.5	55.9	57.0	58.5	59.8	61.4	63.8	64.9	67.8	70.8
France	16.5	17.5	18.8	20.1	20.9	21.6	21.9	22.2	23.1	24.1
Italy	19.9	20.0	20.1	20.3	19.1	19.0	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.1
Belgium	13.2	13.8	14.5	15.1	15.4	15.9	16.0	16.2	16.3	16.5
Germany	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.5	10.8	10.9
United Kingdom	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8
Netherlands	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7
Spain	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1
Denmark	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2
Sweden	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4
Greece	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	. .	0.8	1.0	1.3
Ireland	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
Finland	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Austria	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7
Other countries	16.3	17.9	20.5	21.4	23.5	23.9	25.4	26.0	27.3	29.2
Total	**147.7**	**152.9**	**159.4**	**164.7**	**166.7**	**170.7**	**174.2**	**177.8**	**183.7**	**191.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432352408752

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Turkey	114.7	102.0	100.7	100.8	100.3	100.3	101.8	100.6	98.9	96.8	51.1	50.4	49.5
Morocco	135.7	128.6	119.7	111.4	104.3	97.8	94.4	91.6	86.2	80.5	45.1	42.7	40.0
Germany	53.9	54.1	54.3	54.8	55.6	56.1	56.5	57.1	58.5	60.2	29.6	30.6	31.7
United Kingdom	39.2	38.8	39.5	41.4	43.6	44.1	43.7	42.5	41.5	40.3	17.1	16.7	16.2
Belgium	24.4	24.8	25.4	25.9	26.1	26.3	26.2	26.1	26.0	26.0	14.0	14.0	14.1
Poland	5.7	5.9	5.6	5.9	6.3	6.9	7.4	11.0	15.2	19.6	7.4	9.3	11.1
Italy	17.4	17.6	17.9	18.2	18.6	18.7	18.5	18.4	18.5	18.6	6.5	6.6	6.7
Spain	16.6	16.8	16.9	17.2	17.4	17.5	17.4	17.1	16.9	16.5	8.5	8.4	8.3
China	7.3	7.5	7.5	8.0	9.4	11.2	13.3	14.7	15.0	15.3	8.4	8.5	8.5
France	11.2	11.9	12.5	13.3	14.1	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.7	14.7	7.3	7.5	7.5
United States	13.0	13.4	14.1	14.8	15.2	15.4	15.1	14.8	14.6	14.6	7.4	7.3	7.3
Portugal	8.7	8.8	9.2	9.8	10.6	11.3	11.8	12.0	12.1	12.2	5.5	5.5	5.6
Indonesia	8.0	8.4	8.7	9.3	10.1	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.4	7.6	7.7	7.7
Suriname	11.8	10.5	8.7	8.5	8.5	8.6	9.4	9.6	8.5	7.6	5.3	4.7	4.2
Greece	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.7	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	2.3	2.4	2.5
Other countries	205.4	208.1	205.3	222.9	244.2	254.3	254.6	251.5	246.6	240.9	126.6	126.5	125.1
Total	**678.1**	**662.4**	**651.5**	**667.8**	**690.4**	**700.0**	**702.2**	**699.4**	**691.4**	**681.9**	**349.6**	**348.7**	**345.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432365445804

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Sweden	20.6	24.0	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.4	25.8	26.6	27.9	12.9	13.3	13.8
Denmark	18.4	19.1	19.2	19.4	19.7	20.0	20.0	20.1	20.2	20.3	9.5	9.6	9.5
Poland	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.7	3.9	6.8	13.6	2.0	2.6	4.0
Germany	5.4	6.0	6.7	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.6	10.6	12.2	4.6	5.0	5.6
Iraq	3.3	4.2	5.8	9.9	10.8	13.0	13.4	13.7	13.1	12.1	5.8	5.6	5.3
United Kingdom	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.0	11.2	11.2	11.6	4.3	4.3	4.4
Somalia	3.7	4.1	4.8	6.2	6.6	8.4	9.9	10.5	10.6	10.8	4.8	4.9	5.1
Russian Federation	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.2	7.4	8.2	8.8	4.8	5.3	5.6
United States	8.6	8.6	8.3	8.0	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.7	4.0	3.9	4.0
Afghanistan	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.0	1.8	3.0	4.3	5.1	5.9	6.5	2.0	2.5	2.8
Thailand	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.7	6.4	4.3	4.9	5.4
Pakistan	7.5	6.9	7.4	6.7	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.4	6.1	5.9	3.4	3.3	3.2
Finland	4.5	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1	6.4	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.8	3.5	3.4	3.4
Netherlands	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.6	5.1	1.9	2.1	2.3
Serbia and Montenegro	5.7	5.5	10.2	8.8	6.5	6.0	5.7	5.8	5.4	4.7	2.8	2.7	2.3
Other countries	60.0	60.2	62.8	63.4	63.2	66.7	68.4	71.1	73.7	79.0	37.9	39.4	42.0
Total	**158.0**	**165.1**	**178.7**	**184.3**	**185.9**	**197.7**	**204.7**	**213.3**	**222.3**	**238.3**	**108.5**	**112.7**	**118.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432423276146

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	2006	*Of which:* Women
			2006
Germany	3.7	11.4	5.9
Ukraine	9.9	5.2	3.5
Russian Federation	4.3	3.3	2.3
Sweden	0.5	2.6	1.5
Austria	0.3	2.6	1.5
Viet Nam	2.1	1.9	0.7
Belarus	2.9	1.5	1.1
Former USSR	. .	1.3	0.9
Greece	0.5	1.2	0.4
United States	1.3	1.0	0.4
Bulgaria	1.1	1.0	0.3
Armenia	1.6	0.8	0.3
Czech Republic	0.8	0.6	0.4
United Kingdom	1.0	0.6	0.2
France	1.0	0.6	0.2
Other countries	18.2	19.4	9.5
Total	**49.2**	**54.9**	**29.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432481002201

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Brazil	20.0	19.9	20.9	22.2	48.7	61.6	66.3	78.6	70.4	73.4	28.7	31.4	37.1
Cape Verde	39.8	40.1	43.8	47.1	57.3	62.1	63.6	65.6	69.6	68.1	28.8	30.7	30.8
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.7	63.0	66.4	67.0	44.9	41.9	12.6	14.2	16.3
Angola	16.3	16.5	17.7	20.4	28.4	32.7	34.4	35.4	34.6	33.7	16.0	15.9	15.6
Guinea-Bissau	12.8	12.9	14.1	15.9	21.3	23.8	24.8	25.6	25.2	24.8	8.2	8.2	8.5
United Kingdom	12.3	12.7	13.3	14.1	15.0	15.9	16.9	18.0	19.0	19.8	8.4	8.9	9.3
Spain	8.8	10.2	11.2	12.2	13.6	14.6	15.3	15.9	16.4	16.6	8.1	8.3	8.4
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.1	13.1	13.7	14.8	15.5	15.5	2.0	4.5	6.0
Germany	8.3	8.8	8.0	10.4	11.1	11.9	12.5	13.1	13.6	13.9	6.0	6.2	6.4
Romania	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	8.4	11.3	12.0	12.5	11.1	11.9	2.5	3.8	5.0
Sao Tome and Principe	4.3	4.4	4.8	5.4	8.3	9.6	10.1	10.9	11.9	11.3	5.3	6.0	5.9
China	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.3	7.3	8.5	9.1	9.7	9.4	10.5	3.5	3.9	4.6
France	5.4	5.8	6.5	7.2	7.8	8.4	8.9	9.3	9.6	9.7	4.5	4.6	4.6
United States	8.4	8.1	9.6	8.0	8.4	8.3	8.4	8.3	8.5	8.6	3.5	3.6	3.7
Mozambique	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.6	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.8	6.3	6.1	2.4	2.8	2.9
Other countries	31.8	31.4	33.5	36.3	63.9	73.2	76.5	78.6	66.2	69.1	27.0	26.6	29.3
Total	**175.3**	**177.8**	**190.9**	**207.6**	**360.8**	**423.8**	**444.6**	**469.1**	**432.0**	**434.9**	**167.3**	**179.6**	**194.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432572227725

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women	
			2005	2006
Czech Republic	4.4	5.1	1.8	2.1
Ukraine	3.7	3.9	2.2	2.2
Poland	2.8	3.6	1.6	1.9
Germany	1.6	2.3	0.4	0.5
Hungary	1.8	2.1	0.7	0.8
Russian Federation	1.2	1.3	0.8	0.8
Austria	0.9	1.2	0.2	0.2
Viet Nam	0.8	1.1	0.3	0.4
China	0.5	0.9	0.2	0.4
France	0.6	0.9	0.2	0.3
Korea	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.3
United Kingdom	0.5	0.7	0.1	0.2
Serbia and Montenegro	0.4	0.7	0.1	0.3
United States	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.3
Romania	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.3
Other countries	4.8	6.0	1.4	1.7
Total	**25.6**	**32.1**	**10.7**	**12.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432581840275

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Morocco	103.2	117.7	154.2	216.5	286.3	352.5	388.0	468.8	513.0	524.0	150.3	167.2	179.5
Romania	2.3	3.2	6.3	31.3	66.2	134.8	203.2	308.9	394.1	507.7	140.0	183.2	239.8
Ecuador	3.7	6.7	19.5	137.2	255.4	382.2	463.7	480.0	446.1	415.3	247.0	229.4	213.4
United Kingdom	69.8	76.9	86.0	99.8	119.9	152.0	165.3	215.9	261.1	299.3	106.4	128.5	147.0
Colombia	9.9	13.2	24.8	86.9	190.2	242.5	246.2	268.1	263.3	261.0	152.3	149.6	147.7
Bolivia	1.2	1.4	2.1	6.6	13.4	28.1	51.7	96.4	137.2	196.7	53.6	77.5	111.1
Argentina	21.3	23.3	26.1	37.6	66.3	128.8	157.3	185.4	189.6	186.0	89.1	91.1	89.6
Germany	55.5	65.4	78.4	92.6	106.4	121.6	108.5	123.5	138.6	150.9	61.5	68.7	74.8
Bulgaria	1.4	1.8	2.9	11.9	29.4	52.2	68.8	91.3	99.1	118.5	40.2	44.6	54.1
Peru	19.4	22.3	27.0	34.7	44.5	55.8	68.6	84.9	96.2	104.7	45.7	50.5	54.1
China	10.6	12.5	17.1	25.2	34.4	46.8	57.0	79.9	94.9	95.9	35.7	41.8	42.4
Brazil	6.7	8.3	11.1	17.3	24.0	31.8	38.0	54.9	73.7	92.3	35.1	45.7	55.5
Portugal	30.5	33.1	36.6	40.7	45.3	49.4	48.6	58.3	71.4	89.3	24.7	28.5	33.8
France	29.0	31.8	36.5	42.2	49.2	57.6	55.0	64.4	74.6	83.5	32.7	37.4	41.6
Ukraine	0.4	0.7	1.5	10.1	25.7	41.0	51.2	63.6	67.3	67.0	31.5	33.8	34.3
Other countries	272.3	330.7	393.7	480.1	621.3	787.3	863.1	1 086.5	1 223.9	1 327.4	492.8	551.2	605.3
Total	**637.1**	**749.0**	**923.9**	**1 370.7**	**1 977.9**	**2 664.2**	**3 034.3**	**3 730.6**	**4 144.2**	**4 519.6**	**1 738.6**	**1 928.7**	**2 123.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432148774427

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Finland	101.3	99.9	99.0	98.6	97.5	96.3	93.5	90.3	87.1	83.5	51.5	49.8	47.8
Denmark	25.4	25.0	25.0	25.6	26.6	28.1	29.7	31.2	32.9	35.8	12.9	13.6	14.9
Norway	31.0	30.6	30.9	32.0	33.3	34.7	35.5	35.6	35.4	35.5	18.2	18.0	18.0
Iraq	24.8	26.6	30.2	33.1	36.2	40.1	41.5	39.8	31.9	30.3	18.9	15.3	13.6
Germany	14.5	15.1	15.5	16.4	17.3	18.1	19.1	19.9	21.0	22.5	9.4	9.9	10.6
Poland	15.8	15.9	16.3	16.7	15.5	13.9	13.4	14.7	17.2	22.4	9.4	10.4	12.5
United Kingdom	11.7	12.1	12.4	13.1	13.8	14.2	14.4	14.6	14.7	15.1	4.5	4.5	4.6
Thailand	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.8	11.2	12.5	7.9	9.0	10.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	54.8	44.5	34.2	22.8	19.7	17.0	15.5	14.8	13.7	12.1	7.5	6.9	6.1
Somalia	13.1	13.5	13.5	11.5	9.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.6	11.6	4.5	4.8	5.6
Iran	26.2	19.8	16.1	14.3	13.5	12.9	12.5	12.4	11.5	10.5	6.4	5.8	5.2
Turkey	18.4	17.4	16.4	15.8	13.9	12.6	12.4	12.3	11.7	10.2	5.8	5.4	4.6
United States	9.4	9.5	9.6	10.0	10.0	9.6	9.4	9.3	9.2	8.4	4.1	4.0	3.7
Chile	11.9	11.4	10.8	10.3	9.9	9.4	9.1	8.9	8.6	8.1	3.9	3.7	3.5
Afghanistan	2.5	2.9	3.2	3.8	4.6	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.9	7.7	3.2	3.3	3.4
Other countries	156.1	150.6	148.4	147.6	148.3	146.3	147.0	151.9	157.3	165.7	74.8	76.5	79.7
Total	**522.0**	**499.9**	**487.2**	**477.3**	**476.0**	**474.1**	**476.1**	**481.1**	**479.9**	**492.0**	**242.8**	**241.1**	**244.0**

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Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Italy	342.3	335.4	327.7	321.6	314.0	308.3	303.8	300.2	296.4	291.7	127.0	125.3	123.2
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	189.4	190.7	194.7	198.1	199.8	199.2	196.2	190.8	. .	. .	91.2
Portugal	136.3	135.8	135.0	140.2	135.5	141.1	149.8	159.7	167.3	173.5	74.4	77.3	79.7
Germany	94.7	97.9	102.7	110.7	116.6	125.0	133.6	144.9	157.6	172.6	66.7	71.9	77.7
Turkey	79.6	79.5	79.9	79.5	79.5	78.8	77.7	76.6	75.4	73.9	35.4	34.8	34.1
France	55.0	56.1	58.0	61.1	61.5	63.2	65.0	67.0	69.0	71.5	31.5	32.4	33.4
Spain	94.0	90.4	86.8	83.8	81.0	78.9	76.8	74.3	71.4	68.2	33.6	32.3	30.9
Macedonia	48.5	51.0	53.9	55.9	58.4	59.8	60.5	60.8	60.7	60.1	28.7	28.8	28.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	26.1	28.6	41.8	44.3	45.7	46.0	45.4	44.8	43.2	41.3	21.9	21.2	20.2
Croatia	43.5	43.1	43.5	43.6	43.9	43.4	42.7	41.8	40.6	39.1	20.9	20.4	19.7
Austria	28.0	28.6	28.2	29.6	29.9	31.1	31.6	32.5	32.8	32.9	14.6	14.8	15.0
United Kingdom	18.3	18.7	19.6	20.8	22.2	22.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	26.0	10.2	10.5	11.1
Netherlands	13.9	13.8	13.9	14.4	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.4	15.8	16.1	7.1	7.3	7.4
United States	11.6	11.1	12.2	16.9	13.4	18.1	13.2	13.2	13.7	13.9	6.3	6.5	6.7
Belgium	6.6	6.9	7.1	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.0	4.1	4.2	4.3
Other countries	342.5	350.9	168.8	163.7	200.2	209.8	224.3	232.1	238.2	243.0	221.5	224.7	134.2
Total	**1 340.8**	**1 347.9**	**1 368.7**	**1 384.4**	**1 419.1**	**1 447.3**	**1 471.0**	**1 495.0**	**1 511.9**	**1 523.6**	**704.1**	**712.5**	**717.5**

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Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Ireland	446.0	448.0	442.0	404.0	436.0	403.0	367.0	368.0	369.0	335.0	206.0	204.0	189.0
India	110.0	139.0	149.0	153.0	132.0	145.0	154.0	171.0	190.0	258.0	92.0	97.0	130.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	34.0	24.0	34.0	48.0	110.0	209.0	26.0	56.0	96.0
United States	104.0	120.0	123.0	114.0	148.0	100.0	120.0	133.0	106.0	132.0	68.0	61.0	70.0
France	54.0	74.0	68.0	85.0	82.0	92.0	102.0	95.0	100.0	110.0	51.0	56.0	59.0
South Africa	24.0	39.0	50.0	. .	68.0	64.0	95.0	92.0	100.0	105.0	49.0	54.0	53.0
Germany	59.0	75.0	85.0	64.0	59.0	68.0	70.0	96.0	100.0	91.0	59.0	61.0	53.0
Australia	62.0	50.0	55.0	75.0	67.0	75.0	73.0	80.0	79.0	88.0	41.0	42.0	44.0
Portugal	27.0	38.0	44.0	29.0	58.0	85.0	88.0	83.0	85.0	81.0	44.0	45.0	43.0
Pakistan	68.0	69.0	73.0	94.0	82.0	97.0	83.0	86.0	95.0	78.0	38.0	43.0	37.0
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.0	35.0	51.0	73.0	68.0	77.0	40.0	34.0	43.0
Italy	77.0	89.0	80.0	95.0	102.0	98.0	91.0	121.0	88.0	76.0	61.0	44.0	32.0
China	21.0	23.0	25.0	22.0	24.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	73.0	. .	. .	39.0
Philippines	15.0	12.0	. .	20.0	27.0	32.0	54.0	52.0	51.0	71.0	34.0	36.0	45.0
Nigeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.0	42.0	33.0	43.0	62.0	61.0	18.0	31.0	27.0
Other countries	999.0	1 031.0	1 014.0	1 187.0	1 203.0	1 224.0	1 327.0	1 316.0	1 432.0	1 547.0	690.0	740.0	778.0
Total	**2 066.0**	**2 207.0**	**2 208.0**	**2 342.0**	**2 587.0**	**2 584.0**	**2 742.0**	**2 857.0**	**3 035.0**	**3 392.0**	**1 517.0**	**1 604.0**	**1 738.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432157477304

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5 and B.1.5. **Foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. *Reference date:* Annual average.	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers are recorded in a separate register. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons), long-term visas (over 90 days) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable). *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date:* 30 September.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Includes permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and cross-border workers are not included.	Census, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign-born persons of German origin *(Aussiedler)*. Decrease in 2004 is due to cross checking of residence register and central alien register. *Reference date:* 31 December. *Other comments:* Disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over.	Central population register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Labour Force Survey.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. From 2000 on, registers have been purged of expired permits. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	Estimates in Table A.1.5 are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.1.5) are from the 2002 and 2006 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over. *Reference date:* 28 April 2002 (2002 Census), 2006 Census and 2nd quarter of each year (Labour Force survey).	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
Italy	Data refer to residing foreigners (those who are registered with municipal registry offices). Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1987-1988, 1990, 1995-1996, 1998 and 2002 programmes. In 1999 and 2000, figures include 139 601 and 116 253 regularised persons respectively. Data for "Former Yugoslavia" refer to persons entering with a Yugoslav passeport (with no other specification). *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers. Data have been revised since 2002 in order to include foreign nationals with Korean ancestors (called as overseas Koreans) who enter with F-4 visa and are also registered in population registers. The large increase in 2003 is mainly due to a regularisation program introduced in mid 2003.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) and cross-border workers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5 and B.1.5. **Foreign population** *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Netherlands	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). *Reference date:* Presented data is count on 1 january of the next year. Thus population in 2006 is the population on 1 january 2007.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register, including asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. *Reference date:* 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Poland	The data refer to the stock of foreign nationals who are permanent residents of Poland. Excluding foreign permanent residents who had been staying abroad for more than 12 months and foreign temporary residents who had been staying in Poland for less than 12 months. Data for 2006 are from the Central Population Register, *Reference date:* May 2002.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 1996 include 21 800 permits delivered following the regularisation programmes. Data for 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 include Stay Permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme as well as the foreigners who received Long Term Permits (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year. Data for 2005 and 2006 comprehend holders of valid Residence Permits, holders of valid Stay Permits (foreigners who renovated their Stay Permits in each year) and holders of Long Term Visas (both issued and renovated every year). Work Visas issued after 2004 comprehend a certain number of foreigners that benefited from the regularisation scheme and also from the specific dispositions applying to Brazilian workers that resulted from a bilateral agreement signed between Portugal and Brazil.	Ministry of the Interior; National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Slovak Republic	Holders of a long-term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. As in summer 2006, Serbia and Montenegro became two separate countries, people who were previously citizens of Serbia and Montenegro and who have not registered a new country of citizenship with the Swedish Migration Board are reported as having an unknown country of citizenship. This explains the large increase in people with an unknown country of citizenship. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Stock of all those with residence or settlement permits (permits B and C respectively). Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. Data for 2006 refer to Serbia instead of Serbia and Montenegro. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). There is a break in the series as 2004 data are calculated using a new weighting system. *Reference date:* 31 December. *Other comments*: Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.

Acquisition of nationality

Nationality law can have a significant impact on the measurement of the national and foreign populations. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly easily acquire the nationality of the host country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the population of nationals. On the other hand, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen or becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc. as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country).

Table A.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries**

Numbers and percentages

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Countries where the national/foreigner distinction is prevalent										
Austria	15 792	17 786	24 678	24 320	31 731	36 011	44 694	41 645	34 876	25 746
% of foreign population	2.3	2.6	3.6	3.5	4.4	4.8	5.9	5.4	4.4	3.2
Belgium	31 687	34 034	24 273	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754	31 512	31 860
% of foreign population	3.5	3.8	2.7	6.9	7.3	5.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5
Czech Republic	. .	. .	8 107	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020	2 626	2 346
% of foreign population	. .	. .	3.7	3.6	3.1	2.1	1.5	2.1	0.9	0.8
Denmark	5 482	10 262	12 416	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976	10 197	7 961
% of foreign population	2.3	4.1	4.8	7.3	4.6	6.5	2.5	5.5	3.8	2.9
Finland	1 439	4 017	4 730	2 977	2 720	3 049	4 526	6 880	5 683	4 433
% of foreign population	1.8	4.7	5.4	3.3	2.8	2.9	4.3	6.5	5.1	3.9
France	116 194	123 761	147 522	150 026	127 548	128 092	144 640	168 826	154 827	147 868
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	4.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.2
Germany	82 913	106 790	142 670	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153	117 241	124 832
% of foreign population	1.1	1.4	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.8
Hungary	8 658	6 435	6 066	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432	9 870	6 101
% of foreign population	6.1	4.3	4.0	4.9	7.8	2.7	4.5	4.2	6.9	4.0
Italy	9 789	12 016	11 335	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934	19 266	35 766
% of foreign population	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8	1.3
Japan	15 061	14 779	16 120	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336	15 251	14 108
% of foreign population	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 680	3 883	7 734	9 262	16 974	8 125
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	1.7	2.8	2.0	3.5	1.6
Luxembourg	749	631	549	684	496	754	785	841	954	1 128
% of foreign population	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Netherlands	59 830	59 170	62 090	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799	26 173	28 488	29 089
% of foreign population	8.8	8.7	9.4	7.7	7.0	6.6	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.2
Norway	12 037	9 244	7 988	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154	12 655	11 955
% of foreign population	7.6	5.8	4.8	5.3	5.9	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.7	5.4
Poland	. .	871	1 000	975	766	1 186	1 634	1 937	2 866	989
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.3	. .	. .	. .
Portugal	1 364	519	946	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346	939	3 627
% of foreign population	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 492	4 016	1 393	1 125
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.8	13.8	6.3	4.4
Spain	10 311	13 177	16 394	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556	38 335	42 830	62 339
% of foreign population	1.9	2.2	2.3	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.3
Sweden	28 867	46 502	37 777	43 474	36 397	37 792	33 006	26 769	39 573	51 239
% of foreign population	5.5	8.9	7.6	8.9	7.6	7.9	7.0	5.9	8.2	10.7
Switzerland	19 170	21 280	20 363	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685	38 437	46 711
% of foreign population	1.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.1
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	23 725	21 086	8 238	6 901	5 072
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	37 010	53 525	54 902	82 210	90 295	120 125	125 535	140 705	161 700	154 095
% of foreign population	1.9	2.6	2.5	3.7	3.9	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.7	5.1
Countries where native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent										
Australia	108 266	112 343	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289	79 164	87 049	93 095	103 350
Canada	154 624	134 485	158 753	214 568	167 353	141 588	155 117	192 590	196 291	259 046
Mexico	1 061	1 795	1 625	3 227	1 094	4 737	4 245	5 554	8 527	. .
New Zealand	15 757	20 173	34 470	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142	24 341	29 017
United States	598 225	463 060	839 944	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589
EU25, Norway and Switzerland	**. .**	**. .**	**583 806**	**698 588**	**671 144**	**677 915**	**661 805**	**700 581**	**715 933**	**749 210**
North America	**753 910**	**599 340**	**1 000 322**	**1 106 583**	**776 652**	**720 033**	**622 566**	**735 295**	**809 098**	**961 635**

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Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age, residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.6. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") gives the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRALIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	27 294	23 080	13 529	14 592	12 474	16 411	14 854	17 201	20 127	21 773
India	2 563	3 358	2 695	2 381	2 335	2 510	3 051	3 638	5 027	7 416
New Zealand	9 982	8 764	6 320	6 676	11 007	17 334	13 994	13 052	9 363	7 293
China	16 173	21 053	10 947	7 664	6 890	6 416	7 126	7 072	7 798	7 245
South Africa	1 578	1 880	1 606	2 253	2 992	3 922	3 998	4 908	5 085	4 939
Philippines	3 815	3 688	2 606	2 349	2 211	2 849	2 885	3 019	3 653	3 690
Iraq	1 591	2 877	1 698	1 853	1 862	2 182	1 502	1 271	2 115	2 173
Viet Nam	5 083	4 685	3 083	3 441	1 953	2 090	1 676	2 215	2 056	2 089
Malaysia	764	719	1 002	1 154	1 057	1 504	1 619	1 846	1 798	1 988
Sri Lanka	1 620	2 049	1 707	1 832	1 672	1 362	1 328	1 582	1 711	1 949
United States	1 701	1 565	1 083	989	1 004	1 318	1 194	1 409	1 648	1 804
Fiji	1 721	1 934	1 665	1 379	1 398	1 567	1 509	1 582	1 548	1 691
Ireland	1 278	1 167	724	698	682	852	734	905	941	1 210
Iran	891	1 143	876	755	827	864	928	644	877	725
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 637	2 728	1 841	1 531	2 661	2 194	1 475	1 490	822	504
Other countries	30 575	31 653	25 092	21 289	21 045	22 914	21 291	25 215	28 526	36 861
Total	**108 266**	**112 343**	**76 474**	**70 836**	**72 070**	**86 289**	**79 164**	**87 049**	**93 095**	**103 350**

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Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	5 064	5 664	10 324	6 720	10 046	12 623	13 665	13 004	9 545	7 542
Serbia and Montenegro	1 854	1 640	3 853	2 810	4 296	4 806	9 836	7 245	6 681	4 825
Bosnia and Herzegovina	734	993	1 536	2 761	3 856	5 913	8 268	8 657	7 026	4 596
Croatia	741	1 102	1 008	1 642	1 986	2 537	2 588	2 212	2 276	2 494
Romania	1 096	1 500	1 635	2 682	2 813	1 774	2 096	1 373	1 128	983
FYROM	206	320	257	241	471	574	786	803	991	716
Egypt	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	382
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	261
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	253
Bulgaria	185	318	302	385	386	321	364	274	221	247
Poland	660	749	531	545	606	930	768	768	443	236
Russian Federation	112	181	137	168	166	161	83	194	235	228
Nigeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	189
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	182
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	176
Other countries	5 140	5 319	5 095	6 366	7 105	6 372	6 240	7 115	6 330	2 436
Total	**15 792**	**17 786**	**24 678**	**24 320**	**31 731**	**36 011**	**44 694**	**41 645**	**34 876**	**25 746**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432661302043

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

BELGIUM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Morocco	11 076	13 484	9 133	21 917	24 018	15 832	10 565	8 704	7 977	7 753
Turkey	6 884	6 177	4 402	17 282	14 401	7 805	5 186	4 467	3 602	3 204
Italy	1 726	1 536	1 187	3 650	3 451	2 341	2 646	2 271	2 086	2 360
Democratic Republic of the Congo	756	1 202	1 890	2 993	2 991	2 809	1 796	2 585	1 876	1 569
France	530	491	363	948	1 025	856	698	780	772	820
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	145	239	403	317	756	769	768
Netherlands	292	249	234	492	601	646	522	665	672	692
Algeria	608	672	520	1 071	1 281	926	826	830	739	658
Rwanda	. .	. .	. .	. .	794	1 012	557	571	700	635
Poland	220	277	253	551	677	630	460	465	470	550
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	265	301	237	339	297	496
Romania	358	387	267	403	321	294	277	314	332	429
Tunisia	566	585	301	859	729	521	383	406	297	388
Philippines	147	162	190	315	323	388	283	442	370	385
Pakistan	133	155	131	75	474	404	270	298	306	348
Other countries	8 391	8 657	5 402	11 381	11 392	11 249	8 686	10 861	10 247	10 805
Total	**31 687**	**34 034**	**24 273**	**62 082**	**62 982**	**46 417**	**33 709**	**34 754**	**31 512**	**31 860**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432681065562

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Slovak Republic	6 278	5 377	3 593	2 109	989	1 741	1 259	786
Ukraine	263	373	173	251	419	446	239	425
Former Czechoslovakia	798	1 899	1 607	1 273	1 154	1 784	190	205
Romania	38	58	140	109	116	101	143	131
Kazakhstan	3	17	25	43	156	89	43	129
Russian Federation	100	71	87	65	7	86	134	107
Poland	23	8	163	304	170	298	167	86
Armenia	11	8	11	8	18	23	32	61
Bulgaria	84	105	132	95	54	62	48	48
Viet Nam	87	101	76	29	46	47	62	43
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10	11	13	20	47	62	63	37
Serbia and Montenegro	50	12	35	16	14	42	26	31
Belarus	7	13	19	13	14	21	35	27
Greece	45	26	38	19	26	16	7	25
Angola	. .	. .	5	1	1	1	1	18
Other countries	310	256	204	177	179	201	177	187
Total	**8 107**	**8 335**	**6 321**	**4 532**	**3 410**	**5 020**	**2 626**	**2 346**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432743730528

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

DENMARK

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	1 036	1 243	3 154	2 787	3 130	2 418	2 158	732	878	1 125
Iraq	244	718	918	2 210	871	1 161	153	1 015	961	1 113
Somalia	17	159	215	1 189	1 074	2 263	324	2 022	1 709	923
Former Yugoslavia	280	648	652	917	355	784	239	835	324	594
China	32	117	169	228	195	289	203	339	382	281
Afghanistan	15	101	98	276	215	301	40	367	282	260
Viet Nam	126	365	439	647	318	508	280	318	232	213
Iran	553	969	914	1 105	437	519	120	505	317	203
Pakistan	149	284	463	545	297	573	94	332	305	172
Sri Lanka	376	613	523	819	365	594	119	678	332	148
Morocco	110	248	322	485	213	313	69	244	147	114
Germany	138	173	197	240	129	174	82	178	144	99
Thailand	44	85	137	214	124	172	62	180	114	95
Lebanon	160	811	601	1 099	309	376	69	219	140	80
Poland	130	241	173	201	126	309	130	186	103	73
Other countries	2 072	3 487	3 441	5 849	3 744	6 546	2 441	6 826	3 827	2 468
Total	**5 482**	**10 262**	**12 416**	**18 811**	**11 902**	**17 300**	**6 583**	**14 976**	**10 197**	**7 961**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432756801382

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

FINLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Russian Federation	210	666	800	666	533	418	1 682	2 313	2 094	1 399
Somalia	10	476	1 208	346	222	204	209	165	414	445
Iraq	15	135	140	185	224	217	165	447	346	405
Serbia and Montenegro	–	–	–	4	14	41	32	338	346	248
Iran	58	176	53	102	58	68	124	225	233	213
Sweden	99	142	84	44	57	61	94	149	198	178
Estonia	62	143	379	353	295	319	468	690	291	176
Turkey	28	78	115	85	82	112	141	171	128	110
Afghanistan	1	5	. .	2	. .	23	3	14	48	101
Viet Nam	172	381	71	155	164	205	133	209	82	64
China	81	209	123	92	106	136	126	95	60	57
Former USSR	44	138	135	48	51	56	126	59	50	22
Other countries	659	1 468	1 622	895	914	1 189	1 223	2 005	1 393	1 015
Total	**1 439**	**4 017**	**4 730**	**2 977**	**2 720**	**3 049**	**4 526**	**6 880**	**5 683**	**4 433**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432772787368

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

FRANCE

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Algeria	13 547	13 610	15 743	17 627	15 498	15 711	20 245	40 052	25 435	33 702
Morocco	27 569	25 585	38 298	37 795	34 922	33 967	36 875	32 878	37 848	27 187
Turkey	7 494	7 158	11 380	12 137	10 755	10 468	10 492	13 644	13 618	11 629
Portugal	14 807	11 668	13 151	11 201	9 182	8 844	9 576	10 988	8 888	10 524
Tunisia	9 299	9 106	12 467	12 763	10 251	9 956	11 412	9 472	12 012	8 255
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 213	1 340	1 495	1 765	1 401	1 572	2 012	3 323	2 631	3 210
Haiti	1 401	1 372	1 711	1 920	1 571	2 082	2 734	3 191	2 744	3 154
Cameroon	1 179	1 158	1 400	1 556	1 381	1 770	2 196	2 682	2 081	3 013
Serbia and Montenegro	1 968	1 738	2 249	2 358	1 880	1 902	2 129	2 804	2 737	2 803
Senegal	1 048	1 212	1 530	1 595	1 463	1 858	2 185	2 491	2 345	2 485
Congo	639	624	932	1 083	1 100	1 475	1 769	2 005	2 390	2 193
Côte d'Ivoire	848	989	1 113	1 409	1 194	1 495	1 869	2 143	1 987	2 120
Cambodia	3 153	2 628	2 843	2 958	2 241	1 861	1 734	2 474	1 818	2 024
Sri Lanka	1 046	989	1 439	1 819	1 345	1 377	1 748	2 239	2 011	1 986
Madagascar	1 023	1 175	1 288	1 406	1 281	1 352	1 628	1 728	1 440	1 630
Other countries	29 960	43 409	40 483	40 634	32 083	32 402	36 035	36 712	34 842	31 953
Total	**116 194**	**123 761**	**147 522**	**150 026**	**127 548**	**128 092**	**144 640**	**168 826**	**154 827**	**147 868**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432830433410

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

GERMANY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	42 420	59 664	103 900	82 861	76 573	64 631	56 244	44 465	32 661	33 388
Serbia and Montenegro	1 989	2 404	3 120	9 776	12 000	8 375	5 504	3 539	8 824	9 552
Iran	919	1 171	1 529	14 410	12 020	13 026	9 440	6 362	4 482	3 662
Morocco	4 010	4 981	4 312	5 008	4 425	3 800	4 118	3 820	3 684	3 546
Afghanistan	1 475	1 200	1 355	4 773	5 111	4 750	4 948	4 077	3 133	3 063
Lebanon	1 159	1 782	2 491	5 673	4 486	3 300	2 651	2 265	1 969	2 030
Bosnia and Herzegovina	995	3 469	3 745	4 002	3 791	2 357	1 770	2 103	1 907	1 862
Croatia	1 789	2 198	1 536	3 316	3 931	2 974	2 048	1 689	1 287	1 729
Viet Nam	3 129	3 452	2 270	4 489	3 014	1 482	1 423	1 371	1 278	1 382
Other countries	25 028	26 469	18 412	52 380	52 747	49 852	52 585	57 462	58 016	64 618
Total	**82 913**	**106 790**	**142 670**	**186 688**	**178 098**	**154 547**	**140 731**	**127 153**	**117 241**	**124 832**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432745864770

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

ITALY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Morocco	570	634	638	573	579	624	1 132	1 046	. .	3 295
Romania	796	1 086	936	665	855	968	977	847	. .	2 775
Argentina	335	345	255	240	316	411	541	515	. .	2 569
Albania	438	535	748	521	687	703	830	882	. .	2 330
Brazil	339	537	461	512	619	604	726	579	. .	1 751
Cuba	140	357	379	377	512	542	646	539	. .	1 535
Poland	422	469	502	448	475	519	677	619	. .	1 320
Russian Federation	–	–	452	347	384	439	463	436	. .	1 181
Tunisia	205	256	237	208	215	175	271	258	. .	371
Egypt	220	287	270	266	235	195	264	283	. .	217
Ghana	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	213
Croatia	241	285	274	214	256	234	336	208	. .	147
Bosnia and Herzegovina	58	92	149	77	109	114	111	80	. .	120
Other countries	6 025	7 133	6 034	5 115	5 140	5 157	6 432	5 642	. .	17 942
Total	**9 789**	**12 016**	**11 335**	**9 563**	**10 382**	**10 685**	**13 406**	**11 934**	**19 266**	**35 766**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432833647782

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

JAPAN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Korea	9 678	9 561	10 059	9 842	10 295	9 188	11 778	11 031	9 689	8 531
China	4 729	4 637	5 335	5 245	4 377	4 442	4 722	4 122	4 427	4 347
Other countries	654	581	726	725	619	709	1 133	1 183	1 135	1 230
Total	**15 061**	**14 779**	**16 120**	**15 812**	**15 291**	**14 339**	**17 633**	**16 336**	**15 251**	**14 108**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432845264828

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

KOREA

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	1 391	3 344	6 146	7 443	14 881	7 156
Philippines	21	112	928	1 074	786	317
Viet Nam	8	30	81	147	362	243
Thailand	7	12	41	53	69	39
Uzbekistan	5	6	21	34	79	38
Mongolia	1	10	43	36	109	32
Pakistan	9	13	63	58	66	18
Other countries	238	356	411	417	622	282
Total	**1 680**	**3 883**	**7 734**	**9 262**	**16 974**	**8 125**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432871015473

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

LUXEMBOURG

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Portugal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	188	252	338
Italy	192	149	94	157	105	119	120	111	97	161
Belgium	64	48	53	72	39	87	73	83	101	87
France	79	53	43	52	33	65	57	44	51	74
Germany	60	44	41	50	45	47	50	62	79	74
Other countries	354	337	318	353	274	436	485	353	374	394
Total	**749**	**631**	**549**	**684**	**496**	**754**	**785**	**841**	**954**	**1 128**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433007423151

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Morocco	10 480	11 250	14 220	13 471	12 721	12 033	7 126	5 873	7 086	6 896
Turkey	21 190	13 480	5 210	4 708	5 513	5 391	3 726	4 026	3 493	3 407
Suriname	3 020	2 990	3 190	2 008	2 025	1 957	1 242	1 421	2 031	1 636
China	975	800	977	1 002	1 111	908	722	739	1 291	799
Former USSR	298	537	1 021	681	544	411	296	296	660	582
Afghanistan	217	905	1 847	945	803	1 118	982	801	550	562
Russian Federation	288	289	489	422	335	347	207	242	521	466
Germany	560	560	580	508	573	608	445	297	349	447
Former Yugoslavia	3 356	2 795	2 577	1 163	764	538	323	378	424	408
Iraq	798	2 721	3 834	2 403	2 315	2 367	832	489	333	331
Ghana	737	502	432	348	360	357	157	74	199	296
United Kingdom	690	580	450	374	356	394	294	190	221	248
Indonesia	314	368	514	456	416	380	291	203	293	248
Egypt	550	390	500	443	528	437	190	97	238	245
Poland	827	677	688	587	597	530	318	212	347	238
Other countries	15 530	20 326	25 561	20 449	17 706	17 545	11 648	10 835	10 452	12 280
Total	**59 830**	**59 170**	**62 090**	**49 968**	**46 667**	**45 321**	**28 799**	**26 173**	**28 488**	**29 089**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433026464075

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NEW ZEALAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
India	520	895	1 779	1 847	1 376	1 350	1 255	2 127	2 905	4 330
China	1 346	2 232	4 687	3 752	2 579	1 896	2 032	2 849	3 323	3 888
United Kingdom	2 744	3 031	4 212	3 670	3 019	2 187	2 266	2 377	2 423	2 890
South Africa	937	1 181	1 645	2 010	2 028	1 973	1 992	2 407	2 425	2 799
Fiji	808	739	1 104	1 253	1 273	1 139	1 047	1 452	1 543	1 689
Korea	1 238	1 072	2 314	1 982	1 053	685	642	1 099	1 523	1 638
Samoa	1 495	1 663	1 649	1 702	1 590	1 307	1 189	1 065	1 153	1 363
Philippines	329	403	1 007	949	829	652	555	702	844	1 123
Other countries	6 340	8 957	16 073	12 444	9 788	8 280	7 318	8 064	8 202	9 297
Total	**15 757**	**20 173**	**34 470**	**29 609**	**23 535**	**19 469**	**18 296**	**22 142**	**24 341**	**29 017**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433056206737

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NORWAY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Iraq	253	317	567	524	331	497	403	619	2 141	2 142
Somalia	507	739	591	332	676	546	392	526	1 250	1 281
Serbia and Montenegro	520	560	1 176	1 322	1 199	614	310	303	852	1 107
Pakistan	1 583	1 097	106	1 077	409	829	497	568	694	590
Iran	848	629	526	481	361	324	228	508	832	535
Bosnia and Herzegovina	12	8	36	875	2 999	1 229	1 965	827	707	519
Russian Federation	76	93	102	222	192	308	280	365	548	458
Sweden	167	154	241	246	249	216	211	221	276	376
Turkey	837	705	170	523	356	412	398	393	385	355
Croatia	8	3	3	9	11	12	34	37	622	317
Thailand	202	177	91	142	302	257	193	234	299	263
Philippines	360	155	199	157	261	299	265	249	322	246
Sri Lanka	834	531	650	454	477	461	281	235	264	242
Viet Nam	1 276	781	651	738	594	292	210	222	216	216
Afghanistan	82	46	31	19	36	17	21	23	75	194
Other countries	4 472	3 249	2 848	2 396	2 385	2 728	2 179	2 824	3 172	3 114
Total	**12 037**	**9 244**	**7 988**	**9 517**	**10 838**	**9 041**	**7 867**	**8 154**	**12 655**	**11 955**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433053687460

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

POLAND

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ukraine	14	15	46	62	214	431	538	759	417
Russian Federation	16	24	23	14	22	52	145	257	129
Belarus	13	15	25	31	54	108	129	316	101
Turkey	8	8	4	15	1	5	11	19	36
Viet Nam	13	14	7	13	17	11	11	36	29
Armenia	–	8	11	6	13	8	6	18	27
Lithuania	39	52	95	64	93	126	85	36	11
India	4	5	3	6	3	7	9	23	11
Kazakhstan	39	49	54	43	53	68	38	62	10
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	–	–	–	19	8
Serbia and Montenegro	15	25	18	25	19	11	12	37	8
Bulgaria	61	47	50	29	30	41	32	54	8
United States	30	30	26	11	9	32	41	59	8
Sweden	10	8	10	13	30	107	81	90	8
China	3	3	2	7	6	6	14	5	7
Other countries	606	697	601	427	622	621	785	1 076	171
Total	**871**	**1 000**	**975**	**766**	**1 186**	**1 634**	**1 937**	**2 866**	**989**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433070164317

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

PORTUGAL

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Cape Verde	93	159	117	69	228	271	370	274	132	1 047
Guinea-Bissau	16	67	37	27	55	73	38	95	36	873
Brazil	296	46	186	175	283	345	345	307	162	491
Angola	56	56	62	42	65	82	144	63	38	336
Venezuela	431	1	219	186	162	221	311	301	314	212
Sao Tome and Principe	12	28	15	7	20	34	58	22	7	134
Mozambique	26	56	37	10	24	27	56	17	4	57
Canada	92	4	70	55	54	65	68	38	46	51
United States	203	7	91	64	90	108	94	72	49	33
United Kingdom	9	–	17	8	5	12	28	21	20	30
India	. .	6	4	10	6	9	11	3	6	25
Other countries	130	89	91	68	90	122	224	133	125	338
Total	**1 364**	**519**	**946**	**721**	**1 082**	**1 369**	**1 747**	**1 346**	**939**	**3 627**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433083644855

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ukraine	251	549	450	377
Romania	450	442	220	147
Czech Republic	597	775	167	121
United States	97	136	64	113
Serbia and Montenegro	438	506	183	42
Viet Nam	405	619	40	40
Russian Federation	65	96	37	35
Bulgaria	66	42	24	35
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	31
Poland	43	26	14	20
Kazakhstan	5	18	8	19
Croatia	35	50	22	16
Germany	19	30	10	13
Hungary	5	9	7	9
Switzerland	12	9	2	8
Other countries	1 004	709	145	99
Total	**3 492**	**4 016**	**1 393**	**1 125**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433121708886

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SPAIN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ecuador	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19 477
Colombia	478	624	818	302	848	1 267	1 802	4 194	7 334	12 720
Morocco	1 056	1 542	2 053	1 921	2 822	3 111	6 827	8 036	5 556	5 690
Peru	1 159	1 863	2 374	1 488	2 322	3 117	2 932	3 958	3 645	4 713
Argentina	1 368	1 126	1 027	661	791	997	1 015	1 746	2 293	3 536
Dominican Republic	1 257	1 860	2 652	1 755	2 126	2 876	2 639	2 834	2 322	2 805
Cuba	442	773	1 109	893	1 191	2 088	1 601	1 889	2 506	2 703
Venezuela	153	203	290	197	326	439	529	703	752	908
Chile	428	473	432	594	359	353	349	484	621	844
Brazil	217	299	308	273	411	477	500	683	695	782
Philippines	583	499	551	365	554	831	670	800	680	762
Bolivia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	648
Uruguay	279	310	309	177	239	219	234	327	409	624
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	567
Equatorial Guinea	140	200	278	206	321	338	342	479	455	467
Other countries	2 751	3 405	4 193	3 167	4 433	5 697	7 116	12 202	15 562	5 093
Total	**10 311**	**13 177**	**16 394**	**11 999**	**16 743**	**21 810**	**26 556**	**38 335**	**42 830**	**62 339**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432768266264

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Iraq	2 328	3 719	2 328	4 181	4 043	4 160	4 678	5 298	11 544	12 895
Serbia and Montenegro	6 052	8 991	4 000	5 134	1 642	2 747	2 061	2 124	3 254	3 073
Finland	1 882	1 668	1 632	1 389	1 512	1 561	2 816	2 703	2 588	2 975
Turkey	1 402	1 694	1 833	1 398	2 796	2 127	1 375	1 269	1 702	2 921
Iran	2 423	7 480	4 476	2 798	2 031	1 737	1 350	1 296	1 889	2 796
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 550	10 860	11 348	12 591	4 241	4 064	3 090	1 469	1 788	2 627
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	626	642	535	886	1 510
Syria	567	653	438	693	588	1 063	1 218	1 117	1 208	1 314
China	302	334	300	434	460	563	675	654	920	1 141
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	285	278	361	623	1 062
Poland	523	454	159	264	1 906	2 604	1 325	990	793	1 000
Somalia	491	737	739	2 843	2 802	1 789	1 121	840	688	931
Thailand	343	336	492	525	454	606	443	500	585	876
Chile	545	426	693	687	727	689	548	464	543	754
Lebanon	33	146	235	366	720	884	388	298	439	648
Other countries	9 426	9 004	9 104	10 171	12 475	12 287	10 998	6 851	10 123	14 716
Total	**28 867**	**46 502**	**37 777**	**43 474**	**36 397**	**37 792**	**33 006**	**26 769**	**39 573**	**51 239**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433146041483

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	2 085	2 365	3 285	3 686	5 803	6 332	7 854	9 503	11 721
Italy	4 982	5 613	5 510	6 652	5 386	6 633	5 085	4 196	4 032	4 502
Turkey	1 814	2 093	2 260	3 127	3 116	4 128	4 216	3 565	3 467	3 457
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	205	409	999	1 128	1 865	2 268	2 371	2 790	3 149
Macedonia	. .	308	410	857	1 022	1 639	1 802	1 981	2 171	2 596
Portugal	291	421	481	765	779	920	1 165	1 199	1 505	2 383
Croatia	. .	634	671	970	1 045	1 638	1 565	1 616	1 681	1 837
Spain	481	619	507	851	699	691	800	823	975	1 283
France	985	1 152	848	1 360	1 307	1 367	1 215	1 181	1 021	1 260
Germany	644	605	461	646	586	817	670	639	773	1 144
United Kingdom	269	285	228	339	310	350	306	289	287	323
Netherlands	71	76	45	74	90	90	155	254	178	210
Austria	223	186	140	240	233	227	194	150	167	174
Hungary	206	187	153	167	127	138	108	99	75	117
Czech Republic	. .	153	109	132	130	104	68	63	78	115
Other countries	9 204	6 658	5 766	8 236	7 942	10 105	9 475	9 405	9 734	12 440
Total	**19 170**	**21 280**	**20 363**	**28 700**	**27 586**	**36 515**	**35 424**	**35 685**	**38 437**	**46 711**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/432705457243

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

UNITED STATES

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Mexico	142 569	112 442	207 750	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840	77 089	83 979
India	21 206	17 060	30 710	42 198	34 311	33 774	29 790	37 975	35 962	47 542
Philippines	30 898	24 872	38 944	46 563	35 431	30 487	29 081	31 448	36 673	40 500
China	20 947	16 145	38 409	54 534	34 423	32 018	24 014	27 309	31 708	35 387
Viet Nam	36 178	30 185	53 316	55 934	41 596	36 835	25 995	27 480	32 926	29 917
Dominican Republic	21 092	11 916	23 089	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464	20 831	22 165
Cuba	13 155	15 331	25 467	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236	11 227	21 481
Jamaica	20 253	15 040	28 604	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271	13 674	18 953
Korea	16 056	10 305	17 738	23 858	18 053	17 307	15 968	17 184	19 223	17 668
Haiti	16 477	10 416	19 550	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215	9 740	15 979
Colombia	11 645	7 024	13 168	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819	11 396	15 698
El Salvador	18 273	12 267	22 991	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602	12 174	13 430
Iran	11 434	10 739	18 268	19 251	13 881	11 796	10 807	11 781	11 031	11 363
Pakistan	7 266	3 572	6 572	8 726	8 375	8 658	7 431	8 744	9 699	10 411
Poland	8 037	5 911	13 127	16 405	11 661	12 823	9 140	10 335	9 801	10 230
Other countries	202 739	159 835	282 241	315 691	231 916	242 396	199 336	234 448	261 126	307 886
Total	**598 225**	**463 060**	**839 944**	**888 788**	**608 205**	**573 708**	**463 204**	**537 151**	**604 280**	**702 589**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433181013307

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.6 and B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria		Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium		National Statistical Office and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	Data provided for 2004 and 2005 are preliminary figures based on country of birth. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time depending on the laws of the countries concerned.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	Data by former nationality for naturalisations by "anticipated delaration" have been estimated.	IMINIDCO and Ministry of Justice.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Hungary	Including grants of nationality to ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available. If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.	Department of Internal Affairs.
Norway		Statistics Norway.
Poland	Until 2001, data include naturalisations in conferment procedure. Starting in 2002, they include conferment procedure, acknowledgment procedure and marriage procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal		National Statistical Office (INE) and SEF data.
Slovak Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Data for 2006 refers to Serbia.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
Turkey		Ministry of Interior, General Directorate of Population and Citizenship Affairs.
United Kingdom		Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Inflows of foreign workers

Inflows of foreign workers

Most of the statistics published here are based on the number of work permits issued during the year. As was the case for overall immigration flows, the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrant workers, persons who have received a permanent immigration permit for employment purposes. In each of these four countries, it is also possible to work on a temporary basis under various programmes (these data are also available in this annex). Data by country of origin are not published for the series.

The data on European countries are based on initial work permits granted, which sometimes include temporary and seasonal workers. Some significant flows of workers may not be covered, either because the type of permit that they hold is not covered in these statistics, or because they do not need permits in order to work (free circulation agreements, beneficiaries of family reunification, refugees). Data for some countries may include renewals of permits. The administrative backlog in the processing of work permit applications is sometimes large (as in the United States, for example), so that the numbers recorded may bear little relation to the demand. The data may also cover initial entries into the labour market and include young foreigners born in the country who are entering the labour market.

Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Australia										
Permanent settlers	19.7	26.0	27.9	32.4	35.7	36.0	38.5	51.5	53.1	59.5
Temporary workers	31.7	37.3	37.0	39.2	36.9	33.5	36.8	39.5	48.6	71.2
Austria	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1	24.5	23.2	22.6
Belgium	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7	4.6	4.3	6.3	12.5
Canada	75.6	80.1	87.0	97.1	100.6	95.4	88.5	95.2	102.6	112.7
Denmark	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1	4.8 |	2.3	4.3	7.4	13.6
Finland	. .	. .	. .	10.4	14.1	13.3	13.8	15.2	18.7	23.0
France										
Permanents	5.2	5.4	6.3	6.4	9.2	8.0	6.9	7.0	8.9	10.3
APT	4.7	4.3	5.8	7.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.0	10.4	10.7
Germany	285.4	275.5	304.9	333.8	373.8	374.0	372.2	380.3	. .	. .
Hungary	19.7	22.6	29.6	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4	79.2	72.6	71.1
Ireland	4.5	5.7	6.3	18.0	36.4	40.3	47.6	34.1	27.1	24.9
Italy	. .	21.6	21.4	58.0	92.4	139.1	. .	. .	75.3	69.0
Japan	93.9	101.9	108.0	129.9	142.0	145.1	155.8	158.9	125.4	81.4
Luxembourg	18.6	22.0	24.2	26.5	25.8	22.4	22.6	22.9	24.8	28.0
Mexico	73.2	73.9	64.9	65.3	61.9	57.0	60.1	68.8	75.3	85.4
Netherlands	11.1	15.2	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0	44.1	46.1	74.1
New Zealand										
Permanent settlers	. .	4.8	5.6	7.8	13.3	13.4	9.2	7.7	14.5	12.3
Temporary workers	. .	28.4	32.1	35.2	48.3	59.6	64.5	77.2	88.1	106.0
Norway	11.3	13.2	14.0	14.8	17.8	23.5	25.2	33.0	28.3	40.5
Poland	15.3	16.9	17.1	17.8	17.0	22.8	18.8	12.4	10.3	10.8
Portugal	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8 |	136.0	55.3	16.4	19.3	13.1	13.8
Spain	25.9	48.1	49.7 |	172.6	154.9 |	101.6	74.6	158.9	648.5	108.8
Sweden	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.2	8.5	13.3	18.1
Switzerland	25.4	26.8	31.5	34.0	41.9	40.1	35.4	40.0	40.3	46.4
United Kingdom	31.7	37.5	42.0	64.6	85.1	88.6	85.8	89.5	86.2	96.7
United States										
Permanent settlers	90.5	77.4	56.7	106.6	178.7	173.8	81.7	155.3	246.9	159.1
Temporary workers	208.1	242.0	303.7	355.1	413.6	357.9	352.1	396.7	388.3	444.4

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430324165217

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata which follow.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Australia	*Permanent settlers* Skilled workers including the following categories of visas: Employer nominations, Business skills, *Occupational Shares System,* special talents, Independent. Including accompanying dependents. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (July to June of the given year). *Temporary workers* Skilled temporary resident programme (including accompanying dependents). Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme from 1996/1997 on. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. EU citizens are excluded.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) Member states are not included.	Ministry of Employment and Labour.
Canada	Persons issued a work permit for the purpose of working temporarily in Canada (excluding people granted a permit on humanitatian grounds, foreign students and their spouses) . For statistical purposes, persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit except for seasonal foreign workers who are counted each year they re-enter the country. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included. From 2003 on, data only cover the categories Wage earners, Work permits to persons from the new EU member states and Specialists included by the jobcard scheme. Persons granted a residence permit on basis of employment who previously obtained an educational residence permit are no longer included.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Work and residence permits for foreign workers entering Finland are granted from abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates.	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
France	*Permanent workers* "Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the *ANAEM.* Data only include non-EEA permanent workers (including self-employed). Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time and the self-employed are not included. *Provisional work permits (APT)* Provisional work permits (APT) cannot exceed 9 months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.	ANAEM (Agence nationale de l'accueil des étrangers et des migrations).
Germany	New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers. Citizens of EU member states are not included.	Federal Labour Office.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour, Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners (excl. self-employed).	Ministry of Labour and National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. Including renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Mexico	Immigrants and residents with permission to work.	National Migration Institute.
Netherlands	Holders of a temporary work permit only (regulated since 1995 under the Dutch Foreign nationals labour act, WAV).	Center for work and income.
New Zealand	Permanent settlers refer to principal applicants 16 and over in the business and skill streams. Temporary workers refer to work applications approved for persons entering New Zealand for the purpose of employment.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	Data include granted work permits on the grounds of Norway's need for workers. This includes permanent, long-term and short-term work permits. Data have been revised.	Directorate of Immigration.
Poland	Data refer to work permits granted.	Ministry of Economy, Labour, and Social Policy.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** *(cont.)*

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Portugal	Persons who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared that they have a job or are seeking a job. Data for 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 also include Stay permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme and Work Visas issued yearly. Data for 2005 and 2006 comprehend foreigners who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared they have a job or are seeking for a job as well as foreigners that received Work Visas.	National Statistical Office (INE), Aliens and Borders Office (SEF) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for the self-employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit. The large increase in 2000 is due to the regularisation programme which affected statistics for 2000 and 2001. The results for 2002 and 2003 are from Social Security statistics ("Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales y de Asuntos Sociales").	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Data include seasonal workers and other temporary workers (fitters, specialists, artists and athletes).	Population register (Statistics Sweden) and Migration Board.
Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (*e.g.* trainees). The data also include holders of a settlement permit returning to Switzerland after a short stay abroad. Issues of an annual permit to persons holding a seasonal one are not included.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits and first permissions. Data exclude dependents and EEA nationals .	Overseas Labour Service.
United States	*Permanent workers* Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (October to September of the given year). *Temporary workers* Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, (categories H, O, P, Q, R, NATO, and NAFTA). Family members are included. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (October to September of the given year).	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour

The international comparison of "immigrant" workers faces the difficulties already mentioned earlier regarding the measurement of the overall stock of immigrants as well as to the use of different concepts of employment and unemployment.

For the European countries, the main difficulty consists in covering EU nationals, who have free labour market access in EU member States. They are sometimes issued work permits, but this information is not always as readily available as for third-country nationals. Switzerland revised the sampling of its labour-force survey in order to compensate for the information that was no longer available on EU workers in registers of foreign nationals following the signature of free movement agreements with the European Union. These bilateral agreements enable employees who are holders of "EU/EFTA" permits to change their job or profession (professional mobility), and this change is not registered in the Central Register for Foreign Nationals, the usual source for statistics on the stock of foreign workers.

A simple enumeration of work permits granted may result in persons being counted more than once if the person has successively been granted two permits during the same reference period. On the other hand, holders of "permanent" residence permits allowing access to the labour market are not systematically covered, since the proportion of those who are actually working is not always known.

Another difficulty concerns the inclusion of the unemployed, the self-employed and cross-border workers. In the statistics of workers, the unemployed are generally included, except when the source is work permit records and when permits are granted subject to a definite job offer. The self-employed and cross-border workers are much less well covered by the statistics. Data reference periods also vary, as they are generally the end of December for register data, and the end of the first quarter of the reference year for employment survey data.

Population registers (when the population in the labour force can be identified) and work permit files may show breaks in series when expired work permits are eliminated, when this is not done automatically, or when regularisation programmes are implemented. When these breaks occur, the analysis of the growth of the stock of foreign workers is significantly biased.

Table A.2.2. **Stocks of foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Australia	2 270.1	2 313.7	2 318.1	2 372.8	2 390.1	2 446.9	2 510.0	2 544.5	2 609.1	2 670.1
% of total labour force	24.7	24.8	24.6	24.7	24.5	24.7	24.9	24.8	24.8	24.9
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	601.7	633.2	666.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.3	15.7	16.1
Canada	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 150.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 634.8
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.2
Denmark	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	154.4	161.0	167.1	175.3
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.4	5.9	6.1	6.4
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	81.3	87.6	96.0	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.1	3.4	3.6	. .
Greece		265.3	263.5	271.5	298.7	345.2	350.1	409.7	425.1	410.7
% of total labour force		5.9	5.7	5.9	6.5	7.4	7.4	8.5	8.8	8.4
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	120.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	0.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	372.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	498.8
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.8
Sweden	. .	. .	428.3	445.5	448.7	442.5	452.8	461.4 |	497.8	521.6
% of total labour force	. .	. .	9.8	10.1	10.0	9.9	10.1	10.3 |	10.8	11.2
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 081.0
% of total employment	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.0
United States	16 677.1	17 345.1	17 054.7	18 028.5	18 994.1	20 917.6	21 563.6	21 985.2	22 421.6	23 342.9
% of total labour force	12.3	12.7	12.3	12.9	13.4	14.6	14.8	15.1	15.2	15.6

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430366286734

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.1.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
							2004	2005	2006
United Kingdom	652.0	641.2	674.2	632.5	659.3	675.8	256.4	285.2	294.6
New Zealand	259.9	263.2	261.4	277.4	271.0	273.9	127.5	119.7	121.7
India	75.0	68.8	74.9	90.1	97.6	113.2	37.9	32.7	39.3
China	73.6	93.7	95.2	101.5	117.1	105.6	49.3	57.2	46.3
Former Yugoslavia	92.6	108.0	95.1	90.8	107.5	102.3	34.4	42.4	48.0
Viet Nam	83.9	95.4	103.3	108.4	87.6	92.4	44.5	37.4	36.1
Philippines	74.0	72.3	84.6	79.5	89.1	90.7	45.4	52.4	51.5
Italy	84.3	83.4	85.3	81.2	74.7	76.2	25.0	25.1	26.3
Malaysia	51.7	57.1	52.3	59.2	76.0	59.9	29.3	33.3	33.1
Germany	62.2	63.5	55.1	52.7	54.3	58.4	25.1	22.7	26.1
Lebanon	40.6	30.2	34.2	37.5	32.5	43.9	12.8	8.3	13.7
Netherlands	44.8	42.6	50.7	45.9	33.5	41.0	21.2	13.2	16.2
Greece	45.0	44.3	44.1	37.0	37.3	39.4	14.1	14.8	14.0
Other countries	750.5	783.2	799.6	850.8	871.6	897.4	378.7	402.4	391.5
Total	**2 390.1**	**2 446.9**	**2 510.0**	**2 544.5**	**2 609.1**	**2 670.1**	**1 101.6**	**1 146.8**	**1 158.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433202432717

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2004	2005	2006
Bosnia and Herzegovina	100.8	106.7	105.5
Serbia and Montenegro	82.5	80.0	91.3
Turkey	79.3	82.3	84.3
Germany	65.3	70.5	82.9
Poland	35.0	33.1	37.8
Croatia	26.5	25.8	30.5
Romania	24.2	29.0	26.5
Hungary	13.8	20.1	16.5
Czech Republic	12.2	13.2	14.7
Philippines	9.6	7.6	10.2
Slovak Republic	8.5	11.5	9.9
Macedonia	11.3	9.1	9.8
Switzerland	8.1	7.6	9.4
Russian Federation	2.6	6.8	9.2
Italy	9.3	9.1	8.4
Other countries	112.8	120.6	119.0
Total	**601.7**	**633.2**	**666.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433258044666

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	1996	2001	*Of which:* Women	
			1996	2001
United Kingdom	372.5	335.4	180.6	154.9
India	158.3	209.4	68.2	91.8
Philippines	126.7	166.1	76.4	97.8
China	113.8	162.8	51.8	76.7
Hong Kong (China)	129.4	140.9	62.5	68.9
Italy	166.2	140.1	62.7	54.3
United States	142.0	137.1	74.2	73.2
Poland	98.0	104.1	45.1	50.3
Viet Nam	85.8	103.5	37.7	47.6
Portugal	101.0	95.6	43.4	41.4
Germany	100.7	87.0	45.3	39.6
Jamaica	79.5	85.4	44.1	47.8
Netherlands	70.5	60.2	28.2	23.9
Other countries	1 094.7	1 323.3	468.7	590.1
Total	**2 839.1**	**3 150.8**	**1 288.9**	**1 458.3**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433322447840

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
					2004	2005	2006
Turkey	17.6	18.1	18.0	18.1	7.1	7.1	7.1
Germany	10.6	10.4	10.3	10.4	4.6	4.5	4.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	8.1	8.4	8.5	8.8	3.7	3.8	4.0
Sweden	7.2	7.1	7.2	7.3	4.2	4.2	4.3
Poland	6.0	6.2	6.4	7.2	4.1	4.2	4.4
Norway	6.7	6.7	6.8	7.0	4.2	4.2	4.3
United Kingdom	6.8	6.7	6.8	6.8	2.0	1.9	1.9
Iraq	3.9	5.2	5.9	6.6	1.4	1.7	1.9
Iran	5.6	5.9	5.8	6.1	2.0	2.0	2.2
Former Yugoslavia	6.2	6.1	6.0	6.0	2.6	2.6	2.6
Viet Nam	4.9	5.1	5.1	5.3	2.3	2.4	2.4
Pakistan	5.0	5.2	5.2	5.3	1.6	1.6	1.7
Lebanon	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.5	1.2	1.3	1.4
Sri Lanka	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.2	1.8	1.8	1.8
Thailand	3.3	3.6	3.9	4.2	3.2	3.4	3.6
Other countries	54.5	57.9	62.6	67.7	26.5	28.8	31.2
Total	**154.4**	**161.0**	**167.1**	**175.3**	**72.4**	**75.4**	**79.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433334582622

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2003	2004	2005	*Of which:* Women
				2005
Former USSR	19.0	20.6	23.0	14.3
Sweden	18.4	19.1	19.6	9.2
Estonia	5.8	6.6	7.6	4.0
Former Yugoslavia	2.4	2.6	2.9	1.1
Germany	2.1	2.2	2.4	0.8
Turkey	1.7	1.9	2.1	0.3
Viet Nam	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.1
Somalia	1.7	1.8	2.1	0.8
United Kingdom	1.8	1.9	2.0	0.4
Iraq	1.4	1.6	1.8	0.6
China	1.3	1.4	1.7	0.8
Iran	1.2	1.4	1.6	0.6
Thailand	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.3
United States	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.5
India	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.3
Other countries	19.5	21.1	23.3	8.8
Total	**81.3**	**87.6**	**96.0**	**44.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433382885500

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
										2004	2005	2006
Albania	103.4	94.1	107.6	128.0	149.9	168.8	184.4	191.9	189.4	60.2	61.5	63.4
Russian Federation	35.1	32.8	39.2	32.8	38.2	34.6	32.5	32.9	31.2	17.0	16.2	17.0
Georgia	15.4	15.3	15.6	15.9	17.5	16.7	26.3	27.3	26.5	13.2	12.7	14.3
Bulgaria	5.6	6.3	7.2	8.0	14.6	14.5	19.7	22.5	22.1	12.0	14.7	14.1
Germany	21.1	21.5	18.8	19.2	13.9	12.6	17.0	17.2	15.6	7.4	10.1	8.9
Romania	5.0	5.9	5.6	6.3	10.6	11.2	13.4	15.3	14.6	5.3	7.6	6.4
Poland	6.4	10.1	7.5	10.3	10.3	12.2	9.2	12.3	11.3	4.0	5.4	6.4
Ukraine	3.8	4.4	3.2	4.3	8.5	7.7	11.6	10.9	10.3	7.6	9.0	7.4
Armenia	3.9	5.6	3.0	4.2	5.3	4.6	10.5	10.1	8.2	4.9	4.9	3.7
Philippines	2.3	2.1	2.7	2.2	2.4	2.2	6.6	6.9	6.6	4.8	4.7	4.5
Pakistan	3.1	1.8	3.7	2.9	4.9	6.0	3.9	5.4	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Australia	4.7	5.4	4.4	5.1	3.7	2.8	3.6	2.7	4.8	1.8	1.6	2.3
Egypt	4.6	6.0	5.6	5.5	7.3	9.7	6.7	4.0	4.6	1.5	0.3	1.0
Turkey	4.7	6.6	5.0	4.5	7.1	3.8	2.9	4.3	4.4	1.6	2.2	1.5
United Kingdom	3.1	3.8	3.1	3.8	2.6	4.0	3.8	4.8	4.1	3.2	2.5	2.3
Other countries	43.1	41.8	39.1	45.9	48.3	38.7	57.6	56.6	50.4	24.7	23.9	22.4
Total	**265.3**	**263.5**	**271.5**	**298.7**	**345.2**	**350.1**	**409.7**	**425.1**	**410.7**	**169.3**	**177.3**	**175.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433400202700

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2000
United States	46.3
Guatemala	12.2
Spain	10.0
Argentina	3.8
Cuba	3.5
Colombia	3.1
El Salvador	3.0
France	3.0
Germany	2.9
Italy	2.3
Peru	2.1
Chile	2.1
Canada	1.9
Honduras	1.8
Japan	1.5
Other countries	21.0
Total	**120.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433445177344

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
United Kingdom	115.2	51.5
Australia	29.2	14.8
Samoa	26.8	12.7
Fiji	16.3	7.7
South Africa	15.2	7.2
China	15.2	7.2
India	12.2	5.1
Netherlands	11.3	4.7
Tonga	10.0	4.3
Cook Islands	8.2	3.8
United States	7.4	3.5
Malaysia	6.9	3.4
Philippines	6.5	4.4
Korea	6.0	2.7
Germany	5.0	2.4
Other countries	80.6	37.0
Total	**372.3**	**172.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433460688706

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
									2004	2005	2006
Finland	103.2	101.7	96.7	98.4	94.4	90.7	89.8	87.0	50.2	51.2	49.7
Former Yugoslavia	51.2	61.4	64.9	62.4	64.6	65.8	67.1	70.7	29.2	30.3	32.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	21.2	29.2	28.8	26.0	27.0	27.8	28.8	30.2	12.8	13.4	14.1
Iran	24.0	23.5	23.0	22.7	25.2	24.3	27.7	29.2	9.6	11.7	12.4
Poland	20.3	23.1	21.1	20.5	20.2	17.0	23.8	26.7	11.5	15.0	16.0
Iraq	12.1	13.3	16.3	17.6	21.3	23.4	22.4	25.7	6.3	7.4	8.7
Turkey	13.5	14.2	14.0	14.6	16.1	17.1	17.0	17.9	6.5	6.6	6.9
Norway	17.9	17.2	15.6	15.1	14.6	15.5	17.0	17.0	9.5	9.5	9.4
Denmark	16.0	17.3	16.0	14.5	13.0	15.8	15.5	15.3	7.2	7.1	7.0
Other countries	148.9	144.6	152.3	150.7	156.4	164.0	188.7	201.9	80.5	91.5	98.4
Total	**428.3**	**445.5**	**448.7**	**442.5**	**452.8**	**461.4 |**	**497.8**	**521.6**	**223.3 |**	**243.7**	**254.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433473023571

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2006	*Of which:* Women
		2006
India	329.0	128.0
Ireland	178.0	94.0
Germany	160.0	78.0
Poland	157.0	66.0
South Africa	131.0	61.0
Pakistan	101.0	17.0
Kenya	91.0	40.0
United States	90.0	44.0
Bangladesh	86.0	13.0
Australia	84.0	41.0
Nigeria	73.0	34.0
France	63.0	32.0
Jamaica	63.0	32.0
Sri Lanka	59.0	18.0
Philippines	57.0	40.0
Other countries	1 359.0	616.0
Total	**3 081.0**	**1 354.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433420057714

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1. **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2005	2006
Mexico	4 414.8	4 578.1	4 618.6	5 005.2	5 334.6	6 348.7	6 458.4	6 726.3	6 952.4	7 150.6	2 049.0	2 063.0	2 144.7
Philippines	873.5	922.1	1 016.8	938.7	941.1	1 016.0	1 010.9	977.4	1 059.4	1 139.2	538.5	599.3	638.5
India	514.5	510.4	584.7	681.3	670.1	890.5	787.7	909.6	941.0	951.3	344.0	334.6	306.5
China	531.0	537.7	548.2	565.7	597.9	590.6	657.6	825.1	826.5	869.0	368.4	383.2	411.6
El Salvador	463.0	566.9	574.3	557.4	614.0	667.6	788.6	688.2	829.5	782.6	280.0	313.6	308.0
Viet Nam	551.8	682.4	629.9	485.8	488.2	544.9	579.7	659.2	688.8	641.7	312.2	317.9	293.7
Germany	595.7	629.7	517.1	625.2	617.7	632.8	585.8	629.8	567.8	573.4	325.1	293.1	306.8
Korea	407.0	411.1	340.1	441.0	511.5	461.3	543.9	460.2	428.9	557.8	242.3	219.5	285.7
Cuba	513.7	502.9	545.0	520.0	458.2	452.4	492.2	558.6	505.7	535.6	217.3	204.4	237.1
Dominican Republic	330.0	363.2	370.1	369.5	362.8	384.2	432.3	374.1	434.5	524.7	210.5	249.6	270.6
Canada	424.0	419.8	462.9	495.1	536.0	519.3	519.5	459.9	447.5	464.6	232.7	205.8	232.2
Guatemala	319.5	295.4	273.9	241.2	224.6	301.5	310.8	371.4	389.8	433.7	105.6	112.5	123.5
United Kingdom	441.0	440.3	473.3	438.9	401.4	443.7	399.0	436.0	443.6	411.9	204.0	180.1	183.2
Colombia	242.5	304.0	312.8	273.6	329.5	326.2	321.7	316.9	320.5	406.2	155.0	162.7	207.8
Jamaica	273.1	262.8	282.3	311.5	362.9	378.0	460.9	449.3	416.8	397.4	258.3	228.5	208.5
Other countries	5 782.0	5 918.3	5 504.7	6 078.3	6 543.8	6 959.7	7 214.6	7 143.1	7 168.9	7 503.1	3 049.4	3 003.6	3 219.2
Total	**16 677.1**	**17 345.1**	**17 054.7**	**18 028.5**	**18 994.1**	**20 917.6**	**21 563.6**	**21 985.2**	**22 421.6**	**23 342.9**	**8 892.4**	**8 871.4**	**9 377.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433474756823

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.2 and B.2.1. **Foreign-born labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. In May 2007, an improved method of estimation, known as composite estimation, was introduced into the Labour Force Survey. In introducing this change the ABS revised data from April 2001 based on the new estimation method. *Reference date:* April Data for China exclude Hong Kong (China) and Chinese Taipei. Data in table A.2.2 are annual averages whereas data in table B.2.1 refer to April.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Austria		Labour Force Survey.
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
Denmark		Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs.
Finland		Statistics Finland.
Greece	Labour Force Survey.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Mexico	Data refer to the foreign-born labour force population aged 12 and over.	Census of Population, CONAPO.
New Zealand	Labour force aged 15 and over.	2001 and 2006 Census, Statistics New Zealand.
Sweden	Data are from the labour force survey til 2004. Since 2005 the figures are based on registered data (RAMS) as the statistics figures with break down by country of birth are not any more available in the official labour force survey (LFS). Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Statistics Sweden.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	Labour force aged 15 and over (including those born abroad with US citizenship at birth). Data by nationality are not statistically relevant. *Reference date:* March.	Current Population Survey, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Austria	326.3	327.1	333.6	345.6	359.9	370.6	388.6	402.7	418.5	432.9
% of total labour force	9.9	9.9	10.0	10.5	11.0	10.9	11.8	11.9	12.0	11.9
Belgium	380.5	394.9	382.7	387.9	392.5	393.9	396.0	427.8	439.7	446.2
% of total labour force	8.6	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	9.1	9.2	9.2
Czech Republic	130.8	111.2	93.5	103.6	103.7	101.2	105.7	108.0	151.7	185.1
% of total labour force	2.5	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.9	3.6
Denmark	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	100.6	101.9	101.5	106.9	109.3	115.0
% of total labour force	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.2
Finland	. .	. .	. .	41.4	45.4	46.3	47.6	50.0	55.0	58.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2
France	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.8	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8 |	1 526.8	1 541.1	1 456.4	. .
% of total labour force	6.1	6.1	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.2 |	5.6	5.6	5.3	. .
Germany	3 575.0	3 501.0	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0	3 703.0	3 701.0	3 823.0	3 528.0
% of total labour force	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.1	9.3	8.5
Greece	. .	169.8	157.3	169.1	204.8	258.9	274.5	309.6	324.6	328.8
% of total labour force	. .	3.7	3.4	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.8	6.4	6.7	6.7
Hungary	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	66.1	62.9	64.6
% of total labour force	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.5
Ireland	51.7	53.7	57.5	63.9	84.2	101.7	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.7	5.5	. .	. .	. .	. .
Italy	660.3	660.6	827.6	837.9	841.0	829.8	1 479.4	1 412.7	1 419.3	1 463.1
% of total labour force	2.9	2.9	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.8	6.1	5.8	5.8	5.9
Japan	107.3	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6	185.6	192.1	180.5	178.8
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Korea	106.8	76.8	93.0	122.5	128.5	137.3 |	415.0	297.8	198.5	317.1
% of total labour force	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6 |	1.8	1.3	0.8	1.3
Luxembourg	124.8	134.6	145.7	152.7	169.3	175.1	180.4	187.5	196.2	207.1
% of total employment	55.1	57.7	57.3	57.3	61.2	61.3	65.5	62.0	62.6	65.0
Netherlands	275.2	269.5	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9	317.2	299.4	287.5	283.8
% of total labour force	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.3
Norway	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2 |	133.7	138.4	140.6	149.3	159.3	180.4
% of total employment	2.8	3.0	4.7	4.9 |	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.4
Portugal	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8 |	236.6	288.3	300.8	315.8	271.4	. .
% of total labour force	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0 |	4.4	5.3	5.5	5.5	4.9	. .
Slovak Republic	5.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.2	6.5
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	178.7	197.1	199.8 |	454.6	607.1	831.7	982.4	1076.7	1688.6	1824.0
% of total labour force	1.1	1.2	1.1|	2.5	3.4	4.5	5.1	5.4	8.1	8.5
Sweden	220	219	222	222	227	218	221	216 |	177	177
% of total labour force	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8 |	4.2	4.3
Switzerland	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8 |	829.6	814.3	817.3	830.1	849.9
% of total employment	20.5	20.7	20.1	20.1	21.1 |	20.9	20.6	20.6	20.9	21.0
United Kingdom	949	1 039	1 005	1 107	1 229	1 251	1 322	1 445	1 504	1 773
% of total employment	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.3

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/430371743075

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.2.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Former Yugoslavia	123.3	122.3	122.9	124.2	122.8	119.8	117.1	113.4	108.9	105.1
Germany	15.7	16.9	18.8	20.9	23.5	26.5	31.5	39.0	47.0	55.4
Turkey	52.8	54.2	55.6	57.1	56.8	56.3	55.7	54.6	53.5	54.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	15.1	16.5	18.5	21.3	24.1	25.4	26.7	27.5	28.4	29.4
Hungary	9.2	9.2	9.7	10.4	11.3	12.0	12.7	13.6	14.7	15.8
Croatia	5.3	6.2	7.0	8.4	9.8	10.6	11.4	12.1	12.8	13.6
Poland	10.9	10.7	10.9	11.2	11.2	11.3	11.5	12.0	12.6	13.4
Romania	9.1	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.1	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.7
Slovak Republic	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.5	4.4	5.4	6.5
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	3.5	5.9
Slovenia	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.0
Former Czechoslovakia	7.5	7.1	6.9	6.7	6.3	5.5	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.3
Czech Republic	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.6	3.9
Philippines	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4
Macedonia	. .	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.9
Other countries	42.5	37.7	37.3	39.5	41.7	43.4	52.8	55.7	57.2	60.2
Total	**298.8**	**298.6**	**306.4**	**319.9**	**329.3**	**334.4**	**350.4**	**362.3**	**374.2**	**390.7**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433485242126

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
France	57.3	60.8	63.3	68.8	71.2	71.7	73.0	77.7	81.1	84.2
Italy	104.0	104.5	97.1	94.4	91.4	88.9	86.1	86.3	84.1	82.9
Netherlands	33.6	34.4	33.6	34.0	34.2	34.4	35.1	38.0	40.9	43.5
Morocco	44.5	46.1	43.4	41.3	40.2	38.6	36.8	39.9	38.0	38.6
Spain	23.3	23.6	23.0	22.6	22.2	22.0	21.4	21.7	21.6	21.5
Turkey	30.1	31.6	26.6	24.0	21.9	21.0	20.2	21.1	19.3	19.0
United Kingdom	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.2	9.3	9.1	9.6	14.7	15.4
Portugal	11.9	12.2	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.7	13.3	14.2	14.7	15.4
Poland	. .	. .	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6	7.7	11.0	13.0
Germany	9.1	9.4	9.2	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.8	10.9	11.6	12.5
Democratic Republic of the Congo	4.2	4.6	4.9	5.4	6.3	7.0	7.0	8.7	9.1	9.4
Greece	7.1	7.2	7.1	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.5	6.3	6.3
Algeria	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.4
Tunisia	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.2
Luxembourg	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
Other countries	39.7	44.6	43.6	49.7	56.2	60.3	64.7	77.6	79.1	76.4
Total	**380.5**	**394.9**	**382.7**	**387.9**	**392.5**	**393.9**	**396.0**	**427.8**	**439.7**	**446.2**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433546483456

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Slovak Republic	69.7	61.3	53.2	63.6	63.6	56.6	58.0	59.8	75.3	91.4
Ukraine	25.2	19.3	16.6	15.8	17.5	20.0	22.5	22.4	40.1	46.2
Poland	13.7	9.9	6.9	7.7	6.7	7.3	7.4	8.9	12.6	17.1
Moldova	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	2.7	3.4
Mongolia	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.8
Germany	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.7	2.4
Russian Federation	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	2.4	2.4
Bulgaria	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.7	2.0
United Kingdom	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.6
Romania	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.2
United States	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2
France	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1
Belarus	2.5	2.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.0
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.9
Viet Nam	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.7
Other countries	6.5	5.9	5.1	5.1	4.6	5.1	5.5	5.5	7.2	9.8
Total	**130.8**	**111.2**	**93.5**	**103.6**	**103.7**	**101.2**	**105.7**	**108.0**	**151.7**	**185.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433553047348

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	14.0	14.1	13.8	13.0	13.0	12.5	11.9	11.8	11.9	11.9
United Kingdom	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.8
Germany	6.5	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.5
Norway	6.2	6.3	6.2	6.5	6.7	6.8	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.3
Sweden	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.9	6.2
Former Yugoslavia	9.3	11.3	10.8	11.5	12.7	12.5	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.2
Iceland	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.2
Pakistan	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.4
Finland	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1
Other countries	38.3	40.1	39.3	39.5	41.4	43.2	52.7	57.8	59.8	64.4
Total	**93.9**	**98.3**	**96.3**	**96.8**	**100.6**	**101.9**	**101.5**	**106.9**	**109.3**	**115.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433618380746

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Russian Federation	9.1	10.1	11.0	11.2	11.7	11.7	12.2
Estonia	5.3	5.9	6.3	6.5	7.9	8.7	9.7
Sweden	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.7
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.9
Germany	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7
Turkey	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6
Thailand	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4
Somalia	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3
China	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.3
Iraq	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9	1.0
United States	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	0.9
Viet Nam	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8
Other countries	14.9	14.8	14.3	14.3	14.7	16.6	17.2
Total	**41.4**	**45.4**	**46.3**	**47.6**	**50.0**	**55.0**	**58.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433634320867

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Portugal	342.5	316.0	325.7	353.1	371.0	376.8	334.0	350.9	303.5
Algeria	246.1	241.6	237.2	215.0	233.6	198.4	215.0	194.9	184.3
Morocco	205.0	229.6	226.9	204.3	186.0	199.6	194.6	193.5	180.5
Turkey	65.8	79.0	76.1	81.5	81.7	92.6	62.1	71.8	83.4
Tunisia	85.0	84.4	83.9	77.5	84.2	84.4	66.8	69.5	70.3
Italy	65.5	72.9	75.6	73.8	72.2	71.2	53.6	57.6	50.7
Spain	90.7	88.2	86.5	65.8	58.3	52.0	51.5	47.8	36.5
Poland	13.8	12.6	14.0	13.5	16.2	15.6	16.2	21.6	18.9
Other countries	455.4	462.5	467.9	493.1	514.5	533.2	533.0	533.4	528.1
Total	**1 569.8**	**1 586.7**	**1 593.9**	**1 577.6**	**1 617.6**	**1 623.8**	**1 526.8**	**1 541.1**	**1 456.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433641878314

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	1 039.0	. .	1 008.0	996.0	1 004.0	974.0	975.0	937.0	840.0	842.0
Italy	375.0	. .	386.0	395.0	403.0	407.0	408.0	398.0	391.0	385.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	207.0	217.0	220.0	218.0	175.0	180.0	208.0
Greece	214.0	. .	219.0	207.0	210.0	213.0	196.0	198.0	201.0	195.0
Croatia	215.0	. .	189.0	195.0	193.0	185.0	173.0	186.0	195.0	180.0
Poland	94.0	. .	100.0	106.0	113.0	133.0	144.0	144.0	167.0	170.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	169.0	. .	103.0	100.0	96.0	98.0	104.0	114.0	149.0	144.0
Austria	123.0	. .	118.0	110.0	116.0	113.0	118.0	124.0	135.0	129.0
Portugal	65.0	. .	77.0	83.0	84.0	76.0	83.0	76.0	83.0	91.0
Netherlands	63.0	. .	63.0	63.0	61.0	63.0	74.0	83.0	86.0	79.0
Spain	75.0	. .	69.0	71.0	74.0	71.0	66.0	70.0	76.0	72.0
United Kingdom	76.0	. .	65.0	71.0	74.0	72.0	78.0	73.0	62.0	70.0
France	58.0	. .	56.0	67.0	62.0	62.0	65.0	64.0	68.0	66.0
United States	53.0	. .	54.0	51.0	58.0	55.0	57.0	55.0	56.0	54.0
Other countries	956.0	3 501.0	1 038.0	824.0	851.0	892.0	944.0	1 004.0	1 134.0	843.0
Total	**3 575.0**	**3 501.0**	**3 545.0**	**3 546.0**	**3 616.0**	**3 634.0**	**3 703.0**	**3 701.0**	**3 823.0**	**3 528.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433572872566e>

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Albania	98.7	86.0	100.0	119.6	149.2	164.7	180.8	188.9	187.1
Bulgaria	4.7	5.3	6.2	7.9	13.8	13.3	18.8	20.9	21.7
Romania	3.5	4.8	3.8	4.8	10.0	10.7	12.1	13.4	13.6
Russian Federation	11.6	6.6	9.8	10.4	11.5	10.5	9.5	10.3	11.2
Poland	5.3	7.2	6.3	9.3	9.7	11.5	9.0	10.2	10.7
Georgia	3.9	3.7	2.9	5.6	6.4	5.3	8.3	9.9	9.9
Ukraine	3.2	4.3	1.9	4.4	8.7	7.8	10.7	9.7	9.4
Philippines	2.1	1.9	2.7	2.2	2.4	2.2	6.0	6.8	6.6
Pakistan	3.0	1.8	3.7	2.8	4.7	6.0	3.9	5.4	6.4
Armenia	3.2	2.4	0.9	2.5	2.9	2.2	5.0	4.2	4.3
Iraq	2.1	1.3	1.0	2.0	3.3	4.0	3.2	4.1	3.9
Syria	2.1	1.8	1.7	2.4	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.6	3.4
United Kingdom	1.5	2.4	2.2	2.8	1.9	3.7	2.4	3.3	3.4
Germany	2.5	2.4	2.5	1.7	0.8	1.1	1.6	2.6	3.3
Cyprus	2.3	2.8	1.8	1.7	3.0	1.9	3.8	1.8	3.0
Other countries	20.1	22.7	21.6	24.8	27.5	26.9	31.5	29.6	31.0
Total	**169.8**	**157.3**	**169.1**	**204.8**	**258.9**	**274.5**	**309.6**	**324.6**	**328.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433657166878

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Romania	9.5	10.6	14.1	17.2	22.0	25.8	27.6	35.2	30.9	29.4
Slovak Republic	0.4	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.8	2.8	5.7	11.7	15.1	16.7
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.9	7.6	8.8	7.6	7.7
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.7
China	0.7	1.1	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	1.0	1.0
Poland	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.9
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.6	0.7
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.5	0.6
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.3	0.4
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.3
Viet Nam	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.2
Other countries	8.5	9.0	11.0	11.8	13.0	5.6	5.3	4.8	2.7	3.2
Total	**20.4**	**22.4**	**28.5**	**35.0**	**38.6**	**42.7**	**48.7**	**66.1**	**62.9**	**64.6**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433660063146

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002
United Kingdom	62.2
United States	7.0
France	5.9
Germany	5.8
Spain	4.4
Philippines	4.2
Nigeria	4.1
Italy	3.8
Australia	3.6
South Africa	3.1
Romania	3.0
Netherlands	2.5
China	2.2
Latvia	2.2
Lithuania	2.2
Other countries	34.3
Total	**150.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433667842513

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Romania	17.8	19.2	41.5	47.0	52.7	56.6	194.4	183.8	186.2	190.9
Morocco	97.6	95.9	114.0	115.5	114.8	113.9	164.8	159.7	157.8	163.7
Albania	52.4	54.8	86.7	90.6	91.0	92.8	145.6	143.6	138.9	148.1
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	96.3	93.8	93.4
China	26.9	28.7	40.9	43.8	41.8	41.5	79.0	77.4	80.1	84.7
Philippines	49.1	49.4	56.0	53.2	54.1	51.1	60.7	59.4	58.2	58.9
Poland	13.1	12.1	16.6	17.0	17.0	17.4	45.8	44.8	49.9	54.8
Tunisia	33.2	31.6	35.5	34.2	38.6	36.2	45.5	41.2	41.7	42.8
Senegal	30.5	29.5	38.6	36.6	34.7	33.3	45.2	42.8	40.9	42.6
Ecuador	3.4	3.4	8.3	8.6	8.2	7.8	42.6	37.2	34.7	37.2
Peru	18.9	18.3	22.1	22.7	22.5	21.5	37.8	35.3	34.6	36.0
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	32.4	33.3	35.9
Egypt	18.6	18.0	26.9	25.2	24.0	22.3	37.1	35.5	35.0	35.4
India	11.4	11.0	14.8	16.1	16.2	16.6	30.3	29.6	29.8	31.5
Sri Lanka	19.6	19.8	22.6	23.4	25.3	23.4	30.7	30.3	30.1	31.3
Other countries	267.7	268.9	303.2	304.1	300.0	295.3	520.0	363.3	374.2	376.0
Total	**660.3**	**660.6**	**827.6**	**837.9**	**841.0**	**829.8**	**1 479.4**	**1 412.7**	**1 419.3**	**1 463.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433701533747

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	29.7	32.6	33.4	35.8	38.9	40.8	41.8	45.6	56.7	61.1
Korea	6.9	8.2	9.3	10.7	12.3	13.1	13.6	15.2	18.2	20.4
United States	17.8	17.2	16.8	17.6	18.8	19.9	19.2	19.5	19.2	19.8
Philippines	20.3	25.7	28.6	45.6	46.9	48.8	52.9	53.2	26.7	17.9
United Kingdom	6.8	7.0	7.4	8.1	9.1	9.8	9.3	9.0	8.5	8.4
India	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.5	4.5	5.3	5.7	6.2	7.1	8.2
Canada	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.8	6.6	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.5	6.3
Australia	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.6	5.7	6.3	6.2	6.0	5.8	5.8
France	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.9
Thailand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0
Germany	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	. .	1.8
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8
Indonesia	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.2	2.5	3.3	1.8
Nepal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8
Other countries	11.7	13.1	14.0	18.1	20.5	22.7	23.6	23.8	26.0	17.1
Total	**107.3**	**119.0**	**125.7**	**154.7**	**168.8**	**179.6**	**185.6**	**192.1**	**180.5**	**178.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433702088478

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
China	43.8	36.5	48.1	43.2	46.1	47.5	54.8	60.3	59.6	76.2
Philippines	12.0	6.9	9.2	9.8	12.2	12.4	22.0	21.0	20.1	34.1
Uzbekistan	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.5	3.6	2.8	13.0	10.4	9.3	13.6
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.8
Indonesia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.5
United States	6.1	4.3	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.9	6.1
Thailand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.7
Canada	3.2	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.6	2.8	4.5	4.8	5.0
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.6
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8
Russian Federation	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.9	2.3	2.7	1.9	2.5	1.4	1.8
United Kingdom	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.5
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2
Japan	1.9	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.1	2.8	1.2	1.2	1.1
Other countries	36.4	23.0	24.7	56.8	55.7	61.1	312.1	192.6	95.9	151.1
Total	**106.8**	**76.8**	**93.0**	**122.5**	**128.5**	**137.3 |**	**415.0**	**297.8**	**198.5**	**317.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433757244023

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
France	39.7	44.1	49.0	52.0	59.0	61.1	62.3	64.9	67.6	71.5
Portugal	28.3	29.5	30.5	32.0	32.2	33.3	34.5	35.5	36.8	38.3
Belgium	22.4	24.3	26.6	28.4	31.9	33.1	33.8	34.8	36.0	37.4
Germany	14.6	16.0	17.8	19.1	21.8	22.8	24.5	26.4	28.9	31.6
Italy	7.7	8.1	8.2	9.0	8.6	8.5	8.3	8.4	8.4	8.5
Netherlands	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.4
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9
Spain	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2
Former Yugoslavia	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.0	1.4	1.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7
Denmark	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6
Former Czechoslovakia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5
Ireland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5
Sweden	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5
Other countries	8.2	8.4	9.3	7.4	10.8	11.1	11.8	12.5	14.0	9.2
Total	**124.8**	**134.6**	**145.7**	**152.7**	**169.3**	**175.1**	**180.4**	**187.5**	**196.2**	**207.1**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433771821535

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Turkey	33.6	34.7	26.7	56.8	54.5	48.9	53.3	42.4	36.8	42.3
Germany	38.7	34.1	30.7	30.2	34.1	30.4	33.6	37.0	40.1	34.6
Morocco	28.8	39.1	32.2	34.6	42.1	33.1	34.3	29.2	31.6	26.5
United Kingdom	22.5	24.0	29.2	36.6	33.4	30.4	32.4	25.8	20.5	23.9
Belgium	22.2	17.4	19.3	16.9	19.2	25.7	16.7	20.7	20.7	23.0
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.7	10.4	11.0	11.1
Portugal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.5
Spain	12.3	6.7	15.6	7.7	18.1	15.6	11.3	8.6	7.7	7.5
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.8
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.1	8.7	9.9	5.9
Other countries	116.9	113.4	113.9	117.3	101.1	111.8	117.8	116.5	109.2	92.6
Total	**275.2**	**269.5**	**267.5**	**300.1**	**302.6**	**295.9**	**317.2**	**299.4**	**287.5**	**283.8**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433783074204

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Sweden	10.8	12.9	13.4	13.6	15.4	15.2	15.0	15.1	15.7	16.8
Poland	0.6	0.7	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.8	6.7	11.3
Denmark	9.5	9.9	9.1	9.0	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.4	10.3	10.8
Germany	2.7	3.0	4.3	4.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.3	8.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.7
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.3
Pakistan	1.7	1.7	4.8	4.9	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.9
United Kingdom	5.6	5.9	5.5	5.4	6.3	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.6
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.2
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.8
Sri Lanka	1.6	1.5	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.2
Philippines	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.1
Turkey	1.0	1.0	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.8
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.7
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.7
Other countries	26.5	30.3	58.0	63.8	78.5	82.3	84.4	90.8	97.4	68.2
Total	**59.9**	**66.9**	**104.6**	**111.2**	**133.7**	**138.4**	**140.7**	**149.0**	**159.3**	**180.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433818135710

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Brazil	9.7	9.6	9.9	10.6	35.0	47.0	50.4	61.2	51.2
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.4	62.0	64.7	65.2	42.9
Cape Verde	22.1	21.9	22.0	23.1	29.8	32.3	33.1	33.8	36.8
Angola	8.2	8.2	8.4	9.7	15.4	18.3	18.8	19.1	17.7
Guinea-Bissau	7.2	7.2	7.8	8.9	12.7	13.9	14.9	15.1	14.2
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.3	12.2	12.7	13.2	13.7
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.8	10.8	11.1	11.3	9.7
Spain	5.3	5.5	6.1	6.8	7.7	8.3	8.6	8.9	9.1
United Kingdom	5.8	6.0	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.0	7.1	7.4	7.6
Sao Tome and Principe	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	4.1	4.9	5.2	5.5	6.3
Germany	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.8	5.8	6.0	6.2
China	. .	1.3	1.5	1.7	5.3	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.1
France	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.2
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.8	7.2	7.3	7.6	4.6
United States	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3
Other countries	16.7	15.7	15.7	17.8	38.4	44.8	46.9	47.1	36.7
Total	**87.9**	**88.6**	**91.6**	**99.8 |**	**236.6**	**288.3**	**300.8**	**315.8**	**271.4**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433824322387

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Czech Republic	1.7	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.3	1.0	1.0	1.2
Poland	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.6	1.0
France	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.9	0.8
Germany	. .	. .	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.4
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.3
Ukraine	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2
Italy	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
United States	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.1
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.0	0.0	0.1
Belgium	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.1	2.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.8
Total	**5.5**	**5.9**	**4.5**	**4.7**	**4.4**	**4.7**	**5.0**	**5.1**	**5.2**	**6.5**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433832540350

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Ecuador	3.1	7.4	9.4	25.7	67.9	125.7	139.3	147.2	270.3	266.2
Morocco	68.8	76.9	80.4	101.8	124.2	148.1	173.8	172.7	239.9	250.7
Romania	1.5	2.4	3.0	8.3	18.2	38.2	46.3	60.8	156.0	168.9
Colombia	3.8	4.3	4.8	12.1	26.8	60.5	66.4	77.7	130.2	135.2
Peru	15.0	16.3	14.7	18.6	22.7	27.4	37.9	47.1	60.1	68.7
China	9.3	11.9	12.4	15.7	20.7	27.2	29.4	37.0	53.8	59.1
Argentina	6.6	4.9	3.9	7.0	9.9	16.9	24.1	30.8	53.4	54.6
Bolivia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.1
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	37.7
Dominican Republic	12.3	13.2	11.0	12.3	13.2	14.6	17.0	18.7	25.3	28.9
Cuba	2.5	3.0	3.4	8.7	10.9	12.9	14.8	15.5	20.4	21.9
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.7
Algeria	3.7	4.0	4.2	7.0	8.8	11.0	13.6	13.2	17.3	18.3
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	3.4	4.6	6.1	6.9	7.9	16.4	18.1
Uruguay	. .	. .	. .	1.9	2.4	3.6	5.3	7.4	17.3	17.7
Other countries	52.1	52.9	52.5	232.1	276.8	339.4	407.5	440.9	628.0	613.2
Total	**178.7**	**197.1**	**199.8**	**454.6**	**607.1**	**831.7**	**982.4**	**1 076.7**	**1 688.6**	**1 824.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433631773172

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Finland	54.0	52.0	52.0	50.0	53.0	53.0	52.0	49.0	41.3	39.5
Norway	18.0	17.0	19.0	17.0	16.0	17.0	16.0	17.0	15.4	15.4
Denmark	13.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	17.0	11.8	11.7
Poland	7.0	7.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	8.0	8.0	5.0	7.4	9.7
Former Yugoslavia	31.0	31.0	28.0	27.0	23.0	19.0	17.0	8.0	10.5	5.5
Turkey	7.0	5.0	4.0	10.0	7.0	5.0	5.0	6.0	3.5	2.9
Iran	10.0	9.0	8.0	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	2.6	2.2
Other countries	80.0	85.0	90.0	92.0	100.0	98.0	105.0	110.0	84.1	90.1
Total	**220.0**	**219.0**	**222.0**	**222.0**	**227.0**	**218.0**	**221.0**	**216.0**	**176.6**	**177.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433841556145

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Italy	191.7	184.4	179.3	177.4	172.3	. .	177.8	172.9	168.4	163.0
Former Yugoslavia	138.2	142.8	148.3	154.5	133.9	. .	166.2	164.2	161.2	158.7
Portugal	77.4	76.6	76.5	77.0	77.9	. .	86.1	88.0	96.0	103.0
Germany	57.3	58.7	61.3	65.4	73.3	. .	78.3	84.0	92.9	102.7
Spain	56.4	53.7	51.7	50.1	48.8	. .	57.4	54.4	53.3	52.5
France	30.7	30.7	31.8	33.2	34.2	. .	39.2	40.4	40.8	42.5
Austria	18.2	17.8	17.6	17.9	18.5	. .	20.3	19.5	19.6	19.8
Other countries	122.9	126.4	134.7	141.8	179.9	. .	189.2	194.1	197.9	207.6
Total	**692.8**	**691.1**	**701.2**	**717.3**	**738.8 |**	**829.4**	**814.5**	**817.4**	**830.1**	**849.9**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433547006570

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2. **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
India	56.0	71.0	66.0	61.0	61.0	69.0	82.0	97.0	100.0	154.0
Ireland	216.0	221.0	220.0	206.0	212.0	179.0	179.0	172.0	175.0	152.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	151.0
South Africa	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	76.0
Australia	35.0	31.0	36.0	54.0	46.0	57.0	55.0	63.0	58.0	69.0
United States	53.0	63.0	55.0	61.0	75.0	52.0	62.0	68.0	61.0	69.0
France	33.0	49.0	44.0	48.0	47.0	60.0	59.0	51.0	58.0	55.0
Germany	32.0	39.0	44.0	33.0	35.0	32.0	39.0	48.0	50.0	51.0
Philippines	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	43.0
Italy	42.0	52.0	43.0	55.0	58.0	58.0	53.0	67.0	45.0	42.0
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	42.0
Portugal	14.0	23.0	20.0	15.0	35.0	47.0	52.0	50.0	39.0	38.0
Nigeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	34.0
Lithuania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	31.0
Pakistan	20.0	20.0	27.0	31.0	29.0	31.0	27.0	31.0	29.0	30.0
Other countries	448.0	470.0	450.0	543.0	631.0	666.0	714.0	798.0	889.0	736.0
Total	**949.0**	**1 039.0**	**1 005.0**	**1 107.0**	**1 229.0**	**1 251.0**	**1 322.0**	**1 445.0**	**1 504.0**	**1 773.0**

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/433647241103

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.3 and B.2.2. **Foreign labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded. Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. From 1994 on, EEA members no longer need work permits and are therefore no longer included. A person holding two permits is counted twice.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Including unemployed and self-employed. Data for 2006 have been estimated.	National Institute of self-employed's social insurances, National Office for Employment, National Bank of Belgium and National Institute of Statistics.
Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers until 2003. Since 2004 foreigners registered at labour offices (*i.e.* employees from the third countries, EU, EEA and Switzerland). Excluding holders of a trade licence. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.
Denmark	Data are from population registers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Foreign labour force recorded in the population register. Includes persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
France	Labour Force Survey. The survey has moved to a continuous one from 2003 on. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years. *Reference date:* March of each year until 2002.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Microcensus. Data include the unemployed and the self-employed. *Reference date:* April.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Labour Force Survey. Data refer to the employed and the unemployed.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.2.2.) are issued from the 2002 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over in the labour force.	Central Statistics Office.
Italy	Figures refer to the number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including the self-employed, the unemployed, sponsored workers and persons granted a permit for humanitarian reasons). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese national, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restrictions imposed on the kind of activities they can engage in while in Japan and are excluded from the data.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Data are based on registered foreign workers, which excludes short-term (under 90 days) workers. Trainees are included. The huge increase is mainly due to a number of undocumented workers who were given a legal worker status following a regularisation program in mid 2003.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. *Reference date:* 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Data are from the European Labour Force Survey and refer to the Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* March.	European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the self-employed until 2000. *Reference date:* second quarter of each year (except in 1995, 1996, 1999 and 2000: 4th quarter).	Directorate of Immigration.
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed) – after 1998, this figure is estimated. Data comprehends foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes. From 2001 to 2005, data also comprehend Stay Permit and Work Visa Holders. Statistical information on the stock of workers holding residence permits is missing for 2006. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior, National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.3 and B.2.2. **Foreign labour force** *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. Czech workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, National Labour Office.
Spain	Number of valid work permits. EU workers are not included. In 1996, the data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. From 2000 on, data relate to the number of foreigners who are registered in the Social Security system (EU workers are included). A worker may be registered several times if he/she has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001 data. *Reference date:* 31 December (data for 2003 are stocks on January 14th 2004).	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Annual average data are from the labour force survey til 2004. Since 2005 the figures are based on registered data (RAMS) as the statistics figures with break down by nationality are not any more available in the official labour force survey (LFS). Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Til 2001, data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded. Since the bilateral agreements signed with the European Union have come into force (1 June 2002), movements of EU workers can no longer be followed through the central register of foreigners. Data until 2001 are from the Central Register of Foreigners. Starting in 2002, data are from the Swiss Labour Force Survey. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. There is a break in the serie as 2004 data are calculated using a new weighting system. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Home Office.

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