International Migration Outlook 2011

SOPEMI



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Foreword

This publication constitutes the thirty-fifth report of the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known by its French acronym SOPEMI). The report opens with a special chapter for the 50th anniversary of the OECD on international migration and the SOPEMI. The rest of 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. It appears that labour migration has been strongly affected by the economic downturn as well as, in Europe, migration within the free circulation area. Other categories of migration, namely family and humanitarian migration, less responsive to economic conditions, saw smaller changes compared to 2008. This year's edition pays special attention to migration of service providers and intra-corporate transfers, which are both gaining importance. The movement of international students is also examined. In 2008, there were 2.3 million international students in the OECD and, in most countries, between 20 and 30% of them remained in the destination country after completion of their studies.

The second section of Part I takes a close look at the impact of the economic crisis on the employment situation of immigrants. The disproportionate impact of the crisis on immigrants is examined, looking at factors such as concentration in specific sectors and gender differences. The report also sheds some light on forthcoming challenges to address long-term unemployment of immigrants and the risk of scarring effects, notably for low- and medium-skilled men and young migrants.

The final section of Part I highlights major changes in migration policy. It specifically looks at the impact of the recent economic crisis on the management of labour migration and presents recent policy changes on family and humanitarian migration as well as on border controls, which generally illustrate a tightening of migration legislation.

Parts II and III are devoted to special topics. The first one examines migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries and its contribution to employment creation. The second special chapter on international migration to Israel, is part of a series which looks at international migration in new OECD member countries and large emerging economies.

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, foreign and foreign-born populations, naturalisations and migrant workers.

50th OECD Anniversary

International Migration and the SOPEMI*

During its first two decades, the OECD migration interest was focussed on Europe. As membership of the OECD has broadened, so has the geographical scope and range of migration issues moving up on international political agendas. The OECD has always been seen as a unique forum for analytical work and for the exchange of views, experience and best practices, including economic and social aspects of migration. To support this, great effort has been spent to extend migration statistics and improve data comparability. For many decades, migration movements and policies have been monitored using the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known by its French acronym, SOPEMI), under the auspices of the OECD Working Party. This unique tool allows OECD member countries and non-members to stay on top of the economic and social aspects of migration, including the links between migration and development.

The early years: boom and bust of "guest worker" migration

During the 1950s and particularly the 1960s, the number of foreign workers recruited into north-western European economies grew rapidly. In response to these movements, the Council of the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (forerunner of OECD) decided that each member country should submit a yearly report on matters concerning the liberalisation of international movements of workers in Europe. The reports focused on the employment of foreign workers and, although they dealt mainly with matters related to the status of these workers, details about their labour movements and characteristics were also recorded.

The 1960s saw an acceleration of temporary labour migration ("guest worker" migration), mainly into low-skilled jobs. During the 1966-67 recession, recruitment slowed but soon resumed. Inflows of workers peaked around 1970 when some countries began to take steps to slow down foreign recruitment which, nevertheless, continued at a high level. The rapid growth in numbers prompted the OECD to establish a more formal means of monitoring both the scale and nature of these movements. The Continuous Reporting System on Migration, better known under its French acronym as SOPEMI (*Système d'observation permanente des migrations*), was established in 1973 to provide the OECD member countries with a mechanism for the timely sharing of information on international migration. National experts provide reports on the migration situation in their respective countries and the OECD Secretariat carries out analytical work; together, these are the basis for the annual SOPEMI report, now known as the *OECD International Migration Outlook*.

* This chapter was written by Jean-Pierre Garson (OECD) and John Salt (University College London, SOPEMI correspondent for the United Kingdom).

With the oil crisis in 1973-74, economic growth slowed and new labour inflows fell sharply. The 1974 SOPEMI report mainly took stock of problems on the horizon. It noted – prophetically – that should the crisis settle into one of long duration, relations between national and foreign workers were likely to deteriorate and tensions between them to grow. In 1978, sections on Greece, Spain and Italy as countries of immigration were included for the first time. Signs of policy convergence between northern and southern European countries were noted. In some cases there was an awareness that the geography of migration was shifting, with increasing movement from physically and culturally distant countries, especially in Asia.

The Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI)

The Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known under its French acronym, SOPEMI, from *Système d'observation permanente des migrations*) was established in 1973 to provide the OECD member countries with a mechanism for the timely sharing of information on international migration, the collect of migration statistics as well as the improvement of their comparability, and to serve the basis for an annual OECD report on international migration.

The functioning of the SOPEMI

The core of SOPEMI has always been a group of national experts (correspondents) who prepare annual reports on the migration development in their countries. The original membership of SOPEMI consisted of 11 OECD member countries. In the following years several more joined the group, including non-member countries. In 1979, the Working Party on Migration became the statutory body overseeing SOPEMI's activities and acting as a link between SOPEMI and OECD's Manpower and Social Affairs Directorate, which became later the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs (DELSA). The principal function of SOPEMI, then as now, was to provide information to the Working Party, whose mandate was to collect systematically information on migration trends and policies in the OECD member countries in order to identify emerging problems in international co-operation. The type of information that might be included in the report has been steadily refined over the years. In an attempt to enhance the comparability of national reports, during the 1980s the OECD Secretariat prepared a "grid" outlining the main topics deserving attention.

As the process of international migration evolved and more countries joined SOPEMI, the scope of the annual report broadened. Today the SOPEMI network is a unique institution, global in scope. It functions efficiently and in friendly fashion as an information exchange system based on the three pillars: the correspondents, the OECD Secretariat and the Delegates of the OECD Working Party on Migration.

The experience of the SOPEMI system led to the establishment from 1995 to 2007 of a joint annual workshop with the Japanese government on labour migration in Asia, the first such forum for the region. The monitoring of labour migration in Asia is being resumed, as a joint activity between the Asian Development Bank Institute and the OECD. More recently, the OECD Secretariat has contributed to the launch by the Organisation of American States of the *Sistema Continuo de Reportes de migracion Laboral de las Americas* (SICREMI) – Continuous Reporting System on Labour Migration for the Americas – the first annual report of which is planned for 2011.

Better statistical data

The basis for the annual SOPEMI report has always been its standard statistical tables on immigration, emigration and labour stocks and flows. Gradually a wider range of data has been collected and presented and major attempts made to improve comparability between

The Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) *(cont.)*

countries. The inclusion of the four settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) in the 1980s raised issues of comparability, especially in relation to the conceptual distinctions of migration movements (foreign-born/foreigners; permanent/temporary migration; family reunification/accompanying family) between participating countries and the set of statistical tables compiled. Although from the outset there were attempts to generalise, case-by-case descriptive presentations continued. The growing number of countries within SOPEMI and the convergence of migration interests between countries required improvement of migration statistics as well as of their comparability. Since then, the OECD has created a comprehensive database on international migration as well as a database on immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC), recently extended to many non-member countries (DIOC-E).

A flagship publication: the *OECD International Migration Outlook*

Until 1991, the SOPEMI's yearly synthesis report *Trends in International Migration* was not formally published and was not widely known. Since then, it has been published annually and has increased in length and quality. The name was changed to *OECD International Migration Outlook* in 2006 and it is now regarded as the leader in its field.

The *OECD International Migration Outlook* contains core reviews of the latest migration patterns and trends and of developments in migration policies and immigrant employment. The report's policy section has been expanded and provides a regular comprehensive and comparative review of major developments across the migration spectrum. The publication allows member governments and others to keep abreast of decisions and practices elsewhere and provides a basis for assessing the success of particular policy initiatives.

Notes on individual countries have been a valuable part of the annual report from the outset. In recent years, they have been standardised and now consist of a one-page summary accompanied by a page of tables and graphs. Every attempt is made to include the latest information prior to publication.

An important feature of the OECD's work on international migration has been co-operation with other international organisations, particularly in the fields of data collection and analysis of specific issues. This has helped avoid duplication of work and enhance complementarities. It has also encouraged joint efforts with national governments and other organisations to hold seminars and conferences on a wide range of topics. Some of the results of these meetings are often presented in the special chapters included in the annual publication (see also the List of international meetings organised under the auspices of the OECD Working Party on Migration, 1986-2010, at the end of this chapter.)

Rising unemployment and continuing restrictive measures led to a series of appraisals in the SOPEMI reports of the late 1970s. Labour migration might have gone down but family reunion took over: for example, in the Netherlands in 1977, of 19 000 immigrants from seven recruitment countries, only 2 000 were economically active. The onset of recession did bring about some return, but for the most part outflows generally fell after an initial rise. Overall, the downturn did not result in major downward shifts in overall migrant stocks. The 1976 SOPEMI reported that "all in all, numbers of foreign workers in Europe did not fall appreciably in 1975", while the following year's report commented that between 1973 and 1976 total foreign population had generally either risen (for example, in the cases of France, Belgium and the Netherlands) or been fairly stable (as in Germany and Switzerland).

As the migration situation in the late 1970s evolved, ideas of future patterns began to firm up. These included a sense of deception felt by some emigration countries where the idea took hold that some form of compensation for the loss of workers was appropriate. As it became apparent there would be no resumption of labour flows in the foreseeable future, emphasis in destination countries was put on existing stocks, on the second generation, on integration policies and on new political relationships between origin and destination countries. Significantly, the 1977 SOPEMI report differed from its predecessors by placing more emphasis on integration than flows. It also commented that during the recession, foreign workers in SOPEMI countries were not much more affected by unemployment than nationals and that "it is increasingly evident that the role played by foreign workers in the western industrial economies makes them essential in the jobs they do." When the downturn occurred, most immigrants did not lose their jobs and most of those who did were entitled to social benefits, so they stayed.

In the late 1970s, reports reflected a new agenda of immigration policy concerns with what had been regarded as marginal forms of immigration in the past, such as refugees and the growing feminisation of labour migration. By 1980, stocks of foreign-born population were higher in most countries than in 1973. A predominantly young, single and temporary foreign population had become a settled one, as more married migrants arrived and were joined by spouses and children.

The 1980s: Relative stability of immigration flows

The 1980s began with limited movement across Europe, not all within the areas of free circulation. Returns to country of origin remained few in number. On the whole, entries continued to increase, but slowly, and they were largely confined to family members and workers covered by common market agreements. However, the pattern was becoming more diversified and in some countries, including Germany, France, Switzerland and Austria, new foreign worker flows were again rising. At the same time, the classic distinction between countries of "immigration" and "emigration" was breaking down.

With the era of mass labour flows behind, attention was directed towards the integration of the growing stock of immigrant population. Unlike settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States), which aimed to attract rather qualified people who could integrate well, European countries had imported foreign labour for relatively less skilled jobs. The integration of these workers and their spouses and children presented difficult problems of integration over time, especially in an economic situation marked by worsening unemployment and by segmentation of labour markets. Host government responses were not always whole-hearted, as the 1981 report indicated: "… there are signs of a certain degree of reticence in the pursuit of policies which lead in the longer term to the arrival on the labour market of more women and young people of foreign origin."

By the mid-1980s Europe had a population of foreign origin substantially different from that of ten years before. That population had consisted of adults in the prime of their age and well adapted to the basic structures of regular employment. They were regarded as indispensable in assuring a favourable investment climate; they occupied jobs abandoned by the national workers; they were net contributors to the social security system by making little demand on benefits. They were also geographically mobile. The 1984 report drew the contrast:

> **The "new foreigners", that is i) the second generation originating from the non-assimilated groups of former immigrants; ii) the more or less irregular immigrants; and iii) the applicants for asylum from fairly far-off countries, are not usually in a position to play a role analogous to that of previous entrants because of both their own characteristics and attitudes and of the development of the formal labour market. On the contrary, these groups often suffer from high levels of unemployment and irregular employment.**

In the uncertain economic environment following the downturn of the early 1980s, inter-governmental co-operation was needed for a wider range of issues, including entry controls to limit irregular migration and the integration of those already present, supported by non-replacement of those who returned home. Such intentions were hindered by the social conditions and living standards in their countries of origin, which discouraged return (especially among youth) and by the concentration and growth of certain groups of foreign origin who were substantially divorced from the majority of the society of the receiving country.

The entry into SOPEMI of the United States in 1983 and Canada in 1984, followed by Australia and New Zealand in 1985 prompted a new look at what was going on in Europe. For a start, there were important legislative and conceptual differences. Canadian legislation, while pursuing quite well-defined objectives, contained them within a specific concept of the optimal development of the population and the need for economic and regional equilibrium. A points system, alien to European policy makers, provided the Executive with flexibility. In the United States the law allowed the Administration less autonomy and partially determined the volume of immigration. The remainder, not subject to any quota, was constituted by near relatives of US citizens and by refugees, of which the level of admission was fixed by the President after consultation with Congress. Not surprisingly, the migration concepts in these two North American countries appeared to have little in common with that which had become the pattern in Europe, namely a labour migration to which family reunion has been added essentially in response to non-economic factors.

A further consideration was that immigration into the United States and Canada was less and less European in origin. However, as the decade went on, it became more apparent that European migrant origins were also metamorphosing into new areas of destination. Both sides of the Atlantic were becoming more entwined in global migration networks, a trend also experienced in Australia and New Zealand.

The increasing importance of family migration in Europe suggested that differences in the perception of migration between Europe (where migration had been viewed as essentially temporary) and the non-European OECD countries (where immigrants have always been expected to stay for good), were beginning to fade. The 1984 report commented that:

> **There is… a trend towards similarity in the problems to be faced: problems of insertion into the social fabric, of education of young people, of the harmonisation of cultural traditions, of naturalisation. This trend appears to be equally recognisable in the similarity of the irregular movements to which both areas continue to be subjected… the growth in the number of asylum seekers and… the results of a migratory pressure which, originating in the less-developed countries, is tending to affect those [countries] with a higher standard of living. [Nevertheless]… in spite of these similarities… the different traditions of the European countries lead them… to consider a part of their immigration as relatively temporary.**

The 1985 report commented that in OECD countries on both sides of the Atlantic disquiet over illegal immigration, and in particular refugee/asylum issues, was increasingly expressed in the political arena, as shown by the eruption of public policy debates over refugees and asylum in countries such as the Netherlands, Sweden, France, Germany, the United States and Italy. Despite a stabilisation in flows during the 1980s, immigration was becoming an important focus of public concern.

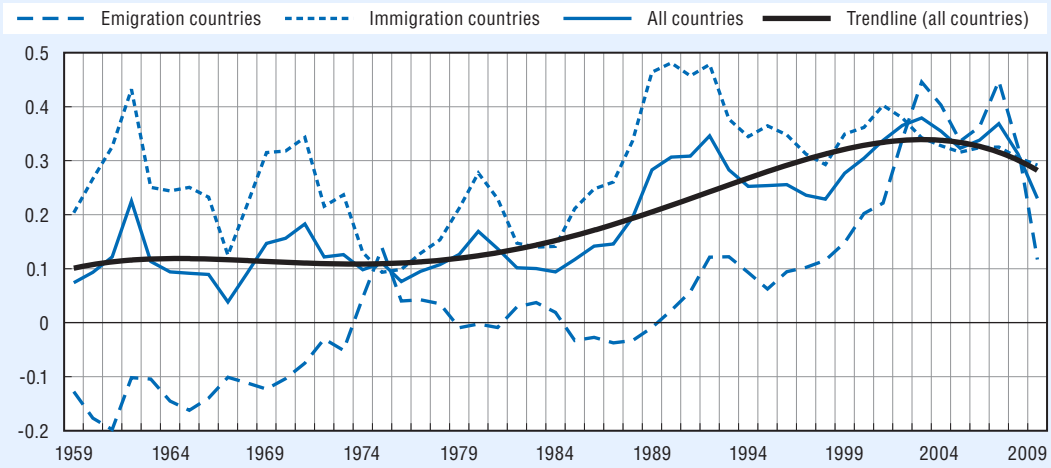
The 1990s: A decade of change after the fall of the Iron Curtain

In the aftermath of the fall of the Iron Curtain in 1989, policy makers responsible for migration issues were confronted with a new and largely uncharted situation. Suddenly, it seemed, there was likely to be mass migration from the East, towards the lotus lands of Western Europe and to other parts of the world. In Europe, growing flows from the countries of the South were creating a new "migration frontier" along the northern shores of the Mediterranean. Italy, Greece, Spain and Portugal, traditionally countries of emigration, became ones of net immigration. In North America, the United States/Mexico border was proving increasingly porous.

These movements were part of a wider trend towards an acceleration and globalisation of flows. Intra-OECD flows, especially of skilled labour were still brisk, but most of the new immigrants were from countries beyond. It was also becoming apparent that immigration played an increasing role in total population growth. The 1992 report stated that the policies of OECD countries were now three-pronged: "to monitor and regulate flows more closely; to step up efforts to combat illegal migration and employment of undeclared labour; and to facilitate the integration of immigrant groups."

50 years of net migration in some OECD countries, 1959-2009

Net migration as a percentage of the total resident population



Note: Immigration countries include Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New-Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. Emigration countries include Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Slovak Republic, Japan, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Poland, Portugal and Spain. Korea, Mexico and Turkey are out of the scope of the study for data availability reasons.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2011.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932446759

It was also becoming accepted that emigration was not the answer to the problems of underdevelopment and that a new form of co-operation between North and South needed to be established in order to reduce incentives for emigration. At the OECD's first international conference on migration and development (Madrid, 1993) proposals were made concerning the OECD's role in encouraging forms of development that would lead to more employment in sending countries. These included liberalisation of trade, increased FDI, development of labour intensive sectors and regional integration.

When the Iron Curtain lifted there were widely voiced expectations of large scale shifts in migration movements. Three interrelated but distinct migration regions developed: Western Europe; Central and Eastern Europe excluding the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), and the CIS countries. Each of these regions had a strong degree of self-containment that gradually loosened as they became enmeshed in the expanding global migration network. In Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS, the transition to a market economy had contradictory effects. As the political motivations for leaving began to disappear, the re-establishment of freedom of movement, rising levels of unemployment and persistently high income differentials between East and West encouraged emigration, especially among the most highly qualified.

In Central and Eastern Europe, too, ethnically-based migrations were common, frequently continuations of those that had begun in the aftermath of the Second World War but had ceased with the erection of the Iron Curtain. Other ethnic moves concerned "return migration" of longstanding emigrant communities, such as the *Aussiedler* in Germany; others were of populations displaced in communist times. New economic flows developed, between East and West and within Central and Eastern Europe. Some were permanent, but most were short-term, often for seasonal work, and over short distances.

Advantage was taken of the openness of the informal sector, involving petty trading, labour tourism and other novel forms of movement including an intensive shuttling back and forth across international borders in order to make a living. Traditionally not regarded as migration, such movements forced themselves into the migration lexicon simply as a result of their volume, economic importance and novelty. Special sections in the 1992 and 1993 reports on Central and Eastern European countries reported that although the expected mass exodus had not occurred, the region remained a source of potential migration, "fuelled by growing economic, political, social and ethnic tensions".

The rise of nationalist feelings in some countries caused unforeseen movements of populations fleeing discrimination and persecution or even, as in former Yugoslavia, civil war. In parallel, in light of high levels of asylum seeking in some countries after the fall of the iron curtain, most OECD countries implemented new legislative and administrative procedures to deal more speedily with high numbers of applications as well as some fraudulent requests. As a result, there was a trend towards harmonisation of asylum policy, including measures to prevent an applicant from submitting applications in multiple countries.

The immigration story in the New World countries in the 1990s was one of rapid growth, characterised by four basic trends. First, policy and quotas were increasingly driven by the need to compete in a global skills market. For example, the 1995 Report of the US Commission on Immigration Reform argued that skill-based immigration should support national interests by bringing in skills which benefited society and helped businesses compete in the global economy. Similarly, the points system in Australia and Canada selected those with the skills required by their economies. Second, competition in the global skills market in all three countries was tempered by the need to balance it with humanitarian concerns. Hence, family reunion remained the single biggest "cause" of migration and was a central plank in what was effectively a tripartite approach focusing on nuclear family members, refugees and others in need of protection, and professional and skilled workers.

Third, Australia, Canada and the United States (and to a lesser degree also New Zealand), each an important node in a global migration system, continued to experience a changing geography of migration, with the balance of their intake swinging inexorably towards Asia and, especially in the case of the United States, towards Latin America. Diversification included new nationalities such as Sri Lankans, Vietnamese and Indonesians, many of whom were highly skilled.

A feature of migration in the 1990s was recognition of its increasing globalisation, as the numbers of countries involved in migration grew, helped by the opening of Central and Eastern Europe and by economic growth in Asian countries. Although there was stabilisation in legal migration inflows and in certain OECD countries a decline, more countries were competing more strongly for high level skills. While countries started to compete more strongly for highly skilled migrants, it was also clear that vacancies existed at less-skilled levels in most countries and although there was generally little attempt at large scale recruitment of temporary workers, irregular migration and illegal employment of immigrants were thought to be becoming more common. Unfortunately, evidence to substantiate or refute such views was hard to come by. The words "smuggling" and "trafficking" were more frequently used to describe an ascendant illegal migration business. The 1997 report commented that "the persistence of illegal migration is a clear

indication of the difficulties encountered by host countries in controlling migration flows." One response to the presence of irregular migrants was a general amnesty. The largest of these had taken place in the United States in 1986 as a result of the Immigration Control and Reform Act which saw some three million regularised. During the 1990s a succession of European (mostly Mediterranean) countries followed suit.

Most countries continued to seek to improve integration. Models of integration varied from country to country because flows were of varying magnitude and host country conditions and political views differed.

New challenges in the 2000s: renewed interest in labour migration and the impact of the 2008 financial crisis

By the turn of the millennium, the resumption of immigration begun in the late 1990s was confirmed and tended to gather pace in 2000 and 2001. It resulted primarily from greater labour migration, both temporary and permanent. Conditions for recruiting skilled foreign labour were eased in most OECD member countries in order to meet labour market needs, especially in the new technologies and health care sectors. However, the combined effects of the IT sector bust and the events of 11 September 2001 led to a slackening of demand and a reduction in new foreign labour recruitment. The slowdown was short-lived, however, and from 2003 numbers were again rising.

Asylum seeking remained a major pre-occupation for policy makers. Regional conflicts and continuing entry restrictions lay behind an increase in numbers which was not shared evenly across member countries. The response among those countries receiving rising numbers of asylum seekers was similar – improved and faster procedures, revised appeals systems, rebalanced refugee/humanitarian status and agreement on so-called "white" lists of countries where conditions were not deemed sufficiently difficult to warrant protection being offered to their citizens. By the middle of the decade the number of asylum seekers was generally falling.

International student mobility attracted increasing attention as the decade wore on. "Education for aid" gave way to "education for trade" as countries and their educational institutions realised that international students could be a source of income and skills. More countries changed their legislation to allow international graduates to stay on and seek and take up work. International employers began to target such people – mobile and multi-lingual – as part of their global human resources.

The diverse economic, social and political experiences of OECD countries around the world meant that at any one time mobility patterns varied. The 2002 report commented that "Every type of migration policy has been implemented during the last two years." Some countries had adopted more restrictive attitudes towards the entry and residence of foreigners; others had tightened requirements for family reunification procedures. These policies were enacted in parallel with other policies giving more importance to selection and retention procedures for new, especially skilled, immigrants. Measures involving international co-operation to deter unfounded asylum applications and provide for readmission of illegal immigrants were also adopted.

The 2005 report was markedly upbeat. Flows of both permanent and temporary migrants were again rising. Family migration dominated permanent moves; numbers of asylum seekers continued to decline. International student numbers were rapidly rising,

labour migration was also on the rise, in particular by women. Globalisation of the migration network was evident, with more immigrants from China, India and the Philippines, while the destination countries for sub-Saharan African migration were diversifying. The integration of immigrants into labour markets was improving, although they did continue to be over-represented among the unemployed.

The following year's report took stock, asking why international migration had risen so rapidly on OECD country agendas over the last decade. Two principal forces were deemed to be at work.

Firstly, immigration flows grew rapidly during the 1990s and are now growing again, using at times irregular or unconventional channels (asylum seeking, tourism overstaying). There are currently close to three million long-term immigrants entering OECD countries legally every year and even more temporary movements if international students are included. And this does not count unauthorised movements. Secondly, with ageing populations and falling interest in certain occupations in OECD countries (sciences, building trades), it is expected that there will be need for more worker immigration in the near future. [However] … this will only be possible if past and current immigrants… are seen to be integrating without difficulty in the host country.

The report concluded that managing migration had become a difficult balancing act between attracting required skills without compromising domestic workers, firm border controls, effective integration of immigrants and satisfying public opinion.

One of the special chapters of the 2007 publication focused on the international mobility of health personnel. It highlighted the globalisation of health worker recruitment, including reliance by some health services on migrant labour, as well as the losses accrued by many sending countries of expensively trained medical staff.

The global financial crisis and resultant recession in 2008 brought a new slowdown in movement. The high political interest in migration and integration issues was mirrored in the first-ever High Level Policy Forum on Migration, held at the OECD in June 2009. A special report was issued, examining the effects of the crisis. It also presented a five-point "road map" for managing labour migration:

- First, because labour needs existed at all skill levels, it was important that the legal channels for the low-skilled were not replaced by hiring irregular immigrants.
- Second, many future labour needs were likely to be long term and could not be filled by temporary migrants: "Governments therefore need to plan in terms of long-term migration and effective integration strategies for immigrants and their families." (OECD, 2009)
- Third, there was a bigger management role for stakeholders, especially employers, in identifying and selecting potential immigrants. Incentives for employers and others to follow the rules and safeguards to protect immigrant and native workers were required.

- Fourth, managing labour migration was not incompatible with measures to provide benefits for origin countries, including facilitating remittances, encouraging the involvement of diasporas, removing obstacles to return migration, fostering increased international student enrolment and funding pre-migration training in origin countries.
- Fifth, the premium on developing and implementing successful labour integration strategies for migrants and their children remains as high as ever.

Despite the recession, inflows of labour migrants have continued, at both ends of the occupational spectrum. For example, personal care workers are increasingly demanded by an ageing population and the appetite for high level skills continues unabated in most OECD countries.

A major problem faced by all governments is the need to reconcile flow management with public opinion and to develop a dialogue that takes into account a range of views. A special study in the 2010 report addressed the ways in which public opinion is constructed by individuals and other stakeholders, including the media.

Challenges in the current decade

- There seems little likelihood of substantial reductions in numbers of international migrants for several reasons. First, global population will continue to rise, increasing emigration pressures in poorer countries. Environmental deterioration will also encourage emigration from marginal areas. Second, as increased globalisation of the economy leads to more globalisation of migration, new migration sources and nodes will emerge. In this context, the prevention of massive irregular migration implies the promotion of economic development in origin countries and the strengthening of legal migration channels.
- Ageing populations in OECD countries will require some compensatory labour immigration, particularly for labour intensive personal care occupations. In addition, to maintain economic competitiveness, OECD countries will continue to compete for migrants with high level skills and qualifications. OECD countries facing labour shortages will not only have to improve their migration management, but also match international recruitment of workers to labour market needs.
- The diverse geographical locations and historical ties of OECD countries will lead to diverse responses as circumstances evolve. At the same time, there will also be a need for reinforced co-operation both between OECD countries, and between them and non-OECD countries. Consequently, it will be necessary to extend and improve the monitoring of migration trends and policies, including in the enhanced engagement countries.
- Integration of immigrants and their children is key to social cohesion. The human capital of prior immigrants should be better utilised and policies developed to improve their skills.

For 50 years, OECD work on migration has allowed countries to better manage migration policy. The SOPEMI will continue to extend and improve the monitoring of migration trends and policies and to help countries know what works and what does not.

International meetings organised under the auspices of the OECD Working Party on Migration, 1986-2011

- Conference on the Future of Migration (Paris, May 1986).
- Conference on the Demographic Aspects of Migration (Paris, November 1988).
- International Conference on the Changing Course of International Migration (Rome, March 1991).
- International Conference on Migration and International Co-operation (Madrid, March 1993).
- Seminar on Migration, Free Trade and Regional Integration in Central and Eastern Europe (Vienna, February 1996).
- Seminar on Migration, Free Trade and Regional Integration in the Mediterranean Basin (Athens, November 1996).
- Seminar on Migration, Free Trade and Regional Integration in North America (Mexico, January 1998).
- Conference on Globalisation, Migration and Development (Lisbon, November 1998).
- Seminar on Preventing and Combating the Illegal Employment of Immigrants (The Hague, April 1999).
- Seminar on Recent Developments in Migration and the Labour Market in Central and Eastern Europe in the Context of the EU Enlargement (Bratislava, March 2000).
- Technical Seminar on International Mobility of High Skilled Workers: from Statistical Analysis to the Formulation of Policies (Paris, June 2001).
- Conference on the Economic and Social Aspects of Migration (Brussels, January 2003).
- Seminar on Bilateral Labour Agreements and other Forms of Recruitment of Foreign Workers (Montreux, June 2003).
- International Conference on Migration, Remittances and the Economic Development of Sending Countries (Marrakech, February 2005).
- Seminar on Latin America and International Migration (Santiago de Compostela, June 2005).
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Table of Contents

Editorial: Migration in the Post-Crisis World 29
Introduction 33

Part I

TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

A. Trends in Migration Flows and in the Immigrant Population 40
1. Introduction 40
2. Permanent immigration 40
3. Temporary worker migration 45
4. Source countries and regions of international migration flows 46
5. The foreign-born and the foreign population in OECD countries 52
6. Migration of service providers and intra-corporate transfers 54
7. Entries of asylum seekers 61
8. International students – studying and staying on 64

Notes 67
References 69

Annex I.A1. Statistics on posted workers from E101 certificates – an assessment 70
Annex I.A2. Estimating stay rates for international students 72

B. Employment 73
1. Introduction 73
2. Immigrants in the labour market through the economic crisis 74
3. Job creation during the crisis ... and beyond 85

Notes 88

Annex I.B1. Employment, unemployment and participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008 to 2010 89
Annex I.B2. Foreign-born unemployment in selected OECD countries by unemployment duration, Q1 2008 to Q4 2010 99
Annex I.B3. Changes in foreign- and native-born employment by industry in selected OECD countries, 2007-10 102

C. Migration Policy Developments 104
1. Introduction 104
2. Ensuring that labour migration meets labour market needs is a growing priority for policy 104
3. Family and humanitarian policies are being tightened 115
4. Tackling irregular migration remains a challenge 121

5. Policies to encourage migrants to return to their countries of origin are growing . . . 124
6. EU legislation continues to be a driver of policy in European OECD countries . . . 125
7. International co-operation addresses an increasingly broad variety of objectives . . . 128
8. Integration and citizenship policies continue to attract policy attention . . . 129
Summary and conclusion . . . 135
Notes . . . 136
References . . . 137

Part II

MIGRANT ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN OECD COUNTRIES

Executive summary . . . 140
Introduction . . . 140
1. Measuring migrant entrepreneurship and its contribution to employment creation in OECD countries . . . 141
2. Specific policy measures to foster migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries . . . 160
Conclusions . . . 171
Notes . . . 172
References . . . 175
Annex II.A1. Supplementary tables on admission programmes and permit regimes for foreign entrepreneurs and investors . . . 179

Part III

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION TO ISRAEL AND ITS IMPACT

Introduction . . . 206
Key findings . . . 207
1. International migration and Israel . . . 208
2. Temporary labour migration in Israel . . . 226
3. Impact of migration on the Israeli economy . . . 234
Conclusions . . . 242
Notes . . . 243
References . . . 245
Annex III.A1. Supplementary tables: Regressions . . . 248

Part IV

RECENT CHANGES IN MIGRATION MOVEMENTS AND POLICIES

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Australia 260
Austria 262
Belgium 264
Bulgaria 266
Canada 268
Chile 270
Czech Republic 272
Denmark 274
Estonia 276
Finland 278
France 280
Germany 282
Greece 284
Hungary 286
Ireland 288
Israel 290
Italy 292
Japan 294
Korea 296
Lithuania 298
Luxembourg 300
Mexico 302
Netherlands 304
New Zealand 306
Norway 308
Poland 310
Portugal 312
Romania 314
Russian Federation 316
Slovak Republic 318
Slovenia 320
Spain 322
Sweden 324
Switzerland 326
Turkey 328
United Kingdom 330
United States 332

STATISTICAL ANNEX

Introduction 338
General comments on tables 338
General comments 339
Inflows and outflows of foreign population 340
Inflows of asylum seekers 364
Stocks of foreign and foreign-born population 384
Acquisition of nationality 420
Inflows of foreign workers 438
Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force 442

List of correspondents of the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) 449
List of OECD Secretariat members involved in the preparation of this report 451

Figures and Tables

Part I

TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Figures

A. Trends in Migration Flows and in the Immigrant Population
I.1. Permanent inflows into selected OECD and non-OECD countries, total and by category of entry, as a percentage of the total population, 2009 43
I.2. Ratio of permanent movements to the average size of a single-year age cohortbetween the ages of 20 and 24, 2009 44
I.3. Distribution of immigration by continent and change from 2007 to 2009 47
I.4. Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2000-08 and 2009. 50
I.5. Stock of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2000-09. 53
I.6. Issuances of E101 certificates for posted workers, 2005-09, by sending country or region 59
I.7. Distribution of enterprises posting workers in the European Economic Area, by sector of activity, 2009 61
I.8. Percentage of international students changing status and staying on in selected OECD countries, 2008 or 2009. 67

B. Employment
I.9. Changes in monthly harmonised unemployment rates in OECD countries and in the European Union, January 2008 to January 2011 73
I.10. Quarterly employment by place of birth in selected OECD countries, Q1 2007 to Q4 2010. 75
I.11. Contribution of various factors to change in foreign- and native-born employment in European OECD countries and in the United States. 76
I.12. Change in unemployment and employment rates by place of birth, 2008-10 79
I.13. Change in participation rates of women by place of birth, 2008-10. 79
I.14. Change in migrant women participation rate and in migrant men employment rate in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 80
I.15. Change in employment rates by gender and country of birth, 2008-10 81
I.16. Change in employment rates by place of birth and by age in selected OECD countries, 2008-10. 82
I.17. Change in unemployment rates by place of birth and by educational attainment in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 83

I.18. Change in long-term unemployed foreign-born workers in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 . . . 85
I.19a. Share of foreign-born employment in new hiring and in total employment, 2008 and 2010 . . . 87
I.19b. Share of foreign-born employment in temporary and total employment, 2008 and 2010 . . . 87
I.B2.1. Evolution of foreign-born unemployment in selected OECD countries by unemployment duration, Q1 2008 to Q4 2010 . . . 100

Tables

A. Trends in Migration Flows and in the Immigrant Population
I.1. Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD and non-OECD countries, 2003-09 . . . 41
I.2. Temporary worker migration in OECD countries, 2005-09 . . . 45
I.3. Inflows of foreign nationals into selected OECD and non-OECD countries, by region of origin, 2000-09 . . . 48
I.4. Top 25 countries of immigration into OECD countries . . . 49
I.5. Intra-corporate transfers in OECD countries, 2005-09 . . . 57
I.6. E101 certificates issued for posted workers in the European Economic Area, by origin and destination country, 2007-09 . . . 60
I.7. Asylum seekers in OECD and selected non-member countries, 2005-09 . . . 62
I.8. Top 25 countries of origin of asylum seekers in OECD countries in 2009 . . . 63
I.9. International tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2004-08 . . . 64
I.10. International tertiary-level students in OECD countries by country of origin, 2009 . . . 66
I.A1.1. A comparison of statistics on posted workers to Norway from two sources, 2007-09 . . . 71

B. Employment
I.11. Employment, unemployment and participation rates by region of origin in selected OECD countries, 2010 . . . 84
I.B1.1. Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 . . . 90
I.B1.2. Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 . . . 93
I.B1.3. Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10 . . . 96
I.B3.1. Ten industries with the largest changes in foreign- and native-born employment . . . 102

C. Migration Policy Developments
I.12. Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, 2011 . . . 109

Part II

MIGRANT ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN OECD COUNTRIES

Figures

II.1. Self-employed persons as a share of all employed persons, native- and foreign-born, 2007-08 142
II.2. Age distribution of self-employed persons and of employees, 1998-2008 147
II.3. Self-employed immigrants and wage-and-salary immigrants with more than ten years of residence in the host country, 2008 148
II.4. Women's share of the self-employed, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008 . . 149
II.5. Self-employed by country of residence and region of origin, 2007-08. 150
II.6. Ten main sectors of activity of the self-employed and distribution of wage-and-salary workers in the same sectors, by place of birth, 1998-2008 152

Tables

II.1. Evolution of the self-employment share of total employment by place of birth in OECD countries, 1998-2008 144
II.2. Average yearly number of new entrepreneurs, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008 144
II.3. Index of entrepreneurial activity, 1998-2008. 145
II.4. Flows into and out of self-employment, foreign- and native-born, year-to-year, 1998-2008. 146
II.5. Distribution of educational attainment among entrepreneurs, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008 149
II.6. Contribution of various factors to the probability of being self-employed (Logit Model) 153
II.7. Distribution of firms owned by foreign- and native-born entrepreneurs, by size, 1998-2008 157
II.8. Persons employed in firms of immigrant entrepreneurs and their share of employment in firms of all entrepreneurs, 1998-2008 158
II.9. Average number of jobs created per foreign- and native-born self-employed person, firms under 50 employees, 1998-2008 159
II.10. Average annual number of new migrant entrepreneurs and of special visas issued to foreign entrepreneurs in selected OECD countries 171
II.A1.1a. Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria 180
II.A1.1b. Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits 190
II.A1.2. Investors 200

Part III

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION TO ISRAEL AND ITS IMPACT

Figures

III.1. Share of the foreign-born in total population, selected OECD countries, 1998 and 2008 . . . 208
III.2. Annual inflows of permanent immigrants in Israel, 1949-2010 . . . 210
III.3. Inflows of permanent immigrants in OECD countries, 2004 and 2009 . . . 211
III.4. Employment rate of the foreign-born and the native-born, in selected OECD countries, by gender, 2009 . . . 217
III.5. Immigrants employed in high-skill jobs, in selected OECD countries, 2009 . . . 220
III.6. Differences between the employment-population ratios of native-born and immigrants, 15-64 years old, by years of presence in selected OECD countries, 2009 . . . 222
III.7. Gross monthly earnings of employed Israelis, by year of arrival and region of origin, 2001-09 . . . 224
III.8. Students' performance on the reading scale by immigrant background, PISA 2009 . . . 225
III.9. Palestinian cross-border workers and foreign workers in Israel, 1970-2009 . . . 227
III.10. Foreign workers with permits, overstaying workers and asylum seekers, Israel, 1991-2010 . . . 228
III.11. Foreign workers holding permits, in Israel, 1990-2009 and projections to 2015, by sector . . . 229
III.12. Reported average monthly wages of Israeli and foreign workers and proportion of jobs held by foreigners, 2004-09 . . . 238

Tables

III.1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the foreign-born vs. the native-born, aged 15-64, by country of birth, Israel, 2008-09 . . . 213
III.2. Stock of Israeli-born living in selected OECD countries, 2005-06, and change from 2000 . . . 214
III.3. Employment, unemployment and non-participation rates of immigrants and native-born groups of Israelis aged 15-64, by gender, 2009 . . . 218
III.4. Labour market outcomes of immigrants and natives in selected OECD countries, by region of origin, 2009 . . . 221
III.5. Employment, unemployment and non-participation rates of immigrants and native-born Israelis aged 15-64, by country/region of birth, 2000-09 . . . 222
III.6. Distribution of the employed immigrants and native-born Israelis aged 15-64 by sector of economic activity, 2008-09 . . . 223

III.7. Proportion of employed highly-qualified individuals in low- and medium-skilled jobs in various OECD countries, population aged 15-64, 2008-09 (Israel) and 2002-04 (other countries) 224
III.8. Foreign worker fees, in Israel, by sector, 2011 231
III.9. Synthetic results: the impact of temporary foreign workers on Israeli workers, Israel, 1998-2008 241
III.A1.1. Logistic regression: employment of men, age 15-64, 2008-09 248
III.A1.2. Logistic regression: employment of women, age 15-64, 2008-09 250
III.A1.3. Log-linear regression, wage per hour of men, age 15-64, 2008-09 252
III.A1.4. Log-linear regression, wage per hour of women, age 15-64, 2008-09 253
III.A1.5. Regression: employment of Israeli men in construction, 1998-2008 254
III.A1.6. Regression: employment of Israeli men in agriculture, 1998-2008 255
III.A1.7. Regression: employment of Israeli Jewish women in home care, 1998-2008 256
III.A1.8. Regression: employment of Israeli men, all sectors, 1998-2008 256
III.A1.9. Regression: employment of Israeli Jewish women, all sectors, 1998-2008 258

Part IV

RECENT CHANGES IN MIGRATION MOVEMENTS AND POLICIES

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

Australia 261
Austria 263
Belgium 265
Bulgaria 267
Canada 269
Chile 271
Czech Republic 273
Denmark 275
Estonia 277
Finland 279
France 281
Germany 283
Greece 285
Hungary 287
Ireland 289
Israel 291
Italy 293
Japan 295
Korea 297
Lithuania 299
Luxembourg 301
Mexico 303
Netherlands 305
New Zealand 307
Norway 309
Poland 311
Portugal 313
Romania 315
Russian Federation 317
Slovak Republic 319
Slovenia 321
Spain 323
Sweden 325
Switzerland 327
Turkey 329
United Kingdom 331
United States 333

STATISTICAL ANNEX

Inflows and outflows of foreign population 340
A.1.1. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries and the Russian Federation 341
A.1.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries 342
B.1.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality 343

Australia 343
Austria 343
Belgium 344
Canada 344
Chile 345
Czech Republic 345
Denmark 346
Estonia 346
Finland 347
France 347
Germany 348
Hungary 348
Ireland 349
Israel 349
Italy 350
Japan 350
Korea 351
Luxembourg 351
Mexico 352
Netherlands 352
New Zealand 353
Norway 353
Poland 354
Portugal 354
Russian Federation 355
Slovak Republic 355
Slovenia 356
Spain 356
Sweden 357
Switzerland 357
Turkey 358
United Kingdom 358
United States 359

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1. Migration flows in selected OECD countries 360

Inflows of asylum seekers 364
A.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation 365
B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality 366

Australia 366
Austria 366
Belgium 367
Canada 367
Chile 368
Czech Republic 368
Denmark 369
Estonia 369
Finland 370
France 370
Germany 371
Greece 371
Hungary 372
Ireland 372
Israel 373
Italy 373
Japan 374
Korea 374
Luxembourg 375
Mexico 375
Netherlands 376
New Zealand 376
Norway 377
Poland 377
Portugal 378
Russian Federation 378
Slovak Republic 379
Slovenia 379
Spain 380
Sweden 380
Switzerland 381
Turkey 381
United Kingdom 382
United States 382

Metadata related to Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers 383

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born population 384
A.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 385
B.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth 386
Australia 386
Austria 387
Belgium 387
Canada 388
Chile 388
Denmark 389
Finland 389
France 390
Germany 390
Greece 391
Hungary 391
Ireland 392
Israel 392
Luxembourg 393
Mexico 393
Netherlands 394
New Zealand 394
Norway 395
Poland 395
Portugal 396
Russian Federation 396
Slovak Republic 397
Spain 397
Sweden 398
Switzerland 398
Turkey 399
United Kingdom 399
United States 400
Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population 401

A.1.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 403
B.1.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality 404
Austria 404
Belgium 405
Czech Republic 405
Denmark 406
Finland 406
France 407
Germany 407
Greece 408
Hungary 408
Ireland 409
Italy 409
Japan 410
Korea 410
Luxembourg 411
Mexico 411
Netherlands 412
Norway 412
Poland 413
Portugal 413
Russian Federation 414
Slovak Republic 414
Slovenia 415
Spain 415
Sweden 416
Switzerland 416
Turkey 417
United Kingdom 417
Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. Stocks of foreign population 418

Acquisition of nationality 420
A.1.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation . . . 421
B.1.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality 422
Australia 422
Austria 423
Belgium 423
Canada 424
Chile 424
Czech Republic 425
Denmark 425
Finland 426
France 426
Germany 427
Greece 427
Hungary 428

Ireland 428
Italy 429
Japan 429
Korea 429
Luxembourg 430
Mexico 430
Netherlands 431
New Zealand 431
Norway 432
Poland 432
Portugal 433
Russian Federation 433
Slovak Republic 434
Spain 434
Sweden 435
Switzerland 435
Turkey 436
United States 436
Metadata related to Tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. Acquisitions of nationality 437

Inflows of foreign workers 438
A.2.1. Inflows of foreign workers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation 439
Metadata related to Table A.2.1..Inflows of foreign workers 440

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force 442
A.2.2. Stocks of foreign-born labour force in OECD countries 443
Metadata related to Table A.2.2. Stocks of foreign-born labour force. 444
A.2.3. Stocks of foreign labour force in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 445
Metadata related to Table A.2.3. Stocks of foreign labour force 446

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Editorial

Migration in the Post-Crisis World

As OECD countries are recovering slowly from the crisis, international migration is at a turning point. The economic downturn marked a decline in permanent regulated labour migration flows of about 7%, but it was free-circulation movements (within the European Union) and temporary labour migration which saw the biggest changes with falls of 36% and 17%, respectively, for 2009 compared to 2007. With the first signs of economic recovery, however, there seems little doubt that migration for employment purposes will be picking up again.

At the same time, the global changes that are affecting the world economy have not left migration untouched. The emerging economies of China and India now occupy the first and third places on the list of the main origin countries of immigrants to the OECD area, while South Africa is the main destination country for asylum seekers. As economic growth in developing Asia outstrips that of OECD countries, regional migration flows are gaining importance. South-South migration already accounts for about half of global movements and the competition for talent goes well beyond the OECD area. Ongoing geopolitical changes in Africa and in the Middle East may also have a significant impact on both regional and intercontinental migration flows. Future migration movements are thus unlikely to mirror completely the patterns of the past.

Given the severity of the economic crisis, migration movements have not declined as much as one might have expected, however. This may partly reflect the impact of current demographic trends, notably in European OECD countries, which point to increasing labour needs, at all skill levels. It also illustrates that family and humanitarian migration are less affected by economic downturns than labour migration and tend to maintain themselves. As economies get back on their feet, the effects of ageing populations and workforces will begin to reassert themselves, and recourse to increased international migration will again look attractive as a way to help fill shortages and to help finance health and pension systems in deficit.

But are our societies ready for what is ahead? Recent elections, in the context of difficult economic conditions, have revealed a discomfort on the part of many voters in OECD countries with the prospect of increasing levels of international migration.

How should governments confront these various challenges?

- **First, it is important to get the facts out in the public domain.** Migration, both legal and and irregular, cannot be considered to be out-of-control and governments have shown that slowly but surely, they can improve its management. However, recent events in North Africa have shown that geopolitical changes can rapidly change the picture. OECD governments cannot afford to be complacent and need to show that they can adapt quickly to changing circumstances and to manage disruptions to international migration flows in an effective and co-ordinated manner. They also need to recognise that the great majority of migrants are well integrated into their economies and societies. Asserting the contrary helps no one, least of all the immigrants themselves and their children, who need to invest in education and to find both jobs and employers willing to hire them.

- **Second, labour migration management needs to be reinforced** by a broadening of co-operation between OECD countries and origin countries, as well as between governments and employers. The latter need to respect the rules and recruit legally from abroad, rather than illegally off-the-street, if they cannot easily fill a job vacancy. This implies that legal labour migration systems must be in place and functioning well, in response to real labour market needs, both skilled and unskilled. At the same time, emigration, especially via irregular channels, will continue to have high pay-offs as long as prospects for development in origin countries seem dim. To be successful, migration management needs to support origin countries in improving governance and economic development.
- **Third, integration efforts should be strengthened further.** Although most immigrants are well integrated, it would be false to claim that there are no problems. Integration has to be seen as a long-term investment in the future of our societies rather than a short-term cost. A rapid integration of recent arrivals into the labour market is important, but for the medium term, so also are the educational outcomes of their children. Too often, excessive geographical concentrations of disadvantaged and low-educated immigrants have been allowed to develop, with often devastating effects on local school environments and on schooling results. Relegating immigrant disadvantage to certain neighbourhoods and schools does not address it; it merely perpetuates it, as well as maintaining social differences. Governments have been slow to realise this and need to better address this.
- **Finally, it is important that everybody has a fair chance in society to make their way.** Employers should not exclude candidates for employment who are immigrants or children of immigrants because of where they live or how their origin group is perceived. Such behaviour has itself an unfavourable effect on outcomes and in turn reinforces the negative perceptions that led to exclusion in the first place. Naturalisation should be facilitated and encouraged, to guarantee equal rights for all. The public sector should be equally accessible to both children of immigrants and children of the native-born. Equal opportunity policies are good for everyone. In the ageing world that is upon us, OECD countries cannot afford to neglect the skills of a significant percentage of their populations and the economic benefits which these can bring.

John P. Martin



Director for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs

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Introduction

International migration and the SOPEMI celebrate the 50th anniversary of the OECD

The OECD has always been seen as a unique Forum for analytical work and for the exchange of views, experience and best practices in the field of economic and social aspects of migration. At the same time, a wider range of migration statistics have been developed and great effort spent to improve data comparability. For many decades, the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI), under the auspices of the OECD Working Party on Migration, has been the only such monitor of migration movements and policies. It has witnessed the boom and bust of "guestworker" migration, the tightening of migration policies in the 1980s as well as the changes after the fall of the Iron Curtain in the 1990s and the renewal of interest in labour migration in the 2000s, before the 2008 financial crisis once again put more open migration policies in question. Demographic ageing and globalisation of the world economy pose many challenges to OECD countries in the field of migration. In this context, the OECD remains a privileged observatory of migration movements and policies and a platform for exchange on what works and what does not: a critical instrument to make the most out of international migration to support economic growth in both origin and destination countries.

The 2011 Edition of International Migration Outlook shows a marked drop in migration flows to the OECD…

Overall across the 24 OECD countries with standardised statistics plus the Russian Federation, permanent-type inflows of immigrants into the resident population reached 4.3 million. They declined by almost 7% in 2009, following the decline of about 5% registered in 2008, but remained higher than in any year prior to 2007.

… notably in free movement migration and labour migration

Free movement migration accounted for much of the decline in 2009, showing a drop of more than 230 000, that is, almost 22% lower than in 2008. Labour migration also declined by about 6%, and is now of the same order of magnitude as free circulation movements. Other categories of migration, namely family and humanitarian migration, less responsive to economic conditions, saw smaller changes compared to 2008.

Temporary labour migration remains important, although affected by the economic downturn…

The number of temporary workers entering OECD countries numbered approximately 1.9 million in 2009, significantly higher than the number of permanent labour migrants, which stood at roughly 1.5 million. It declined in 2009 relative to 2008, by approximately 16%. This followed a 1% decline in 2008, and, previously, almost a decade of flows which increased by an average of 7% annually. The largest single category of temporary migrant worker – more than one in four in 2009 – is that of seasonal workers, largely low-skilled workers in agriculture. The next largest category is that of working holiday makers – about 20% in 2009. Those registered as intra-corporate transfers comprised about 6% of temporary workers in 2009.

… while the number of asylum seekers remains stable

The number of persons claiming asylum in OECD countries stood at about 363 000 in 2009, virtually unchanged from the level of 2008. This corresponds to a relatively low level, compared to the historical highs attained in the early to mid-1990s or even compared to the levels above 600 000 in the early part of the decade. The economic crisis has thus not had an obvious impact on the number of requests, nor, according to preliminary data, did requests increase in 2010. Iraq, Serbia and Afghanistan are the most important countries of origin.

The increasing flows of international students lead to some permanent stays

With more and more countries looking to international students as a potential source of highly skilled or educated migrants, the number of international students in OECD countries continued to rise in 2008, by about 5% relative to 2007 for OECD countries as a whole, reaching over 2.3 million students. Of all international students, over 18%, almost 410 000, come from China, 7% from India (163 000) and 5% from Korea (110 000). The estimated "stay" or "retention" rates range from 17% for Austria to between 32 and 33% for France and Canada, with most countries clustered between 20 and 30%.

China accounts for almost 10% of the flows, Romania, India and Poland for less than half this

Migration from China accounts for about 9% of all inflows, whereas Romanians, Indians and Poles comprise respectively 5%, 4.5% and 4% of entries in 2009. Compared to movements observed prior to the crisis, the largest absolute declines were recorded for migration from new EU members countries, most notably Romania, Poland and Bulgaria.

Immigrant population makes an important contribution to population growth in many OECD countries

The foreign-born population in 2009 accounted for 14% of the total population in OECD countries for which data are available. This is a 13% increase relative to the year 2006, and a 37% increase over the past decade. In 20 out of 34 OECD countries, immigrants exceeded 10% of total population. Traditional immigration countries such as Germany and the Netherlands (with immigrant populations at 13 and 11%, respectively) were overtaken by the new migration countries of Ireland and Spain.

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

Migration policy developments in 2009 and 2010 were partly affected by the economic downturn, with restrictive measures adopted in some OECD countries with respect to labour migration. This is the case notably in Spain or Ireland but also in the United Kingdom where a change of government brought a much more restrictive approach to labour migration. Family and humanitarian policies, as well as border controls, were also tightened in the period under review, albeit for different reasons.

… including integration policies

In parallel, integration programmes targeting new arrivals – especially family migrants and refugees – are becoming widespread and many OECD countries are also expanding their scale and scope in order to improve the ability of newly arrived immigrants to communicate in the host country language and their knowledge of the principal institutions of the host society. Measures targeted at labour market integration, in particular regarding the recognition of foreign qualifications, have also been prominent in 2009-10 and the integration of the children of immigrants continued to attract significant policy attention.

The report looks at the disproportionate impact of the economic crisis on employment of immigrants in the OECD

As pointed out in previous editions of *International Migration Outlook* (OECD, 2009, 2010), immigrants have been hard hit, and almost immediately, by the economic downturn. Between the first three quarters of 2008 and 2009, the unemployment rate of the foreign-born increased markedly in all OECD countries. The situation has more or less stabilised since but economic growth generally remains insufficient to absorb the slack in labour utilisation. In Spain for example, in the fourth quarter 2010, the foreign-born unemployment rate reached 29.3% compared to 18.4% for the natives. In this context, a long-term negative impact cannot be ruled out, notably for specific groups which have been particularly hard hit such as immigrants.

Young migrants are particularly affected…

In many countries, young migrants tended to experience relatively unfavourable labour market outcomes prior to the economic crisis. In all countries for which data are available, except Germany, the employment rate of young migrants aged 15 to 24 decreased in the past three years and it did so more than for the native-born. On average in European OECD countries, in the third quarter of 2010, 24.5% of young migrants were unemployed compared to 19.6% for the young native-born. Corresponding figures for the United States were respectively 15.8% and 18.8% (Canada 19.4% and 14.2%; Australia 12.9% and 11.3%; New Zealand 19.9% and 16.4%). It is imperative to address this problem, in order to avoid negative long-lasting impacts on the labour market integration of this cohort, which could lead to both stigmatisation and social unrest.

… although immigrant women have been faring better than men

When migrant men were having a difficult time in the labour market, migrant women were much less affected. One reason is that for migrant women, employment is concentrated in sectors (*e.g.* social and domestic services) which did not suffer much from the economic crisis. Another possible explanation is that migrant women may have increased their labour force participation to compensate income losses from migrant men.

Job creation during the crisis and beyond

During an economic downturn, although net job creation is negative, new hiring does not stop. Immigrant employment increased in some sectors (education, health, long-term care, domestic services) while it was shrinking in others (construction, finance, wholesale and retail trade, etc.). However, whether laid-off migrant workers can take-up new employment opportunities remains to be seen. In this context, there is therefore a risk that long-term unemployment for specific categories of workers, especially low- and medium-skilled men will persist.

Two special chapters deal with topical issues on…

2011 *Edition of International Migration Outlook* includes two special chapters. The first concerns migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries. The second, on international migration in Israel, is part of a series of chapters which will cover new OECD member countries.

… migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries and their contribution to employment creation, and…

On average across OECD countries, the percentage of migrant entrepreneurs differs only slightly from that of natives, but there are significant variations between countries and over time. Nevertheless, migrants are more likely to start a new business in most OECD countries, even if the survival rate of those businesses is lower than that for new

businesses started by native-born entrepreneurs. On average, a foreign-born self-employed owner of a small or medium firm creates between 1.4 and 2.1 additional jobs, slightly fewer than their native-born counterparts (1.8-2.8). Several OECD countries have introduced specific policies to support migrant entrepreneurs. A first set of policies consists of targeted measures to support migrants already established in the host country either to create or develop businesses. The second type of measure includes specific admission policies that regulate the entry and stay of foreign entrepreneurs and investors in a country. These admission policies are designed to select those entrepreneurs whose human and financial capital and business projects are likely to meet the country's economic needs and ensure the success of their businesses.

… on International migration to Israel and its impact

Israel, a country of 7.5 million inhabitants, is built on immigration: since its creation in 1948, Israel has accepted 2.8 million immigrants, and one in four of today's Israelis is foreign-born. In the early 1990s, inflows, mostly from the former Soviet Union, amounted to 10% of the population at the time. Migration has since slowed to levels below the OECD average. Although permanent migration to Israel is almost entirely "ethnic", immigrants tended to be better educated than their Israeli peers. Permanent immigrants appear to move quickly into employment and have higher employment rates than natives. They do, however, suffer from overqualification, and for most groups, wages increase with duration of stay but do not converge fully with those of natives. Integration policy in Israel is front-loaded and choice-based, with immigrants receiving a "basket" of cash payments and vouchers to spend on housing, training and consumption. Palestinian cross-border workers represented a significant share of total employment in Israel for many years, until they were largely replaced by temporary workers – not always documented – from other countries starting in the early 1990s. The temporary labour migration management system is based on a five-year maximum stay, with workers restricted to a specific sector and with limitations on their mobility. There are a series of critical problems with the system, primarily illegal fee-taking and insufficient inspection, with consequent vulnerability of foreign workers and, often, a real wage below Israeli minimum standards. Finally, the empirical analysis of the impact of temporary foreign workers on the labour market outcomes of Israelis shows a complex situation where different groups are affected positively or negatively by different categories of foreign workers.

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PART I

Trends in International Migration

A. *Trends in Migration Flows and in the Immigrant Population*

1. Introduction

With the economic recession firmly in place, virtually all OECD countries saw declines in their GDP in 2009, with only Australia, Israel, Korea and Poland managing to maintain positive but relatively low growth rates. The decline in GDP for the OECD as a whole was close to 3.6%, compared to an increase of 1.2% in 2008 and increases of close to 3% in the previous two years.

The fall in employment for the OECD zone taken as a whole was 1.8% in 2009, the exact opposite of the increase observed in 2006. Certain countries, such as Estonia, Iceland, Ireland and Spain saw particularly precipitous declines, exceeding 6% in all four cases. The ranks of the unemployed have swollen by over 15 million since 2007, with Iceland, Ireland, Spain and the United States seeing their unemployment rates more than double.

The environment for labour migration could scarcely be less favourable and both free movement migration and employer-driven recruitment have shown the consequences of the fall in demand.

2. Permanent immigration

Overall across the 24 OECD countries with standardised statistics plus the Russian Federation, permanent-type inflows of immigrants into the resident population declined by almost 7% in 2009 following the decline of about 5% registered in 2008 (Table I.1). The decline outside of the so-called "settlement countries", namely Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, was even larger at 12%. Total movements at 4.3 million were nevertheless higher than in any year prior to 2007.[1] As was the case in 2008, free movement migration[2] accounted for much of the decline, showing a drop of more than 230 000, that is, almost 22% lower than in 2008. There were nevertheless an estimated 840 000 persons moving under existing free circulation agreements, despite the adverse economic conditions. This continued movement reflects both family migration but also in part, migration for employment from countries where conditions were more difficult to those that were less affected by the crisis. Free-movement migration continued even towards countries strongly affected by the crisis, although at reduced rates. The crisis put a brake on movements, but never entirely stopped them.

Table I.1. **Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD and non-OECD countries, 2003-09**

	Standardised statistics (number of persons)							Change 2009/08
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	%
Czech Republic	57 100	49 700	55 900	63 000	98 800	71 800	39 000	–46
Ireland	43 200	24 700	66 000	88 900	89 600	67 600	38 900	–42
Japan	87 500	94 100	98 700	104 100	108 500	97 700	65 500	–33
Korea	82 200	88 900	153 600	189 500	184 300	194 700	139 000	–29
Italy	120 100	153 100	193 500	171 300	537 200	489 100	369 000	–25
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	691 900	409 600	334 000	–18
Switzerland	79 700	80 700	78 800	86 300	122 200	139 100	114 800	–18
Denmark	. .	21 000	21 600	23 900	30 300	45 600	38 400	–16
Belgium	. .	. .	35 000	35 600	40 300	43 900	37 700	–14
Germany	231 300	230 500	196 600	165 200	232 800	228 300	197 500	–13
Norway	22 500	24 900	25 800	28 300	43 700	48 900	43 100	–12
Finland	9 400	11 500	12 700	13 900	17 500	19 900	18 100	–9
Portugal	11 000	13 100	11 500	25 100	42 900	65 900	59 900	–9
New Zealand	48 400	41 600	59 400	54 800	52 000	51 700	47 200	–9
Austria	51 900	57 100	56 800	30 800	47 100	49 500	45 700	–8
France	170 200	198 600	190 000	195 300	184 500	192 200	178 700	–7
Sweden	47 900	49 300	53 800	78 500	74 400	71 000	71 300	0
Netherlands	65 200	64 800	69 400	73 000	80 600	89 600	90 500	1
Canada	221 300	235 800	262 200	251 600	236 800	247 200	252 200	2
United States	703 500	957 900	1 122 400	1 266 300	1 052 400	1 107 100	1 130 200	2
Australia	125 900	150 000	167 300	179 800	191 900	205 900	221 000	7
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	252 000	268 500	299 000	11
United Kingdom	260 200	322 900	369 400	354 200	364 400	347 600	397 900	14
Mexico	4 800	8 500	9 200	6 900	6 800	15 100	23 900	58
Total number of persons								
All countries					**4 782 900**	**4 567 500**	**4 252 400**	
Excluding settlement countries					3 169 200	2 865 800	2 511 200	
Excluding Belgium, Denmark, the Russian Federation and Spain	2 443 400	2 857 800	3 253 200	3 426 700	3 768 500	3 799 900	3 543 300	
Annual per cent change								
All countries						**–5**	**–7**	
Excluding settlement countries						–10	–12	
Excluding Belgium, Denmark, the Russian Federation and Spain		17	14	5	10	1	–7	

	National statistics (unstandardised)							Change 2009/08
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	%
Hungary	19 400	22 200	25 600	23 600	22 600	35 600	25 600	–28
Chile	29 800	32 100	38 200	48 500	79 400	68 400	57 100	–17
Luxembourg	12 600	12 300	13 800	13 700	15 800	16 800	14 600	–13
Slovak Republic	4 600	7 900	7 700	11 300	14 900	16 500	14 400	–12
Turkey	147 200	148 000	169 700	191 000	174 900	175 000	163 300	–7
Slovenia	8 000	8 600	13 300	18 300	27 500	28 100	27 400	–2
Poland	30 300	36 900	38 500	34 200	40 600	41 800	41 300	–1
Israel	23 300	20 900	21 200	19 300	18 100	13 700	14 600	6
Estonia	. .	800	1 000	1 500	2 000	1 900	2 200	16
Total	**275 100**	**289 500**	**328 800**	**361 400**	**395 800**	**397 700**	**360 500**	
Percent change		**5**	**14**	**10**	**10**	**0**	**–9**	

1. Includes only foreign nationals; the inflows include status changes, namely persons in the country on a temporary status who obtained the right to stay on a longer-term basis. Series for some countries have been significantly revised.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Labour migration also declined, but by less, namely 6%, and is now of the same order of magnitude as free circulation movements. Note that some of this migration does not involve border-crossing but rather status changes, that is, persons who were already in the country on a temporary basis and were allowed to change to a permanent status, either because they were already employed and were able to satisfy the other conditions of stay or because they were international students who completed their studies and found employment (see below). Thus the smaller decline among this group reflects in part the fact that a certain proportion of them were already in the domestic labour market and therefore not directly recruited from abroad.

Other categories of migration, namely family and humanitarian migration, less responsive to economic conditions, saw smaller changes compared to 2008, showing almost none in the case of family migration and a decline of less than 3% in the case of humanitarian movements.

Most OECD countries in Table I.1 saw declines in permanent migration in 2009, almost half showing falls of 10% or more. In the Czech Republic, Ireland, Japan, Korea and Italy, all countries for which labour migration constituted a significant percentage of total flows in the recent past, movements fell by more than 25% or more. Countries showing increases included Mexico, all of the so-called "settlement" countries except New Zealand, plus the United Kingdom and Sweden. The fact that levels were maintained in Sweden was in part due to the fact that permanent labour migration was already very low and free circulation movements not especially high; there was thus less room for decline than in countries where both were at high levels. With the introduction of a new and more open labour migration system in Sweden in December 2008,[3] there was a significant increase in longer-term labour migration flows, offsetting the almost 10% decline in free circulation movements.

Australia and Canada were less affected by the economic crisis and maintained their targeted migration levels, which are not, or only indirectly, set in response to immediate labour market needs and specific requests from employers. Movements remained above the one million level in the United States, essentially because most permanent "green-card" migration to the United States consists of family migration, which does not respond to recruitment needs of employers. Labour migration accounts for at best 7% of total permanent migration in that country and the relatively few openings available are heavily over-subscribed, so that there is little change in movements even in severe crises like the recent one.

The Russian Federation saw permanent-type migration for work-related reasons increase, but the movements are relatively small compared to the large temporary labour migration movements observed in that country, which are occurring in response to labour market pressures stemming in large part from demographic decline.

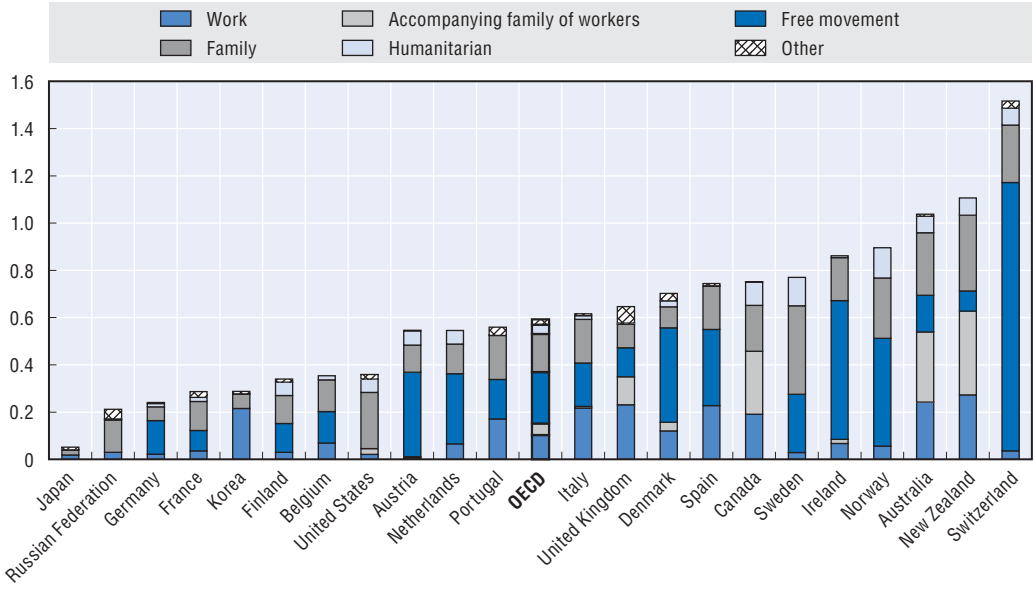
The United Kingdom actually saw a decline in actual entries due to recruitment from abroad of over 25%, but saw a large number of changes to permanent status of persons having entered in earlier years, especially but not exclusively international students. This, along with increases in family migration and in movements for other reasons, more than offset what would have otherwise been a demand-induced decline.

With the large declines observed in recent years, free-movement migration in 2009 accounted for over 20% of all permanent movements in 2009, a drop of almost 8 percentage points compared to 2007. Within the European Economic Area (EEA), it accounted for about 37% of all movements, compared to almost 47% two years earlier. Free circulation migration thus appears to be playing a significant economic adjustment role within the EEA.

The decline in free circulation migration has led mechanically to an increase in the relative importance, if not always the magnitude, of other forms of migration. Family migration, for example, including the accompanying family of labour migrants, increased its share of total migration to almost 47% from less than 41%, while labour migration accounted for about 20% of total permanent movements, unchanged compared to 2008, despite the absolute decline in numbers.

The extent of permanent movements (Figure I.1) varied from as little as 0.1% of the total population at one end of the spectrum (Japan) to almost 1.5% at the other (Switzerland). Indeed, these two countries stand almost alone at each extreme of the immigration distribution. The remaining countries fall more or less into two groups, with one showing permanent inflows of between 0.2% to less than 0.4% of their total population and the second falling between 0.6% to less than 1.2%. The low-immigration group includes the five largest G8 countries, accounting for about 73% of the total population of the countries covered in Table I.1 but less than half of permanent immigration.

Figure I.1. **Permanent inflows into selected OECD and non-OECD countries, total and by category of entry, as a percentage of the total population, 2009**



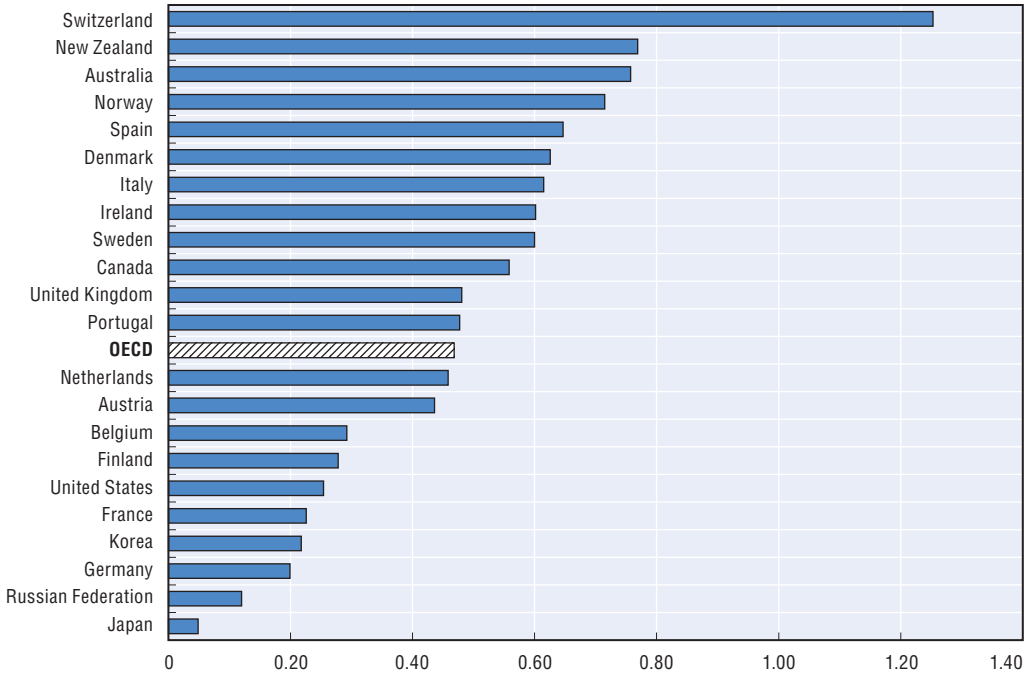
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Among the high migration EEA countries, there appears to be a trade-off between regulated labour migration and free circulation movements, with countries having large free-movement migration showing lower regulated labour migration and those with small free-circulation movements showing rather larger regulated movements. The one exception seems to be Sweden, which despite the increase observed in 2009 continues to show limited permanent labour migration, at least lower than one would expect on the basis of its midrange, free-movement migration.

Notwithstanding the economic crisis, the relative scale of migration movements remains at significant levels, in relation to the number of entries into the working-age population from domestic sources. The ratio of permanent entries to the average size of a cohort of working age entrants exceeds 20% in all but two countries in Figure I.2, namely Japan and the Russian Federation. For over half of the countries, it exceeds 50%. By contrast, the ratio of imports to GDP, a comparison often made, exceeds 40% in only a handful of countries.[4] However, it is in the larger OECD countries that international movements are the lowest in per capita terms; smaller countries admit relatively far more immigrants.

Figure I.2. **Ratio of permanent movements to the average size of a single-year age cohort between the ages of 20 and 24, 2009**



Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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With economic recovery, it is likely that demographic pressures in many OECD countries will reassert themselves and that labour needs will once again drive employers to look for other sources of labour, whether among underutilised groups in the country or from potential immigrants abroad. Recruiting workers with the appropriate language and required work skills will then become a more pressing issue. It is doubtful that the larger OECD countries will be able to maintain their current relatively low levels of legal migration in the presence of these demographic changes.

3. Temporary worker migration

The economic downturn and consequent weakening demand in the labour market affected the international flows of temporary workers. The number of temporary workers entering OECD countries declined in 2009 relative to 2008, by approximately 16%. This followed a 1% decline in 2008, after several years of modest increases (Table I.2). They numbered approximately 1.9 million in 2009, significantly higher than the number of permanent labour migrants, which stood at roughly 1.5 million.[5] A significant proportion of this migration occurs between OECD countries.

Table I.2. **Temporary worker migration in OECD countries, 2005-09**

Thousands

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009/08 change (%)
Trainees	106	122	139	137	115	–16
Working holiday makers	312	335	397	430	403	–6
Intra-company transfers	84	98	116	118	117	–1
Seasonal workers	605	611	614	610	529	–13
Other temporary workers	1 093	1 165	1 138	1 085	827	–24
All categories	**2 200**	**2 331**	**2 404**	**2 381**	**1 991**	**–16**
Annual change (%)	7	6	3	–1	–16	

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009/08 change (%)
Mexico	46	40	28	23	31	32
Netherlands	47	75	52	17	18	7
Australia	183	219	258	300	320	6
Sweden	6	6	12	18	19	4
Germany	400	362	347	331	336	2
Portugal	8	7	5	3	3	0
Switzerland	104	117	109	99	95	–4
Austria	18	15	14	15	14	–6
Denmark	5	5	7	7	7	–6
Canada	146	164	194	221	203	–8
Finland	19	22	24	25	23	–10
New Zealand	78	87	100	100	87	–12
Italy	85	98	66	42	35	–16
Korea	29	39	53	47	39	–16
Japan	202	164	165	161	134	–17
United States	454	482	562	595	453	–24
United Kingdom	275	266	226	194	136	–30
France	24	26	26	19	13	–31
Norway	25	36	43	38	14	–64
Belgium	5	16	30	35	6	–84
Spain	42	85	82	92	6	–93
All countries	**2 200**	**2 331**	**2 404**	**2 381**	**1 991**	**–16**

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441762

Temporary worker migration is a heterogeneous category in terms of the migrants it covers and the occupations in which they work. The largest single category – more than one in four in 2009 – is that of seasonal workers, largely low-skilled workers in agriculture. The number of seasonal workers fell by 13% between 2008 and 2009. A large part of the

decline was due to the fall in seasonal work in Spain, which went from 46 000 to less than 2 000, as agricultural employers had little difficulty finding Spanish workers. More than half of the seasonal workers in 2009 were employed in Germany.

The next largest category is that of working holiday makers – about 20% of the total in 2009. These programmes – also designated "youth mobility" or summer work programmes – allow young people to work in a variety of jobs, generally for up to one year. Australia accounts for almost half of such workers. The United States, where the programme is shorter – up to four months – accounts for about one in four working holidaymakers.

For working holiday makers and trainees, the work carried out is, in principle, incidental, and the main purpose of the migration may be tourism and cultural exchange (working holiday makers) or training (trainees). At the same time, working holiday makers and trainees have been sometimes been used to satisfy lesser-skilled labour needs where low-skilled labour migration is not allowed. These programmes are considered to be relatively low-risk forms of migration – with high compliance with stay requirements, low negative externalities, and employment in sectors where labour is needed.

Intra-corporate transfers are not always identified in temporary flows, as discussed in Section 6 below. Those registered as intra-corporate transfers comprised 6% of temporary workers in 2009.

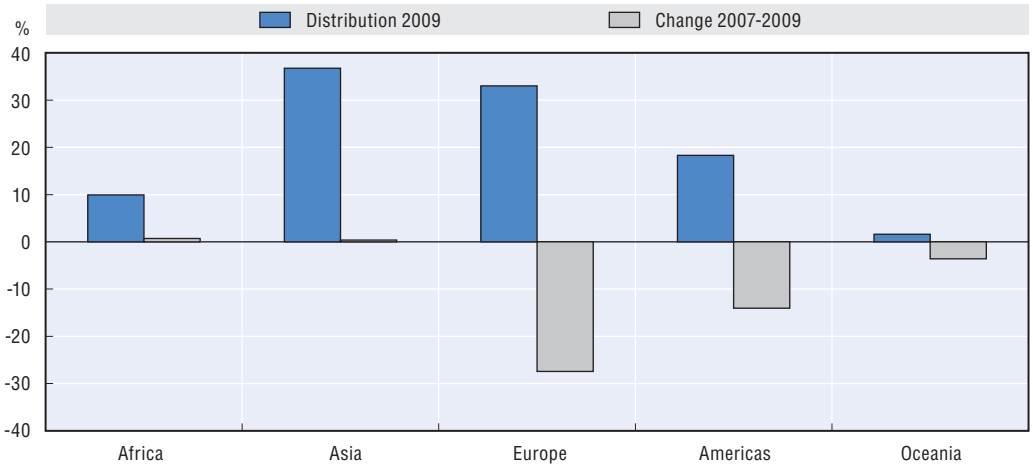
The remaining category of "Other" temporary workers is extremely heterogeneous, including many different types of workers, from computer specialists and engineers to short-order cooks and hotel workers, from home long-term care workers and au pairs to specialised metalworkers. In settlement countries, they include workers recruited from abroad to meet cyclical as well as seasonal labour needs not met by the permanent migration programme.

The coverage of the statistics on temporary workers is incomplete, both with respect to countries and categories. In addition, in some countries, movements that appear in the table as temporary are classified as permanent because the migrants in question, for example intra-corporate transfers, are granted a status that essentially places them on a permanent migration track. Some movements, such as that of the cross-border service providers, may not be explicitly identified. Short-term work assignments may escape recording entirely. Nonetheless, the statistics shown here provide a reasonably complete view of temporary worker movements which are consistent over time and provide an indication of developments in this area.

4. Source countries and regions of international migration flows

The decline in international migration observed overall in OECD countries from 2007 to 2009 was concentrated in Europe and the Americas, from which flows declined by 27% and 14% respectively (Figure I.3).[6] Immigration from Oceania fell by a more modest 4%, while flows from Africa and Asia were practically unchanged. Overall (Table I.3) the decline observed was 15%, which is larger than that seen for permanent movements (Table I.1). The reason is that Table I.3 includes temporary movements for a significant number of countries and these declined substantially more than permanent movements during the crisis.

Figure I.3. **Distribution of immigration by continent and change from 2007 to 2009**



Notes: Includes Bulgaria, Romania and the Russian Federation as countries of destination as well as OECD countries. Flow data for Italy are estimated by means of the change in stock of residents for 2007 (Romania, Poland, Bulgaria) and 2009.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration. Based on non-comparable national statistics, whose coverage of temporary migrants varies from country to country.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440337

The situation, however, was far from uniform across sub-regions of the continents, with considerable variation from one region to another. Eastern Europe and South America manifested declines in emigration of over 35%, while Southern and Western Africa, South-Central and Western Asia and the Caribbean showed increases on the order of 10 to 16%. The decline in the Americas was essentially for immigrants from South America, whose main destination in recent years has been Spain. The decline from Eastern Europe was largely due to a fall from exceptionally high migration levels in 2007 related to the admission of Romania and Bulgaria to the European Union. Immigrants from Eastern Africa increased by 26%, while remaining at relatively low levels (86 000). Indeed, Eastern along with Middle Africa have the lowest emigration rates among the regions in Table I.3. Africa remains the continent with the fewest immigrants to OECD countries and along with Asia, the lowest emigration rate per capita. Emigration rates were highest in the Caribbean (more than 4 400 persons per million population), Australia and New Zealand, and Eastern and Northern Europe.

Immigration in OECD countries was fairly highly concentrated in 2009 with the top 25 countries of origin accounting for about 61% of all immigrants (Table I.4). However as a group, they were only slightly overrepresented, with an emigration rate (750 per million persons in origin countries) only somewhat higher than all other countries. Emigration rates were especially high in the EU enlargement states of Romania and Bulgaria, but also in the Dominican Republic, Poland and as well as in Morocco, Kazakhstan, Peru and Ukraine. The appearance of and the high emigration rates of Kazakhstan and the Ukraine are in part the consequence of the inclusion, for the first time, of the Russian Federation as a destination country in the statistics. Even within this subgroup of countries with high numbers of emigrants, the current emigration rate tends to be inversely proportional to the population size.[7]

Table I.3. **Inflows of foreign nationals into selected OECD and non-OECD countries,[1] by region of origin, 2000-09**

Region	2000	2005	2007[2]	2009[2]	Percent of total immigration 2009	% change 2009/07	Emigrants per million population 2009
	Thousands						
Northern Africa	170	224	246	210	4.1	–15	1 010
Middle Africa	19	30	33	33	0.7	1	270
Western Africa	66	111	124	143	2.8	16	480
Southern Africa	32	43	30	33	0.6	10	580
Eastern Africa	36	56	68	86	1.7	26	270
Africa	**324**	**463**	**502**	**506**	**10.0**	**1**	**500**
Eastern Asia	428	589	706	624	12.3	–12	400
South-Eastern Asia	256	300	296	290	5.7	–2	500
South-Central Asia	491	529	601	665	13.1	11	380
Western Asia	257	209	255	286	5.6	12	1 260
Asia	**1 433**	**1 627**	**1 858**	**1 865**	**36.7**	**0**	**460**
Eastern Europe	664	921	1 425	868	17.1	–39	2 970
Southern Europe	346	287	318	296	5.8	–7	1940
Western Europe	224	245	323	278	5.5	–14	1 480
Northern Europe	174	241	243	234	4.6	–4	2 380
Europe	**1 409**	**1 694**	**2 309**	**1 676**	**33.0**	**–27**	**2 280**
South America	303	404	511	327	6.4	–36	840
Central America	247	236	241	247	4.9	2	1 630
Northern America	145	164	166	171	3.4	3	490
Caribbean	113	143	165	185	3.6	12	4 410
Americas	**808**	**947**	**1 082**	**930**	**18.3**	**–14**	**960**
Australia/New Zealand	77	67	72	68	1.3	–6	2 670
Pacific Islands	10	12	12	13	0.3	8	1 280
Oceania	**88**	**78**	**84**	**81**	**1.6**	**–4**	**2 280**
Unknown	**39**	**18**	**126**	**20**	**0.4**	**–84**	**n.a.**
World	**4 099**	**4 827**	**5 961**	**5 078**	**100.0**	**–15**	**740**
Index of change (2000 = 100)	**100**	**118**	**145**	**124**			

1. Bulgaria, Romania and the Russian Federation.
2. Flow data for Italy are estimated by means of the change in stock of residents for 2007 (Romania, Poland, Bulgaria) and 2009.

Sources: OECD Database on International Migration. Based on non-comparable national statistics, whose coverage of temporary migrants varies from country to country. See *http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp2008/index.htm* for countries included in subregions.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441781

Compared to movements observed over the 2000-08 period, in 2009 the flows of Chinese citizens were more significant in Japan, Korea and Australia, and in a number of European countries, including Poland, Spain, Sweden, the Slovak Republic, and Portugal (Figure I.4). Chinese were less present in the flows to the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. The flows of Indians have increased in particular towards Australia, the United Kingdom, Denmark and the Netherlands, although they declined towards New Zealand, the United States and Canada. Flows have also increased for Germans emigrating towards certain neighbouring countries, such as Austria, Denmark, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Switzerland, but declined towards Poland, Norway, Sweden and the Slovak Republic.

Table I.4. **Top 25 countries of immigration into OECD countries**

	2000	2005	2007	2009	Percent of total immigration 2009	% change 2009/07	Emigrants per million population 2009
	Thousands						
China	301	438	542	468	9.2	–14	350
Romania	90	205	453	255	5.0	–44	12 000
India	114	208	216	226	4.5	5	190
Poland	107	266	263	204	4.0	–22	5 360
Mexico	180	174	206	180	3.5	–13	1 640
Philippines	171	189	160	161	3.2	1	1 750
United States	114	126	142	135	2.7	–5	430
United Kingdom	99	160	144	133	2.6	–8	2 160
Germany	80	105	166	131	2.6	–21	1 600
Ukraine	135	130	147	126	2.5	–14	2 750
Morocco	103	136	161	123	2.4	–23	3 850
France	74	66	74	81	1.6	10	1 300
Korea	59	67	80	79	1.6	–1	1 640
Pakistan	53	68	76	78	1.5	2	430
Peru	22	63	100	77	1.5	–23	2 650
Viet Nam	52	78	98	77	1.5	–22	870
Russian Federation	92	94	78	77	1.5	–2	540
Bulgaria	90	94	96	74	1.5	–23	9 770
Colombia	68	63	89	71	1.4	–21	1 550
Italy	63	54	80	71	1.4	–12	1 180
Dominican Republic	26	43	54	65	1.3	21	6 460
Turkey	85	73	60	59	1.2	–1	790
Uzbekistan	49	38	66	59	1.2	–10	2 140
Iraq	47	24	45	55	1.1	22	1 790
Kazakhstan	131	65	53	53	1.0	1	3 400
Total of above countries	**2 403**	**3 027**	**3 650**	**3 118**	**61.4**	**–15**	**750**
Total other countries	**1 696**	**1 800**	**2 311**	**1 960**	**38.6**	**–15**	**730**
Total of above countries	**100**	**126**	**152**	**130**			
Total other countries	**100**	**106**	**136**	**116**			

Notes: 2007 data includes estimations for inflows to Italy from other EU countries. 2009 data include estimates for inflows to Italy based on changes in stock for the top 25 nationalities (about 222 000). Top 25 countries, ranked in descending order of 2009 figures.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

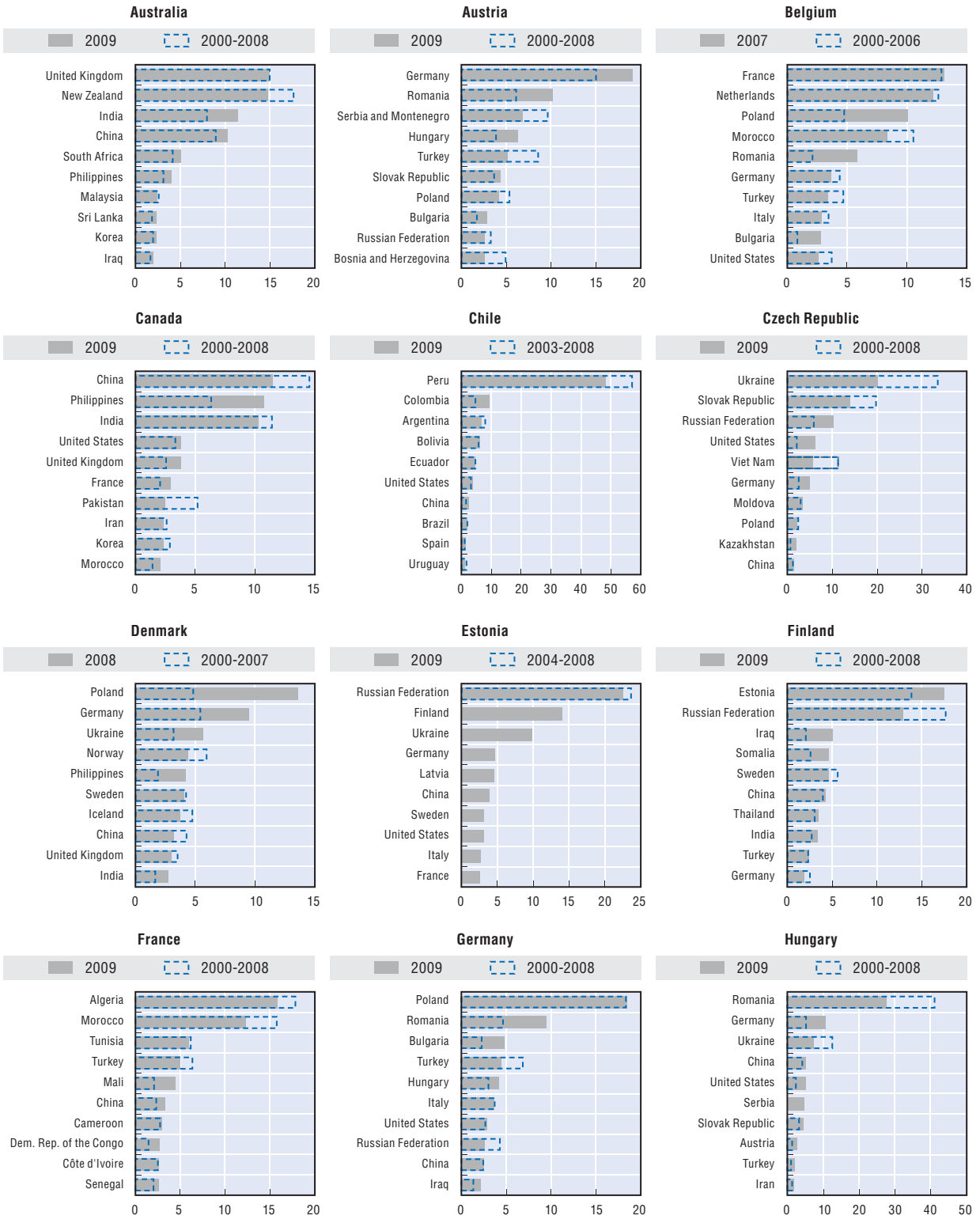
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Immigration from Poland was very high in the mid-2000s, although it has since declined, with Poles a smaller part of flows to Austria, the Slovak Republic, and the United Kingdom. In 2009, however, the share of Poles in immigration increased in Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Sweden and Switzerland. Romanians, who moved in large numbers to several countries in 2009, were an increasing part of flows to Italy (2008), Germany, Portugal and Luxembourg, although the flows to Spain and Hungary decreased significantly in 2009.

In 2009, flows from Morocco fell proportionately compared to 2000-08 in France and Belgium, even as they rose in Italy (2008) and Spain. The Philippines was a larger part of flows to Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and Norway, while it less present in Japan, the United States and the United Kingdom. Turkey was less significant in inflows in Germany, Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, France and Switzerland, and rose only in Sweden.

Figure I.4. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2000-08 and 2009**

2009 top ten countries of origin as a percentage of total inflows



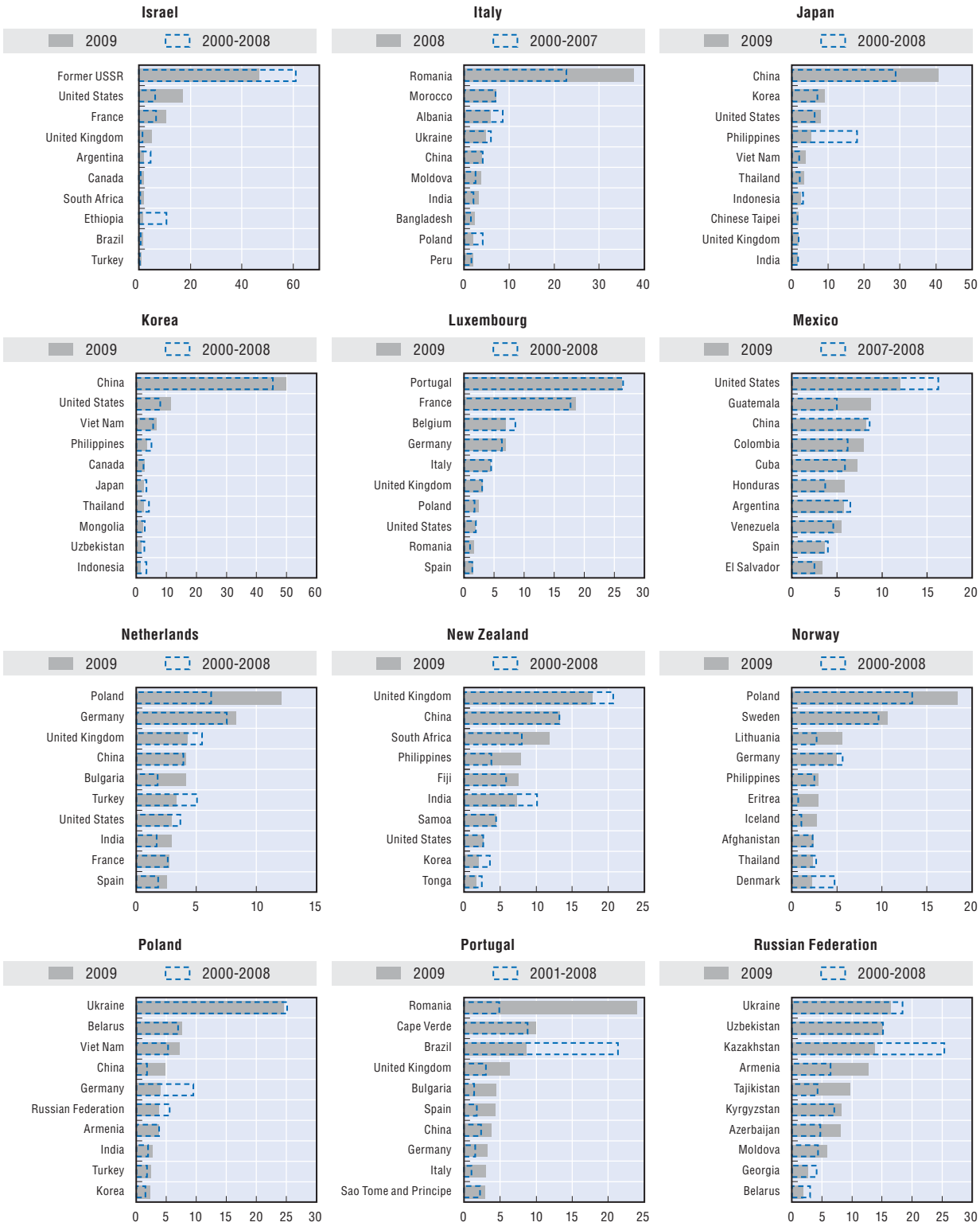
Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440356

Figure I.4. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2000-08 and 2009** *(cont.)*

2009 top ten countries of origin as a percentage of total inflows



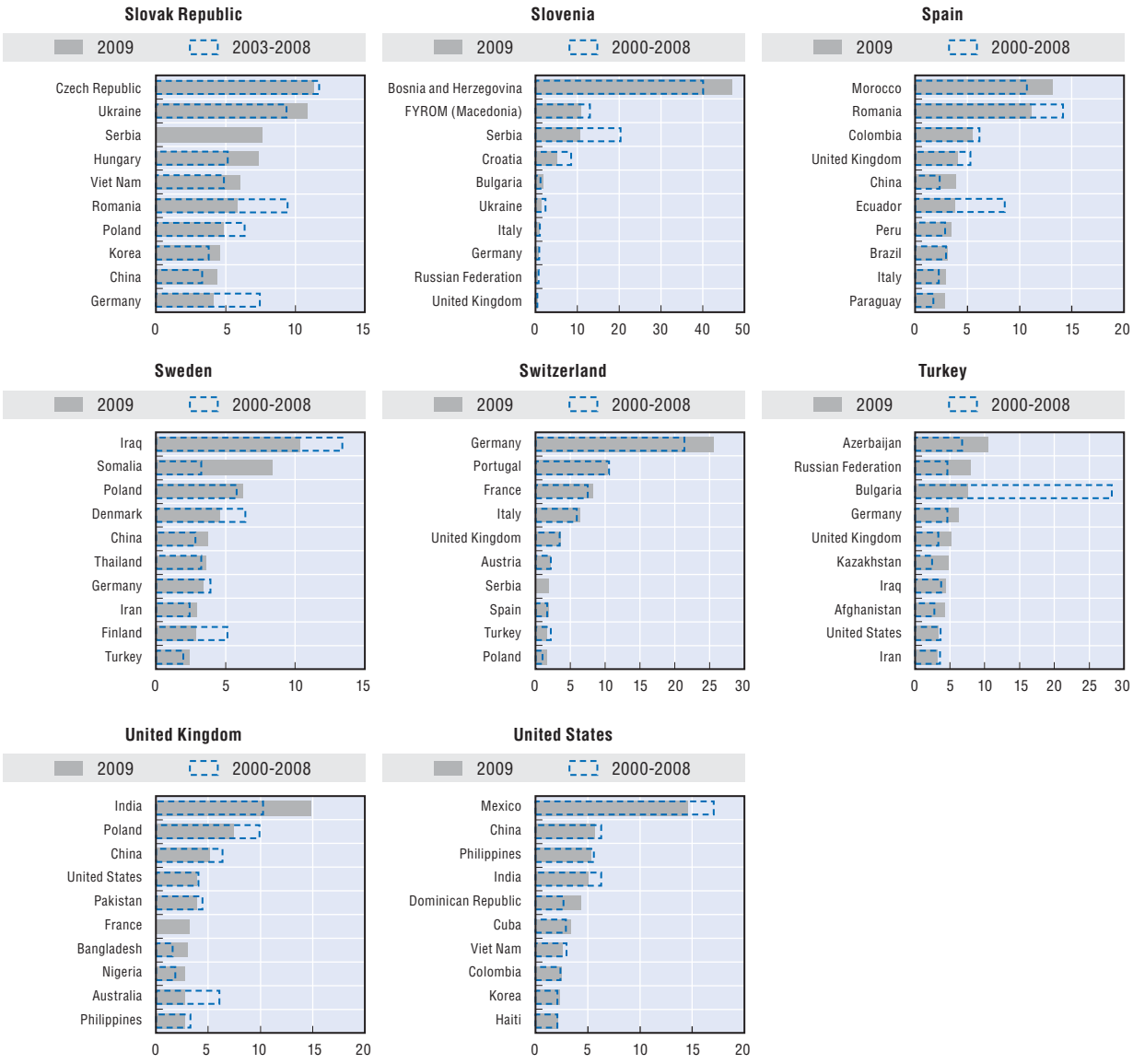
Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440356

Figure I.4. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2000-08 and 2009** *(cont.)*

2009 top ten countries of origin as a percentage of total inflows



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440356

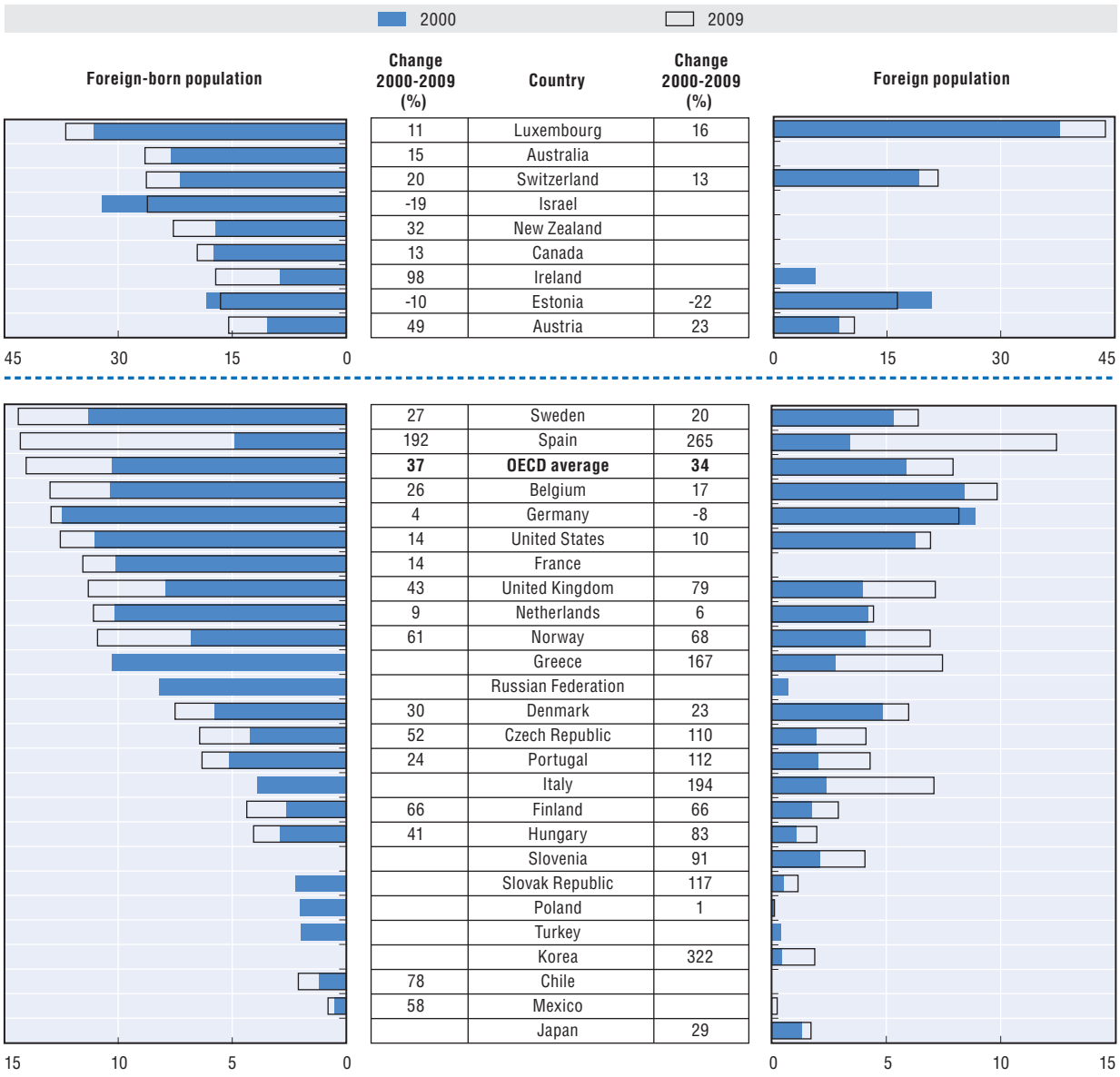
5. The foreign-born and the foreign population in OECD countries

At current rates of growth, the foreign-born population will account for about 20% of the total OECD population in about 10 years

The foreign-born population in 2009 accounted for 14% of the total population in OECD countries for which data are available. This is a 13% increase relative to the year 2006, and a 37% increase over the past decade (Figure I.5). At the latter rate of change, the percentage of foreign-born for OECD countries as a whole would reach 20% in less than a decade. The observed rate of change has tended to be higher in countries which have had less migration in the past.

Figure I.5. **Stock of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2000-09**[1]

Percentages



Notes: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*. The statistics provided for Israel do not include Arabs born outside of Israel who, according to Israeli authorities, represent a small share of both immigrant entries and of the immigrant population.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Certain countries have seen very high rates of increase in the immigrant share of the population since the year 2000, in particular Spain (192%), Ireland (98%), Finland (66%) and Norway (61%). Most countries with immigrant populations which were already large in 2000 (Luxembourg, Australia, Switzerland and Canada) saw the share of immigrants grow by 20% or less. New Zealand saw the share of immigrants increase by about one-third over the decade. Israel and Estonia were the only countries where the proportion of the population which is foreign-born declined, as immigration to these countries has been low.

Twenty out of 34 OECD countries had immigrant populations that exceeded 10% of their total populations. Traditional immigration countries such as Germany and the Netherlands (with immigrant populations at 13 and 11%, respectively) were overtaken by the new migration countries of Ireland and Spain.

The foreign population differs from the foreign-born population, since many foreign-born have acquired the citizenship of their country of residence, and in many OECD countries, the native-born children of foreigners do not acquire citizenship at birth (OECD, 2011). On average in OECD countries for which data are available, 7.9% of the population holds foreign citizenship. This is highest in Luxembourg (43.8%), Switzerland (21.7%) and Estonia (16.4%). The decade between 2000 and 2009 saw the foreign population rise by 34.1% on average, led by Korea (322%), Spain (265%), Italy (194%) and Greece (167%). The proportion of foreign citizens in the population fell in Estonia and in Germany as legislative changes led to many foreigners acquiring the citizenship of the country.

6. Migration of service providers and intra-corporate transfers

One labour migration category which has become prominent in recent years but which does not always appear explicitly in the statistics of temporary labour migration is that of service providers. This category consists of persons crossing borders to provide services for a limited period to persons or enterprises or governments, either as employees of an enterprise in another country or as self-employed persons. The period is generally a relatively short one, namely less than one year. In contrast to ordinary labour migration, the worker if salaried is an employee of a firm in the country of origin rather than of a domestic firm, or if self-employed, is based in the country of origin rather than the country where the service is carried out. The social security contributions paid by the worker and the employer would normally be those specified in the social security system of the country of origin.

This type of service provision is considered to be international trade and is commonly referred to as mode 4, because it is conventionally the fourth in a list of modes by which services can be supplied by a service provider from one country to a client from another.[8] Workers moving under these conditions are sometimes referred to as "posted workers" because they are sent or "posted" from the country of residence for a contract or project abroad.

Mode 4 service provision first entered the trade domain through the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) in the Uruguay Round (1995). However, the GATS covered only high-level intra-corporate transfers (senior managers and specialists) and most countries added restrictions which limited the scope of their commitments under the GATS regarding this form of trade. In the current Doha Round, mode 4 was seen as one way in which less developed labour-rich countries could increase their exports through the temporary migration of workers on short-term assignments. However, most countries have been unwilling to make significant commitments in this area, among other reasons because under World Trade Organisation rules, commitments once made are binding, that is, they cannot be withdrawn without compensation to the other signatory countries.[9] In general, governments have been reluctant to make binding migration-related commitments in trade agreements except in limited situations.

Intra-corporate transfers of persons to provide services (training, information technology or accounting services, installation of equipment, etc.) from one affiliate of a multinational to another is a special case of mode 4, in which the there is a legal link between the service provider and the customer. As with intra-corporate trade in goods, such services must normally be provided at prices comparable to what would be paid on the local market to an arms-length provider to obtain the service. Otherwise, income in practice could be transferred by a multinational enterprise from less to more favourable tax jurisdictions. The prices paid by an affiliate of a multinational to another affiliate in another country for goods or services are known as a transfer prices and have been the object of considerable international discussion and negotiations (OECD, 2010a).

Some intra-corporate transfers consist of longer-term transfers of staff to manage operations or carry out administrative functions in an affiliate of a multi-national corporation. In such cases, the person transferred is generally an employee of the affiliate to which he/she has been transferred so that, strictly speaking, no service is provided by the origin-country branch. In practice, however, such transfers of personnel are addressed together with standard service-provision in multilateral or bilateral trade agreements, essentially for reasons of convenience. Moreover, the distinction between movement for employment and movement for temporary service provision is rarely made in practice.

Work and residence permit systems also do not always distinguish between movements of posted workers and those of persons transferred to take on employment with the destination country affiliate, the same type of permit being granted in either case.[10] The wages and working conditions applicable to posted workers are generally required to be those of the country where the work is performed rather than the country where the firm providing the service is based. It has been argued by some that this practice is trade-distorting, because it eliminates any absolute (if not comparative advantage) which a firm in the origin country may have in providing the service compared to one in the destination country.[11]

In Sweden, for example, although posted workers can be paid origin-country wages, the total pay package for posted workers, including such benefits as housing or expatriation allowances, must be equivalent to the pay package of a comparable Swedish worker. Should the planned assignment last more than one year, the worker must have a Swedish work contract. In addition, any worker whose assignment extends unexpectedly for more than one year must be transferred to a Swedish work contract.

In the European Union, the competing claims of competence regarding posted workers between the labour laws of the origin and destination countries have been the object of some controversy, especially with respect to the Directive on services in the internal market of the Union (2006/123/EC, the so-called Bolkestein Directive), which introduced the principle of the country of origin. Under this principle, the regulatory environment governing the activity of the enterprise providing the service is that of the country of origin. However, the minimum wage, working time and standards of work safety and security are excluded from the application of the principle. The social security regime applicable, on the other hand, can be that of the origin country.

With the enlargement of the European Union by 10 countries in 2004 and by 2 more in 2007, service provision was one form of migration for which there were no transition rules, that is, firms and self-employed persons based in the new Member countries were

free to propose their services throughout the European Union from the time of admission. The reason is that this form of movement was considered to be trade and accession brought with it immediate trade liberalisation. As will be seen, there appear to have been considerable migration movements for service provision taking place since 2004.

How common is service provision in OECD countries? With the exception of intra-corporate transfers, very little data have been traditionally available regarding the phenomenon, except in some special cases, such as performing artists, sports-men and -women and international transport workers (truckers, airline staff, etc.), all of which involve relatively uncontroversial and limited-duration forms of service-provision, for which reciprocity arrangements between governments are the norm.

In recent years, a data source has become available on the broader phenomenon, in particular for service providers moving within the European Union. The data are based on E101 certificates, which attest that persons working abroad are covered by the social insurance legislation of their countries of origin. Employers may request such certificates in their countries as proof of contributory status, to avoid having to pay social security contributions for their workers in the country to which they are being posted.

The case of intra-corporate transfers (ICTs)

Before examining the number and distribution of posted workers entering European countries every year, we look at the special category of posted workers known as intra-corporate transfers (ICT). In many countries, all ICTs are grouped into a single category, regardless of the duration of stay and of whether or not they are being transferred to occupy a position or to provide services in the destination country.

The number of intra-corporate transfers is going to depend, among other factors, on the number and size of multinational enterprises in the country and the extent to which those present are able, or wish, to recruit workers locally for what may be temporary labour needs, when a readily available source may exist within the same enterprise but in another country. There are generally restrictions imposed by governments on transfers, in particular the requirement that the workers concerned have been employed in the country of origin for a certain period of time, often a year, before they can be brought in. Although there is generally no labour market test, such transfers may be allowed only for certain high-level occupations such as specialists and managers.

Intra-corporate transfers constitute generally a small fraction of total migration movements, although they may be a significant proportion of labour migration. Table I.5 shows the picture for a number of OECD countries in recent years. There is a significant omission in this table, namely movements within the European Economic Area, which are excluded for all European countries, even when they involve nationals of the new Member states, because no permit was required.[12] Thus, the extent of movements for EU countries will be understated compared to other countries in the table, covering as they do only movements from non-EU countries.

For the countries shown in Table I.5, the number of intra-corporate transfers declined by almost 20% from 2008 to 2009, after an average 12% increase per year over the previous three years. Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States all saw declines of between 20 and 30%.

Table I.5. **Intra-corporate transfers in OECD countries, 2005-09**

Country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009
	Number of persons					Per million population
Australia	. .	1 610	. .	6 920	6 020	283
Austria	200	190	150	150	80	10
Canada	6 370	7 760	8 580	9 880	9 680	290
France	. .	. .	. .	1 610	2 010	32
Germany	3 550	4 780	5 420	5 660	4 430	53
Japan	4 180	5 560	7 170	7 310	5 250	41
Ireland	260	230	380	420	290	67
Korea	470	430	430	410	510	10
Luxembourg	. .	. .	. .	. .	420	884
Norway	180	270	640	290	310	65
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	460	12
Spain	1 170	1 010	1 390	1 340	870	20
United Kingdom	22 410	29 700	33 150	36 130	29 070	470
United States	65 460	72 610	84 530	84 080	64 700	211
Total of countries with data for all years	**104 250**	**122 540**	**141 840**	**145 670**	**115 190**	**160**
Total 2009					**124 100**	**148**

Notes: Secretariat estimates 2005-07 for the United Kingdom. Statistics for European countries do not include transfers within the European Economic Area, which can be considerable but for which no statistics are available.
Sources: National permit statistics.

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Intra-corporate transfers for the English-speaking non-European countries in the table were broadly similar in relative magnitude in 2009, ranging from 200 to 300 transfers per million population. The limited number of transfers for Japan and Korea is undoubtedly related to language difficulties. Noteworthy are the large number of transfers for Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, even without taking into account intra-European movements. This may be related to the specialisation of both these countries in the financial sector. Transfers from outside Europe to other European countries appear to be limited. By contrast, fully three quarters of intra-corporate transfers to the United States were from countries outside the European Economic Area in 2009. 40% of these were from India. An additional 8% each were from the United Kingdom and Japan, respectively.

Movements of ICTs do not necessarily all fall under the GATS. Countries in practice are more liberal in the movements which they allow than they are willing to commit to under multilateral agreements. Multinationals make use of this flexibility in moving needed specialists around in response to specific needs, without the necessity of having to ensure that specific competencies exist in every location in which they are doing business. Small and medium enterprises with a purely domestic presence, on the other hand, must outsource to obtain the same services, either domestically or from foreign enterprises and workers, subject to labour migration regulations outside the GATS provisions.

To the extent that intra-corporate transfers are on temporary assignment and remain employed by their origin-country affiliate, intra-European movements will be included among posted workers granted E101 certificates for their assignments in other European countries. The extent of posted-worker movement in general in the European Economic Area is the topic of the next section.

Posted workers within the European Economic Area

The E101 certificates are a unique data source which allows one to get an approximate idea of the extent of service provision within the European Economic Area (See Box I.1). Such movements can be expected to be much greater than service provision by workers from countries outside the European Union, for whom migration restrictions can act as a significant brake. As noted above, migration associated with service provision is almost never specifically identified in national residence or work permit systems, except when it consists of intra-corporate transfers from countries whose nationals are subject to migration regulations.

Box I.1. **Limitations of the E101 data**

As informative as the E101 certificate data are, there are nonetheless limitations associated with this source of data. First of all, an E101 certificate may be granted to an employer for a particular employee, but he/she may never actually carry out any work in another country. Although the application requests information on the contracting enterprise in the destination country where the work will be performed, there is no way to know if any work was eventually carried out by the worker or indeed, if any migration occurred at all. Secondly, an employer may decide not to request E101 certificates for his/her posted workers. In practice, this would mean that the employer would have to pay social security contributions in the country where the work is performed, rather than in the origin country.

The first of the two situations outlined above suggests that the number of E101 certificates may overstate the actual number of posted workers, the second that it may, on the contrary, understate their numbers.

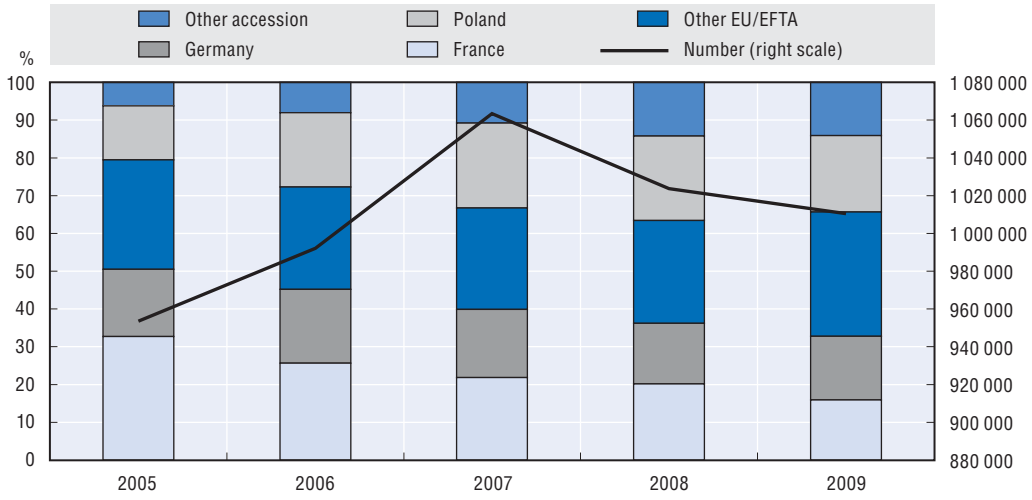
Empirical data for one country (Norway) suggest that the second of these largely predominates for posted workers to that country (see Annex I.A1). It is unknown if this is typical of other European countries. Salary levels in Norway are especially high and employer social security contributions relatively low, so there may be more of an incentive for enterprises and posted workers to report the work In Norway rather than in the home country.*

* In 2007, part of the collective agreement for the construction industry, where many posted persons in Norway were working, was made applicable nation-wide, which was essentially tantamount to introducing a statutory minimum wage in the sector (Eldring, 2010).

The number of E101 certificates issued increased from 2005 to 2007 (Figure I.6), before falling back to a little over 1 million in 2009. The origin-country composition has changed significantly over this period, however, with accession countries issuing a growing share of all certificates. From accounting for a little more than 20% of all certificates issued in 2005, enlargement countries in 2009 had about a 34% share in 2009. France, Germany and Poland were the major sending countries for posted workers, with some 150 to 300 thousand certificates issued each year. While the number of certificates for Poland has increased significantly since 2005, the reverse is true for France, which in 2009 had less than half the share of certificates issued that it had in 2005.

Overall in 2009, there were close to 1.01 million certificates granted for potential posted workers, only a little lower than in 2008 and a decline of about 53 000 (–5%) compared to 2007 (Table I.6). The economic crisis thus does not seem to have had a strong

Figure I.6. **Issuances of E101 certificates for posted workers, 2005-09, by sending country or region**



Note: Trend lines for 2005-06 and 2006-07 were estimated using countries with data for both years.
Source: Administrative Commission for the Coordination of Social Security Systems, European Commission.

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effect on issuances of E101 certificates. This is in contrast to a decline in the number of permanent free-circulation migration of almost half a million from 2007 to 2009, from 1.3 million to 800 000. The much smaller change in E101 issuances compared to free movement migration was a phenomenon that occurred both in "old" EU countries and in enlargement countries. If EU workers were less likely to migrate on their own for work during the economic crisis, they seemed to be migrating almost as frequently as before as posted workers. The net gain for enlargement countries in terms of service trade has been large, amounting to work performed by over 250 000 workers per year.[13]

Certificates issued for workers in enlargement countries accounted for about 35% of all issuances in all three years. Postings were only somewhat more common in relative terms from enlargement countries than from EU15/EFTA countries. On the other hand, EU15/EFTA countries, not surprisingly, were the destinations of almost 93% of the postings. There were proportionally three times as many postings to EU15/EFTA countries as to enlargement countries.

Not all enlargement countries, however, were above-average sources of posted workers, although they did include five of the eight countries with the most postings per capita (Slovenia, Estonia, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Hungary).

Countries with large numbers of posted workers included Poland, Germany, France, Portugal and Luxembourg, whereas significant destination countries included Germany and France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain.

What sectors have been involved? Unfortunately there is only partial data on this and for some countries, detail is limited. However, the data do point to some specialisation (Figure I.7), with enterprises posting workers from the United Kingdom, Cyprus, Ireland and Luxembourg being largely in the service sector. By contrast, posting firms from Estonia, Portugal, Malta, Iceland and the Czech Republic tend to be present in construction, while for the remaining countries in the table, posting enterprises on average have their main activity in manufacturing, energy and utilities.

Table I.6. **E101 certificates issued for posted workers in the European Economic Area, by origin and destination country, 2007-09**

	Origin countries			Destination countries			Net postings			E101 certificates issued in 2009	
	2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009	By origin country	By destination country
										Per thousand population	
Luxembourg	46 830	57 260	57 280	27 970	26 720	25 040	18 860	30 550	32 230	117.8	51.5
Slovenia	13 030	17 160	17 840	3 800	3 380	2 970	9 230	13 790	14 870	8.8	1.5
Estonia	9 450	10 140	8 380	2 060	1 770	1 230	7 400	8 370	7 160	6.3	0.9
Portugal	66 000	19 190	65 010	12 580	12 830	13 030	53 420	6 360	51 980	6.1	1.2
Poland	238 950	228 720	204 370	14 510	14 000	14 700	224 430	214 730	189 670	5.4	0.4
Belgium	46 210	51 170	50 770	112 770	109 000	95 590	–66 550	–57 830	–44 820	4.8	9.0
Slovak Republic	21 210	35 690	24 690	4 420	6 160	7 190	16 800	29 530	17 500	4.6	1.3
Hungary	36 180	43 200	36 400	8 260	9 010	7 440	27 910	34 200	28 970	3.6	0.7
France	232 100	206 440	160 770	148 610	153 490	155 600	83 490	52 950	5 170	2.6	2.5
Austria	12 980	16 180	18 760	39 140	37 420	44 810	–26 160	–21 240	–26 050	2.2	5.4
Germany	192 090	164 470	170 350	216 910	227 960	221 220	–24 820	–63 500	–50 880	2.1	2.7
Liechtenstein	40	40	60	810	870	830	–770	–840	–770	n.a.	n.a.
Lithuania	2 740	4 480	5 490	5 910	3 000	1 660	–3 160	1 480	3 830	1.7	0.5
Czech Republic	15 800	16 380	17 150	16 650	15 990	12 760	–840	400	4 390	1.7	1.2
Switzerland	10 500	10 750	10 990	29 240	38 620	51 990	–18 750	–27 870	–41 000	1.5	6.9
Denmark	7 070	7 920	7 060	17 670	15 030	10 930	–10 600	–7 110	–3 870	1.3	2.0
Romania	9 030	13 100	26 120	10 750	11 780	9 320	–1 720	1 320	16 800	1.2	0.4
Finland	2 450	5 600	4 930	18 760	10 940	16 920	–16 310	–5 340	–11 990	0.9	3.2
Latvia	2 280	1 290	1 970	3 000	1 680	1 920	–730	–390	50	0.9	0.9
Spain	26 890	32 320	34 350	86 430	55 220	63 390	–59 540	–22 900	–29 040	0.8	1.4
Netherlands	9 440	9 370	9 920	88 660	84 490	81 850	–79 220	–75 120	–71 930	0.6	4.9
Sweden	5 170	2 570	5 500	20 630	20 930	20 790	–15 460	–18 360	–15 290	0.6	2.2
Bulgaria	4 740	3 820	4 370	2 800	3 880	5 100	1 940	–60	–730	0.6	0.7
United Kingdom	43 250	36 440	32 280	37 910	37 730	34 760	5 350	–1 300	–2 480	0.5	0.6
Italy	3 320	24 450	29 960	55 690	50 730	50 370	–52 370	–26 280	–20 410	0.5	0.8
Ireland	1 070	1 220	1 940	7 750	6 010	5 360	–6 680	–4 790	–3 420	0.4	1.2
Iceland	70	110	120	2 250	1 140	700	–2 180	–1 030	–580	0.4	2.2
Malta	100	160	110	1 630	1 630	2 980	–1 530	–1 470	–2 860	0.3	7.3
Norway	1 070	1 250	1 290	33 830	23 730	21 600	–32 760	–22 480	–20 310	0.3	4.5
Greece	3 180	2 720	2 270	9 650	9 250	10 490	–6 470	–6 530	–8 220	0.2	0.9
Cyprus[1, 2]	140	80	30	2 370	2 050	1 520	–2 230	–1 970	–1 500	0.0	1.7
Total	**1 063 380**	**1 023 680**	**1 010 530**	**1 043 400**	**996 400**	**994 040**	**19 980**	**27 280**	**16 490**	**1.9**	**1.8**
Enlargement countries	**353 650**	**374 220**	**346 920**	**76 160**	**74 330**	**68 790**	**277 490**	**299 890**	**278 130**	**3.4**	**0.7**
EU15/EFTA countries	**709 730**	**649 460**	**663 610**	**967 240**	**922 070**	**925 250**	**–257 510**	**–272 610**	**–261 640**	**1.5**	**2.1**

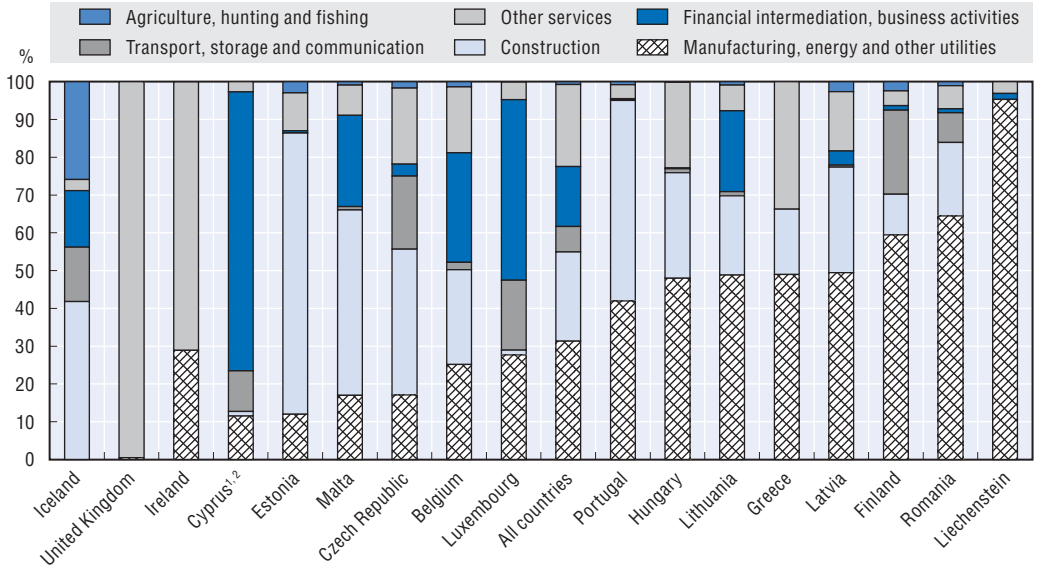
Notes: Data cover certificates issued for postings of specified workers to specific enterprises. Data on total postings in origin and destination countries do not agree because of missing data.

1. *Footnote by Turkey:* The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
2. *Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission:* The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Source: Administrative Commission for the Coordination of Social Security Systems, European Commission.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441838

Figure I.7. **Distribution of enterprises posting workers in the European Economic Area, by sector of activity, 2009**



Notes:

1. *Footnote by Turkey:* The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
2. *Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission:* The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Source: Administrative Commission for the Coordination of Social Security Systems, European Commission.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440413

7. Entries of asylum seekers

Arrivals of asylum seekers into OECD countries remained at relatively low levels overall in 2009 (Table I.7), compared to the historical highs attained in the early to mid-1990s or even compared to the 600 thousand plus levels of the early part of the current decade. The number of persons claiming asylum in OECD countries stood at about 363 000 in 2009, virtually unchanged from the level of 2008.[14] The economic crisis has thus not had an obvious impact on the number of requests, nor, according to preliminary data, did requests increase in 2010. The expected effect in any event was uncertain. To the extent that asylum seeking reflects persons fleeing persecution, this is one form of migration that does not necessarily respond to economic conditions or incentives, except in so far as it has to be financed, like all other forms of migration.

France was the largest recipient country in 2009 with about 42 000 requests, followed by 4 other G8 countries, namely the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and Germany, with requests numbering between 28 000 and 38 000. Relative to their population, however, it is Norway, Sweden and Switzerland which receive the most asylum requests, with more than 2 000 requests per million population. At the other range of the spectrum, Korea, Japan, Portugal and Estonia receive few requests, at less than 30 per million population, although with the exception of Portugal, the numbers have increased considerably since the year 2000. This is also the case for Greece, where asylum requests are five times their 2000 levels.

Table I.7. **Asylum seekers in OECD and selected non-member countries, 2005-09**

	2005	2008	2009	2009		Top 3 countries of origin
	Index (2000=100)			Number	Per million population	
France	128	91	109	42 120	678	Serbia, Russian Federation, Sri Lanka
United States	96	96	93	38 080	124	China, El Salvador, Mexico
Canada	61	102	99	33 970	1 018	Mexico, Hungary, Colombia
United Kingdom	31	32	31	30 680	496	Zimbabwe, Afghanistan, Islamic Rep. of Iran
Germany	37	28	35	27 650	334	Iraq, Afghanistan, Serbia
Sweden	108	149	148	24 190	2 630	Somalia, Iraq, Serbia
Italy	61	195	113	17 600	299	Nigeria, Somalia, Pakistan
Norway	50	133	159	17 230	3 638	Afghanistan, Eritrea, Somalia
Belgium	37	29	40	17 190	1 630	Serbia, Afghanistan, Russian Federation
Switzerland	57	94	91	16 010	2 098	Nigeria, Eritrea, Sri Lanka
Greece	294	645	517	15 930	1 416	Pakistan, Georgia, Bangladesh
Austria	123	70	87	15 820	1 891	Russian Federation, Afghanistan, Serbia
Netherlands	28	31	34	14 910	908	Somalia, Iraq, Afghanistan
Poland	149	157	231	10 590	280	Russian Federation, Georgia, Armenia
Turkey	69	228	138	7 830	104	Iraq, Islamic Republic of Iran, Afghanistan
Australia	25	37	48	6 210	292	China, Afghanistan, Sri Lanka
Finland	113	127	186	5 910	1 109	Iraq, Somalia, Bulgaria
Hungary	21	40	60	4 670	466	Serbia, Afghanistan, Georgia
Denmark	19	19	31	3 820	698	Afghanistan, Syrian Arab Republic, Russian Federation
Spain	66	57	38	3 010	68	Nigeria, Côte d'Ivoire, Colombia
Ireland	40	35	25	2 690	626	Nigeria, Pakistan, China
Japan	178	740	643	1 390	11	Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Turkey
Czech Republic	47	19	15	1 360	132	Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Mongolia
Chile	551	1 264	n.a.	870	51	Iraq, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Somalia
Slovak Republic	228	58	53	820	152	Pakistan, Georgia, Moldova
Israel	15	126	13	810	113	Georgia, Nigeria, Ghana
Luxembourg	129	75	77	480	1 004	Serbia, Iraq, Bosnia and Herzegovina
New Zealand	22	16	22	340	80	Fiji, Sri Lanka, Iraq
Korea	958	847	753	320	7	Pakistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar
Slovenia	17	3	2	180	91	Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Turkey
Portugal	51	72	62	140	13	Eritrea, Guinea, Mauritania
Iceland	367	321	146	40	115	Islamic Republic of Iran, Albania, Syrian Arab Republic
Estonia	367	467	1 200	40	27	Afghanistan, Georgia, Syrian Arab Republic
Total OECD	**57**	**66**	**65**	**362 900**	**325**	**Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia**
South Africa	911	6 616	7 098	222 320	4 437	Zimbabwe, Malawi, Ethiopia
Bulgaria	47	43	49	850	113	Iraq, Stateless, Afghanistan
Russian Federation	65	369	389	5 700	40	Georgia, Afghanistan, Uzbekistan
Romania	43	86	61	840	39	Moldova, Pakistan, Afghanistan
Indonesia	7	37	311	3 230	14	Afghanistan, Myanmar, Sri Lanka
India	116	404	734	6 010	5	Myanmar, Afghanistan, Somalia
Brazil	63	65	43	390	2	Bolivia, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Colombia
China	264	81	131	80	0	Pakistan, Iraq, Occupied Palestinian Territory
Total other countries	**310**	**2 075**	**2 269**	**239 420**	**76**	**Zimbabwe, Malawi, Ethiopia**

Notes: The number indicated for Chile under the year 2009 is that for 2008.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*
Source: UNHCR.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441857

Among non-OECD countries in Table I.7, South Africa in particular is receiving tremendous numbers of requests, especially from Zimbabwe (close to 150 000), Malawi (16 000) and Ethiopia (11 000). The relative magnitude of asylum requests in South Africa (4 437 per million) is greater than that of permanent migration inflows into many OECD countries.

The top three countries of origin for the OECD (Table I.8) as a whole are Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia, in all of which conditions remain difficult, driving many nationals from these countries to seek safety elsewhere. Each of these, along with the Russian Federation, China and Serbia, "produced" close to 20 000 or more asylum seekers in 2009. There is stability in the top 25 countries of origin since 2005, Zimbabwe and the Syrian Arab Republic being the only countries in 2009 that were not already among the 25 in 2005.

Table I.8. **Top 25 countries of origin of asylum seekers in OECD countries in 2009**

	2005	2009	% change 2005-09	Rank 2005
Afghanistan	7 800	26 730	243	10
Iraq	13 520	24 220	79	4
Somalia	7 490	21 260	184	12
Russian Federation	22 540	20 200	–10	2
China	18 300	19 510	7	3
Serbia	24 680	19 050	–23	1
Nigeria	8 850	13 520	53	8
Mexico	5 130	11 650	127	16
Islamic Republic of Iran	10 460	11 310	8	7
Georgia	6 280	11 210	79	15
Pakistan	7 890	11 170	42	9
Eritrea	5 100	10 070	97	17
Sri Lanka	5 040	9 820	95	19
Zimbabwe	2 560	8 730	241	29
Turkey	12 250	7 020	–43	5
Armenia	5 100	6 230	22	18
Bangladesh	4 440	6 070	37	20
Democratic Republic of the Congo	7 680	5 220	–32	11
Guinea	3 770	4 970	32	23
Syrian Arab Republic	2 960	4 880	65	26
Haiti	10 760	4 720	–56	6
India	7 180	4 170	–42	13
Algeria	4 400	3 800	–14	21
Colombia	6 300	3 620	–43	14
Ethiopia	2 970	3 520	19	25
Total of above countries	**213 450**	**272 670**		
Percent of total asylum seekers in OECD countries	**67**	**75**		

Source: UNHCR.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441876

Recognition rates of asylum seekers rarely exceed 30%, although more may be allowed to stay on for temporary protection if they come from war zones, to which a return is problematical under existing conditions. The "safe-country-of-origin" and "safe-country-of-transit" rules have undoubtedly contributed over time to reducing the number of requests deemed acceptable. Asylum seeking nonetheless remains a possible means of entry for some potential economic migrants, who are unable to obtain ordinary visas by conventional means. Candidates whose request for asylum is refused and who stay on contribute to the population of irregular migrants, but may not necessarily be a significant source compared to visa overstayers or persons entering under visa-free regimes and staying on. This has been the case in southern Europe, where the level of asylum seeking has traditionally been low until recent years, or in Japan and Korea where it remains low.

8. International students – studying and staying on

With more and more countries looking to International students as a potential source of highly skilled or educated migrants, the number of international students in OECD countries continued to rise in 2008, by about 5% relative to 2007 for OECD countries as a whole, reaching over 2.3 million students.[15] This is somewhat higher than the 3% average growth rate observed from 2004 to 2008 (Table I.9).

Table I.9. **International tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2004-08**

	Definition of international student (see notes)	Average growth 2004-08	Year-over-year growth 2007-08	Number of students 2008	
				Level	Per 100 persons aged 20-24 in the destination country
Australia	N	8	9	230 640	15.9
New Zealand	N	–7	–4	31 570	10.4
Austria	N	13	36	44 140	8.4
United Kingdom	N	3	–3	341 790	8.4
Switzerland	P	22	6	31 710	7.0
France	F	1	–1	243 440	6.1
Ireland	P	7	32	16 760	5.1
Belgium	N	11	18	29 840	4.6
Germany	P	1	–1	206 880	4.2
Canada	N	3	4	92 880	4.1
Czech Republic	F	17	14	27 910	4.0
Sweden	N	7	2	22 650	3.9
Greece	F	19	24	26 160	3.9
Iceland	F	14	4	820	3.6
Netherlands	N	18	9	30 050	3.0
Finland	P	5	10	9 620	2.9
Portugal	F	4	4	18 580	2.9
United States	N	2	5	624 470	2.8
Denmark	N	–10	–50	6 390	2.1
Hungary	N	4	4	13 460	2.1
Italy	F	10	6	60 450	2.0
Japan	N	2	0	115 280	1.7
Norway	N	6	–7	4 470	1.5
Spain	N	25	14	36 860	1.4
Korea	F	39	26	40 320	1.2
Slovak Republic	N	35	173	5 200	1.2
Poland	F	17	15	14 970	0.5
Turkey	F	7	5	20 220	0.3
Average of above countries		**10**	**13**		4.1
Average for all countries taken as a whole		**3**	**5**	**2 349 190**	**3.3**

Notes: N = non-resident students, F = foreign students, P = students with prior education outside the country. The data cover international students enrolled in full-degree programmes. Available data for Finland, Germany, Ireland and Switzerland refer to 2004-07, for France and Greece to 2005-08. The year-over-year % growth for the former refer to 2006-07.

Source: OECD Education Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441895

There is considerable variation in the evolution of growth rates across countries, however. Denmark in particular has seen the number of its international students actually halve, following the introduction of tuition fees for such students from 2006 on.[16] Norway, New Zealand and the United Kingdom have also seen declines, but much smaller in magnitude (3 to 7%). In a number of other countries, namely, France, Germany, Japan and

Sweden, the number of international students has stabilised, with little change observed between 2007 and 2008. Austria, Greece, Ireland and Korea, on the other, saw large increases exceeding 20% from 2007 to 2008.

Although international students in principle can serve as a source of high skilled migrants, the situation in practice may not be so simple. Often international students are enrolled in English-language programmes rather than in courses in the language of the host country. Their mastery of the language of the country where they are studying may not always be sufficient to take on jobs that require proficiency in this language. This may be less of an issue in countries such as France or Spain, where the language of the country is widely spoken outside the country and where international students are generally enrolled in programmes in the host-country language. It is also not an issue if finishing international students look for jobs in international workplaces or in multinational corporations where English is often the language of work.

Even if all international students were to stay on, the addition to the youth population as a result of this would not appear to be especially high. The final column in Table I.9 gives an indication of this, by estimating the increase in the size of the 20-24 cohort if all currently enrolled international students were to stay on. In only two countries is this greater than 10% and in more than half of OECD countries, it is less than 3%. By contrast, the scale of total permanent migration relative to the average size of a youth cohort exceeds 20% in most OECD countries (see Figure I.2). In short, enrolments would need to increase substantially in order for international students to be a significant source of permanent immigrants.

Of all international students, over 18%, almost 410 000, come from China (Table I.10). Indeed, China is the most significant country of origin among international students in all of the G7 countries except Italy and France (where it is second after Morocco), as well as in Australia, Finland, Korea and New Zealand. After China come India (7.4% of all international students) and Korea (5%). Most of the countries with significant numbers of international students studying abroad tend to be relatively populous countries, the exceptions being Hong Kong China, Cyprus,[17, 18] the Slovak Republic, Greece and Bulgaria. Most international students (almost 70%) come from outside the OECD area but they generally represent a small fraction of young persons 20-24 in their origin country (see final column, Table I.10). There are exceptions to this, for example Cyprus, which sends almost 40 international students abroad for every 100 persons in the 20-24 age group and, to a much lesser extent, Hong Kong China (7.3%) and the Slovak Republic (6.1%).

Increasing enrolments may enhance the potential for the migration of international students, but there is no guarantee that they will stay on. Historically a certain proportion has always done so, from a few per cent to as much as 10 to 15%, as a result of marriage to a resident of the country of study. Most OECD countries, however, have introduced policies in recent years to encourage graduates to stay on, by granting a certain period of time in which to look for work following the completion of studies, often a year. Those who find work, which must generally be in their field of study, are then granted the right to stay and enter on a migration track that can lead to permanent residence.

However, because of data limitations it is not yet possible to estimate the proportion of graduates who stay on from conventional data sources. Student permit statistics do not incorporate information on whether or not a student has graduated and education statistics on international student graduates do not generally follow up to determine if students are

Table I.10. **International tertiary-level students in OECD countries by country of origin, 2009**

Nationality	Number of students in OECD countries	Percent of total	Per 100 persons 20-24 in origin country
China	409 840	18.5	0.4
India	162 960	7.4	0.1
Korea	109 980	5.0	3.3
Germany	80 540	3.6	1.6
Japan	49 820	2.3	0.7
France	49 770	2.2	1.3
Malaysia	43 360	2.0	1.7
Canada	43 120	1.9	1.9
United States	42 910	1.9	0.2
Morocco	37 350	1.7	1.2
Hong Kong	33 020	1.5	7.3
Poland	30 920	1.4	1.0
Russian Federation	29 840	1.3	0.2
Viet Nam	29 810	1.3	0.4
Italy	29 460	1.3	1.0
Turkey	28 570	1.3	0.4
Cyprus[1, 2]	26 180	1.2	39.0
Slovak Republic	26 080	1.2	6.1
Greece	26 050	1.2	3.9
Indonesia	24 450	1.1	0.1
Mexico	23 850	1.1	0.3
Pakistan	23 270	1.1	0.1
Thailand	22 690	1.0	0.4
Bulgaria	22 000	1.0	4.2
Nigeria	21 730	1.0	0.2
Total above countries	**1 427 570**	**60.8**	**0.4**
Total other countries	**749 040**	**31.9**	**0.3**
Total all countries (including unspecified origin)	**2 349 190**	**100.0**	**0.4**

1. Footnote by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
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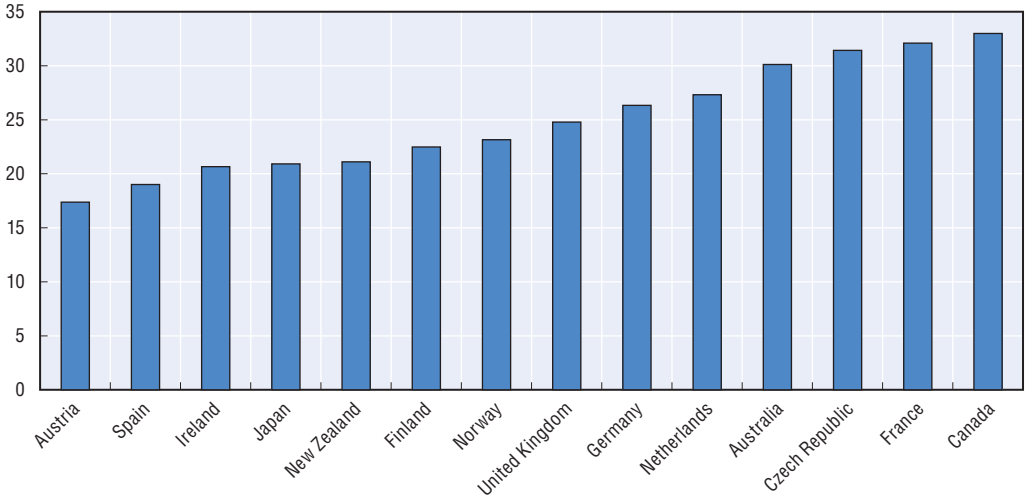
Source: OECD Education Database.

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staying on. In any event, international students who do stay on may not graduate but rather, acquire residence rights through marriage to a resident or by making a claim for asylum. This makes it difficult to obtain a measure of the percentage of graduating international students who remain in the country after they complete their studies.

Figure I.8 provides a proxy measure, showing the percentage of international students not renewing their student permits who stay on.[19] Students not renewing their student permits include graduates who stay on, but also graduates who leave, as well as persons changing statuses or leaving who have not completed their studies. The "stay" or "retention" rates range from 17% for Austria to between 32% and 33% for France and Canada, with most countries clustered between 20% and 30%. The retention rates are in the same range even for countries whose language is not or scarcely spoken outside their borders,

Figure I.8. **Percentage of international students changing status and staying on in selected OECD countries, 2008 or 2009**



Notes: For European countries, covers only students from outside the European Economic Area. Data for Canada include changes from student to both permanent status and other temporary statuses.

Source: National student permits statistics.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440432

such as the Czech Republic, Finland, the Netherlands, Germany and Japan. Language thus does not seem to be an insurmountable obstacle to staying on in the country of study; it is unknown, however, what percentage of those who do stay on actually studied in the host country language or obtained jobs that required proficiency in the host-country language.

Whether the percentage of graduates who stay on would be higher than the estimates shown in Figure I.8 is uncertain. This would be the case if graduates are more often found among persons who change status than among those who do not renew their permits. This is likely if a significant proportion of status changers are labour migrants, for whom a degree is generally a precondition to stay on in the country of study. For the countries appearing in Figure I.8 (except Japan), the number of students staying on for work reasons as a percentage of all stayers stands at about 74% overall, ranging from about 30% in Finland to over 80% in Canada, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (data not shown). The retention rates for graduates may therefore be considerably higher for some of these countries than the rates on the basis of international students not renewing their student visas or permits.

Notes

1. Under the assumption that approximately 70% of inflows in countries with unstandardised data are permanent, the decline for all countries in Table I.1 would be 340 000 or 7% of the inflows recorded in 2008.
2. Within the European Economic Area and between Australia and New Zealand.
3. Under the new system, labour migration is entirely employer-driven and allows for the recruitment of persons from abroad of all skill levels, subject only to a 2-week advertisement of the job in a European job search database. The increase in permanent-type flows reflects in part a definitional change. Permits of unlimited duration are no longer granted for permanent labour migrants; rather two-year renewable permits have become the norm. Persons with permits of at least this duration have been considered to be permanent in the statistics presented in Table I.1.

4. The traditional comparison made between the scale of trade and that of migration contrasts the ratio of imports to GDP (both of which are flows) to the ratio of resident immigrants to the total population (both of which are stocks and relatively insensitive to the impact of recent movements). The approach taken here is to contrast trade/GDP to the flow of permanent immigrants in relation to a related population flow, namely entrants into the working-age population. With this perspective, current immigrant flows appear more significant.
5. This estimate assumes that three quarters of free-movement migrants came for work-related reasons.
6. Some caution is warranted concerning the changes cited here. The numbers in Table I.3 are compiled from national statistics whose coverage of shorter term movements differs substantially from one country to another. Nevertheless, the statistics shown are a significant fraction of total movements and likely reflect to a great extent what one would observe with perfect coverage and comparability.
7. The correlation between the emigration rate and the square root of the population size is 0.74.
8. The other three modes are 1) cross-border supply, where the service is supplied by the provider in one country to the client in another, with neither crossing borders; 2) consumption abroad, when the client travels to the country of the supplier (for example, tourism, international study); 3) commercial presence, when the service is provided through an affiliate in the country of supply (See United Nations 2002).
9. See *www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/serv_e.htm*.
10. Luxembourg is one country which in practice distinguishes between "posted workers" and "transferred workers" in its permit categories. Germany distinguishes between short- and long-term posted workers.
11. Such a rule applies implicitly to multinationals, because transfer pricing guidelines specify that services provided by workers from an affiliate from abroad have to be remunerated at arms-length local prices.
12. Intra-corporate transfers, like service providers in general, were not subject to the transition provisions imposed for ordinary regular migration and were allowed freely from the time of accession. The exception concerns nationals of Bulgaria and Romania, which are included in the table in the years prior to their accession, namely 2005 and 2006.
13. The amount of full-year work which this represents is, however, not known.
14. The figures for both years take into account requests made in the new OECD member countries of Chile, Israel, Estonia and Slovenia.
15. For some countries the data cover foreign students, which include students resident in the country as well as those coming to the country to study, the population of interest. For these countries, the data, and indeed the totals which include them, need to be treated with some caution.
16. The same phenomenon is occurring currently in Sweden, with the introduction of tuition fees in that country for international students in 2010.
17. *Footnote by Turkey:* The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
18. *Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission:* The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.
19. The methodology for this estimate is described in Annex I.A2.

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ANNEX I.A1

Statistics on posted workers from E101 certificates – an assessment

In one OECD country (Norway), the law requires that Norwegian and foreign businesses as well as the public sector (but not private individuals) report to the tax authorities contracts awarded to a person or enterprise resident abroad worth more than NOK 10 000 (approximately EUR 1 300). In principle, an enterprise resident abroad can be exempted from making social security contributions to the Norwegian system if it can be documented that corresponding contributions are paid to the employee's home country on the wage payments. This declaration to the tax authorities provides an alternative source of information on posted workers, with which to assess the effective coverage of the E101 certificates. Note that the declaration is made by the contracting entity in Norway, not by the foreign enterprise or worker supplying the service.

Table I.A1.1 below shows a comparison between the number of E101 certificates granted in a particular year and the number of employees of non-resident enterprises covered by contracts reported to the tax authorities in Norway. If the reporting rules are being observed, one would normally expect to see more E101 certificates than reported workers, because every posted worker in principle needs an E101 to avoid paying double contributions. As is evident, however, overall there are fewer E101 certificates being issued than there are persons in Norway reported as workers of enterprises resident abroad. However, there is considerable variation by country, with a number of countries indeed showing more certificates than reported workers, but a majority showing the reverse situation.

Some of the differences may be due to timing, with certificates being issued in one year and the work being carried out in the following year. There is relatively close agreement between the Danish E101 declarations for work in Norway and the workers reported by Danish firms with contracts in Norway, which may reflect Nordic co-ordination of administrative procedures involving cross-border movements. But agreement for Finland and especially Sweden is not as good as for Denmark. Also, some of the changes in the number of E101s issued in certain countries, for example in Latvia and Portugal from 2007 to 2008, are especially large and are not reflected in a corresponding change in the number of workers reported to the tax authorities. Finally, the E101 data in the table exclude persons active in two or more states (for example, resident in Sweden, but with jobs or self-employment activities in both Norway and Sweden), international transport workers and some other special cases, who account as a whole for about 10% of posted workers from EU enlargement countries and fully 26% of EU15 posted workers.

On the whole, the picture which emerges is a mixed one, with some countries showing the expected excess of certificates over declared workers, but many others showing the

reverse, with the undercoverage varying considerably by origin country. Note also that the undercoverage of the E101s relative to the tax affairs data increases from 2007 to 2009, for both enlargement and EU15 countries, dropping substantially to about 50% for the former countries.

In short, if the Norwegian tax data can be relied upon, the number of E101 certificates would appear to represent at best an imperfect picture of posted worker movements in the European Economic Area. The Norwegian data suggest an overall under-reporting, so that the figures reported in this chapter for many origin countries may well be on the low side. The drop in the apparent coverage of the E101s from 2007 to 2009 suggests that the conclusions concerning trends based on the E101 certificates may understate the extent of increase.

Table I.A1.1. **A comparison of statistics on posted workers to Norway from two sources, 2007-09**

Country of origin	Number of posted workers in Norway						Ratio of E101 to Tax (common years) 2007-09
	Tax affairs data			E101 certificates			
	2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009	
Bulgaria	196	189	176	42	n.a.	31	0.20
Czech Republic	171	220	173	527	339	223	1.93
Estonia	1 135	1 371	1 211	927	n.a.	570	0.64
Hungary	246	405	331	140	240	173	0.56
Latvia	639	663	798	1 358	171	235	0.84
Lithuania	4 644	5 228	4 650	1 089	1 895	1 639	0.32
Poland	15 289	14 412	10 894	13 777	7 060	6 062	0.66
Romania	853	1 351	773	n.a.	264	355	0.29
Slovak Republic	272	510	242	104	844	282	1.20
Slovenia	40	27	50	118	71	242	3.68
Total A8+A2	23 485	24 376	19 298	18 082	10 884	9 812	0.54
Total – common countries and years	21 301	21 465	17 138	17 113	10 620	8 856	
Ratio of E101 to Tax				0.80	0.49	0.52	
Country of origin	2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009	Ratio of E101 to Tax (common years) 2007-09
Austria	208	209	246	247	318	441	1.52
Belgium	100	98	85	145	148	98	1.38
Denmark	3 210	3 469	2 980	3 285	3 468	2 884	1.00
Finland	567	548	450	329	740	440	0.96
France	272	336	357	2039	1930	1 752	5.93
Germany	2 662	3 596	3 115	4 190	3 511	3 695	1.22
Great Britain	6 352	6 768	6 131	2 521	1 891	1 482	0.31
Greece	51	17	24	0	3	3	0.07
Ireland	343	187	107	109	128	254	0.77
Italy	211	222	209	22	319	75	0.65
Luxembourg	4	0	0	54	28	n.a.	20.50
Netherlands	539	416	716	60	n.a.	229	0.23
Portugal	222	223	331	1 100	97	194	1.79
Spain	178	154	328	171	171	194	0.81
Sweden	3 366	3 609	3 776	1 470	n.a.	n.a.	0.44
Total EU15	18 285	19 852	18 855	15 742	12 752	11 741	0.82
Total – common countries and years	14 376	15 827	14 363	14 158	12 724	11 512	
Ratio of E101 to Tax				0.98	0.80	0.80	

Notes: na: not available. "Common countries and years": only countries which have complete data from both sources have been taken into account in the statistic.

Sources: Tax affairs data: Norwegian Central Office for Foreign Tax Affairs. E101 data: European Commission, Administrative Commission on Social Security for Migrant Workers. Excludes certificates for persons active in 2 or more states, for international transport workers and for other reasons.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441933

ANNEX I.A2

Estimating stay rates for international students

As indicated in the text, the stay rate is estimated as the ratio of the number of persons who have changed status (whether for work, family or other reasons) to the number of students who have not renewed their permits.

The number of students not renewing their student permit is estimated by means of the demographic equality: P2-P1 = I-O, where P1 and P2 are respectively the stock estimates at times 1 and 2 respectively, I is the inflows and O is the outflows. In the case at hand, Pi is the number of student permits at time i, I is the number of new student permits issued during the year and O is the number of students who have not renewed their student permit during the year. It is generally easier to obtain the Pi's and I than O. The outflow is then estimated as O = I-(P2-P1). In practice, because I tends to be larger than P2-P1, the stay rate is largely determined by the magnitude of I in the formula.

In Figure II.5, because the change-of-status statistics are based on permit data, they do not include citizens of the European Economic Area (EEA) for European countries, who do not need a student permit to study in another country of the EEA . The number of new student permits is generally readily available from national permit statistics, obtained either on the Internet or supplied by national authorities. In some cases, the stock of permits P1 and P2 was also available. However, for a number of countries, in particular, Australia, Japan and Norway, the difference P2-P1 in the stock of student permits was proxied by the change in the number of international students, obtained from national educational authorities and published in the OECD's *Education at a Glance* (OECD 2010b).

For Finland, Ireland, the Czech Republic and Spain, all permit statistics were obtained from the online migration database of Eurostat. This was also the source for student status changes for the United Kingdom. Data for Finland, Ireland, the Czech Republic, Spain and the United Kingdom are for 2009; for all other countries, 2008.

B. Employment

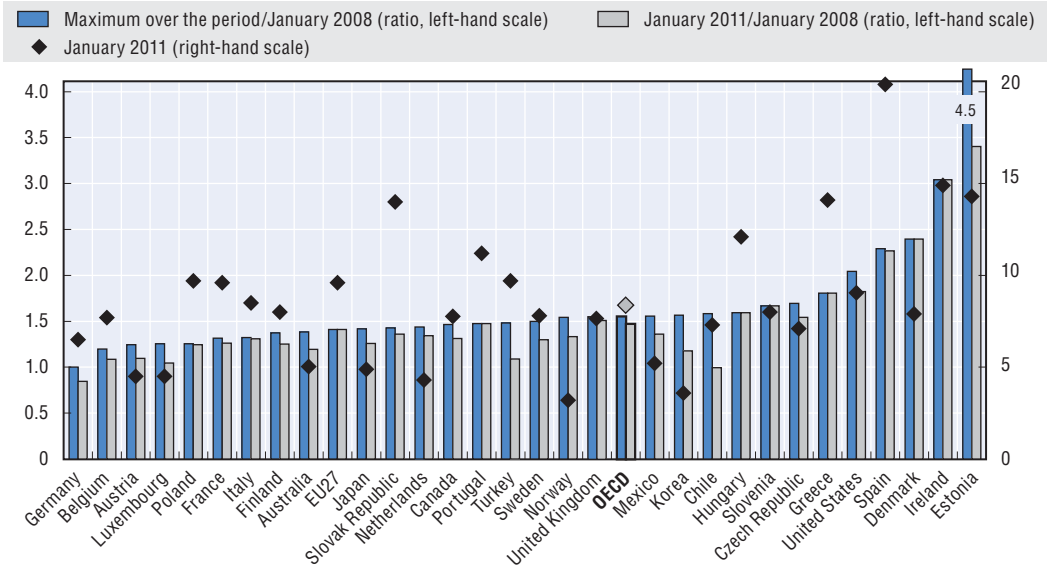
1. Introduction

Although the labour market impact of the recent economic downturn differed significantly across countries, both in terms of intensity and of type of workers most affected, labour demand fell in all countries, resulting in more joblessness and/or involuntary under-employment.

From the first quarter of 2008 to the fourth quarter of 2009, the average unemployment rate in the OECD area increased by more than 3 percentage points to reach 8.7%. This corresponds to approximately 17 million additional jobless persons. The highest unemployment rate recorded since January 2008 was four times the initial level in Estonia, three times in Ireland and at least two times in the United States, Spain and Denmark. As shown in Figure I.9 in many OECD countries the unemployment rate started to decline in 2010 but it did not reach its pre-crisis levels except in Chile and Germany. As of January 2011, 9.6% of the labour force was still looking for a job in the European Union (EU27), 9% in the United States, 7.8% in Canada and around 5% in Australia and Japan. The figure reached 20% in Spain but remained below 4% in Norway and Korea.

Figure I.9. **Changes in monthly harmonised unemployment rates in OECD countries and in the European Union, January 2008 to January 2011**

Percentage of the labour force



Note: Rates for Estonia, Greece and Turkey are for December 2010 instead of January 2011.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics.

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After three years, the aftermath of the crisis is still largely felt on OECD labour markets. In 2010, the macroeconomic situation started to recover and most OECD countries escaped from the recession but economic growth remains insufficient to absorb the slack in labour utilisation. The average employment gap[1] in the second quarter of 2010 is 2.6% of current employment. Latest available OECD projections at time of writing this section foresee a progressive closing of the jobs gap but in the second quarter of 2012 it will remain positive in about two thirds of OECD countries and above 5% in 6 countries: Estonia, Ireland, Spain, the United States, Iceland and Greece (OECD, 2011).

The fall in real GDP was, however, generally larger than the rise in unemployment, because of the importance of labour hoarding. Indeed, in almost all countries the number of annual hours worked by worker declined significantly because of the crisis. In some countries, notably Germany and Korea, the reduction in total hours has been almost entirely absorbed through adjustments in the intensive margin, which explains why there was a more limited impact on unemployment in these countries as indicated above. The 2011 edition of the OECD *Employment Outlook* (OECD, 2011) shows that many countries introduced crisis-related measures intended to limit the adverse impacts on the labour market and to improve the safety net for job losers. For example, three-fourth of OECD countries developed or expanded short-time working programmes or partial unemployment schemes. Overall, this led to an increase in the average stock of employees participating in such schemes by more than 2 percentage points in six countries (Belgium, Germany, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg and Turkey). Other policy aiming at sustaining labour demand focused on reduction of non-wage labour cost, job subsidies or public sector job creation. Policy responses also included for example increasing resources for job search assistance and for training programmes or improving the generosity (access, level or duration) of unemployment benefits schemes. One challenge for policy makers has been to find the right balance between benefit generosity and the financial incentive to seek work but also between addressing the needs for more support measures and fiscal consolidation objectives (see OECD 2011 for a thorough analysis of these issues).

Despite prompt policy responses and recent signs of improvements in the labour market, long-term negative impacts cannot be ruled out for specific groups which have been particularly hard hit by the economic crisis, such as immigrants and youth. The large and persistent increase in long-term unemployment observed in many OECD countries is particularly worrisome because it implies that an increasing number of people are at risk of being durably marginalised in the labour market.[2]

In this general context how are immigrants faring in the labour market? Which migrant groups are most affected? What are the prospects for immigrant employment during the recovery?

2. Immigrants in the labour market through the economic crisis

As pointed out in previous edition of the *International Migration Outlook* (OECD, 2009, 2010), immigrants have been hard hit, and almost immediately, by the economic downturn. Between the first three quarters of 2008 and 2009, the unemployment rate of the foreign-born increased markedly in all OECD countries, with the greatest increases appearing in Ireland and Spain, 8 and 11 percentage points, respectively. On average, in the EU15, the increase was 3.4 percentage points, twice that for the native-born. In the United States, between 2007 and 2009 the unemployment rate of immigrants more than doubled from 4.3% to 9.7% while smaller increases were recorded in Australia and Canada. The current crisis was marked by large negative impacts on the construction and financial sectors, but also on manufacturing

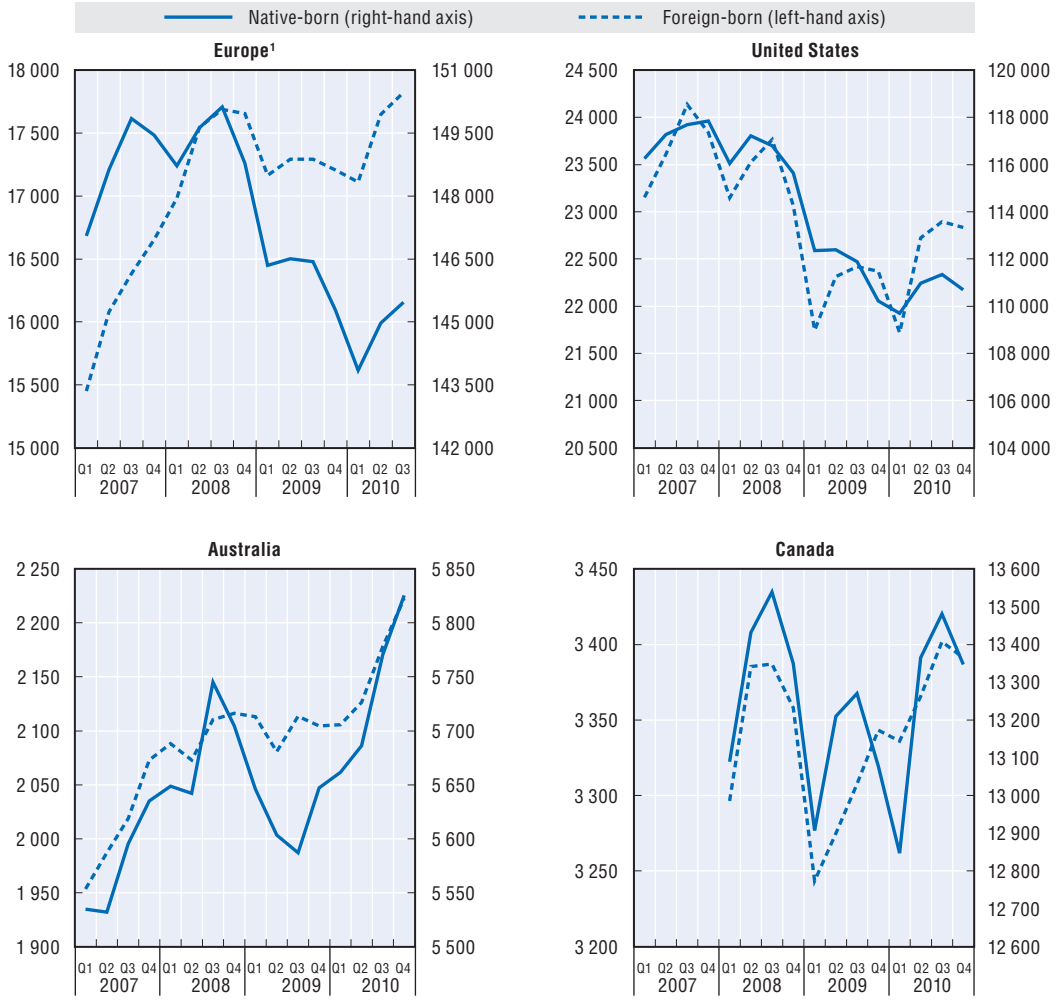
and wholesale and retail trade. Immigrants were often overrepresented in these sectors, which in many cases largely explains why they have been harder hit by the crisis.

Based on updated labour force statistics to the third or fourth quarter of 2010, this section sheds new light on the consequences of the economic crisis on migrant workers as well as on migrants' employment through the recovery.

Trends in total employment by place of birth in OECD European countries (excluding Germany and Switzerland[3]) show that foreign-born employment increased by 5% from early 2008 to the third quarter of 2010 (Figure I.10). This contrasts with what was observed for native-born employment which declined by 2.2% over the period considered. These aggregated results hide important heterogeneity between countries but diverging trends in foreign-born and native-born employment are observed in many European countries. Difference in the dynamic of the working-age population, participation in the labour market and exposure to unemployment between both groups make it possible to better understand the underlying factors.

Figure I.10. **Quarterly employment by place of birth in selected OECD countries, Q1 2007 to Q4 2010**

Thousands



1. OECD European countries excluding Germany and Switzerland.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australian and Canadian Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

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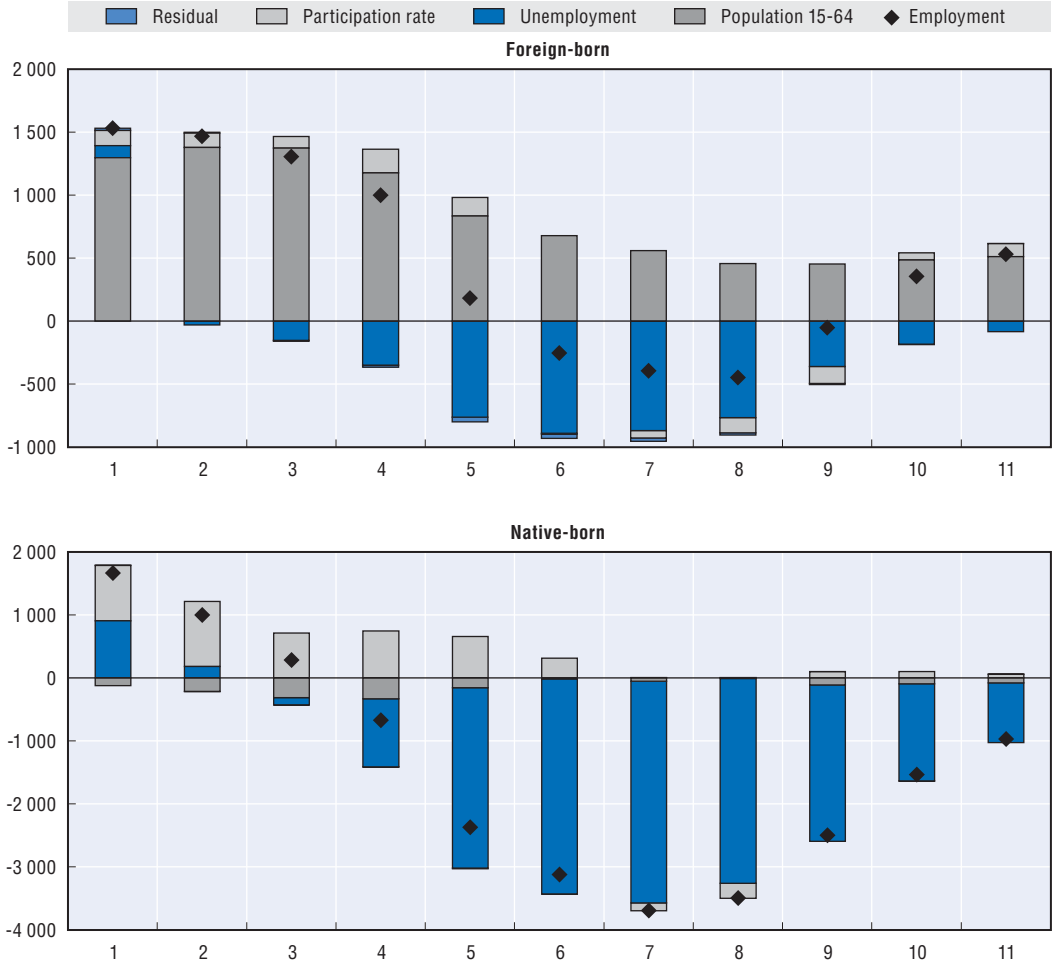
In the United States both foreign-born and native-born employment declined between the fourth quarter of 2007 and 2010, but the drop was more marked for the latter (–6%) than for the former (–4%). In Australia, Canada and New Zealand, the economic crisis had less impact on the labour market. In Australia notably, foreign-born employment, and to a lesser extent native-born employment, increased significantly in the past three years.

Figure I.11 presents the results of a shift share decomposition of observed year-to-year changes in native-born and foreign-born employment for OECD European countries (excluding Germany and Switzerland) and the United States. It shows that, in Europe, migrant unemployment increased almost immediately but that the drop in total employment was progressive because of a delayed impact on migration flows (Figure I.11). Foreign-born and native-born labour force participation rates also reacted with some delay,

Figure I.11. **Contribution of various factors to change in foreign- and native-born employment in European OECD countries and in the United States**

A. European OECD countries (excluding Germany and Switzerland), Q1 2007-Q3 2009 compared to Q1 2008-Q3 2010

Thousands



Note: Comparisons are made for the same quarters and not for successive quarters. For example, period 1 compares employment in Q1 2007 to employment in Q1 2008. Period 2 is a comparison between employment in Q2 2007 and Q2 2008.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

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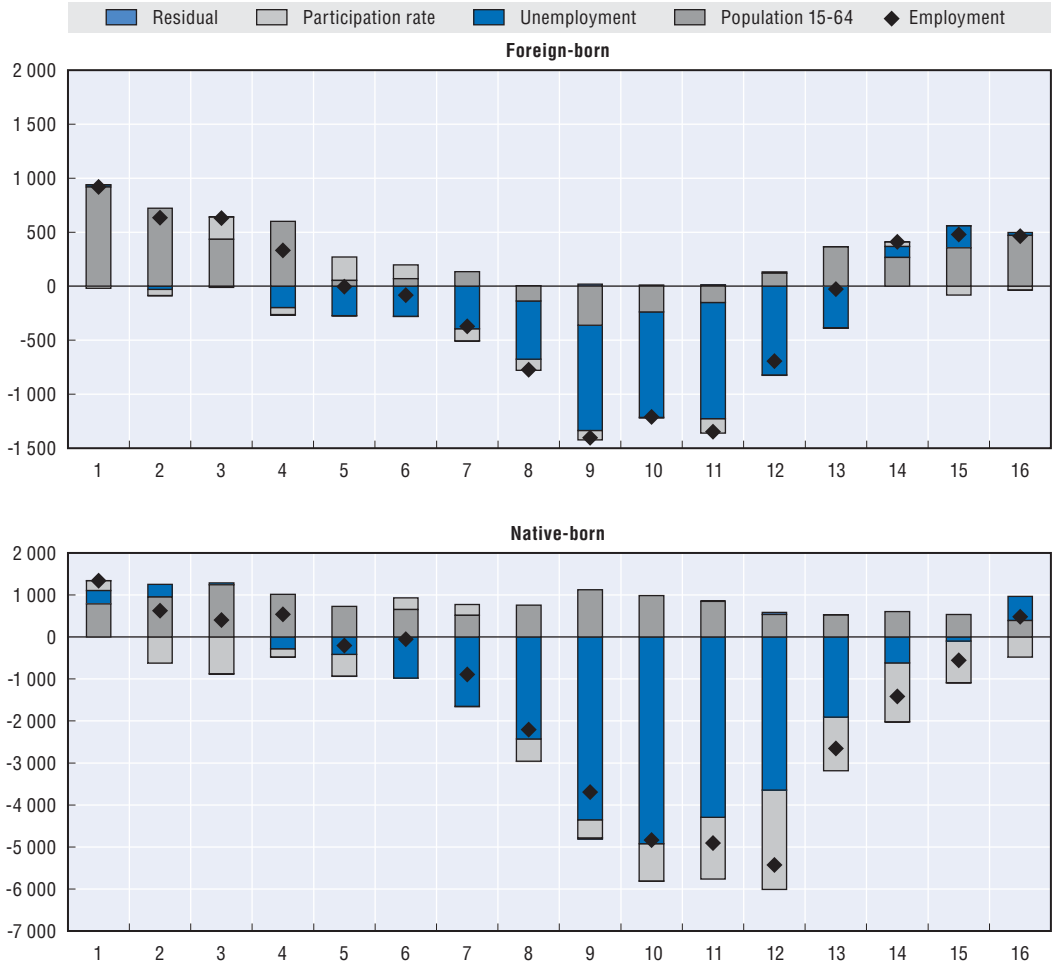
but in the course of 2009 a discouraged worker effect was clearly identifiable. This effect was gradually compensated for and labour force participation eventually increased again, notably for migrants. In 2010, immigration flows have recovered progressively in Europe which has contributed to boost migrant total employment. Conversely, the growth rate of the native-born working-age population remains negative over the period considered, contributing to amplify the downward trend in total native-born employment.

The situation in the United States is quite different (Figure I.11). Firstly, native-born working-age population is growing. This component was however partially offset by a reduction in labour force participation as a result of a strong and persistent *discouraged worker effect* especially for natives. All things considered, the decline in native-born employment was comparatively more marked in the United States than in Europe.

Figure I.11. **Contribution of various factors to change in foreign- and native-born employment in European OECD countries and in the United States** *(cont.)*

B. United States, Q1 2006-Q4 2009 compared to Q1 2007-Q4 2010

Thousands



Note: Comparisons are made for the same quarters and not for successive quarters. For example, period 1 compares employment in Q1 2006 to employment in Q1 2007. Period 2 is a comparison between employment in Q2 2006 and Q2 2007.

Sources: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

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Secondly, migration has been much more sensitive to the economic downturn in the United States and the foreign-born working-age population decreased in absolute terms in 2008/09. This was due *inter alia* to a reduction in temporary labour migration and a strong decline in irregular migration of foreign workers as well as to increasing return migration, notably to Mexico (see above Section I.A).

Despite large adjustments in intra-EU movements, total migration flows were quite resilient in Europe during this crisis. This could be due to the persistence of labour demand in specific sectors where migrant workers play an important role, notably in social services. Moreover, return migration was probably more limited, notably for non-European migrants, who may have concerns about not being able to come back later-on if they returned to their country of origin.

Immigrants have been hard hit by the crisis…

The previous analysis gave a macro perspective but to understand the full impact of the crisis on individuals, it is necessary to take a look at changes in employment population ratio and unemployment rates. Figure I.12 compares observed changes for the native-born and the foreign-born between 2008 and 2010.

Over that period, the probability for a migrant worker to be unemployed increases markedly (except in Germany and Luxembourg) and more than for the natives (except in the Czech Republic, Hungary and the United Kingdom). This is illustrated in Figure I.12 by the fact that most selected countries are on the right-hand side of identity line. In Spain, migrant unemployment rate increased by almost 14 percentage points, which is 5 points more than for natives. Furthermore, in the fourth quarter 2010, 29.3% of all migrant workers residing in Spain were unemployed compared to 18.4% for the natives. Migrants are also facing high risk of unemployment in Estonia and Ireland (see Table I.B1.2 for a more detailed information).

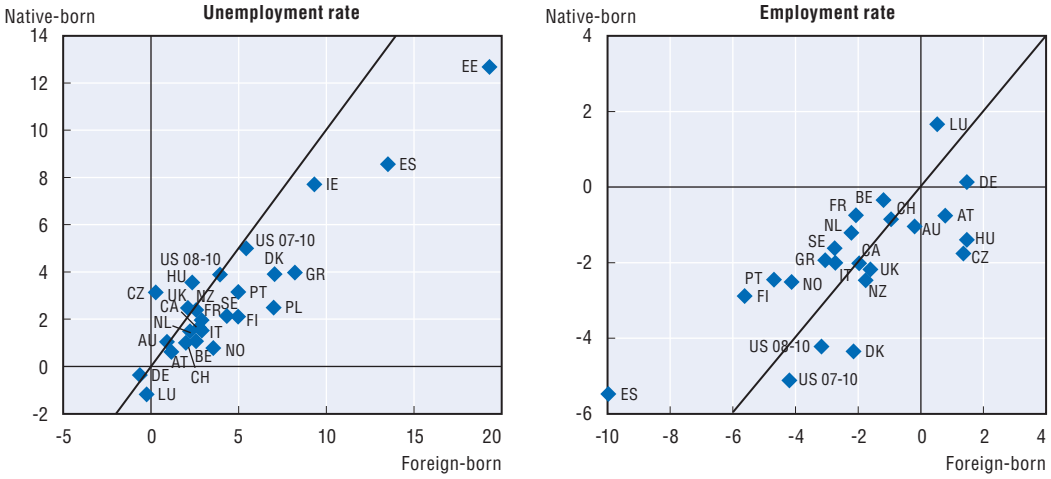
The picture is more mixed on employment rates because, in some cases, the harshening of the labour market situation was associated with an increase in the migrant labour supply. In Denmark for example the employment rate declined by two percentage points for migrants compared to –4 percentage points for the natives. At the same time the migrant unemployment rate was increasing significantly more for the foreign-born (+7 percentage points compared to 4 percentage points for natives). This was only possible because migrant labour force participation increased by 3.3 percentage points while it was declining by 1 percentage point for natives. As we shall see below, migrant women played a key role in this context.

… but the labour market outcomes of migrant women in some cases improved

Recall that employment losses were disproportionally large for men during this recession, notably because they were overrepresented in sectors which have been affected the most (construction, manufacturing, finance). By contrast, social and domestic services, where many migrant women are working, were not significantly affected by the recent economic downturn. In addition, before the economic crisis, there existed large employment gaps between native-born and foreign-born women, larger than those observed for their male counterparts. When migrant men were having a difficult time in the labour market, migrant women often increased their participation in the labour market, generally more so than native-born women (see Figure I.13).[4] This was not the case, however, in Ireland, Finland and Norway.

Figure I.12. **Change in unemployment and employment rates by place of birth, 2008-10**

Percentage points



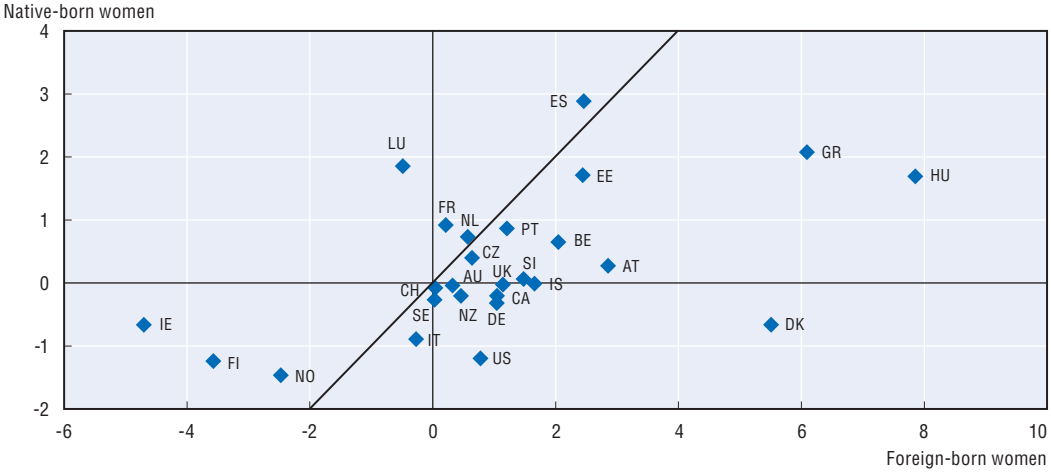
Notes: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2010. Data for the United States refer to changes between 2007 and 2010 (US 07-10) and between 2008 and 2010 (US 08-10). Data for Australia, Canada and New Zealand refer to changes between 2008 and 2010.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

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Figure I.13. **Change in participation rates of women by place of birth, 2008-10**

Percentage points



Notes: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2010. Data for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States refer to changes between 2008 and 2010.

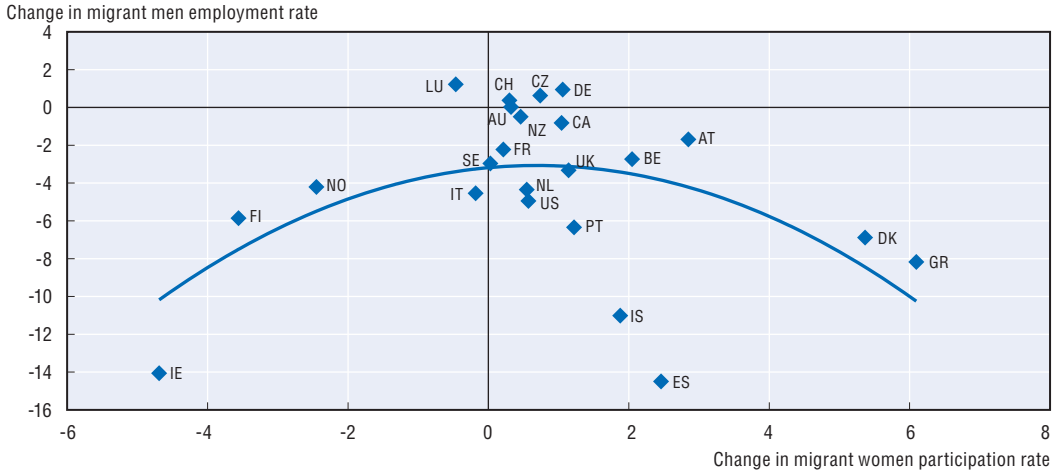
Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

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The increase in labour force participation of migrants was also larger for women than for men[5], meaning that the former played an important role in compensating income losses from the latter. Figure I.14 tries to link the change in migrant men employment during the crisis to that of labour force participation of migrant women. Further investigations would be needed to ascertain the nature of the linkages[6] but it seems that when the economic shock was not overly strong migrant women were able to increase their participation in the labour market. In countries where the employment rate of migrant men decreased by more than 5 percentage points, the response was either a strong increase (Greece, Denmark, Spain and Iceland) or a reduction (Ireland and Finland) in migrant women labour force participation rate. Disparities in the composition of recent migration by skills levels, countries of origin and/or categories of entry are certainly key for understanding these differences.

Figure I.14. **Change in migrant women participation rate and in migrant men employment rate in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Percentage points



Notes: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2010. Data for other countries refer to changes between 2008 and 2010.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australian, Canadian, New Zealander Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

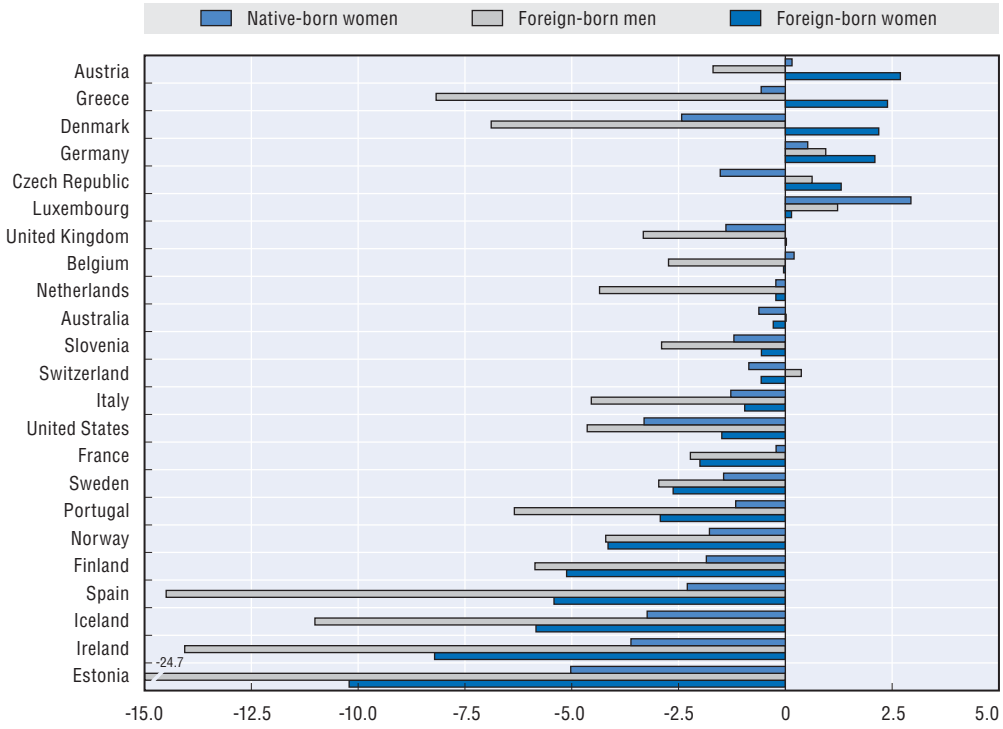
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Changes in labour force participation of migrant women were, however, not always sufficient to offset the negative impact of the increase in unemployment. Employment rates of migrant women actually increased by more than two percentage points since early 2008 in Austria, Denmark, Germany and Greece as well as in several Central European countries but noticeable decreases occurred in four countries, Ireland (–8% points), Spain (–5% points), Finland (–5% points) and Norway (–4% points) (see Annex I.B1 for more details). In almost all cases, however, the employment gap between migrant women and men diminished, sometimes very significantly (Figure I.15).

Part of this outcome is due to the decline in the employment of migrant men rather than to improvements in the labour market for migrant women. Nevertheless, in most countries the fact that the employment of women has held-up reasonably well in the crisis may have positive implications for the labour market integration of migrant women. Furthermore, in general foreign-born women have outperformed native-born women in a majority of countries, except where the economic crisis was the strongest (Estonia, Spain, Iceland and Ireland) and in Nordic countries.

Figure I.15. **Change in employment rates by gender and country of birth, 2008-10**

Percentage points



Note: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

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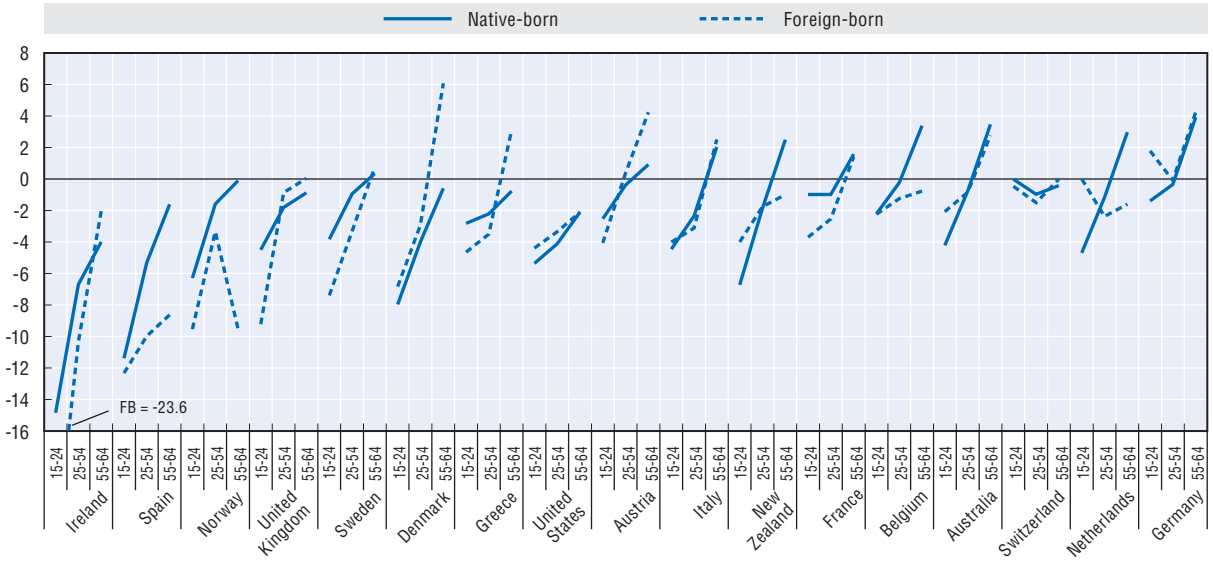
Certain migrant groups have been particularly exposed to the worsening of labour market conditions…

Certain groups of migrants have been particularly exposed to the worsening of economic conditions. This is the case notably of young migrants. In many countries they experienced relatively unfavourable labour market outcomes prior to the economic crisis. In all countries for which data are available, except Germany, the employment rate of young migrants aged 15 to 24 decreased in the past three years and it did so more than for the native-born and other age groups (see Figure I.16). In Ireland the employment rate of young migrants fell by 24 percentage points, 9 percentage points more than for natives. In the United Kingdom as well, young immigrants have been particularly hard hit compared to their native counterparts, whereas the opposite is true in the Netherlands and to a lesser degree in Denmark and the United States.

As of the third quarter of 2010, the highest unemployment rates recorded for young immigrants were observed in Spain (44%), Sweden (35%), Belgium (35%) and France (33%)[7]. These figures show no significant sign of a decline as of end 2010. On average in European OECD countries, in the third quarter of 2010, 24.5% of young migrants were unemployed compared to 19.6% for the young native-born. Corresponding figures for the United States were respectively 15.8% and 18.8% (Canada 19.4% and 14.2%; Australia 12.9% and 11.3%; New Zealand 19.9% and 16.4%).

Figure I.16. **Change in employment rates by place of birth and by age in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Percentage points



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010; 2008 and 2010 Australian and New Zealander Labour Force Surveys; United States: 2008 and 2010 Current Population Surveys. StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440603

In last year's edition of the *International Migration Outlook* (OECD 2010) it was emphasised that "Addressing this problem, including through specific measures, should be a priority in order to avoid negative long-lasting impacts on the labour market integration of this cohort, which could lead to both stigmatisation and social unrest" (OECD, 2010). This recommendation is even more accurate in the current context.

Compared to youth the situation of older workers seems to be less problematic. One of the most striking features of this crisis was the widespread resilience of older-worker employment rates. Premature withdrawal of older workers from the labour force, notably through pre-retirement schemes, appears to have been largely avoided in the current context. Older migrant workers' employment seems also to have held up reasonably well in most countries, except in Spain and in Norway where significant drops were observed.

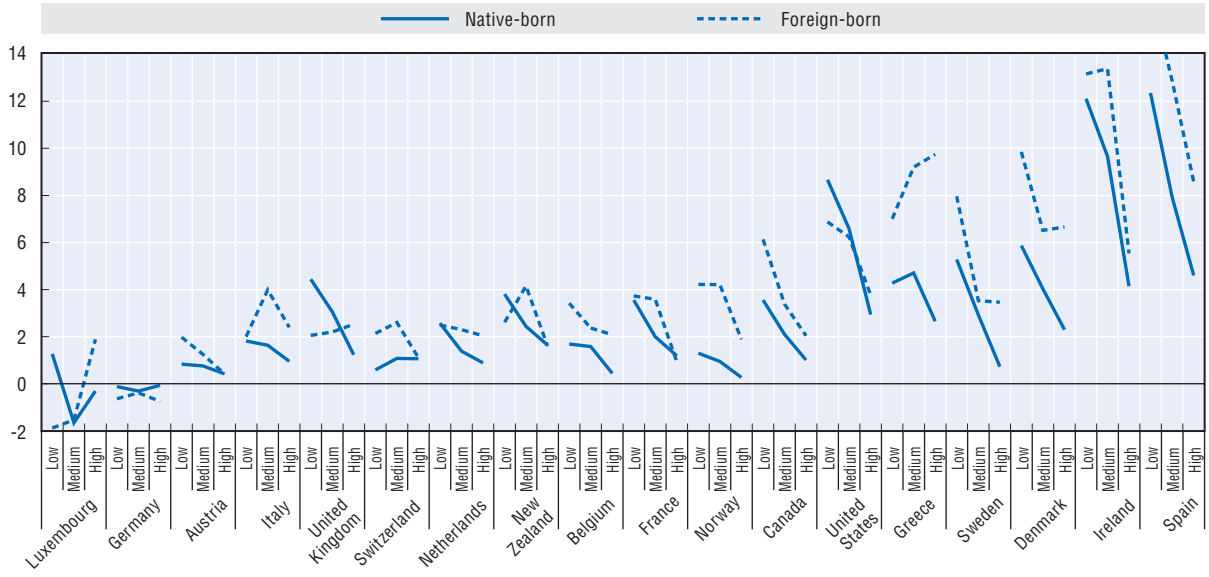
Turning to labour market outcomes by skill level (Figure I.17), three groups of countries can be identified[8]. The first group is characterised by relatively similar impact on unemployment of foreign-born and native-born by skill level. This is the case for example in Austria, Belgium, Spain and to some extent in Denmark and Sweden. In these countries the biggest rise in unemployment was observed for the low-skilled and it is at this level that the gap between the foreign-born and their native-born counterparts is the largest.

A second group is formed by France, Ireland, Italy and Norway. In these countries, the largest rise in migrant unemployment is observed for the medium skilled. This is due to the specific impact of the economic crisis on manufacturing industries where medium skilled migrant workers tend to be concentrated.

A third group is made of the United Kingdom and the United States where the unemployment rate of low-skilled workers increased more for the native-born than for migrants. In these countries, because of the importance of foreign-born employment in the financial sector, highly-skilled migrants were more exposed to unemployment than their

Figure I.17. **Change in unemployment rates by place of birth and by educational attainment in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Percentage points



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010; Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force Surveys (2008-10); United States: 2007 and 2010 Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440622

native-born counterparts. This is also true in Greece and the Netherlands where the unemployment rate of tertiary educated migrants has increased significantly in the past three years.

Labour market outcomes of migrants also differ by country of origin, notably because of dissimilarities in their characteristics (distribution of employment by industry, level of education, age and duration of stay in the country). Table I.11 presents the main labour market indicators for different groups of migrants in European OECD countries and in the United States in 2010.

Migrants from Latin American countries face quite a difficult situation in Europe. This is mostly due, however, to their concentration in Spain where the economic downturn has been particularly strong. However, their labour force participation rate holds up well, above 80%, which signals that they are not disconnected from the labour market. The situation is more difficult for North African migrants. This group was the hardest hit, notably because of its concentration in the construction sector in many European countries. In 2010, the unemployment rate of North African migrants reached almost 25%, and their employment rate dropped below 50%[9]. The situation for sub-Saharan African migrants is not very positive either with an unemployment rate which is close to 18% on average. For these migrant groups, especially North African migrants, return migration may not be an easy option in the current context.

In the United States, Mexican- and African-born migrants tend to have above average unemployment rates but the gaps between migrant groups are much smaller than in Europe. Asian-born migrants have very favourable labour market outcomes, including compared to natives, in part because they are more highly-skilled and tend to work in professional occupations which have been less affected by the economic downturn. The same conclusion applies more generally to migrants from OECD countries, both in the United States and in Europe.

Table I.11. **Employment, unemployment and participation rates by region of origin in selected OECD countries, 2010**

Percentages

		Employment rates	Unemployment rates	Participation rates
OECD European countries	EU27 + EFTA	66.9	11.6	75.6
	Other European countries	58.7	14.4	68.6
	North Africa	49.0	24.8	65.1
	Other African countries and Middle East	58.4	18.2	71.4
	North America	66.7	7.4	72.1
	Other American countries and Carribean	63.1	21.6	80.5
	Asia	62.4	10.2	69.5
	Others	76.4	6.5	81.7
	Foreign-born (total)	**62.0**	**14.7**	**72.7**
	Native-born	**65.0**	**8.9**	**71.4**
United States	Mexico	65.3	11.2	73.6
	Other Central American countries	69.7	12.1	79.2
	South America and Carribean	69.3	11.2	78.1
	Canada	69.8	7.7	75.6
	Europe	70.5	7.2	76.0
	Africa	67.7	11.6	76.6
	Asia	67.6	7.4	73.0
	Others	60.8	12.1	69.2
	Foreign-born (total)	**67.6**	**9.8**	**75.0**
	Native-born	**65.2**	**9.9**	**72.3**
Australia	Oceania and Antarctica	76.5	5.7	81.1
	Europe	72.4	4.1	75.5
	North Africa and the Middle East	47.5	11.2	53.6
	Sub-Saharan Africa	75.6	4.0	79.6
	Asia	66.0	6.4	70.5
	Americas	73.3	5.1	77.3
	Foreign-born (total)	**69.2**	**5.6**	**73.3**
	Native-born	**73.9**	**5.3**	**78.0**

Sources: European Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2010; Australian monthly Labour Force Surveys; United States: monthly Current Population Surveys (January to December 2010).

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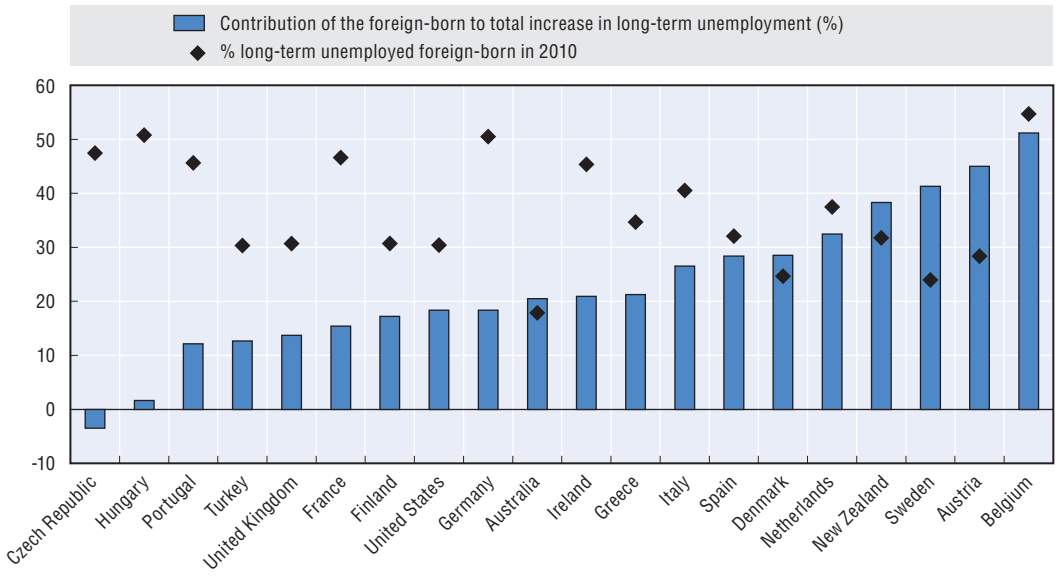
... and long-term unemployment of migrant workers has increased

Analysing the evolution on long-term unemployment is not always straightforward during economic crisis because the first impact of the shock is to increase total unemployment and therefore to decrease the share of long-term unemployed. Long-term unemployment can also be reduced by an increasing number of discouraged workers exiting the labour force. In any case the effects are only visible with some delay.

Three years after the start of the economic crisis, the share of the unemployed who are looking for a job for more than 12 months has increased in most OECD countries, except in Germany and Luxembourg. Figure I.18 looks at the contribution of migrants to the increase in the number of long-term unemployed in the first 9 months of 2008 and 2010. It shows surprisingly high contributions of migrants, well above their share in the labour force or in total unemployment. In Belgium, in various central European countries, as well as in Germany more than one out of two unemployed migrant workers has been looking for a job for at least 12 months. This figure is close to or above 30% in all countries for which data are available, including in the United States, but not in Austria, in Denmark and in Sweden.

Figure I.18. **Change in long-term unemployed foreign-born workers in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Percentages



Notes: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2010. Data for the United States refer to changes between 2007 and 2010, for New Zealand changes between 2008 and 2010.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia and New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Monthly Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440641

Table I.B2.1 provides more detailed information on the composition of the unemployed workforce by duration of unemployment between the first quarter of 2008 and the third quarter of 2010. In Belgium, Ireland and Spain, the progressive extension of jobless spell is clearly visible. A similar trend is visible in the United States where long-term unemployment also is increasing, notably among immigrants. This may also be true in Denmark or Norway, although in these two countries the prevalence of long-term unemployment among immigrants is still low. In Germany, a large share of immigrants have been out of the labour market for more than 24 months but the data show a recent improvement.

The increase in long-term unemployment could result in persistence, if not permanent, disconnection from the labour market. Taking into account the sample sizes of the datasets on which is based our analysis it is unfortunately not possible to further disaggregate the data by socio-demographic groups. An understanding of who exactly is at risk of long-term unemployment among migrants (ie. same or different groups compared to natives) would help to better target active labour market policies and other policy responses.

3. Job creation during the crisis ... and beyond

During economic downturn, although net job creation is negative, new hiring does not stop. What proportion of new hirings have been taken by immigrants? What are the main characteristics of the jobs? Which industries are recruiting immigrants during the crisis and through the recovery phase?

Figure I.19a shows that the share of migrant workers among new hirings[10] is generally higher than their share in total employment. In most cases the vast majority of these new jobs were taken by immigrants already settled in the country but in four countries more than 15% were taken by recent immigrants, with a duration of stay in the country of less than one year (Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom). To some extent, the over-representation of migrant workers in recent hiring may simply reflect higher job turnover compared to natives in particular, more hirings in temporary jobs. Figure I.19b shows that a large share of immigrants hold a temporary contract, notably in southern European countries. This is one reason why migrants were among the first to lose their jobs at the onset of the crisis[11]. The opposite phenomenon can also apply during the early phase of the recovery if employers are reluctant to recruit on a permanent basis, because of uncertain economic prospects. The fact that the shares of immigrants in new hiring, but also in temporary and total employment are increasing together in Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Greece, Sweden and Switzerland may be illustrative of this situation.

Annex I.B3 identifies the 10 industries where native-born and foreign-born employment changed the most in Europe (2008-10) and the United States (2007-10). After three years, massive net job losses in the construction sector are still observed in European OECD countries. It represents almost 400 000 jobs for immigrants and more than 1.6 million for the natives. In addition about 330 000 jobs were lost in the motor-vehicle industry in Europe, including 58 000 among immigrants[12]. In these two sectors it is still unclear when, and if, employment will recover its pre-crisis level. Important net job losses were also recorded for native-born workers in "Wholesale and retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles" (–0.8 million), a sector which is traditionally highly sensitive to fluctuations in the business cycle.

At the same time, some sectors were recruiting more workers, and most notably social services. For example more than 430 000 jobs were created in "*Residential care activities*", one third of which were taken by foreign-born workers. Domestic services also recruited almost 150 000 additional migrant workers, while at the same time the same number of jobs were lost for the native-born in this sector. Foreign-born employment also increased in several highly-skilled occupations and notably in the education sector (+85 000) but significantly less than for natives (+440 000).

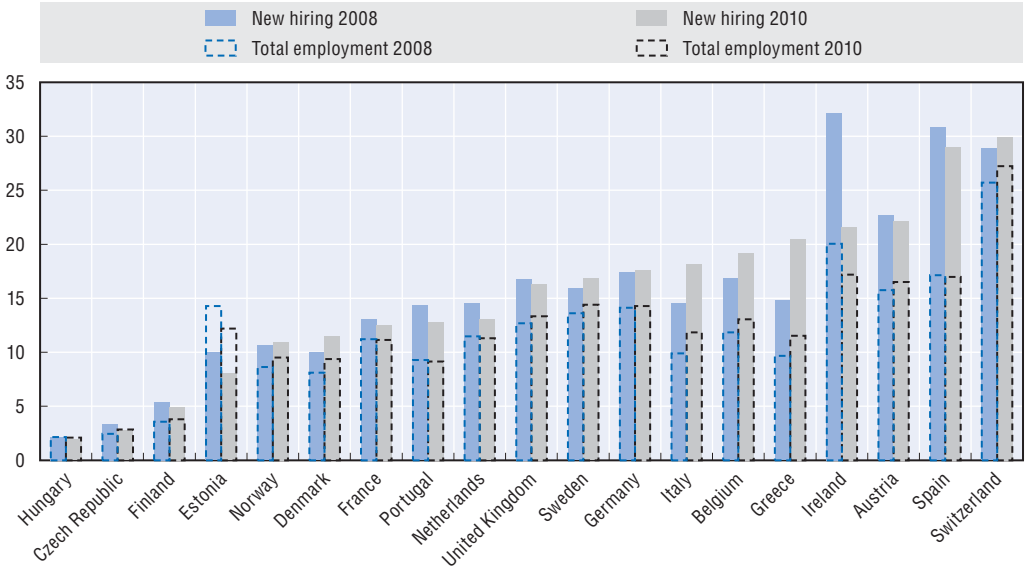
There are, however, important differences between European countries in terms of employment changes by sector. For example in the case of France more than 35 000 jobs were lost in the education sector (immigrant employment increased by 7 000) while at the same time more than 350 000 jobs were created in the United Kingdom in this sector (including 50 000 taken up by migrants). Inversely, France created more than 80 000 jobs in the health sector (almost all taken by natives) but 37 000 job losses in the health sector were recorded in the United Kingdom (including 15 000 migrant jobs).

In the United States the overall picture is quite similar with massive job losses in the construction sector (830 000 for migrants and almost 2 million for native workers). In addition, between the first quarter of 2007 and the end of 2010 many jobs were lost by highly skilled immigrants, for example in "Finance" (–136 000) but also in "*Professional and technical services*" (–80 000). In the latter industry, 50% of the decline in employment was among immigrants.

Figure I.19. **Share of foreign-born employment in new hiring and in temporary employment in some OECD countries, 2008 and 2010**

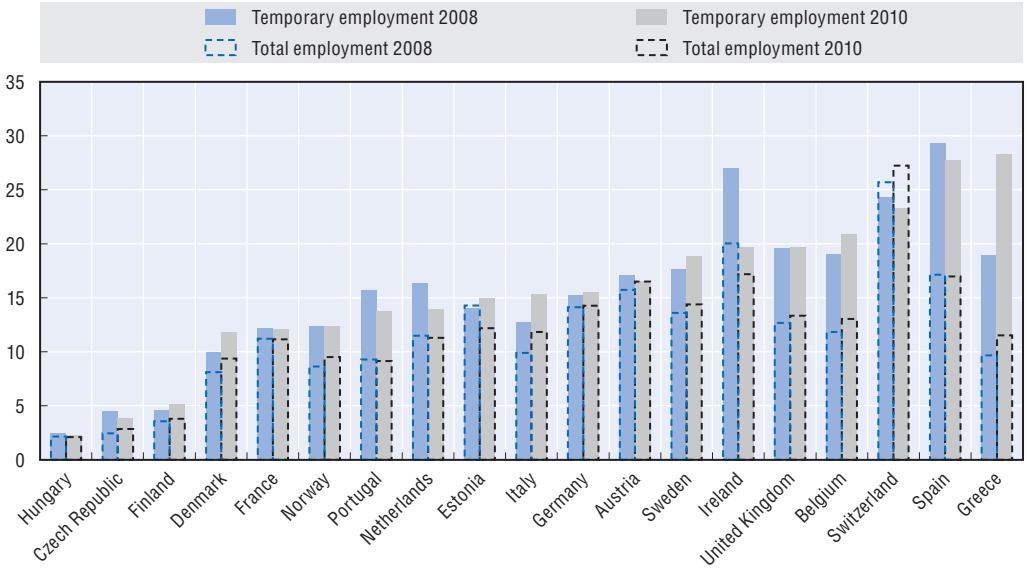
Percentages

Figure I.19a. **Share of foreign-born employment in new hiring and in total employment, 2008 and 2010**



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) – Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010.

Figure I.19b. **Share of foreign-born employment in temporary and total employment, 2008 and 2010**



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) – Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440660

Industries which have been net recruiters over the past four years include, in the United States health sector (+130 000 for migrants and +720 000 for natives), "*Public administration*" (+31 000 for migrants and +140 000 for natives) or "*Education*" (+31 000 for migrants and +85 000 for natives). In contrast to what was observed for European OECD countries "*Agriculture*" was the fifth most important net recruiter of foreign-born workers (+47 000) and "Food manufacturing" the third (+89 000) in the United States. The latter two sectors are apparently not very attractive for native-born workers even in the current economic context, because they are unstable (–21 000 in "*Food processing*" and +17 000 in "*Agriculture*").

As mentioned above, most of the net employment losses took place for migrants in "*Construction*", as well as in specific industries in Europe and highly skilled occupations in the United States. Three/four years after the beginning of the economic crisis employment has not fully recovered in these sectors. So far new opportunities for migrants have been concentrated in other sectors such as health, education, domestic services or hotel and restaurants notably in Europe. These are sectors typically dominated by female employment. Whether layed-off migrant men can take-up these employment opportunities remains to be seen. In the United States, "Agriculture" and "Food processing" industries are still recruiting foreign workers but many layed-off workers were actually highly skilled. Here again the fit is not obvious.

Unless new recruitment channels emerge with the economic recovery, it is likely that some of the outcomes identified above for migrant workers will persist. In particular, increasing long-term unemployment for specific categories of workers, especially low- and medium-skilled men and increased employment of women compared to men. Improving the match between migrant skills and employment opportunities remains a key challenge for OECD countries and the recent economic crisis has not made the matching process easier.

Notes

1. The number of additional persons employed required to restore pre-crisis employment rates.
2. Furthermore, the increase in long-term unemployment could have adverse impacts on the functioning of the labour market by reducing the elasticity of real wages to unemployment.
3. Germany was excluded because of a break in the series in 2008 and Switzerland because quarterly data are only available since 2010.
4. Significant reduction in labour force participation rate of migrant women was indeed identified only in three countries: Ireland, Norway and Finland. In these countries foreign-born women were relatively well integrated in the workforce before the crisis; with labour force participation rates in the first quarter of 2008 above 70% in Finland and Norway and of 67% in Ireland.
5. Actually participation rate of migrant men decreased between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2010 in almost two-third of the countries for which data are available.
6. Notably analyses based on household survey data.
7. In the first quarter of 2008, the unemployment rate of young immigrants was around 25% in the four countries.
8. Germany in a specific case where no impact on unemployment rates is identifiable.
9. Employment rate of North African workers is as low as 39.6% in Spain, 41.4% in Belgium, 43% in the United Kingdom.
10. New hiring are identified based on tenure in the job inferior to 12 months.
11. Other possible reasons are that they have on average a shorter tenure in the job, that they have less human capital specific to the firm, that they lack certain type of skills which might not be essential but are positively valued in the workplace environment (*e.g.* language skills, social capital), or that they had to face selective lay-offs.
12. 22 000 job were also lost by migrant workers in "*Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles*".

ANNEX I.B1

Employment, unemployment and participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008 to 2010

Table I.B1.1. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	74.8	72.6	64.1	73.1	. .	66.1	71.6	78.4	64.5	68.7	69.7	65.3	72.2	60.8	56.0	67.6	. .	57.8	58.6	78.0	78.0	75.9	58.1	67.7	61.3	67.0	75.4	73.8	69.3
	2008 Q2	75.1	73.5	63.2	75.1	81.0	66.6	71.9	79.4	64.5	68.9	72.6	65.7	72.2	61.7	56.3	67.3	. .	58.7	58.9	78.7	78.9	76.4	59.0	68.1	61.6	68.4	76.8	72.7	69.9
	2008 Q3	75.0	74.4	64.0	75.5	. .	66.7	72.9	79.6	64.2	69.9	72.4	66.1	72.2	61.6	57.1	67.6	. .	58.2	60.4	78.9	79.0	76.0	60.1	67.6	63.1	70.3	77.7	73.6	69.6
	2008 Q4	74.9	73.7	63.7	74.0	. .	66.8	73.0	79.3	62.7	68.8	70.6	65.4	71.9	61.1	56.5	65.1	. .	57.7	59.7	79.1	77.9	76.9	60.0	67.3	62.9	68.6	75.2	72.6	68.6
	2008	**75.0**	**73.6**	**63.8**	**74.4**	**. .**	**66.6**	**72.4**	**79.2**	**64.0**	**69.1**	**71.3**	**65.6**	**72.1**	**61.3**	**56.5**	**66.9**	**66.7**	**58.1**	**59.4**	**78.7**	**78.5**	**76.3**	**59.3**	**67.7**	**62.2**	**68.6**	**76.3**	**72.8**	**69.4**
	2009 Q1	73.9	72.4	63.2	71.4	. .	65.5	72.0	77.1	60.7	64.2	68.6	64.8	71.0	60.5	54.9	62.8	. .	56.8	60.2	78.8	77.4	75.0	58.9	66.6	61.0	66.9	73.8	74.4	66.5
	2009 Q2	74.0	73.1	63.2	72.9	80.3	65.4	72.3	77.2	60.3	63.0	70.0	65.4	70.3	61.0	55.4	62.1	. .	57.3	63.3	78.7	77.8	74.4	59.3	66.3	60.4	67.8	74.9	73.7	66.5
	2009 Q3	73.8	73.8	63.1	73.1	. .	65.2	72.5	76.8	60.1	63.3	69.5	65.3	70.4	61.0	55.3	61.9	. .	56.9	62.9	78.6	76.8	73.6	59.9	65.4	60.1	68.6	74.9	73.1	66.2
	2009 Q4	74.0	73.0	63.4	71.9	. .	65.3	73.2	75.2	59.5	61.2	67.5	64.5	70.4	60.2	55.3	60.5	. .	56.5	61.0	78.1	76.4	74.6	59.4	65.5	59.2	67.5	73.3	72.4	65.1
	2009	**73.9**	**73.1**	**63.2**	**72.3**	**. .**	**65.4**	**72.5**	**76.6**	**60.1**	**62.9**	**68.9**	**65.0**	**70.5**	**60.7**	**55.2**	**61.8**	**65.7**	**56.9**	**61.9**	**78.6**	**77.1**	**74.4**	**59.4**	**66.0**	**60.2**	**67.7**	**74.2**	**73.5**	**66.1**
	2010 Q1	73.4	71.9	63.6	70.6	80.3	64.1	71.8	74.0	58.7	59.0	66.7	64.6	69.7	59.5	54.3	59.7	. .	56.1	60.5	77.6	75.6	74.1	58.2	65.5	58.0	66.3	73.1	73.8	64.6
	2010 Q2	73.8	72.7	63.1	73.0	79.9	64.8	72.4	75.3	59.0	59.9	69.5	65.0	69.9	59.6	55.1	60.4	. .	56.6	60.3	78.0	76.5	73.5	59.3	65.3	58.6	66.4	75.4	73.0	65.3
	2010 Q3	74.0	73.7	63.6	73.5	80.2	65.3	72.7	75.0	59.1	62.6	69.7	65.3	70.5	59.1	55.8	60.5	. .	56.0	62.0	76.4	76.2	73.8	60.0	65.1	59.2	66.6	76.5	72.9	65.6
	2010Q4	74.4	73.4	. .	72.6	. .	. .	. .	74.2	58.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	76.0	74.0	. .	64.9	. .	. .	75.3	71.9	65.2
	2010	**73.9**	**72.9**	**63.4**	**72.4**	**80.2**	**64.7**	**72.3**	**74.7**	**58.9**	**60.5**	**68.6**	**65.0**	**70.0**	**59.4**	**55.1**	**60.2**	**. .**	**56.2**	**61.0**	**77.3**	**76.1**	**73.8**	**59.2**	**65.2**	**58.6**	**66.4**	**75.1**	**73.1**	**65.2**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	68.6	63.3	52.8	70.4	. .	65.2	61.8	61.3	68.0	74.6	66.8	59.2	67.9	66.5	63.8	72.4	. .	63.7	68.5	66.0	72.5	68.3	40.3	73.0	68.2	68.3	62.7	66.3	70.5
	2008 Q2	68.6	66.5	54.5	71.0	75.4	66.8	62.2	68.2	67.0	75.5	66.7	60.4	67.6	67.7	64.3	71.3	. .	64.3	71.9	67.4	73.2	70.2	46.8	74.7	67.5	66.9	64.3	64.8	71.3
	2008 Q3	68.5	65.4	53.8	70.8	. .	66.4	63.8	68.6	66.0	74.1	66.4	59.9	67.4	68.4	65.1	70.0	. .	66.6	68.9	68.4	73.6	70.5	45.7	74.1	70.3	67.6	65.3	65.1	71.5
	2008 Q4	69.1	65.3	54.7	70.7	. .	67.2	62.7	67.2	63.6	75.1	61.9	59.2	67.3	67.4	65.4	67.9	. .	65.5	66.6	68.2	73.3	71.1	39.4	74.1	66.6	71.0	63.9	63.3	69.8
	2008	**68.7**	**65.1**	**54.0**	**70.7**	**. .**	**66.4**	**62.6**	**66.3**	**66.1**	**74.8**	**65.4**	**59.7**	**67.6**	**67.5**	**64.7**	**70.4**	**71.8**	**65.1**	**69.0**	**67.5**	**73.2**	**70.0**	**43.5**	**74.0**	**68.1**	**68.4**	**64.0**	**65.3**	**70.8**
	2009 Q1	67.8	63.4	53.3	68.3	. .	66.3	63.1	67.7	58.7	73.2	64.8	58.4	67.0	65.0	64.8	62.9	. .	62.9	69.6	67.8	70.5	69.3	43.4	71.0	64.9	64.7	62.2	65.4	67.3
	2009 Q2	67.0	64.8	51.4	68.4	75.7	66.9	63.4	67.0	58.3	69.4	64.5	58.2	65.5	66.3	66.0	62.9	. .	63.5	68.6	65.9	71.0	69.4	44.4	71.3	61.4	66.1	61.9	65.3	68.3
	2009 Q3	66.8	65.1	51.4	68.4	. .	65.1	63.7	71.8	58.2	64.0	64.1	57.7	66.0	67.1	65.3	61.5	. .	62.6	69.4	66.6	70.5	68.0	43.1	69.0	56.6	66.0	62.8	64.7	67.9
	2009 Q4	67.6	65.5	52.6	68.8	. .	64.9	64.0	65.6	56.8	65.1	61.8	56.9	65.5	65.6	65.8	60.7	. .	62.3	69.6	66.0	68.9	67.9	52.6	68.0	58.1	67.4	61.5	63.4	67.4
	2009	**67.3**	**64.7**	**52.2**	**68.5**	**. .**	**65.8**	**63.5**	**68.1**	**58.0**	**67.8**	**63.8**	**57.8**	**66.0**	**66.0**	**65.5**	**62.0**	**71.5**	**62.8**	**69.3**	**66.6**	**70.2**	**68.6**	**45.7**	**69.8**	**60.6**	**66.1**	**62.1**	**66.5**	**67.7**
	2010 Q1	67.9	64.5	51.8	67.9	72.3	65.5	62.7	64.1	56.4	57.8	61.6	56.9	65.0	64.4	64.3	59.7	. .	61.4	70.1	64.6	69.4	68.0	47.3	68.8	55.9	66.8	60.6	65.1	66.1
	2010 Q2	67.7	65.6	52.5	69.0	75.3	67.5	64.2	63.6	56.8	56.6	61.9	58.4	66.0	64.3	66.2	60.4	. .	62.6	69.8	65.4	69.1	67.8	49.1	69.5	56.2	67.1	60.9	65.5	68.8
	2010 Q3	68.5	67.4	53.2	69.3	75.8	69.8	65.3	63.8	57.8	58.8	59.5	58.1	67.1	64.9	67.1	59.4	. .	62.5	71.1	65.0	68.6	68.0	54.7	69.3	55.9	63.1	62.5	66.3	68.2
	2010 Q4	69.9	67.6	. .	68.8	. .	. .	. .	62.2	56.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	68.5	69.4	. .	68.7	. .	. .	61.4	64.5	67.4
	2010	**68.5**	**66.3**	**52.5**	**68.8**	**74.5**	**67.5**	**64.1**	**63.4**	**56.8**	**57.8**	**61.0**	**57.8**	**66.0**	**64.5**	**65.9**	**59.9**	**. .**	**62.2**	**70.3**	**65.0**	**68.9**	**68.3**	**50.0**	**69.1**	**56.0**	**65.7**	**61.3**	**64.8**	**67.6**

Table I.B1.1. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	80.7	78.2	69.5	75.2	. .	74.9	76.0	81.6	74.8	73.1	71.2	69.3	77.3	73.7	62.3	75.2	. .	68.8	66.3	83.6	80.2	81.6	65.0	73.6	68.9	71.0	77.2	79.1	73.3
	2008 Q2	80.8	79.3	68.7	77.6	86.1	75.2	76.4	83.0	74.4	72.3	74.8	69.9	77.3	74.4	63.0	74.6	. .	70.0	68.5	84.3	81.4	81.8	66.0	73.7	69.2	72.6	78.4	77.6	74.3
	2008 Q3	80.8	80.2	69.5	79.0	. .	75.7	77.7	83.5	73.9	72.8	74.7	70.2	77.4	74.2	63.7	74.7	. .	69.5	69.8	84.3	81.6	80.9	67.3	73.3	70.8	74.5	79.3	79.4	73.9
	2008 Q4	80.6	79.0	69.1	76.3	. .	75.8	77.2	82.4	71.3	72.3	72.2	69.6	76.8	73.6	62.4	71.4	. .	68.7	68.3	84.4	80.2	82.2	67.1	73.1	70.8	72.1	76.8	80.4	72.1
	2008	**80.7**	**79.2**	**69.2**	**77.0**	**. .**	**75.4**	**76.8**	**82.6**	**73.6**	**72.6**	**73.2**	**69.7**	**77.2**	**74.0**	**62.8**	**74.0**	**73.1**	**69.3**	**68.2**	**84.2**	**80.8**	**81.6**	**66.4**	**73.4**	**69.9**	**72.6**	**77.9**	**78.5**	**73.4**
	2009 Q1	79.0	76.5	68.4	72.3	. .	74.2	76.0	79.5	68.7	65.0	69.2	68.8	75.5	72.6	60.5	67.4	. .	67.6	67.3	83.8	79.0	80.1	65.7	71.7	68.6	69.8	75.1	79.2	69.3
	2009 Q2	78.7	77.7	67.8	74.5	84.5	73.9	76.1	79.4	67.9	62.8	70.6	69.2	74.6	73.1	61.3	66.3	. .	68.1	71.1	83.9	79.8	80.1	66.1	71.2	68.0	71.4	76.0	78.2	69.5
	2009 Q3	78.6	78.6	67.9	75.8	. .	73.7	76.6	79.1	67.5	65.4	70.6	69.1	74.6	73.1	61.0	66.0	. .	67.9	70.0	83.6	78.7	78.1	66.9	70.2	67.4	71.9	76.3	79.3	69.8
	2009 Q4	78.9	78.2	68.5	73.4	. .	73.6	76.9	77.3	66.6	60.8	67.9	68.2	74.6	72.0	60.8	64.2	. .	67.3	68.4	82.8	77.8	79.6	65.9	70.0	66.1	71.1	74.8	80.2	68.0
	2009	**78.8**	**77.7**	**68.1**	**74.0**	**. .**	**73.8**	**76.4**	**78.8**	**67.7**	**63.5**	**69.6**	**68.8**	**74.8**	**72.7**	**60.9**	**66.0**	**71.3**	**67.7**	**69.2**	**83.5**	**78.8**	**79.5**	**66.2**	**70.8**	**67.5**	**71.0**	**75.6**	**79.1**	**69.1**
	2010 Q1	78.6	76.0	68.3	71.4	85.2	72.2	75.8	75.3	65.5	56.7	67.2	68.1	73.6	71.1	59.0	63.2	. .	66.8	67.6	82.0	77.2	79.2	64.3	70.0	64.3	69.8	74.4	77.7	67.0
	2010 Q2	79.0	78.0	68.3	74.8	85.1	73.3	76.5	76.6	65.9	58.7	70.4	68.5	74.3	70.9	60.2	64.1	. .	67.0	67.6	82.4	78.1	78.5	65.5	69.6	65.2	68.9	76.9	76.5	68.5
	2010 Q3	79.3	78.8	68.6	76.4	85.1	74.1	77.0	77.5	66.0	65.1	71.4	68.9	75.2	70.3	61.0	64.4	. .	66.4	70.5	81.4	78.2	79.4	66.6	69.7	65.5	70.3	78.2	77.7	69.2
	2010Q4	79.9	78.7		74.5	. .	. .	. .	77.2	65.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	77.8	79.2	. .	69.5	. .	. .	76.9	78.6	68.2
	2010	**79.2**	**77.9**	**68.4**	**74.3**	**84.5**	**73.2**	**76.4**	**76.6**	**65.6**	**60.2**	**69.6**	**68.5**	**74.4**	**70.8**	**60.1**	**63.9**	**. .**	**66.7**	**68.6**	**81.9**	**77.8**	**79.1**	**65.4**	**69.7**	**65.0**	**69.7**	**76.6**	**79.0**	**68.2**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	77.6	71.0	63.1	77.1	. .	77.4	70.8	70.0	76.6	84.8	71.3	67.7	78.2	84.3	73.8	80.5	. .	80.2	76.9	75.1	76.2	78.4	46.9	80.2	74.5	74.6	67.9	75.0	81.3
	2008 Q2	77.0	77.2	65.3	77.9	83.6	79.6	71.5	76.6	74.6	83.3	73.1	68.9	77.8	85.7	71.9	79.5	. .	79.5	78.6	76.4	78.0	78.9	54.0	81.2	74.0	72.8	70.1	72.2	82.7
	2008 Q3	76.5	75.9	62.1	78.4	. .	77.3	72.9	77.5	72.3	78.6	73.1	69.4	77.1	86.1	72.6	78.3	. .	82.8	76.2	77.6	77.1	78.2	54.8	81.0	77.0	73.0	71.8	76.4	83.5
	2008 Q4	76.8	75.4	67.0	77.9	. .	75.9	71.5	76.0	68.9	74.4	67.4	68.5	77.7	84.0	73.1	76.1	. .	80.8	71.8	76.8	75.4	79.2	47.2	79.6	75.9	75.8	69.9	76.3	80.5
	2008	**77.0**	**74.9**	**64.4**	**77.8**	**. .**	**77.5**	**71.7**	**74.9**	**73.1**	**80.5**	**71.2**	**68.6**	**77.7**	**85.0**	**72.9**	**78.6**	**76.1**	**80.9**	**75.9**	**76.5**	**76.7**	**78.7**	**51.2**	**80.5**	**75.4**	**74.0**	**69.9**	**74.0**	**82.0**
	2009 Q1	75.5	70.0	62.1	73.8	. .	73.9	71.5	73.3	62.6	75.6	68.6	66.2	76.9	80.3	75.6	69.5	. .	77.8	76.4	76.1	72.6	77.2	46.2	76.1	75.7	67.9	66.8	74.9	76.7
	2009 Q2	74.7	72.4	61.3	73.6	84.1	74.2	71.1	70.0	61.8	74.9	67.9	65.4	74.6	80.9	75.7	68.8	. .	77.9	79.0	74.5	75.2	76.8	52.9	75.7	71.6	71.4	66.3	71.0	78.8
	2009 Q3	74.8	74.1	61.7	74.0	. .	74.8	72.3	76.8	60.7	63.3	68.5	65.9	75.2	81.3	71.2	66.7	. .	77.5	78.8	74.8	74.0	74.8	53.8	73.5	67.7	71.3	67.5	77.2	77.8
	2009 Q4	75.6	73.4	60.4	74.1	. .	75.4	71.9	74.0	59.4	61.0	65.7	64.6	73.7	79.3	73.0	65.8	. .	76.0	78.2	73.7	74.0	75.3	66.2	73.7	73.7	72.7	66.1	75.9	76.6
	2009	**75.1**	**72.5**	**61.4**	**73.9**	**. .**	**74.6**	**71.7**	**73.5**	**61.1**	**68.8**	**67.7**	**65.5**	**75.1**	**80.5**	**74.0**	**67.7**	**75.1**	**77.3**	**78.1**	**74.8**	**74.0**	**76.0**	**54.2**	**74.8**	**72.4**	**70.9**	**66.7**	**75.1**	**77.5**
	2010 Q1	76.7	70.7	58.7	72.6	82.7	76.1	71.1	72.1	58.5	55.3	66.3	64.9	72.9	77.6	69.4	64.8	. .	74.5	78.3	71.3	73.0	75.9	60.1	73.5	74.8	71.2	65.9	72.5	75.2
	2010 Q2	76.2	73.3	61.6	74.3	79.7	78.9	72.7	66.0	60.0	57.6	68.6	67.0	74.2	76.6	67.9	66.3	. .	76.4	77.4	72.2	73.4	75.1	60.8	75.0	74.3	70.5	66.8	70.0	78.8
	2010 Q3	76.7	75.0	62.1	75.7	84.0	81.3	74.2	65.3	61.5	59.7	65.0	67.3	76.1	77.4	69.0	65.1	. .	78.1	79.7	72.5	72.3	75.5	55.4	74.8	74.9	69.9	68.3	72.4	78.7
	2010 Q4	78.2	75.1	. .	75.4	. .	. .	. .	67.6	60.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	72.3	76.6	. .	73.7	. .	. .	68.0	74.1	76.8
	2010	**77.0**	**73.5**	**60.8**	**74.5**	**84.1**	**78.7**	**72.7**	**67.6**	**60.0**	**57.5**	**66.7**	**66.4**	**74.4**	**77.2**	**68.8**	**65.4**	**. .**	**76.3**	**78.5**	**72.0**	**72.7**	**75.8**	**59.0**	**74.3**	**74.7**	**70.5**	**67.3**	**75.4**	**77.4**

Table I.B1.1. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	68.8	67.0	58.6	71.0	. .	57.3	67.2	75.2	53.9	64.6	68.0	61.4	67.1	47.9	50.0	59.8	. .	46.7	50.9	72.3	75.8	70.4	51.4	61.8	53.7	62.8	73.6	67.2	65.6
	2008 Q2	69.5	67.6	57.5	72.5	75.8	57.9	67.3	75.7	54.4	65.7	70.3	61.7	67.2	49.0	50.0	60.0	. .	47.1	49.0	72.8	76.3	71.2	52.1	62.5	54.1	64.0	75.0	66.2	65.8
	2008 Q3	69.2	68.5	58.4	71.9	. .	57.7	68.0	75.7	54.2	67.1	70.0	62.1	67.0	49.0	50.8	60.5	. .	46.6	50.9	73.4	76.3	71.2	53.1	61.9	55.4	65.9	76.0	67.9	65.5
	2008 Q4	69.2	68.3	58.2	71.7	. .	57.7	68.7	76.1	53.8	65.5	68.9	61.4	67.1	48.7	50.9	58.8	. .	46.6	50.8	73.6	75.6	71.9	53.2	61.5	55.1	65.0	73.6	67.0	65.3
	2008	**69.2**	**67.9**	**58.2**	**71.8**	**. .**	**57.6**	**67.8**	**75.7**	**54.1**	**65.7**	**69.3**	**61.7**	**67.1**	**48.6**	**50.4**	**59.8**	**60.2**	**46.8**	**50.4**	**73.0**	**76.0**	**71.2**	**52.4**	**62.0**	**54.6**	**64.4**	**74.5**	**66.2**	**65.5**
	2009 Q1	68.7	68.2	57.9	70.4	. .	56.7	67.9	74.6	52.4	63.5	68.1	61.0	66.5	48.5	49.5	58.1	. .	46.0	53.1	73.8	75.7	70.1	52.3	61.6	53.3	63.8	72.5	68.5	63.8
	2009 Q2	69.4	68.5	58.5	71.4	75.9	56.7	68.5	74.9	52.4	63.1	69.3	61.7	66.0	49.0	49.7	57.8	. .	46.4	55.3	73.5	75.7	69.0	52.7	61.3	52.8	64.0	73.7	68.3	63.6
	2009 Q3	68.9	69.0	58.3	70.5	. .	56.6	68.3	74.5	52.4	61.3	68.4	61.7	66.3	48.9	49.7	57.8	. .	45.6	55.4	73.4	74.9	69.2	53.1	60.7	52.8	65.0	73.4	68.4	62.8
	2009 Q4	69.0	67.7	58.2	70.5	. .	56.7	69.4	73.0	52.2	61.5	67.1	60.8	66.3	48.3	50.0	56.9	. .	45.6	53.5	73.3	74.9	69.8	53.0	61.1	52.3	63.7	71.7	68.2	62.4
	2009	**69.0**	**68.4**	**58.2**	**70.7**	**. .**	**56.7**	**68.5**	**74.3**	**52.3**	**62.4**	**68.2**	**61.3**	**66.3**	**48.7**	**49.7**	**57.6**	**60.1**	**45.9**	**54.4**	**73.5**	**75.3**	**69.5**	**52.8**	**61.2**	**52.8**	**64.1**	**72.8**	**67.6**	**63.2**
	2010 Q1	68.1	67.6	58.9	69.8	75.5	55.8	67.7	72.7	51.8	61.1	66.2	61.2	65.7	47.9	49.8	56.2	. .	45.2	53.1	73.1	74.1	69.2	52.3	61.1	51.7	62.6	71.7	69.0	62.3
	2010 Q2	68.6	67.4	57.7	71.2	74.6	56.2	68.1	74.0	51.8	61.0	68.6	61.5	65.5	48.3	50.3	56.8	. .	46.0	53.2	73.6	74.7	68.7	53.3	61.1	52.1	63.7	73.8	67.7	62.3
	2010 Q3	68.6	68.6	58.6	70.5	74.8	56.4	68.3	72.5	52.0	60.2	68.1	61.8	65.8	47.9	50.7	56.5	. .	45.4	53.3	71.2	74.2	68.5	53.6	60.5	52.9	62.6	74.8	67.9	62.1
	2010Q4	68.9	68.0	. .	70.6	. .	. .	. .	71.1	52.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	74.1	68.9	. .	60.3	. .	. .	73.7	67.6	62.2
	2010	**68.5**	**67.9**	**58.4**	**70.5**	**75.0**	**56.1**	**68.0**	**72.6**	**52.0**	**60.8**	**67.6**	**61.5**	**65.7**	**48.0**	**50.3**	**56.5**	**. .**	**45.6**	**53.2**	**72.6**	**74.3**	**68.8**	**53.1**	**60.8**	**52.2**	**63.0**	**73.5**	**68.5**	**62.2**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	59.9	56.6	43.2	63.9	. .	53.2	53.0	53.6	59.5	65.7	62.3	51.5	57.8	48.4	55.9	63.9	. .	48.9	59.5	57.8	68.9	59.1	32.5	66.1	60.1	61.5	57.9	44.1	59.2
	2008 Q2	60.4	57.2	44.8	64.5	67.5	54.0	53.3	60.6	59.3	68.5	60.4	52.5	57.7	49.3	58.4	62.6	. .	51.1	65.1	59.2	68.4	62.2	39.6	68.5	60.5	60.8	59.1	43.2	59.2
	2008 Q3	60.6	56.2	45.9	63.7	. .	55.5	54.9	60.8	59.8	70.0	59.6	51.2	58.3	50.3	59.4	61.2	. .	52.3	61.0	60.0	70.1	63.4	36.5	68.0	63.4	60.9	59.5	44.8	58.8
	2008 Q4	61.3	56.2	42.4	64.0	. .	58.4	54.4	59.7	58.2	75.7	56.4	50.5	57.4	50.1	59.5	59.5	. .	52.0	61.3	60.3	71.1	63.4	33.2	69.2	57.6	65.4	58.4	45.9	58.5
	2008	**60.6**	**56.6**	**44.1**	**64.0**	**. .**	**55.4**	**53.9**	**58.6**	**59.2**	**70.0**	**59.6**	**51.4**	**57.8**	**49.5**	**58.3**	**61.8**	**68.1**	**51.1**	**61.8**	**59.3**	**69.7**	**62.0**	**35.8**	**68.0**	**60.3**	**62.1**	**58.7**	**43.1**	**58.9**
	2009 Q1	60.1	57.3	44.7	63.2	. .	58.5	54.9	62.5	54.9	71.2	60.5	51.2	57.6	49.2	56.9	55.8	. .	49.6	62.3	60.4	68.5	62.0	41.2	66.6	54.7	61.3	58.0	43.4	57.4
	2009 Q2	59.4	57.7	42.2	63.5	67.6	59.4	56.0	64.3	54.8	64.4	60.8	51.5	56.9	51.4	58.8	57.0	. .	51.0	58.2	58.2	66.8	62.1	37.1	67.4	53.4	60.9	57.9	44.7	57.4
	2009 Q3	58.8	56.8	41.4	63.3	. .	55.5	55.4	67.4	55.7	64.5	59.9	50.0	57.3	52.3	60.9	56.1	. .	49.9	60.1	59.2	67.0	61.3	35.7	65.2	47.7	60.2	58.7	42.2	57.4
	2009 Q4	59.7	58.3	45.2	63.8	. .	53.9	56.5	58.6	54.2	68.1	58.4	49.8	57.7	51.5	60.6	55.5	. .	50.2	60.6	59.2	63.8	60.6	43.8	63.1	45.1	61.5	57.2	41.4	57.6
	2009	**59.5**	**57.5**	**43.4**	**63.4**	**. .**	**56.8**	**55.7**	**63.2**	**54.9**	**67.0**	**59.8**	**50.6**	**57.4**	**51.1**	**59.2**	**56.1**	**68.5**	**50.2**	**60.3**	**59.3**	**66.5**	**61.5**	**39.4**	**65.6**	**50.6**	**61.0**	**58.0**	**42.4**	**57.4**
	2010 Q1	59.2	58.9	45.3	63.5	65.0	54.4	54.6	57.5	54.4	59.8	57.1	49.3	57.4	50.7	60.5	54.6	. .	50.0	61.9	58.8	65.7	60.4	36.9	64.8	39.5	62.0	55.8	44.6	56.6
	2010 Q2	59.4	58.6	44.1	64.0	66.9	55.0	56.1	61.5	53.9	55.7	55.5	50.5	57.9	51.9	64.8	54.7	. .	50.5	61.5	59.4	64.6	60.7	39.4	64.7	39.9	63.4	55.5	45.3	58.1
	2010 Q3	60.6	60.6	44.5	63.2	67.5	57.3	56.9	62.6	54.2	58.1	54.3	49.4	58.5	52.5	65.5	53.8	. .	48.9	62.6	58.2	64.7	60.8	54.2	64.4	36.5	56.2	57.3	44.1	57.4
	2010 Q4	61.8	60.9	. .	62.7	. .	. .	. .	58.2	52.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	64.5	62.5	. .	64.3	. .	. .	55.5	44.5	57.7
	2010	**60.3**	**59.8**	**44.6**	**63.3**	**66.5**	**55.5**	**55.8**	**60.0**	**53.8**	**57.9**	**55.6**	**49.7**	**58.0**	**51.7**	**63.6**	**54.4**	**. .**	**49.8**	**62.0**	**58.8**	**64.8**	**61.1**	**42.8**	**64.5**	**38.7**	**60.4**	**56.0**	**45.2**	**57.4**

Notes: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys; Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441990

Table I.B1.2. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Men + Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	4.5	3.4	5.8	6.2	. .	4.7	7.3	2.9	8.7	–	6.5	6.8	4.9	8.4	8.1	4.4	. .	7.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	4.1	8.2	7.9	10.5	5.0	5.4	3.8	5.4
	2008 Q2	4.3	2.9	5.3	5.9	2.4	4.2	7.0	2.8	9.3	–	7.1	6.4	5.1	7.4	7.7	5.0	. .	6.6	4.7	2.3	2.6	3.8	7.2	7.6	10.1	4.1	6.0	3.2	5.5
	2008 Q3	3.9	3.2	6.6	5.9	. .	4.3	6.4	3.2	10.2	6.2	5.3	6.7	6.0	7.3	7.8	6.5	. .	6.0	4.1	2.1	2.2	4.2	6.7	8.0	9.0	4.1	4.7	3.2	6.3
	2008 Q4	4.2	3.2	5.8	5.9	. .	4.4	6.1	3.2	12.5	7.9	5.8	7.4	6.1	8.0	8.1	7.2	. .	6.9	3.4	2.2	2.2	4.3	6.8	8.1	8.7	4.3	5.2	3.4	6.8
	2008	**4.2**	**3.2**	**5.9**	**6.0**	**. .**	**4.4**	**6.7**	**3.0**	**10.2**	**–**	**6.2**	**6.8**	**5.5**	**7.8**	**7.9**	**5.8**	**6.7**	**6.6**	**3.7**	**2.3**	**2.3**	**4.1**	**7.2**	**7.9**	**9.6**	**4.4**	**5.3**	**3.5**	**6.0**
	2009 Q1	5.7	3.7	6.6	8.1	. .	5.8	7.1	4.9	15.2	12.3	7.5	8.2	7.0	9.2	9.7	9.4	. .	7.8	3.9	2.7	2.7	5.6	8.3	9.0	10.5	5.1	6.9	3.2	8.9
	2009 Q2	5.4	3.9	6.3	8.0	3.2	6.3	6.9	5.6	15.9	13.5	9.4	8.1	7.5	8.7	9.7	11.4	. .	7.0	3.2	2.8	3.0	5.7	8.0	9.3	11.3	5.5	8.0	3.2	9.4
	2009 Q3	5.2	4.3	6.8	8.1	. .	7.3	7.0	5.9	16.1	14.4	7.3	8.4	7.9	9.2	10.4	12.0	. .	7.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	6.4	8.2	10.1	12.5	6.2	7.0	3.9	9.7
	2009 Q4	5.1	3.8	6.8	7.4	. .	7.3	6.4	6.4	16.7	15.6	8.0	9.1	7.5	10.1	10.6	11.9	. .	8.2	2.7	3.3	2.5	6.6	8.6	10.4	13.9	6.7	7.1	3.7	9.7
	2009	**5.3**	**3.9**	**6.6**	**7.9**	**. .**	**6.7**	**6.9**	**5.7**	**16.0**	**14.0**	**8.0**	**8.5**	**7.5**	**9.3**	**10.1**	**11.2**	**8.2**	**7.5**	**3.3**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**6.0**	**8.3**	**9.7**	**12.1**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**2.9**	**9.4**
	2010 Q1	5.8	3.9	7.1	8.4	3.5	8.1	7.2	7.4	17.9	20.1	9.1	9.0	7.9	11.4	11.9	12.5	. .	8.8	2.6	3.9	3.2	6.5	10.7	10.9	15.2	7.0	8.0	4.3	10.5
	2010 Q2	5.3	3.6	6.7	7.6	3.1	7.2	6.3	6.6	18.1	18.3	9.3	8.3	7.6	11.5	11.3	13.3	. .	8.0	2.7	3.7	3.3	6.5	9.6	10.9	14.4	7.0	8.0	3.8	9.9
	2010 Q3	5.0	3.8	7.0	7.7	3.7	7.2	6.1	6.6	17.9	14.0	6.9	8.4	7.9	12.2	11.0	13.3	. .	7.4	2.7	3.8	2.9	6.3	9.2	11.2	14.2	7.0	6.4	3.7	9.8
	2010 Q4	4.9	3.4		6.8	. .	. .	. .	6.9	18.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.7	6.7	. .	11.2	. .	. .	5.9	3.9	9.2
	2010	**5.3**	**3.7**	**7.0**	**7.6**	**3.4**	**7.5**	**6.5**	**6.9**	**18.1**	**17.5**	**8.4**	**8.6**	**7.8**	**11.7**	**11.4**	**13.0**	**. .**	**8.1**	**2.7**	**3.8**	**3.0**	**6.5**	**9.8**	**11.0**	**14.6**	**7.0**	**7.1**	**3.9**	**9.9**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	4.6	8.5	15.6	7.1	. .	8.1	13.4	9.3	14.1	5.0	12.7	12.4	7.1	8.3	5.2	5.8	. .	9.0	6.2	6.9	5.0	5.3	–	9.5	–	6.5	12.1	8.5	5.8
	2008 Q2	4.6	6.6	13.8	7.1	6.2	6.8	12.3	6.2	15.7	4.6	13.2	11.1	6.7	7.2	6.0	6.8	. .	8.7	5.4	6.4	4.7	4.3	–	8.6	–	5.7	12.8	8.4	5.2
	2008 Q3	4.7	7.0	15.6	7.5	. .	6.7	11.5	5.6	16.7	6.7	12.4	11.6	7.1	6.8	5.6	8.4	. .	7.3	7.2	4.3	5.7	4.4	–	9.8	–	4.5	11.5	7.5	5.7
	2008 Q4	4.6	8.1	13.3	7.1	. .	6.4	12.1	7.3	20.3	7.6	13.3	12.1	7.4	8.8	7.4	9.2	. .	8.9	7.7	5.7	5.8	5.4	–	9.9	–	4.3	12.3	8.5	6.7
	2008	**4.6**	**7.5**	**14.6**	**7.2**	**. .**	**7.0**	**12.3**	**7.1**	**16.7**	**6.0**	**12.9**	**11.8**	**7.1**	**7.8**	**6.1**	**7.5**	**5.1**	**8.5**	**6.6**	**5.8**	**5.3**	**4.8**	**–**	**9.5**	**–**	**5.3**	**12.2**	**9.3**	**5.9**
	2009 Q1	6.6	10.0	16.2	9.7	. .	8.5	13.2	9.1	27.1	8.1	14.0	13.9	7.9	12.0	9.2	14.2	. .	10.6	7.7	6.3	6.9	6.4	–	12.6	–	8.6	14.3	7.0	9.8
	2009 Q2	7.1	9.2	15.3	10.6	6.9	9.5	13.0	10.1	26.9	14.2	17.2	13.8	9.0	11.4	8.9	15.2	. .	10.7	7.3	7.2	7.1	6.9	–	12.4	–	7.5	16.7	8.1	9.1
	2009 Q3	6.8	9.5	17.4	10.8	. .	10.3	13.0	8.8	26.5	18.6	14.9	14.0	9.7	11.4	10.1	16.6	. .	10.4	5.4	6.6	5.9	6.8	–	13.9	–	8.1	15.0	9.5	10.0
	2009 Q4	6.2	9.5	16.0	9.7	. .	10.0	12.2	11.5	28.3	17.8	15.6	15.2	9.0	13.2	8.2	15.8	. .	12.3	8.1	7.3	7.3	8.3	–	13.6	–	5.5	15.5	10.0	10.0
	2009	**6.7**	**9.5**	**16.2**	**10.2**	**. .**	**9.6**	**12.8**	**9.9**	**27.2**	**14.8**	**15.4**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**12.0**	**9.1**	**15.4**	**6.8**	**11.0**	**7.1**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**7.1**	**–**	**13.1**	**–**	**7.4**	**15.4**	**6.6**	**9.7**
	2010 Q1	6.2	9.2	18.0	10.2	9.8	8.3	13.0	13.4	29.6	22.6	16.8	15.5	9.1	15.7	9.5	15.5	. .	12.6	7.3	8.7	8.6	7.7	–	14.4	–	9.7	16.2	9.5	11.4
	2010 Q2	5.7	8.6	16.9	10.2	7.4	7.5	11.6	14.8	29.1	25.5	18.7	14.0	9.2	15.7	7.6	16.2	. .	11.5	5.6	7.7	9.1	8.2	–	13.9	–	9.6	17.4	9.5	8.7
	2010 Q3	5.2	7.7	17.9	10.5	7.4	6.6	10.7	13.9	28.3	26.0	17.8	14.3	8.9	15.4	6.9	17.3	. .	9.7	5.1	7.9	8.5	6.8	–	14.6	–	8.9	15.7	8.2	9.2
	2010 Q4	5.1	7.4	. .	8.9	. .	. .	. .	12.2	29.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.0	7.0	–	16.9	–	. .	15.7	9.2	9.9
	2010	**5.6**	**8.2**	**17.6**	**10.0**	**8.2**	**7.4**	**11.8**	**13.6**	**29.1**	**24.7**	**17.7**	**14.6**	**9.1**	**15.6**	**8.0**	**16.3**	**. .**	**11.2**	**6.0**	**8.1**	**8.5**	**7.4**	**–**	**15.0**	**–**	**9.4**	**16.3**	**9.2**	**9.8**

Table I.B1.2. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	4.2	3.3	5.3	7.2	. .	3.7	7.4	2.7	7.0	3.9	6.3	6.4	5.4	5.7	7.8	5.3	. .	5.8	2.3	2.4	2.5	3.9	7.7	6.8	9.2	4.7	5.1	3.1	5.9
	2008 Q2	4.1	2.6	4.9	6.6	2.1	3.5	6.9	2.3	7.9	4.7	6.9	5.8	5.6	4.8	7.5	6.2	. .	5.4	3.9	2.1	2.7	4.0	6.6	6.6	9.1	3.4	5.8	3.3	5.7
	2008 Q3	3.6	2.9	5.7	5.9	. .	3.3	6.0	2.6	9.0	7.1	4.8	6.2	6.6	4.8	7.5	7.5	. .	5.0	2.4	2.0	2.3	4.6	5.8	6.8	7.7	4.0	4.5	3.0	6.5
	2008 Q4	4.2	2.8	5.1	6.7	. .	3.4	6.1	3.3	11.3	8.3	5.7	6.8	6.9	5.3	8.1	9.1	. .	6.1	1.3	2.0	2.2	4.4	6.1	7.1	7.7	4.0	5.1	3.2	7.5
	2008	**4.0**	**2.9**	**5.3**	**6.6**	**. .**	**3.5**	**6.6**	**2.7**	**8.8**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**6.3**	**6.1**	**5.2**	**7.7**	**7.0**	**6.2**	**5.6**	**2.5**	**2.1**	**2.4**	**4.3**	**6.5**	**6.8**	**8.4**	**4.0**	**5.1**	**3.4**	**6.4**
	2009 Q1	5.8	3.8	6.3	10.1	. .	5.0	7.5	5.7	14.3	15.1	8.3	8.0	8.0	6.5	10.1	12.3	. .	6.7	4.3	2.7	3.0	5.5	7.8	8.3	9.7	5.2	7.1	2.9	10.6
	2009 Q2	5.8	3.8	6.3	9.6	3.0	5.5	7.2	6.2	15.0	17.9	10.3	7.8	8.8	6.0	10.0	14.7	. .	6.2	2.6	2.7	3.4	5.4	7.6	8.9	10.5	5.4	8.2	3.3	10.8
	2009 Q3	5.5	4.2	6.2	8.6	. .	6.4	7.3	6.5	15.3	16.7	7.5	8.0	9.1	6.3	10.6	15.1	. .	6.2	2.7	2.9	3.1	6.5	7.7	9.2	11.9	6.4	7.3	2.6	10.4
	2009 Q4	5.4	3.9	6.7	8.8	. .	6.5	6.7	7.1	15.9	19.6	8.7	9.0	8.7	7.3	10.8	15.3	. .	7.2	2.7	3.3	2.9	6.7	8.3	9.8	13.5	6.6	7.5	2.9	11.0
	2009	**5.6**	**3.9**	**6.4**	**9.3**	**. .**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**6.4**	**15.1**	**17.3**	**8.7**	**8.2**	**8.7**	**6.5**	**10.4**	**14.4**	**8.1**	**6.6**	**3.0**	**2.9**	**3.1**	**6.0**	**7.9**	**9.0**	**11.4**	**5.9**	**7.5**	**2.8**	**10.7**
	2010 Q1	6.0	4.2	6.7	10.3	3.1	7.6	7.8	9.1	17.3	25.9	10.4	9.1	9.3	8.5	12.7	16.2	. .	7.9	2.8	3.9	3.7	6.1	10.6	10.2	15.1	7.2	8.5	3.9	12.4
	2010 Q2	5.4	3.7	6.6	8.8	3.2	6.3	6.7	7.9	17.2	22.7	10.0	8.2	8.6	8.7	11.9	16.7	. .	7.4	2.7	3.7	4.0	6.4	9.4	10.2	14.2	7.4	8.4	3.8	11.0
	2010 Q3	4.9	3.9	6.8	7.7	2.9	6.1	6.4	6.7	17.1	14.7	7.2	8.1	8.6	9.2	11.1	16.5	. .	6.7	1.9	3.8	3.1	5.6	8.7	10.0	14.0	7.2	6.6	3.8	10.3
	2010Q4	4.8	3.3	. .	7.5	. .	. .	. .	7.2	17.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.1	6.5	. .	10.3	. .	. .	6.1	4.2	10.1
	2010	**5.3**	**3.8**	**6.7**	**8.6**	**3.0**	**6.7**	**7.0**	**7.7**	**17.3**	**21.1**	**9.2**	**8.4**	**8.8**	**8.8**	**11.9**	**16.5**	**. .**	**7.3**	**2.4**	**3.8**	**3.5**	**6.2**	**9.6**	**10.2**	**14.4**	**7.3**	**7.4**	**2.8**	**10.9**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	4.1	8.8	15.9	6.8	. .	5.7	13.7	7.8	12.5	–	13.1	12.5	6.7	5.0	4.3	6.3	. .	6.1	2.6	6.2	4.7	4.4	–	6.9	–	6.3	11.7	8.4	5.9
	2008 Q2	4.1	6.1	13.7	7.1	5.0	4.0	12.0	4.5	14.8	–	14.4	11.0	6.6	4.3	7.7	7.1	. .	6.0	4.7	5.9	5.6	3.7	–	7.5	–	5.0	11.9	9.9	4.8
	2008 Q3	4.4	6.5	16.8	7.0	. .	3.4	11.2	5.4	17.2	–	9.5	10.6	6.8	4.3	5.6	8.9	. .	5.0	8.0	3.8	6.1	3.9	–	7.7	–	3.6	10.6	8.4	5.3
	2008 Q4	4.1	7.9	11.2	6.7	. .	5.0	12.2	7.9	20.8	–	12.5	11.4	7.0	6.3	7.4	10.6	. .	6.6	10.4	5.5	7.4	4.8	–	8.9	–	4.1	11.9	7.7	6.9
	2008	**4.2**	**7.3**	**14.3**	**6.9**	**. .**	**4.5**	**12.3**	**6.4**	**16.4**	**–**	**12.4**	**11.4**	**6.8**	**5.0**	**6.3**	**8.2**	**5.1**	**5.9**	**6.4**	**5.3**	**6.0**	**4.2**	**–**	**7.8**	**–**	**4.7**	**11.5**	**8.8**	**5.7**
	2009 Q1	6.3	11.6	15.9	10.4	. .	7.8	13.6	8.8	29.1	–	12.1	13.7	7.8	10.3	7.4	16.2	. .	8.9	6.0	6.3	9.9	6.6	–	11.6	–	10.1	14.7	7.3	10.4
	2009 Q2	7.3	10.6	15.4	11.3	6.2	9.6	14.3	10.2	29.5	13.1	19.9	14.1	8.9	9.8	8.0	18.2	. .	8.9	6.2	7.5	7.3	6.9	–	12.6	–	8.9	18.0	8.8	9.3
	2009 Q3	6.6	10.1	17.0	11.1	. .	8.2	13.2	9.9	29.3	23.0	15.7	13.5	10.0	9.8	10.6	19.2	. .	9.4	4.9	7.1	7.8	7.2	–	14.9	–	6.3	16.2	6.1	10.2
	2009 Q4	5.9	10.5	17.0	10.0	. .	8.2	13.3	11.2	31.4	26.5	16.1	15.4	8.9	11.5	8.6	19.3	. .	10.4	6.4	8.0	8.8	8.0	–	13.8	–	5.1	16.0	6.5	10.6
	2009	**6.5**	**10.7**	**16.3**	**10.7**	**. .**	**8.5**	**13.6**	**10.0**	**29.8**	**–**	**16.1**	**14.2**	**8.9**	**10.4**	**8.6**	**18.2**	**6.9**	**9.4**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**8.5**	**7.2**	**–**	**13.2**	**–**	**7.5**	**16.2**	**7.7**	**10.1**
	2010 Q1	5.7	10.6	18.6	10.7	7.4	7.1	14.3	14.9	32.5	26.5	17.3	14.7	9.4	14.2	9.1	19.1	. .	11.2	6.5	9.4	9.5	7.1	–	12.9	–	10.6	16.3	10.7	12.1
	2010 Q2	5.2	9.2	17.1	10.5	9.8	5.4	12.1	17.8	31.4	26.2	19.7	13.2	9.4	15.2	8.2	18.5	. .	10.0	5.7	8.1	10.3	8.5	–	10.9	–	9.7	16.8	11.6	8.8
	2010 Q3	5.0	8.4	16.9	10.1	6.3	4.6	11.4	15.0	29.8	26.8	19.8	13.0	8.7	14.9	6.8	20.0	. .	8.0	3.8	8.0	9.7	6.5	–	12.0	–	7.5	15.3	10.6	9.0
	2010 Q4	4.5	7.1	. .	8.7	. .	. .	. .	12.4	30.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.6	6.7	–	14.9	–	. .	15.1	10.1	10.0
	2010	**5.1**	**8.8**	**17.5**	**10.0**	**6.2**	**5.7**	**12.6**	**15.1**	**31.1**	**26.5**	**18.9**	**13.6**	**9.2**	**14.7**	**8.0**	**19.2**	**. .**	**9.7**	**5.3**	**8.5**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**–**	**12.7**	**–**	**9.3**	**15.9**	**7.9**	**10.0**

Table I.B1.2. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	4.9	3.5	6.5	5.0	. .	5.9	7.2	3.2	11.1	4.3	6.7	7.2	4.3	12.3	8.4	3.3	. .	8.6	3.1	2.7	2.0	4.3	8.8	9.2	12.2	5.4	5.6	4.6	4.7
	2008 Q2	4.4	3.1	5.7	5.0	2.7	5.1	7.1	3.3	11.3	3.4	7.4	7.0	4.4	11.0	8.0	3.4	. .	8.3	5.9	2.7	2.4	3.5	7.8	8.8	11.3	4.8	6.2	3.7	5.2
	2008 Q3	4.2	3.5	7.6	6.0	. .	5.5	6.8	3.9	11.9	5.4	5.9	7.2	5.3	10.9	8.1	5.2	. .	7.6	6.2	2.3	2.1	3.7	7.9	9.4	10.5	4.3	5.0	3.5	6.1
	2008 Q4	4.2	3.7	6.6	4.9	. .	5.7	6.1	3.2	14.1	7.4	5.9	8.0	5.1	11.7	8.0	4.8	. .	8.2	6.2	2.4	2.2	4.1	7.7	9.3	10.0	4.7	5.3	3.5	5.9
	2008	**4.4**	**3.5**	**6.6**	**5.3**	**. .**	**5.6**	**6.8**	**3.4**	**12.1**	**5.2**	**6.5**	**7.4**	**4.8**	**11.5**	**8.1**	**4.2**	**7.3**	**8.2**	**5.4**	**2.5**	**2.2**	**3.9**	**8.0**	**9.1**	**11.0**	**4.8**	**5.5**	**4.1**	**5.5**
	2009 Q1	5.6	3.6	7.1	5.9	. .	6.8	6.7	4.1	16.4	9.5	6.6	8.5	5.8	12.9	9.4	5.7	. .	9.2	3.3	2.7	2.3	5.6	9.0	9.9	11.4	5.0	6.6	3.5	7.1
	2009 Q2	5.0	4.0	6.3	6.2	3.4	7.4	6.5	5.0	17.1	9.1	8.4	8.4	6.1	12.5	9.2	7.3	. .	8.3	3.9	2.8	2.5	6.0	8.4	9.8	12.3	5.6	7.8	3.7	8.0
	2009 Q3	4.7	4.5	7.5	7.5	. .	8.5	6.6	5.2	17.0	12.0	7.2	8.8	6.4	13.1	10.1	8.1	. .	8.2	4.5	3.1	2.8	6.2	8.7	11.1	13.3	5.9	6.6	3.9	9.0
	2009 Q4	4.7	3.7	7.0	5.9	. .	8.2	6.1	5.5	17.8	11.5	7.2	9.3	6.2	14.0	10.3	7.6	. .	9.6	2.8	3.3	2.0	6.4	8.9	11.1	14.4	6.7	6.6	3.6	8.3
	2009	**5.0**	**3.9**	**7.0**	**6.4**	**. .**	**7.7**	**6.5**	**5.0**	**17.1**	**10.5**	**7.4**	**8.8**	**6.1**	**13.2**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**8.2**	**8.8**	**3.6**	**3.0**	**2.4**	**6.1**	**8.7**	**10.5**	**12.9**	**5.8**	**6.9**	**3.1**	**8.1**
	2010 Q1	5.6	3.5	7.6	6.3	3.7	8.9	6.6	5.5	18.8	14.3	7.7	9.0	6.4	15.3	11.1	8.0	. .	10.1	2.3	3.9	2.6	6.9	10.7	11.6	15.4	6.8	7.5	4.5	8.3
	2010 Q2	5.1	3.5	6.9	6.3	3.4	8.3	5.8	5.2	19.3	13.8	8.5	8.4	6.4	15.3	10.6	9.0	. .	8.9	2.8	3.7	2.6	6.6	9.9	11.6	14.7	6.5	7.7	3.7	8.8
	2010 Q3	5.2	3.6	7.3	7.6	4.1	8.6	5.7	6.5	19.0	13.4	6.7	8.8	7.1	16.2	10.9	9.3	. .	8.3	3.8	3.8	2.8	7.0	9.8	12.5	14.3	6.9	6.2	3.6	9.3
	2010Q4	5.0	3.6	. .	6.0	. .	. .	. .	6.7	19.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.2	6.9	. .	12.2	. .	. .	5.6	3.5	8.3
	2010	**5.2**	**3.6**	**7.3**	**6.6**	**3.7**	**8.6**	**6.0**	**6.0**	**19.1**	**13.8**	**7.6**	**8.7**	**6.6**	**15.6**	**10.9**	**8.8**	**. .**	**9.1**	**3.0**	**3.8**	**2.5**	**6.8**	**10.1**	**12.0**	**14.8**	**6.7**	**6.8**	**4.0**	**8.7**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	5.3	8.1	15.2	7.4	. .	11.4	13.1	11.0	16.0	–	12.2	12.3	7.6	13.7	6.2	5.1	. .	13.1	10.7	7.8	5.3	6.3	–	12.4	–	6.8	12.5	14.9	5.6
	2008 Q2	5.2	7.3	13.9	7.2	7.7	10.6	12.7	8.1	16.7	–	11.8	11.2	6.8	11.9	4.4	6.5	. .	12.2	6.3	6.9	3.7	5.0	–	9.9	–	6.7	13.7	15.2	5.8
	2008 Q3	5.2	7.5	14.1	8.1	. .	11.0	12.0	5.8	16.0	–	15.8	12.9	7.6	10.9	5.5	7.7	. .	10.3	6.1	5.0	5.3	5.0	–	11.9	–	5.9	12.4	13.9	6.3
	2008 Q4	5.2	8.3	16.6	7.5	. .	8.1	12.0	6.6	19.7	–	14.3	13.0	7.9	12.7	7.3	7.3	. .	11.9	4.1	5.9	4.0	6.0	–	10.8	–	4.6	12.8	14.1	6.5
	2008	**5.2**	**7.8**	**14.9**	**7.6**	**. .**	**10.2**	**12.4**	**7.8**	**17.2**	**–**	**13.5**	**12.4**	**7.5**	**12.3**	**5.9**	**6.6**	**5.1**	**11.8**	**6.8**	**6.4**	**4.6**	**5.6**	**–**	**11.2**	**–**	**6.0**	**12.9**	**17.4**	**6.0**
	2009 Q1	6.9	8.1	16.6	8.8	. .	9.3	12.6	9.4	24.8	–	16.1	14.2	8.1	14.8	10.9	11.4	. .	12.8	9.8	6.3	3.5	6.1	–	13.5	–	6.8	13.9	16.1	8.9
	2009 Q2	6.8	7.4	15.3	9.9	7.8	9.3	11.2	10.1	23.8	15.4	13.6	13.5	9.2	13.7	9.6	11.2	. .	12.9	8.8	6.8	6.8	6.8	–	12.2	–	5.8	15.3	16.6	9.0
	2009 Q3	7.1	8.8	17.9	10.5	. .	13.0	12.7	7.7	23.2	15.0	14.1	14.6	9.4	13.8	9.7	13.1	. .	11.7	6.2	6.1	3.6	6.3	–	12.8	–	10.1	13.7	15.3	9.7
	2009 Q4	6.7	8.3	14.7	9.3	. .	12.4	10.9	11.8	24.7	11.0	15.2	15.0	9.0	15.6	7.9	11.2	. .	14.6	10.1	6.5	5.5	8.7	–	13.4	–	6.1	15.0	17.9	9.3
	2009	**6.9**	**8.2**	**16.1**	**9.6**	**. .**	**11.0**	**11.8**	**9.7**	**24.1**	**12.3**	**14.7**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**14.5**	**9.6**	**11.7**	**6.7**	**13.0**	**8.8**	**6.4**	**4.9**	**7.0**	**–**	**13.0**	**–**	**7.2**	**14.5**	**16.6**	**9.2**
	2010 Q1	6.9	7.6	17.3	9.6	9.8	9.9	11.3	11.8	26.2	19.4	16.2	16.6	8.7	17.9	9.7	10.8	. .	14.3	8.3	7.9	7.5	8.4	–	15.8	–	8.5	16.2	17.7	10.3
	2010 Q2	6.3	8.0	16.5	9.8	8.8	10.5	10.9	11.8	26.4	25.0	17.4	15.0	9.0	16.6	7.1	13.2	. .	13.4	5.5	7.4	7.5	7.7	–	16.8	–	9.5	18.1	17.3	8.6
	2010 Q3	5.5	7.0	19.2	11.0	8.7	9.4	10.0	13.0	26.6	25.3	15.4	16.0	9.1	16.2	7.0	13.7	. .	11.9	6.6	7.8	7.1	7.3	–	17.1	–	10.5	16.1	16.5	9.4
	2010 Q4	5.9	7.7	. .	9.2	. .	. .	. .	12.0	27.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.0	7.4	–	19.0	–	. .	16.4	19.2	9.8
	2010	**6.1**	**7.6**	**17.7**	**9.9**	**9.1**	**9.9**	**10.7**	**12.1**	**26.7**	**23.3**	**16.3**	**15.8**	**9.0**	**16.9**	**7.9**	**12.6**	**. .**	**13.2**	**6.8**	**7.7**	**7.0**	**7.7**	**–**	**17.2**	**–**	**9.5**	**16.7**	**14.7**	**9.5**

Notes: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys; Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442009

Table I.B1.3. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10**

Men + Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	78.3	75.2	68.1	78.0	. .	69.4	77.3	80.8	70.7	71.6	74.5	70.0	75.9	66.4	60.9	70.7	. .	62.1	67.1	60.2	79.9	79.2	63.3	73.5	68.5	70.6	79.7	76.7	73.3
	2008 Q2	78.5	75.7	66.7	79.8	83.0	69.5	77.4	81.7	71.2	71.8	78.1	70.2	76.1	66.6	61.0	70.8	. .	62.8	67.4	61.8	80.9	79.4	63.5	73.7	68.5	71.3	81.6	75.1	74.0
	2008 Q3	78.1	76.8	68.5	80.3	. .	69.7	77.8	82.3	71.5	74.5	76.4	70.8	76.7	66.5	62.0	72.3	. .	61.9	68.7	62.9	80.8	79.3	64.4	73.5	69.3	73.3	81.5	76.0	74.3
	2008 Q4	78.1	76.1	67.6	78.7	. .	69.9	77.8	82.0	71.6	74.7	74.9	70.7	76.6	66.4	61.5	70.2	. .	62.0	69.1	61.8	79.7	80.4	64.4	73.2	68.9	71.8	79.4	75.2	73.6
	2008	**78.3**	**76.0**	**67.7**	**79.2**	**. .**	**69.6**	**77.6**	**81.7**	**71.2**	**73.1**	**76.0**	**70.4**	**76.3**	**66.5**	**61.3**	**71.0**	**71.5**	**62.2**	**68.1**	**61.7**	**80.3**	**79.6**	**63.9**	**73.5**	**68.8**	**71.7**	**80.6**	**75.5**	**73.8**
	2009 Q1	78.3	75.2	67.6	77.7	. .	69.6	77.5	81.1	71.6	73.2	74.2	70.7	76.3	66.6	60.8	69.2	. .	61.6	69.2	62.6	79.5	79.4	64.3	73.3	68.1	70.5	79.3	76.8	73.0
	2009 Q2	78.3	76.1	67.4	79.3	82.9	69.8	77.7	81.9	71.7	72.8	77.2	71.2	76.0	66.9	61.3	70.1	. .	61.7	69.6	65.4	80.2	78.9	64.4	73.1	68.1	71.7	81.4	76.1	73.4
	2009 Q3	77.8	77.2	67.7	79.6	. .	70.4	77.9	81.6	71.6	74.0	75.0	71.3	76.5	67.2	61.7	70.3	. .	61.2	70.1	65.2	79.2	78.6	65.3	72.8	68.8	73.1	80.5	76.1	73.4
	2009 Q4	78.0	75.8	68.1	77.7	. .	70.4	78.2	80.3	71.5	72.5	73.4	70.9	76.1	66.9	61.8	68.7	. .	61.5	69.6	62.7	78.3	79.9	65.0	73.1	68.7	72.3	78.9	75.2	72.1
	2009	**78.1**	**76.1**	**67.7**	**78.6**	**. .**	**70.0**	**77.9**	**81.2**	**71.6**	**73.1**	**74.9**	**71.0**	**76.2**	**66.9**	**61.4**	**69.6**	**71.6**	**61.5**	**69.6**	**64.0**	**79.3**	**79.2**	**64.7**	**73.1**	**68.4**	**71.9**	**80.0**	**75.7**	**73.0**
	2010 Q1	77.9	74.8	68.5	77.1	83.2	69.8	77.4	80.0	71.6	73.8	73.4	71.0	75.6	67.2	61.7	68.3	. .	61.5	69.2	62.1	78.1	79.2	65.2	73.5	68.4	71.3	79.5	77.2	72.2
	2010 Q2	78.0	75.4	67.6	79.0	82.5	69.9	77.2	80.7	72.0	73.3	76.6	70.9	75.7	67.4	62.2	69.7	. .	61.5	69.3	62.0	79.1	78.6	65.6	73.3	68.5	71.4	82.0	75.8	72.5
	2010 Q3	77.9	76.6	68.4	79.6	83.3	70.4	77.4	80.3	72.0	72.8	74.9	71.3	76.5	67.3	62.7	69.7	. .	60.4	71.2	63.7	78.5	78.8	66.1	73.3	69.0	71.6	81.8	75.7	72.7
	2010 Q4	78.3	76.0		77.9	. .	. .	. .	79.8	72.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	71.5	. .	78.1	79.3	. .	73.1	. .	. .	80.0	74.8	71.8
	2010	**78.0**	**75.7**	**68.2**	**78.4**	**83.0**	**70.0**	**77.3**	**80.2**	**71.9**	**73.3**	**75.0**	**71.1**	**75.9**	**67.3**	**62.2**	**69.2**	**. .**	**61.1**	**70.3**	**62.6**	**78.5**	**79.0**	**65.6**	**73.3**	**68.6**	**71.4**	**80.8**	**76.1**	**72.3**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	72.0	69.1	62.6	75.7	. .	71.0	71.4	67.6	79.2	78.5	76.5	67.7	73.1	72.6	67.3	76.8	. .	70.0	70.9	73.0	76.3	72.1	43.9	80.7	74.1	73.0	71.3	72.5	74.8
	2008 Q2	71.9	71.3	63.3	76.5	80.4	71.6	71.0	72.8	79.4	79.1	76.9	68.0	72.4	73.0	68.4	76.5	. .	70.4	75.3	76.0	76.8	73.3	48.4	81.7	72.5	71.0	73.7	70.8	75.2
	2008 Q3	71.9	70.3	63.8	76.6	. .	71.2	72.1	72.6	79.2	79.4	75.8	67.8	72.6	73.4	69.0	76.4	. .	71.9	81.1	74.3	78.1	73.8	47.7	82.1	74.6	70.8	73.8	70.4	75.8
	2008 Q4	72.4	71.0	63.2	76.1	. .	71.7	71.4	72.5	79.8	81.4	71.5	67.4	72.7	73.8	70.6	74.8	. .	71.9	75.9	72.1	77.7	75.1	41.9	82.2	71.5	74.2	72.8	69.1	74.9
	2008	**72.1**	**70.4**	**63.2**	**76.2**	**. .**	**71.4**	**71.5**	**71.3**	**79.4**	**79.6**	**75.1**	**67.7**	**72.7**	**73.2**	**68.9**	**76.2**	**75.6**	**71.1**	**75.9**	**73.8**	**77.3**	**73.6**	**45.8**	**81.7**	**73.1**	**72.2**	**72.9**	**72.0**	**75.2**
	2009 Q1	72.6	70.4	63.7	75.6	. .	72.4	72.6	74.5	80.5	79.7	75.3	67.9	72.7	73.9	71.4	73.3	. .	70.3	72.2	75.4	75.7	74.1	51.3	81.3	70.9	70.8	72.6	70.3	74.6
	2009 Q2	72.1	71.3	60.8	76.5	81.4	73.9	72.9	74.6	79.8	80.9	77.9	67.6	72.0	74.8	72.4	74.2	. .	71.1	79.1	74.0	76.4	74.6	51.0	81.3	71.2	71.5	74.3	71.0	75.2
	2009 Q3	71.7	72.0	62.3	76.8	. .	72.6	73.2	78.8	79.2	78.6	75.3	67.1	73.1	75.7	72.6	73.7	. .	69.9	74.4	73.4	74.9	72.9	48.9	80.1	68.5	71.8	73.9	71.5	75.4
	2009 Q4	72.1	72.3	62.6	76.1	. .	72.0	72.9	74.1	79.2	79.3	73.2	67.1	72.0	75.6	71.7	72.0	. .	71.0	73.3	75.7	74.4	74.1	55.6	78.7	67.7	71.4	72.8	70.4	74.9
	2009	**72.1**	**71.5**	**62.3**	**76.3**	**. .**	**72.7**	**72.9**	**75.5**	**79.7**	**79.6**	**75.4**	**67.4**	**72.4**	**75.0**	**72.0**	**73.3**	**76.8**	**70.6**	**74.7**	**74.6**	**75.3**	**73.9**	**51.6**	**80.4**	**69.7**	**71.3**	**73.4**	**71.3**	**75.0**
	2010 Q1	72.4	71.0	63.2	75.6	80.1	71.4	72.1	74.0	80.2	74.7	74.0	67.3	71.5	76.3	71.1	70.6	. .	70.3	76.6	75.6	75.8	73.7	54.8	80.4	64.1	74.0	72.3	72.0	74.6
	2010 Q2	71.8	71.8	63.2	76.9	81.4	73.0	72.6	74.6	80.1	76.0	76.1	67.9	72.7	76.4	71.6	72.1	. .	70.7	77.0	73.9	76.0	73.8	56.7	80.8	63.4	74.2	73.7	72.3	75.4
	2010 Q3	72.3	73.1	64.9	77.4	81.9	74.7	73.2	74.2	80.6	79.5	72.3	67.8	73.7	76.8	72.1	71.9	. .	69.2	78.2	74.9	75.0	73.0	59.5	81.2	61.9	69.3	74.2	72.3	75.1
	2010 Q4	73.7	73.1	. .	75.6	. .	. .	. .	70.9	79.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .		76.3	. .	74.5	74.6	. .	82.8	. .	. .	72.8	71.0	74.8
	2010	**72.6**	**72.3**	**63.8**	**76.4**	**81.1**	**73.0**	**72.6**	**73.4**	**80.1**	**76.7**	**74.2**	**67.7**	**72.6**	**76.5**	**71.6**	**71.5**	**. .**	**70.1**	**77.0**	**74.8**	**75.3**	**73.8**	**56.8**	**81.3**	**63.1**	**72.5**	**73.3**	**71.3**	**75.0**

Table I.B1.3. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	84.2	80.9	73.4	81.1	. .	77.7	82.1	83.9	80.4	76.0	76.0	74.0	81.8	78.2	67.5	79.5	. .	73.1	67.9	85.6	82.3	84.9	70.4	79.0	75.9	74.5	81.3	81.6	77.9
	2008 Q2	84.2	81.4	72.3	83.1	88.0	77.9	82.1	85.0	80.8	75.8	80.3	74.2	81.9	78.1	68.1	79.5	. .	74.0	71.3	86.1	83.6	85.2	70.7	78.9	76.1	75.2	83.2	80.3	78.8
	2008 Q3	83.9	82.5	73.7	83.9	. .	78.2	82.6	85.7	81.1	78.3	78.5	74.9	82.8	78.0	68.9	80.7	. .	73.2	71.5	86.0	83.5	84.8	71.4	78.6	76.7	77.6	83.0	81.9	79.1
	2008 Q4	84.1	81.3	72.9	81.8	. .	78.4	82.2	85.2	80.4	78.9	76.6	74.7	82.5	77.7	67.9	78.5	. .	73.1	69.2	86.1	82.1	86.0	71.4	78.7	76.6	75.1	81.0	83.0	78.0
	2008	**84.1**	**81.5**	**73.1**	**82.5**	**. .**	**78.1**	**82.3**	**84.9**	**80.7**	**77.3**	**77.8**	**74.4**	**82.3**	**78.0**	**68.1**	**79.6**	**78.0**	**73.4**	**70.0**	**86.0**	**82.9**	**85.2**	**71.0**	**78.8**	**76.3**	**75.6**	**82.1**	**81.3**	**78.4**
	2009 Q1	83.9	79.6	72.9	80.5	. .	78.0	82.2	84.3	80.1	76.5	75.5	74.7	82.1	77.6	67.3	76.9	. .	72.5	70.3	86.1	81.5	84.7	71.3	78.2	76.0	73.6	80.8	81.5	77.5
	2009 Q2	83.5	80.8	72.3	82.4	87.1	78.2	82.0	84.7	80.0	76.5	78.7	75.1	81.8	77.7	68.1	77.8	. .	72.6	73.0	86.2	82.6	84.6	71.5	78.2	76.0	75.5	82.8	80.9	77.9
	2009 Q3	83.2	82.1	72.4	82.9	. .	78.7	82.6	84.6	79.7	78.5	76.3	75.1	82.1	78.0	68.3	77.7	. .	72.4	72.0	86.0	81.2	83.6	72.5	77.3	76.6	76.9	82.3	81.4	77.9
	2009 Q4	83.5	81.3	73.4	80.4	. .	78.7	82.5	83.2	79.2	75.6	74.4	74.9	81.6	77.6	68.2	75.8	. .	72.5	70.3	85.6	80.1	85.4	71.9	77.6	76.4	76.1	80.9	82.5	76.4
	2009	**83.5**	**80.9**	**72.8**	**81.6**	**. .**	**78.4**	**82.3**	**84.2**	**79.8**	**76.8**	**76.2**	**75.0**	**81.9**	**77.7**	**67.9**	**77.0**	**77.6**	**72.5**	**71.4**	**86.0**	**81.3**	**84.6**	**71.8**	**77.8**	**76.2**	**75.5**	**81.7**	**81.4**	**77.4**
	2010 Q1	83.6	79.4	73.2	79.6	88.0	78.1	82.1	82.9	79.1	76.5	75.0	74.9	81.1	77.7	67.6	75.5	. .	72.5	69.5	85.3	80.1	84.4	71.9	77.9	75.7	75.2	81.3	80.9	76.5
	2010 Q2	83.5	81.0	73.1	82.0	87.9	78.3	82.1	83.2	79.7	75.9	78.2	74.6	81.3	77.6	68.3	77.0	. .	72.3	69.5	85.5	81.4	83.8	72.2	77.5	76.0	74.5	84.0	79.6	77.0
	2010 Q3	83.4	82.0	73.6	82.8	87.6	78.9	82.3	83.0	79.5	76.3	76.9	75.0	82.2	77.4	68.7	77.1	. .	71.2	71.9	84.7	80.7	84.1	72.9	77.5	76.2	75.7	83.7	80.8	77.1
	2010Q4	83.9	81.4	. .	80.6	. .	. .	. .	83.1	79.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	80.3	84.7	. .	77.5	. .	. .	81.9	82.1	75.8
	2010	**83.6**	**80.9**	**73.3**	**81.3**	**87.1**	**78.4**	**82.1**	**83.1**	**79.4**	**76.3**	**76.7**	**74.8**	**81.6**	**77.6**	**68.2**	**76.5**	**. .**	**72.0**	**70.3**	**85.2**	**80.6**	**84.3**	**72.4**	**77.6**	**75.9**	**75.1**	**82.7**	**81.3**	**76.6**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	80.9	77.8	75.0	82.8	. .	82.1	82.0	75.9	87.5	86.5	82.1	77.4	83.8	88.7	77.1	85.9	. .	85.4	79.0	80.1	80.0	82.0	49.7	86.1	79.6	79.6	77.0	81.9	86.4
	2008 Q2	80.3	82.2	75.7	83.9	88.0	82.9	81.3	80.2	87.6	86.6	85.3	77.4	83.3	89.6	77.9	85.6	. .	84.6	82.5	81.1	82.6	81.9	54.7	87.7	77.9	76.6	79.6	80.1	86.9
	2008 Q3	79.9	81.2	74.7	84.2	. .	80.1	82.0	81.9	87.3	84.3	80.8	77.6	82.7	89.9	77.0	86.0	. .	87.2	82.9	80.6	82.1	81.3	55.4	87.7	80.3	75.7	80.4	83.4	88.2
	2008 Q4	80.1	81.9	75.4	83.5	. .	79.9	81.4	82.5	87.1	82.7	77.0	77.3	83.6	89.7	78.9	85.1	. .	86.5	80.1	81.3	81.3	83.2	48.9	87.4	80.2	79.1	79.3	82.7	86.5
	2008	**80.3**	**80.8**	**75.2**	**83.6**	**. .**	**81.2**	**81.7**	**80.1**	**87.4**	**85.1**	**81.3**	**77.4**	**83.4**	**89.5**	**77.8**	**85.6**	**80.2**	**86.0**	**81.1**	**80.8**	**81.5**	**82.1**	**52.6**	**87.3**	**79.5**	**77.7**	**79.1**	**81.1**	**87.0**
	2009 Q1	80.6	79.2	73.8	82.4	. .	80.2	82.8	80.4	88.2	82.5	78.1	76.7	83.4	89.6	81.6	83.0	. .	85.4	81.3	81.2	80.5	82.6	58.8	86.1	80.8	75.5	78.3	80.8	85.6
	2009 Q2	80.6	81.0	72.4	83.0	89.6	82.1	82.9	78.0	87.6	86.1	84.7	76.1	81.8	89.7	82.3	84.0	. .	85.5	84.2	80.5	81.2	82.5	61.7	86.7	80.8	78.4	80.8	77.8	86.8
	2009 Q3	80.1	82.5	74.3	83.2	. .	81.4	83.3	85.2	85.9	82.2	81.2	76.2	83.6	90.2	79.6	82.5	. .	85.6	82.9	80.6	80.3	80.6	58.1	86.4	83.3	76.1	80.5	82.2	86.6
	2009 Q4	80.3	82.0	72.8	82.3	. .	82.1	82.9	83.3	86.5	83.1	78.3	76.4	80.9	89.6	79.9	81.5	. .	84.8	83.5	80.1	81.2	81.9	68.2	85.5	85.3	76.6	78.7	81.2	85.7
	2009	**80.4**	**81.2**	**73.3**	**82.7**	**. .**	**81.5**	**83.0**	**81.8**	**87.0**	**83.6**	**80.6**	**76.3**	**82.4**	**89.8**	**80.9**	**82.8**	**80.7**	**85.3**	**83.0**	**80.6**	**80.8**	**81.9**	**61.4**	**86.2**	**82.3**	**76.6**	**79.6**	**81.4**	**86.2**
	2010 Q1	81.4	79.1	72.1	81.3	89.4	81.9	83.0	84.7	86.7	75.2	80.2	76.1	80.5	90.4	76.4	80.1	. .	83.9	83.7	78.8	80.6	81.7	68.4	84.4	82.8	79.7	78.7	81.2	85.5
	2010 Q2	80.4	80.7	74.3	83.0	88.4	83.4	82.8	80.3	87.4	78.1	85.4	77.2	81.9	90.3	73.9	81.3	. .	84.9	82.1	78.5	81.8	82.1	67.8	84.2	82.7	78.0	80.3	79.2	86.5
	2010 Q3	80.8	81.8	74.8	84.2	89.6	85.3	83.7	76.9	87.7	81.6	81.1	77.4	83.3	90.9	74.1	81.4	. .	84.9	82.9	78.8	80.1	80.7	62.5	85.0	79.9	75.6	80.6	81.0	86.5
	2010 Q4	81.9	80.8	. .	82.5	. .	. .	. .	77.2	86.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	80.0	82.1	. .	86.6	. .	. .	80.1	82.5	85.3
	2010	**81.1**	**80.6**	**73.7**	**82.8**	**89.6**	**83.5**	**83.1**	**79.7**	**87.1**	**78.3**	**82.2**	**76.9**	**81.9**	**90.5**	**74.8**	**80.9**	**. .**	**84.5**	**82.9**	**78.7**	**80.6**	**81.6**	**66.6**	**85.1**	**81.8**	**77.8**	**79.9**	**81.9**	**86.0**

Table I.B1.3. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-10** *(cont.)*

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISR	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	2008 Q1	72.4	69.4	62.7	74.8	. .	60.9	72.4	77.6	67.5	60.6	73.0	66.2	70.1	54.6	54.5	61.9	. .	51.1	52.5	74.3	77.4	73.5	56.3	68.0	61.2	66.4	78.0	70.4	68.8
	2008 Q2	72.7	69.8	61.0	76.4	78.0	61.1	72.5	78.2	68.1	61.3	76.0	66.4	70.3	55.0	54.3	62.1	. .	51.4	52.1	74.8	78.2	73.8	56.6	68.5	61.0	67.2	80.0	68.8	69.4
	2008 Q3	72.3	71.0	63.2	76.5	. .	61.0	72.9	78.7	70.9	61.5	74.4	66.9	70.7	55.0	55.3	63.8	. .	50.5	54.3	75.1	77.9	74.0	57.6	68.3	61.9	68.8	80.0	70.3	69.7
	2008 Q4	72.2	70.9	62.3	75.5	. .	61.1	73.2	78.6	70.7	62.6	73.2	66.8	70.7	55.1	55.3	61.8	. .	50.8	54.2	75.4	77.2	75.0	57.6	67.9	61.2	68.2	77.7	69.4	69.4
	2008	**72.4**	**70.3**	**62.3**	**75.8**	**. .**	**61.0**	**72.8**	**78.3**	**69.3**	**61.5**	**74.1**	**66.6**	**70.4**	**54.9**	**54.9**	**62.4**	**64.9**	**51.0**	**53.3**	**74.9**	**77.7**	**74.1**	**57.0**	**68.2**	**61.3**	**67.7**	**78.9**	**69.0**	**69.3**
	2009 Q1	72.8	70.8	62.3	74.8	. .	60.9	72.8	77.9	70.2	62.8	72.9	66.7	70.6	55.7	54.6	61.6	. .	50.7	55.0	75.8	77.4	74.3	57.5	68.4	60.2	67.2	77.7	71.0	68.7
	2009 Q2	73.0	71.3	62.5	76.1	78.6	61.2	73.2	78.9	69.4	63.2	75.7	67.4	70.3	56.0	54.8	62.3	. .	50.6	57.5	75.6	77.7	73.4	57.6	68.0	60.2	67.8	79.9	70.9	69.2
	2009 Q3	72.3	72.3	63.0	76.2	. .	61.8	73.2	78.6	69.6	63.1	73.7	67.7	70.9	56.4	55.3	62.9	. .	49.7	58.0	75.8	77.1	73.8	58.2	68.3	61.0	69.1	78.7	71.1	69.0
	2009 Q4	72.4	70.3	62.6	74.9	. .	61.8	73.9	77.3	69.5	63.5	72.4	67.1	70.6	56.2	55.7	61.6	. .	50.4	55.1	75.8	76.5	74.7	58.2	68.7	61.1	68.3	76.7	70.8	68.0
	2009	**72.6**	**71.1**	**62.6**	**75.5**	**. .**	**61.4**	**73.3**	**78.2**	**69.7**	**63.2**	**73.7**	**67.2**	**70.6**	**56.1**	**55.1**	**62.1**	**65.5**	**50.4**	**56.4**	**75.8**	**77.2**	**74.0**	**57.9**	**68.3**	**60.6**	**68.1**	**78.2**	**69.8**	**68.7**
	2010 Q1	72.1	70.1	63.8	74.5	78.4	61.2	72.5	77.0	71.3	63.8	71.7	67.2	70.2	56.6	56.0	61.1	. .	50.3	54.4	76.1	76.0	74.3	58.6	69.2	61.1	67.2	77.5	72.3	68.0
	2010 Q2	72.3	69.8	61.9	76.0	77.2	61.3	72.3	78.1	70.8	64.1	75.0	67.2	70.0	57.0	56.3	62.4	. .	50.5	54.8	76.4	76.7	73.6	59.2	69.2	61.1	68.2	79.9	70.3	68.3
	2010 Q3	72.4	71.2	63.2	76.3	78.0	61.6	72.5	77.5	69.6	64.2	72.9	67.8	70.8	57.2	56.9	62.4	. .	49.5	55.4	74.0	76.3	73.6	59.5	69.2	61.8	67.3	79.7	70.4	68.5
	2010Q4	72.5	70.5	. .	75.1	. .	. .	. .	76.2	. .	65.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	75.8	74.0	. .	68.7	. .	. .	78.1	70.1	67.9
	2010	**72.3**	**70.4**	**63.0**	**75.5**	**77.9**	**61.4**	**72.4**	**77.2**	**70.5**	**64.3**	**73.2**	**67.4**	**70.3**	**56.9**	**56.4**	**62.0**	**. .**	**50.1**	**54.8**	**75.5**	**76.2**	**73.9**	**59.1**	**69.1**	**61.3**	**67.5**	**78.8**	**71.3**	**68.1**
Foreign-born	2008 Q1	63.2	61.6	50.9	69.0	. .	60.1	61.0	60.2	71.6	70.9	70.9	58.7	62.5	56.1	59.6	67.3	. .	56.3	66.6	62.7	72.8	63.0	36.9	75.5	67.0	66.1	66.2	51.8	62.7
	2008 Q2	63.7	61.7	52.1	69.5	73.1	60.4	61.0	65.9	72.5	71.2	68.5	59.1	61.9	56.0	61.0	66.9	. .	58.1	69.4	63.7	71.0	65.5	42.1	76.1	66.7	65.1	68.5	50.9	62.8
	2008 Q3	64.0	60.8	53.5	69.4	. .	62.4	62.4	64.6	75.1	71.2	70.8	58.8	63.1	56.5	62.9	66.4	. .	58.4	65.0	63.2	74.1	66.8	39.9	77.2	68.7	64.7	67.9	52.1	62.8
	2008 Q4	64.7	61.3	50.9	69.2	. .	63.6	61.8	63.9	80.3	72.5	65.8	58.1	62.3	57.3	64.2	64.2	. .	59.0	64.0	64.0	74.1	67.5	36.4	77.6	63.0	68.6	67.0	53.5	62.6
	2008	**63.9**	**61.4**	**51.8**	**69.3**	**. .**	**61.7**	**61.6**	**63.6**	**74.8**	**71.5**	**69.0**	**58.7**	**62.5**	**56.5**	**62.0**	**66.2**	**71.8**	**58.0**	**66.3**	**63.4**	**73.0**	**65.7**	**39.1**	**76.6**	**66.2**	**66.1**	**67.4**	**52.2**	**62.7**
	2009 Q1	64.6	62.3	53.6	69.3	. .	64.5	62.8	69.0	77.4	73.0	72.2	59.6	62.6	57.8	63.9	62.9	. .	56.9	69.1	64.4	70.9	66.0	45.4	77.0	61.4	65.8	67.4	51.7	63.0
	2009 Q2	63.7	62.4	49.8	70.4	73.3	65.5	63.1	71.5	76.0	71.9	70.4	59.5	62.7	59.5	65.1	64.2	. .	58.6	63.8	62.4	71.7	66.7	41.8	76.8	63.4	64.7	68.4	53.6	63.0
	2009 Q3	63.3	62.3	50.5	70.7	. .	63.7	63.4	73.1	75.9	72.5	69.6	58.6	63.2	60.7	67.4	64.6	. .	56.5	64.0	63.1	69.5	65.4	42.4	74.8	56.4	67.0	68.1	49.8	63.5
	2009 Q4	64.0	63.5	53.0	70.3	. .	61.5	63.4	66.4	76.5	72.0	68.8	58.6	63.4	61.1	65.8	62.5	. .	58.8	67.4	63.4	67.6	66.4	47.3	72.9	53.0	65.4	67.3	50.5	63.5
	2009	**63.9**	**62.6**	**51.7**	**70.2**	**. .**	**63.8**	**63.2**	**70.0**	**76.4**	**72.4**	**70.2**	**59.1**	**63.0**	**59.8**	**65.5**	**63.5**	**73.4**	**57.7**	**66.1**	**63.3**	**69.9**	**66.1**	**44.2**	**75.4**	**58.9**	**65.7**	**67.8**	**50.9**	**63.3**
	2010 Q1	63.6	63.7	54.7	70.2	72.0	60.4	61.6	65.2	74.2	73.7	68.1	59.1	62.9	61.8	67.0	61.2	. .	58.3	67.5	63.9	71.1	65.9	43.7	77.0	47.7	67.7	66.5	54.2	63.1
	2010 Q2	63.4	63.7	52.8	71.0	73.4	61.5	62.9	69.7	74.3	73.2	67.2	59.4	63.7	62.3	69.8	63.0	. .	58.4	65.0	64.1	69.8	65.7	47.5	77.7	45.9	70.0	67.7	54.7	63.6
	2010 Q3	64.1	65.2	55.1	71.0	73.9	63.2	63.1	71.9	77.8	73.9	64.1	58.8	64.4	62.7	70.4	62.3	. .	55.5	67.0	63.1	69.7	65.6	57.3	77.7	43.6	62.8	68.4	52.8	63.3
	2010 Q4	65.7	66.0	. .	69.1	. .	. .	. .	66.2	. .	72.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	68.6	67.4	. .	79.3	. .	. .	66.4	55.1	64.0
	2010	**64.2**	**64.7**	**54.2**	**70.3**	**73.1**	**61.6**	**62.5**	**68.2**	**75.5**	**73.4**	**66.5**	**59.1**	**63.7**	**62.3**	**69.0**	**62.2**	**. .**	**57.4**	**66.5**	**63.7**	**69.7**	**66.2**	**48.9**	**77.9**	**45.8**	**66.8**	**67.3**	**53.0**	**63.5**

Notes: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys; Australian, Canadian and New Zealander Labour Force surveys.

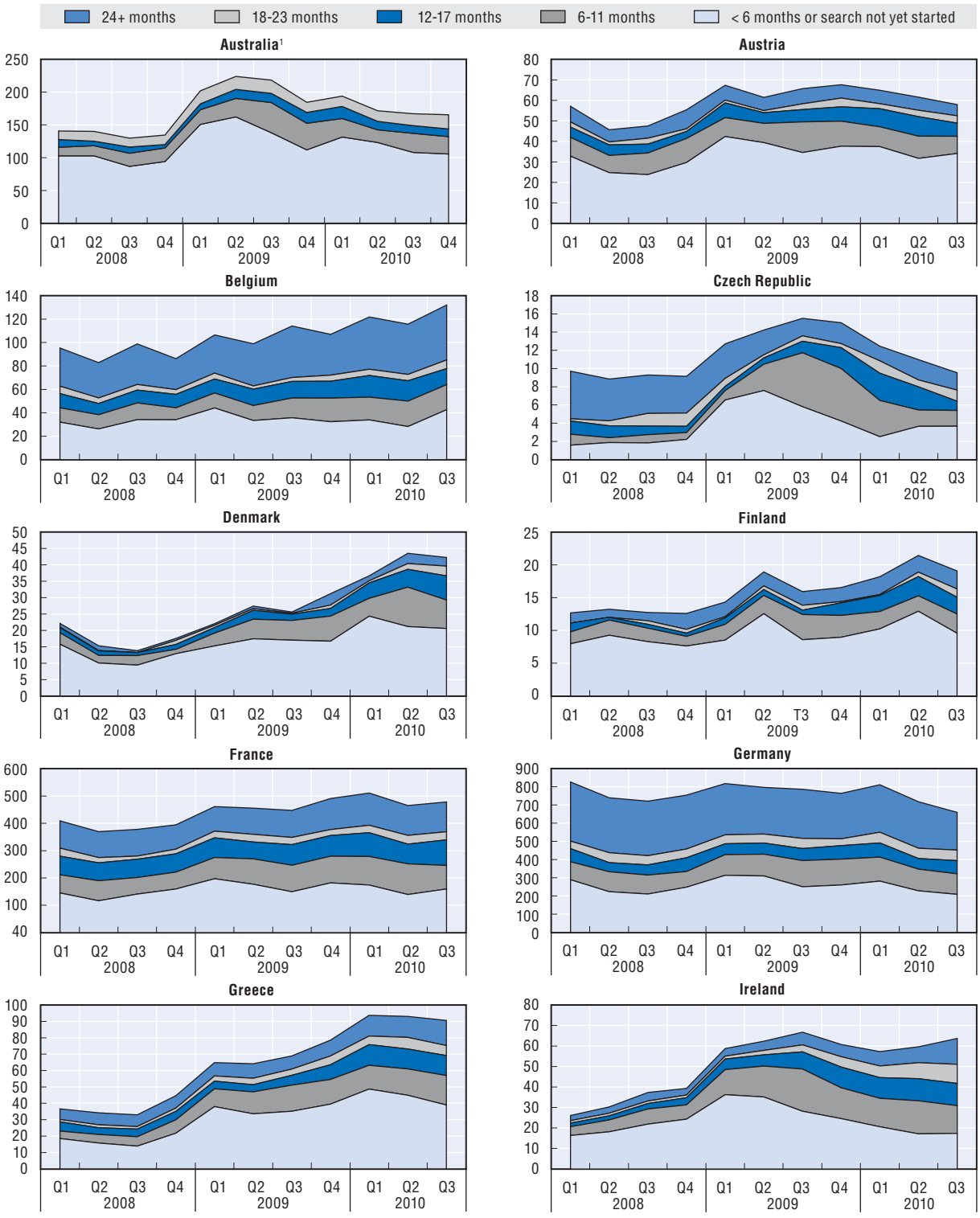
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442028

ANNEX I.B2

Foreign-born unemployment in selected OECD countries by unemployment duration, Q1 2008 to Q4 2010

Figure I.B2.1. **Evolution of foreign-born unemployment in selected OECD countries by unemployment duration, Q1 2008 to Q4 2010**

Thousands



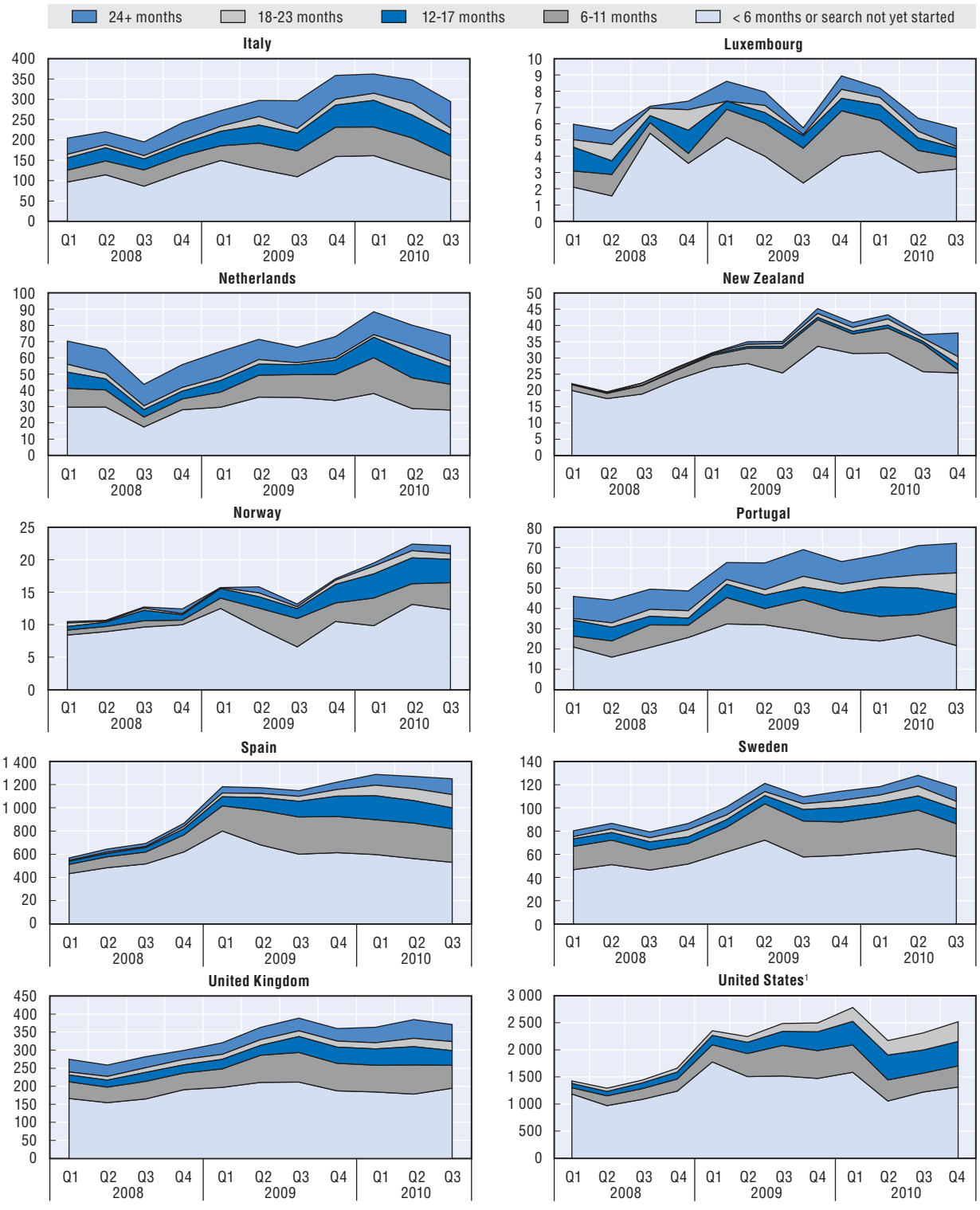
1. Category "24+ months" is included in "18-23 months".

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey; New Zealander Labour Force surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440679

Figure I.B2.1. **Evolution of foreign-born unemployment in selected OECD countries by unemployment duration, Q1 2008 to Q4 2010** *(cont.)*

Thousands



1. Category "24+ months" is included in "18-23 months".

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey; New Zealander Labour Force surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440679

ANNEX I.B3

Changes in foreign- and native-born employment by industry in selected OECD countries, 2007-10

Table I.B3.1. **Ten industries with the largest changes in foreign- and native-born employment**

A. European Union, changes between 2008 and 2010

Native-born			Foreign-born		
	Change (000)	%	Change (000)	%	
Education	438	*3.3*	156	*33.7*	Residential care activities
Human health activities	317	*2.9*	150	*13.8*	Activities of households as employers of domestic personnel
Residential care activities	279	*8.2*	84	*8.0*	Education
Activities of head offices	232	*24.4*	77	*9.2*	Services to buildings and landscape activities
Social work activities without accommodation	206	*5.0*	70	*4.2*	Food and beverage service activities
Other professional, scientific and technical activities	172	*22.5*	68	*18.9*	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities
Services to buildings and landscape activities	169	*7.0*	58	*12.4*	Social work activities without accommodation
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	138	*11.3*	52	*4.3*	Human health activities
Food and beverage service activities	120	*2.4*	50	*53.3*	Other professional, scientific and technical activities
Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	117	*13.0*	47	*11.0*	Accommodation
Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	–224	*–6.1*	–30	*–24.6*	Manufacture of wearing apparel
Construction of buildings	–226	*–5.4*	–33	*–18.4*	Office administrative, office support and other business support activities
Other personal service activities	–233	*–9.0*	–34	*–34.2*	Manufacture of textiles
Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	–262	*–9.4*	–38	*–9.7*	Warehousing and support activities for transportation
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	–270	*–4.2*	–39	*–30.3*	Manufacture of furniture
Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi	–270	*–10.4*	–46	*–19.9*	Legal and accounting activities
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	–317	*–4.9*	–58	*–14.6*	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	–490	*–3.1*	–87	*–17.1*	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment
Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	–512	*–14.6*	–178	*–13.9*	Specialized construction activities
Specialised construction activities	–1 479	*–16.0*	–193	*–19.1*	Construction of buildings

Note: European members of the OECD, except Switzerland; NACE Rev. 2.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2010.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442047

B. United States, changes between 2007 and 2010

	Native-born			Foreign-born		
	Change (000)	%		Change (000)	%	
Health care services, except hospitals	473	*6.6*		111	*8.8*	Health care services, except hospitals
Hospitals	250	*5.1*		100	*24.9*	Social assistance
Public administration	141	*2.3*		89	*20.4*	Food manufacturing
Arts, entertainment, and recreation	96	*4.1*		63	*5.1*	Educational services
Educational services	86	*0.8*		47	*12.0*	Agricultural
Personal and laundry services	49	*3.1*		31	*6.1*	Public administration
Motion picure and sound recording industries	40	*11.4*		28	*6.7*	Repair and maintenance
Utilities	36	*3.3*		21	*2.4*	Hospitals
Waste management and remediation services	32	*9.1*		18	*1.7*	Transportation and warehousing
Beverage and tobacco products	23	*10.6*		18	*28.1*	Waste management and remediation services
Plastics and rubber products	–235	*–39.0*		–39	*–38.0*	Publishing industries (except internet)
Administrative and support services	–267	*–6.4*		–53	*–14.0*	Computer and electronic products
Transportation equipment manufacturing	–281	*–14.7*		–54	*–20.4*	Primary metals and fabricated metal products
Real Estate	–289	*–14.0*		–57	*–40.2*	Furniture and fixtures manufacturing
Primary metals and fabricated metal products	–303	*–19.3*		–73	*–18.6*	Real Estate
Finance	–428	*–10.9*		–80	*–27.5*	Textile, apparel, and leather manufacturing
Retail trade	–524	*–3.9*		–80	*–6.1*	Professional and technical services
Wholesale trade	–546	*–15.4*		–99	*–4.3*	Retail trade
Transportation and warehousing	–632	*–12.3*		–136	*–19.5*	Finance
Construction	–1 952	*–22.6*		–826	*–28.0*	Construction

Note: Industries are derived from the Census 2002 Classification.
Sources: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442066

C. Migration Policy Developments*

1. Introduction

Migration policy developments in 2009 and 2010 were partly affected by the economic downturn, with restrictive measures adopted in some OECD countries with respect to labour migration. Family and humanitarian policies, as well as border controls, were also tightened in the period under review, albeit for different reasons. In parallel, countries enhanced their integration efforts for those migrants already in the country.

This Chapter intends to provide a systematic review on a topic-by-topic basis of the main areas addressed by migration and integration policy developments in OECD countries, as well as Bulgaria, Lithuania, Romania and the Russian Federation. It starts with trends in labour migration policies (Section 2), followed by new developments in family and humanitarian policies (Section 3). Section 4 deals with policy measures to tackle irregular migration, while Section 5 addresses return policies. The impact of EU legislation on migration policies in European OECD countries is discussed in Section 6, followed by a summary of developments in the international co-operation of migration management in Section 7. The main changes in the design of integration and citizenship policies are highlighted in Section 8. The Chapter concludes with a summary of the main directions of policy developments, identifying key common trends.

2. Ensuring that labour migration meets labour market needs is a growing priority for policy

Labour migration is increasingly seen as playing a strategic role in the overall preparation of the labour market of the future

Migration is increasingly seen or at least considered, in conjunction with other policies, as a means to tackle demographic challenges. In Australia, the country's first-ever Population Minister was appointed in April 2010, charged with developing a Sustainable Population Strategy by mid-2011, with long-term migration planning a central element. Migration planning will aim to balance the economic benefits of migration with associated environmental, social and population growth adjustment costs, and assist in infrastructure planning.

Embedding labour migration in a broader demographic context requires the right tools in place to identify emerging labour needs. To better capture these, and thus the possible scale and scope for labour migration in Germany, the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is currently developing a job monitoring system. The system aims at mapping out present and future labour requirements, subdivided by industries, skills and regions. The first results are expected in late 2011.

* This Section C was drafted by the OECD Secretariat with the help of 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, on developments in European migration policy.

Enhancing the migration system's responsiveness to changing labour market needs has been the reason for change in Canada. Several categories (Federal Skilled Worker, Business Class, Canadian Experience Class and Live-in Caregiver) have been combined to create greater flexibility for the application processing network. This added flexibility allows the network to shift resources from one category to another in response to changing priorities, operational pressures, and to avoid application backlogs.

Other countries have enhanced the role of labour migration within the broader migration policy context, as part of a general revision of their migration framework. This has been, for example, the case in Finland, the Netherlands, Poland and Romania.

More restrictive approaches have been adopted, mainly because of the downturn

Before the economic downturn, the policy tide flowed strongly with measures to attract highly-skilled labour, assumed to increase global competitiveness. New far-reaching policies to attract the highly skilled are now less in evidence. Since 2009, changes to demand-based labour migration policies have tended to be refinements of existing approaches, often as part of a varying response to the economic downturn.

Ireland, which was not only hit particularly hard by the downturn but also received record-high inflows of immigrants prior to the crisis, introduced a number of changes to its work permit system, including revised eligibility, new rules regarding spouses and dependants and reintroduction of a resident labour market test (see Box I.2). Also in reaction to the downturn, in 2010, Korea reduced the annual quota of work permits but later restored the quota as its economy improved. In 2009, the Bulgarian authorities delayed the preparation for implementation of the EU "Blue Card" directive opening the access to the labour market for highly-skilled foreigners.

The recession has also played some part in the growing restrictions to labour migration in the United Kingdom. A change of government has brought a more restricted approach to labour migration in the United Kingdom. The new coalition government

Box I.2. **Policy reactions to the crisis in Ireland**

Ireland has not only been among the OECD countries that were particularly hard hit by the downturn, it was also the OECD country which had experienced the largest inflows of immigrants (on a per-capita basis) prior to the downturn. The crisis has particularly affected migration and immigrants already in the Irish labour market. Between 2007 and 2010, net migration fell from 1.6% to –0.8% of total population, and more than 40% of all jobs lost in Ireland between the end of 2007 and mid-2010 were held by foreigners. Largely in response to the new economic circumstances, the government introduced a series of changes to labour migration policy.

Reduced shortage lists

In April 2009, certain occupations eligible for Green Cards in the EUR 30 000-EUR 59 999 wage range per annum, including those within the healthcare, financial services and industry/services category, were removed from the shortage category. However, the occupations continued to be eligible for Green Cards where the salary payable to the jobholder was EUR 60 000 or more per annum. The policy of providing up to three months from date of redundancy for Green Card holders to find new employment was retained.

Box I.2. **Policy reactions to the crisis in Ireland** *(cont.)*

Restrictions on new work permits

Fees for work permits were increased in June 2009 by 50%. At the same time, the government announced a number of changes to eligibility requirements for new work permits for prospective first-time entrants to the Irish labour market. The measures related to qualifying conditions for both work permits in the lower skills/qualifications areas and which could be "increasingly" filled by Irish or EU citizens, and to short-time work permits. Work permits for jobs paying less than EUR 30 000 per annum are granted only in "exceptional" cases, while certain categories of work permit holders are no longer eligible for new work permits but may still be eligible for renewal.

There were two other major changes. First, spouses/dependants of Green Card holders and researchers are eligible to apply for a Spousal/Dependant Permit only if the work permit of the principal migrant was granted before June 2009. Second, the labour market test was extended to eight weeks and now also applies to renewals and to spouses and dependants of an immigrant employee (except green card holders and researchers).

Facilitations for existing work permit holders

Whereas access to the Irish labour market has been made more difficult, several changes have been made that aim at protecting immigrants already holding a work permit. First, since August 2009, those who have worked in Ireland for more than five years are eligible to apply for a long-term residence permit and/or citizenship. Second, those who have worked lawfully and held a work permit for five consecutive years and are either still in employment or have been made redundant will no longer require a work permit and may reside in Ireland and work without the need for an employment permit. The permission runs for one year initially and can be renewed. Third, rules for redundant non-EEA migrant workers who have held an employment permit for less than five years have been eased, giving them now six months compared with the previous three months to find alternative employment. Finally, a labour market test is no longer required for work permit applications from employment permit holders who have been made redundant.

announced that overall net migration would be scaled back to "the tens of thousands". Within this proposed limit, the number of workers entering the United Kingdom from outside Europe will be subject to an annual cap on labour migrant numbers will be introduced from April 2011. The number coming under Tier 2 demand-driven skilled routes (formerly the Work Permit system) – will be reduced to 20 700 per annum. Furthermore, the UK government announced in February 2011 that in the future, employers will have to apply for a certificate of sponsorship from the UK Border Agency for a specific post if they wish to bring someone to the United Kingdom. Although this is a change from the current points-based system which gives businesses an annual allocation, it is a return to the status quo that existed under the previous Work Permit system.

The downturn has been most visible in a reduction of temporary and lesser-skilled labour migration. Since all temporary labour migration is demand-driven, inflows went down without policy having necessarily changed. Countries which have capped temporary labour migration, however, tended to reduce the caps. Israel announced reduced temporary labour migration quotas for construction (to be eliminated entirely) and for agriculture (to be gradually reduced), in order to reduce dependence on foreign workers in these sectors. In 2009, Romania halved the number of work authorisations, especially in

the construction and textile industries. It has also given greater scrutiny to authorisations for posted workers. A change to New Zealand's Temporary Work Policy in July 2009 reduced the duration of permits issued to lower-skilled workers to one year. Spain further curtailed the quota for non-seasonal recruitment under its *contingente* regime.

In terms of decline in GDP per capita, the new OECD member countries Estonia and Slovenia were the hardest hit by the downturn. While Estonia left its framework largely unchanged, Slovenia introduced, in mid-2009, a package of measures which curtail labour migration from most non-EEA countries. These include a ban on employment in seasonal work for all sectors except agriculture and forestry.

In the Russian Federation, where most labour immigration is low skilled, new restrictions have been introduced as a result of the downturn. In parallel, for certain groups, notably those working in private households, conditions have been relaxed and the process simplified in order to prevent illegal working. In other countries, there were no strong shifts in policy, but the demand-driven nature put a brake on labour migration in the context of the downturn.

An indication of recovery from recession is the establishment of a new numerical limit for non-EEA workers for 2011 in Italy, following a year during which this route was essentially closed. In Poland, the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy decided to extend indefinitely the pilot programme simplifying rules for short-term employment of foreigners from selected Eastern European countries on the basis of declarations of Polish employers. The citizens of Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, the Russian Federation and Ukraine will maintain the right to work for six month during a year without a work permit.

At the same time, measures are introduced to support unemployed labour migrants

New legislation in the Czech Republic instituted a "protection period" within which a foreigner who lost his/her job in the Czech Republic can stay and seek a new job. Ireland adopted a similar approach (see Box I.2). While generally tightening conditions for new work permits, the government there introduced measures to ease the situation for those immigrants who were laid off.

In New Zealand, small businesses can hire new staff on a trial period of up to 90 calendar days (known as the 90-day rule). Any temporary migrant worker dismissed under the 90-day rule is now able to apply for a three-month visitor's visa to search for another job.

Emigration countries start to attract labour migrants themselves, amid growing labour shortages

The countries of Central and Eastern Europe which had experienced significant emigration in recent years are now gradually adapting their migration policy to cope with growing labour shortages. Poland's long-term migration strategy – which is currently under consultation – proposes a system of active recruitment of manpower from abroad, backed up by a system monitoring demand in the labour market, so that policy can be applied flexibly. The strategy covers a wide range of issues: legal and illegal immigration, protection and integration of foreigners, citizenship, repatriation, labour emigration and return migration of Polish nationals. It presents directives for improving the functioning of the legal and institutional system and introduces a system for monitoring migration processes. The strategy proposes major administrative structural change, notably the establishment of a single immigration office which would take over a range of migration-related tasks of the Ministry of Interior and Administration, the governors of the regions, and the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy.

A facilitation of immigration of labour migrants is also planned in Romania. If accepted, the proposed legislation would also bring a number of significant changes in the administrative procedures related to the facilitation of labour migration, combating irregular migration, and the stay and residence of foreigners in Romania. Administrative facilitations have also been a prime objective of the new immigration law in Estonia.

Even more prominent have been initiatives by the Central and Eastern European countries aimed at the return of the emigrant communities abroad (see Section 5).

Points systems are becoming more widespread…

Following the lead of Australia, Canada and New Zealand, some European OECD countries have adopted points based systems (PBS) for selecting permanent-type labour migrants. Since 2008, the United Kingdom, Denmark and the Netherlands have introduced PBS. Austria has now joined this trend. In October 2010, the social partners agreed on the introduction of a "Red-White-Red-Card" that will regulate the inflow of highly qualified persons, skilled workers in shortage professions and key workers through a points system; the new system is currently being discussed in parliament. Implementation is expected for the second half of 2011, with some exceptions. Once established, the new system would be similar to the pre-2011 PBS in the United Kingdom, with a supply-driven tier and a demand-driven tier requiring either a job offer in a shortage occupation or passing a labour market test. The demand-driven tier essentially targets the same groups of labour migrants as the existing Austrian Key Worker scheme. Indeed, the points systems in European OECD countries have often been built on pre-existing schemes which have been "converted" into points-based systems. Table I.12 summarises the systems currently in place or about to be implemented in OECD countries.

One particular challenge for countries with small language basins outside of their borders is language. Denmark, the Netherlands and Austria have reacted to this by awarding points for English language mastery (Denmark also for knowledge in German, Swedish and Norwegian). However, the national language is usually favoured. Denmark, for example, provides additional points for Danish knowledge, and in Austria, a higher level of mastery is required for English than for German.

… and more selective, in particular regarding supply-driven migration

Countries with established PBS continue to refine their systems in light of changed conditions, and in general the trend has been towards greater selectivity. For example, in Australia, changes to the General Skilled Migration stream are designed to make it more effective in selecting high-calibre applicants. In November 2010, the government announced some significant changes to the points test, effective from July 2011. The age-eligibility range will be extended, qualifications obtained from recognised overseas institutions will be treated as equivalent to Australian qualifications, Australian work experience will attract more points than experience gained overseas, and English proficiency will be given greater importance.

The flexibility provided by points systems has been used by the United Kingdom government to increase selectivity. Changes to the points allocation were announced in February 2011 and be implemented by April 2011. In the demand-driven Tier 2, the new points table prioritises occupations on the Shortage Occupation list, followed by occupations at PhD level. Points are to be awarded for salary. A minimum salary of GBP 20 000 is required, and additional points are available for salaries above that level. For

Table I.12. **Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, 2011**

Percentage of the pass mark

Characteristic	**UK Tier 2** (since April 2011) General (employer-sponsored)	**Denmark**	**Netherlands**	**Austria** (post-July 2011) (Tier 1; Highly-Qualified)	**Austria** (2011/2012) (Tier 2; Key Worker or Shortage Occupation)	**Australia** (post-July 2011) General Skilled Migration	**Canada** Federal	**Canada** Quebec (Single)	**Canada** Quebec (With Spouse)	**New Zealand**
	Temporary admission, renewable					Permanent admission				
Requirement of job offer?	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Characteristics of the intended occupation										
Job offer or current employment in country	**42%**						**15-22%***	11%	10%	**50%**
Qualified for/job offer in a skilled occupation	28%*				**0%***	**0%**		0-29%	0-25%	**0%**
Qualified for/job offer in a shortage or growth occupation	63%*	10%			**0%***		**0%***			10-40%
Previous work experience										
Work experience (in general)		5%		3-29%*	4-20%**		22-31%	0-15%	0-13%	10-30%
Additional points for work experience in specific occupations		5-10%				8-23%				10-30%
Additional points for work experience in country		5-10%*	14%	14%*	8-20%**	8-31%		2-15%*	2-13%*	5-25%
Academic qualifications										
Academic qualification (in general)		30-80%	71-86%	29-57%**	40-60%	15-31%*	7-37%	**4-22%**	**3-19%**	50-55%
Additional points for academic qualification in country or region		5-10%*	**0***-14%	7-14%		23-38%*	7%	2-15%*	2-13%*	5-10%
Additional points for academic qualification at top-ranked university		5-15%	**0*%**							
Language										
Language ability in first language	**14%**	5-25%	14*%	7-14%	20-30%	**0-31%**	1-24%	0-29%	0-25%	0%
Language ability in second language		5-10%				8%	1-12%	0-11%	0-10%	
Age		10-15%	14%	14-29%	30-40%	**0-38%**	**3-15%**	**0-29%**	**0-25%**	**5-30%**
Financial requirements										
Sufficient funds for initial period	**14%**	**0%**								
Previous earnings				29-43%**	**0%**					
Prospective earnings	**31-69%**									

Table I.12. **Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, 2011** *(cont.)*

Percentage of the pass mark

Characteristic	**UK Tier 2** (since April 2011) General (employer-sponsored)	**Denmark**	**Netherlands**	**Austria** (post-July 2011) (Tier 1; Highly-Qualified)	**Austria** (2011/2012) (Tier 2; Key Worker or Shortage Occupation)	**Australia** (post-July 2011) General Skilled Migration	**Canada** Federal	**Canada** Quebec (Single)	**Canada** Quebec (With Spouse)	**New Zealand**
	Temporary admission, renewable					Permanent admission				
Spouse and family characteristics										
Socio-demographic characteristics of spouse/partner						8%	4-7%		0-25%	20%
Skilled job offer of spouse/partner							7%			20%
Other family characteristics							7%	5%*	5%*	10%
Children								4-15%	3-13%	
Regional elements (study/settlement/employment in rural areas, sponsorship, etc.)						**8-38%**		**7%**	**6%**	**10%**
Other (personal impression, etc.)								**0-15%**	**0-13%**	
Pass mark	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**

Notes: */**/*** alternative requirements. Obligatory criteria are in bold. The percentages refer to the points that can be attributed under each criterion as a percentage of the pass mark. Since the possible maximum of points is higher than the pass mark, the percentages add up to more than 100%. In all countries included in the table, temporary admissions are generally renewable if the applicant has a job. Denmark: a maximum of 105 points can be given for academic qualification, language skills can be proven in either one Nordic language, German or English, 5 bonus points are given for Danish language skills, maximum of 15 points for country/region-specific work or educational experience are given; Canada/Federal: all country/region-specific criteria also apply to spouse/partner; all country/region-specific points and academic qualification of partner/spouse cannot exceed the total of 10 points out of the required 67 points; Canada/Quebec: the maximum number of points for work/study/family in Quebec is altogether 8 points out of a required total of 55 points for singles and 63 for applicants who bring their spouses; Austria Highly-Qualified scheme: academic qualifications encompass additional points for research activity; Austria/Key Worker Scheme: there is a minimum income requirement. Tier 2 in Austria and United Kingdom: in addition to a job offer, either employment in shortage occupation (after 2012 in Austria) or a labour market test is required. In the United Kingdom, the latter requirement does not apply to graduates from UK universities and jobs earning more than GBP 150 000. These two categories are also unrestricted; for the other (restricted) categories, a monthly cap applies. To determine admission under this cap, candidates are ranked by the number of points which they obtain.

Source: Calculations by the OECD Secretariat on the basis of information from the national authorities.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441971

each month, the UK Border Agency sets a monthly limit on the available places under the general category. If these are oversubscribed by eligible applications, applications are prioritised according to the characteristics of the occupation (shortage occupation vs. PhD-level occupation vs. other occupation) and the prospective salary.

Partly in reaction to the unsatisfactory labour market outcomes of labour migrants who arrived without a job offer, supply-driven migration has seen reductions in numbers and greater selectivity in countries where this used to be a key entry route.

This is most visible in the United Kingdom, where the supply-based immigration route has been severely curtailed. The points-based Tier 1 – the supply-driven immigration (formerly the Highly Skilled Migrants Programme) – is being replaced by an "exceptional talent route". This route will be restricted to all but entrepreneurs, investors and the exceptionally talented, 1 000 persons. In addition, graduating students are now wedged into Tier 2 which means they must find a qualifying job. Likewise, in Canada, supply-driven migration at the federal level has been significantly reduced, partly as a consequence of the growing importance of regional migration schemes (see Box I.3). Since June 2010, migration through the Federal Skilled Worker programme is only possible for migrants with a job offer or who have an occupation on a shortage list. Immigration through the latter channel is only possible for a maximum of 1 000 persons per occupation, and up to a total of 20 000 entries under the 29 occupations on the list. In addition, official proof of English or French mastery is now required. Australia, in addition to the changes mentioned above, introduced a "job ready" test to ensure that migrants have the skills employers need.

Box I.3. **Regional provisions for labour migration management**

A growing number of OECD countries have introduced regional schemes in their systems of labour migration with the aim of ensuring that immigrants go to areas where they are most needed and obtaining a more even distribution of immigrants across their territory.

In *Australia*, there is a range of regional elements in the migration framework which provide immigrants settling in specific regions (generally outside of the large metropolitan areas) with facilitated entry routes. These include permanent and provisional regional visas with sponsorship by state and territory governments. In 2009-10, state-specific and regional migration schemes represented about a quarter of Employer-Sponsored places, a third of General Skilled Migration, and almost all entries under the Business Skills class. The share of places accorded under the State/Territory Sponsored visa classes in total skilled migration has more than doubled since 2005-06. In addition, in 2010, changes were made to the Skilled Migration programme to make it more responsive to the differing labour markets and skill needs across the country. Thus, state and territory-specific migration plans were introduced, which – based on bilateral agreements between the Australian government and individual state governments – allow for state and regional differences in skill requirements to be accommodated in the migration programme. For example, if a state is able to show that a certain skilled occupation not on the Skilled Occupations List is in short supply, it can be incorporated into the plan and be eligible for state-sponsorship in that jurisdiction.

A broad range of regional elements in migration management exist also in *Canada*, where the joint responsibility of the federal government and the provinces and territories over immigration is stated in the 1867 Constitution. In addition, under the Canada-Quebec Accord, Quebec has full responsibility for immigrant settlement and integration services, as well as for setting annual immigration targets and selecting immigrants. The other Provinces and Territories are also increasingly involved in the selection of economic migrants. Canada's immigration plan for 2011 identifies economic immigrants according

Box I.3. **Regional provisions for labour migration management** *(cont.)*

to the government responsible for their selection or nomination: the Government of Canada or provinces and territories. In particular, the admission range for federal economic immigration has been reduced to permit further growth in the Provincial Nominee programme. Under this programme, provinces and territories have the right to nominate – and prioritise – individuals as permanent residents in their jurisdiction to address specific labour market and economic development needs.

In some European OECD countries, regional elements in labour migration management are related to the constitutional structure of the country and, accordingly, to the distribution of competences for migrants' selection between, respectively, the federal/central government and regional/local authorities. In *Switzerland*, for example, a system of cantonal numerical limits applies to the admission of migrants from non-EEA countries. Under this system, the maximum annual number of entries established by the federal authorities is distributed to each canton, according to the specific labour market needs. Similarly, in *Italy*, the annual numerical limits for the admission of different categories of third-country foreign workers are set by the government at the national level. However, under those quotas, different numerical limits are allocated to each province, based on the level of requests presented locally by the employers. A policy with regional numerical limits is currently also in place in *Austria*, although it is not restricted to labour migration and will be partly abolished under the new immigration framework to be implemented later in 2011.

Regional shortage lists have been implemented in some OECD countries. In *France*, for example, the list of occupations in shortage exempting non-EEA immigrants for labour market test set up in 2008 identifies different openings according to the different skill needs of each region. Finally, simplified conditions of admission exist in several OECD countries for entrepreneurs and investors who establish their businesses in regions where economic growth is below the national average or where there is particularly strong demand for certain types of economic activities (see OECD, 2010).

In countries with significant supply-driven labour migration, an exception from the trend to scale such migration back has been New Zealand. The new "Silver Fern" job-search visa allows young people to enter the country for nine months to search for skilled employment. To be eligible, people must be outside New Zealand at the time of application, be aged 20-35, meet English language and qualification requirements and have sufficient funds to support themselves.

A new scheme for supply-led immigration is about to be introduced in Austria, where the proposed new points-based system also opens a route for supply-driven migration, targeted essentially at top managers and PhD-level researchers. In Norway, under the new immigration act, jobseekers at the skilled worker level or higher can be given a residence permit for up to six months while applying for jobs.

Elsewhere, new supply-based policies often relate to investors and entrepreneurs, although the number of migrants entering via this route is usually small (see OECD, 2010). Germany and the United Kingdom were among those countries that recently introduced measures to attract them, and others have since followed suit.

New Zealand's new business package, instituted in July 2009, is designed to make the country more attractive for business and entrepreneurial migrants. The policy aims to attract financial capital to local firms or government by providing residence, under certain conditions, to people who wish to make a significant financial contribution to New Zealand's economy. A new element in the policy enables high-income people of retirement age to come and live in New Zealand if they can make an economic investment

there. The new category contains two elements, a permanent route and a temporary route with less stringent criteria. Temporary retirees can renew their visas as long as they continue to meet the criteria, including having a minimum amount of investment funds and income, and a specified level of health insurance.

Other countries try to scale back on this route by increasing requirements for entry and settlement. Canada tightened its Immigrant Investor programme by doubling the required investment sum and net worth. In a like vein, Lithuania tightened its requirements for investors, with a five-fold increase in the amount of capital expected as an immediate investment (see OECD, 2010).

Shortage lists have become more widespread, but also shorter

The OECD countries that have been settled by migration, as well as several European countries, have used skill shortage lists as a basis for migrant selection for some time. In the last few years, several additional OECD countries have implemented them.

Most countries with shortage lists keep them under continuous review. The effects of the recession have often resulted in shorter lists, as is the case in Spain and Lithuania. In the United Kingdom, the Migration Advisory Committee reviews at least part of the list every six months. There, however, the efficacy of shortage lists is being called into question. Only a small proportion of the skilled entry under the previous Tier 2 in the United Kingdom (in force until April 2011) has been in shortage occupations. In February 2011, the Minister responsible announced that chemists, biochemists, physicists, geologists and research and development managers would have priority under the limit, while high earners would be exempt.

In February 2010, Australia revoked both its Migration Occupation in Demand List (MODL) and the provisional Critical Skills List that favoured the migration of those with certain skills. These lists were subsets of the Skilled Occupation List (SOL) which determines occupations eligible under skilled independent and state-sponsored skilled migration. Since the introduction of the MODL in 1999, there were often long lags between identifying an occupation as being in shortage and migrants coming through in this particular occupation. Since July 2010, there is a new SOL, which cuts the number of eligible occupations by more than half. The new list contains occupations which fulfil three criteria. First, the skills needed take a long time to learn; second, there is evidence of high skills matching (i.e., immigrants with these skills ended up working in the appropriate jobs); and third, the costs of the skills being in short supply are high to the economy or to the respective local communities.

Canada also reduced its shortage list in 2010, from 38 to 29 occupations. In addition, the number of new applications that will be considered for processing in the year following 26 June 2010 under the shortage list has been limited to 20 000, with a maximum of 1 000 under each occupation.

International students continue to be an attractive source of labour

More liberal approaches are still in the ascendancy

In recent years, a growing number of OECD countries have sought to attract international students, either as sources of finance for educational institutions or, after their graduation, as new knowledge creators who could contribute to economic growth by changing status to labour migrants. Some policy measures are designed to encourage international students to come and study; for others the objective is to make it easier for them to stay after graduation and enter the labour market.

Finland is seeking to expand its international student sector, and a strategy for the internationalisation of Finnish higher education institutions was completed in January 2009. The aim is to develop an internationally competitive and attractive higher education and research community in the country and to increase the number of exchange students and foreign students pursuing a degree. Support has been given to international co-operation and networking among tertiary education institutions, for example by providing more teaching in English and promoting opportunities for student exchange. International students will also be able to gain Finnish citizenship earlier if proposed changes to the Nationality Act go through. At the same time, however, the University Act which came into force in 2010 makes it possible to collect fees for individual Masters programmes from students coming from outside the European Economic Area.

The new Polish strategy targets students and researchers by promoting Polish higher education institutions and to strengthening the system of grants, to encourage foreigners to study in Poland. Lithuania has also taken steps to attract international students from non-EEA countries, who may come to the country with a one year visa and do not need to apply for a residence permit.

A growing number of countries are adopting measures to make it easier for international graduates to enter their labour markets. Austria plans to largely open the labour market for international students after their studies, implementation is expected for the second half of 2011. Similarly, in the Czech Republic, labour market entry has been facilitated for international students who have completed secondary or higher education in the country. These graduates no longer require a work permit.

Under the new immigration law in Norway, graduates from Norwegian universities may apply for a six-month permit to seek a job consistent with their level of qualification. In addition, family members of students taking courses are allowed to work full-time, while the students themselves may only work part-time. Starting in 2011, Switzerland, too, has eased its restrictions on the issue of work permits to foreigners holding qualifications from a Swiss higher education institution whose employment has an economic or scientific value. International students will be entitled to remain in Switzerland for six months after their graduation while they look for employment. Japan also has taken steps to make it easier for international students to stay in the country. The period after graduation during which they are allowed to stay and seek work has been increased from six months to a year.

In parallel, past main destinations of international students have introduced more restrictive policies

While non-English speaking countries continue to liberalise their policies vis-à-vis international students, the English-speaking countries which have been prime destination countries for student migration – namely Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom – have started to become more restrictive, the underlying rationale being fear of fraud (mainly in non-tertiary programmes) or avoiding backlogs.

Following a review in 2009, Australia made significant changes to its legislation and policy. In order to ensure that students have the financial capacity to live and study in Australia, measures have been put into place to address document fraud and other issues around financial capacity, identification and *bona fides*. The measures target a number of immigrant groups from "high risk" countries and have contributed to a substantial drop in applications from these countries. Other measures, designed to protect international students already in the country, include waivers of visa application charges for students affected by the closure of

their education provider and policy changes to ensure that students have health insurance cover for the entire duration of their visa. As in Australia, recent changes to student policy in New Zealand mainly aim at strengthening compliance. The changes include a strengthening of immigration policy to stop students from changing course or education provider for non-genuine reasons and making it easier for students to come for short periods of study.

The perhaps most radical change is about to take place in the United Kingdom, as part of its broader strategy of reducing the scale of immigration, and to limit abuse within the area of student migration. Changes introduced in April 2011 included tougher entrance criteria, limits on work and an end to students staying in the United Kingdom to look for a job. The measures also included the certification of educational institutions in order to be able to sponsor students; the introduction of stiffer English language requirements; ensuring that students wishing to extend their studies show evidence of academic progression; limiting students' entitlements to work and their ability to bring in dependants; and improving the accreditation process for education providers, alongside more rigorous inspections. The overall time that can be spent on a student visa will also be limited for students at tertiary level, to a maximum of five years, with some exceptions. The post-study route under the supply-driven Tier 1 of the points-based system will also be closed from April 2012, but graduates from a UK University will be able to switch into Tier 2, under certain conditions.

Prior to June 2010, having legally lived in Canada for a minimum of one year either as a temporary foreign worker or an international student was one of the three eligibility routes for admission under the Federal Skilled Worker programme. This route has now been closed down in Canada. Former international students wishing to enter through the Federal Skilled Worker category now need to have either an employment offer or skills in an occupation on the shortage list. However, international students still benefit from the opportunities provided through the Canadian Experience Class, although they are now required to prove knowledge of English or French through a language test.

A review of non-EEA student immigration in full-time education in Ireland resulted in a number of proposals, including capping the amount of time a non-EEA student should spend in the country and the creation of a two-tier system for students, one for post-secondary level, the other for English language and further education. The objective was to integrate student migration more thoroughly into the overall immigration regime. However, a more liberal approach towards allowing international graduates to enter the labour market is under consideration. The provisions regarding access of students to the labour market are the subject of a separate review process, although the responsible Minister noted the potential of those pursuing advanced degrees as "potential entrepreneurs, high skills employees or scientific researchers" and that a focus should be made at addressing "how they can progress within the immigration system after their graduation".

3. Family and humanitarian policies are being tightened

Family migration policies are getting more restrictive, with the exception of families of skilled labour migrants

Since the late 1990s, two major trends have emerged in the domain of family migration policies. The first is increasing restrictions for family migration. The second is that access to the labour market is in most countries now generally granted upon entry to all adult immigrants who are admitted on the grounds of family migration. The new developments in the period 2009-10 confirm the above-mentioned trends.

Among the policy objectives underlying these trends is to ensure that family migrants will not constitute a burden to the welfare system and that they will rapidly integrate in the society and economy of the host country. In certain cases – namely when the beneficiary is the applicant's spouse, common law partner or fiancé – tighter conditions on family migration are also meant to prevent fraud and to protect individuals from abuses.

For the accompanying families of skilled labour migrants where there is little concern about negative fiscal impact or abuse, the trend has been to facilitate migration. For example, in Lithuania, highly-qualified foreign workers coming to the country may now bring their families with them. Previously, workers had to have resided there for two years before reunion was allowed. The new Norwegian Immigration Act which entered into force in 2010 also allows for family reunification of skilled and highly-skilled labour migrants.

Maintenance requirements are being tightened…

Most OECD countries in which family migration is conditional on eligibility criteria apply maintenance requirements. The general tendency since the mid-1990s has been to introduce and progressively tighten such requirements. In Sweden, maintenance requirements for family reunification were introduced in April 2010. The new rules apply essentially to labour migrants from non-EEA countries who have had a permanent residence permit for less than four years. They must be able to support themselves and have adequate housing if they want their family to join them from abroad.

In Norway, where maintenance criteria have already been in force for family migration for some time, the required minimum income was raised in early 2010. The categories of residents who have to prove sufficient income to apply for family reunification have also been broadened. Norwegian citizens and permanent residents are no longer exempted from this requirement. In both Norway and Sweden, there are a number of exemptions from the proof of sufficient income, notably in the presence of children.

Maintenance requirements were also tightened in Austria, Denmark and the Netherlands, three countries in which they have been in force for several years already. In Austria, the required funds at disposal were raised in 2009. In the Netherlands, maintenance requirements for certain groups of family migrants in the Netherlands were raised in July 2010. In particular, the required amounts for single parents and singles have been increased by 20%. At the same time, the requirements were lowered for students living away from home.

In Denmark, the maintenance criterion is not income-related but considered to be met when the applicant has not received assistance under the Act of Active Social Policy or the Integration Act for twelve months. In August 2010, this period was extended to three years.

In some countries, namely the OECD countries which have been settled by migration, there is generally no formal minimum income requirement, but immigrants already resident in the country desiring to bring over their family members have to ensure that the latter will not be a burden to the public purse. In practice, this means that already settled immigrants are required to sponsor their family members, committing to financially support them for a specified period of time after their admission into the country.

… and age and residence requirements enhanced

For the family migration of spouses, partners, or – where this is allowed – fiancés, certain minimum age requirements apply in all OECD countries, and these requirements have been rising over the past few years. The policy objectives behind raising the age criteria are to combat arranged and forced marriages, as well as to discourage abuse of family reunification provisions through marriages of convenience.

In most OECD countries, 18 is the minimum age for family migration of spouses and registered partners. In Austria, the minimum age for the resident applicant's spouse or partner has been raised from 18 to 21.[1]

In Finland, following the amendments to the Aliens Act which came into force in August 2010, the requirements for granting a residence permit to a minor on the basis of family ties were tightened and the permit may now be granted to a minor only if the child is under 18 on the date that a decision is taken on the permit application. However, the permit may not be refused if the processing of the application has been delayed considerably for reasons beyond the applicant's control.

Most OECD countries in which family migration is allowed for relatives other than the applicant's immediate family, the admission of those less close relatives (often the applicant's parents) is conditional on their physical and/or financial dependency. Thus, generally, a minimum age is required for the applicant's parents to be admitted on the grounds of family reunification, assuming that, over that age, they might be in need of care.

In Spain, following a reform of the Law on Alien Affairs in December 2009, family migration of ascendants has been restricted to ascendants above the age of 65. The reform also introduced the requirement to hold a long-term residence permit for the immigrant to be entitled to apply for the reunion of their ascendants.

In general, OECD countries do not make a distinction between family reunification *strictu sensu* – when the marriage/partnership (spousal) tie was already established before the partner's entry into the country of residence of the applicant – and family formation – when the applicant's partner is arriving as a fiancée, to form a family or to marry in the host country. This latter type of family migration is also referred to as marriage migration.

The few countries that do make a distinction between these two types tend to apply stricter requirements for family formation than for family reunification. In Norway, following the new Immigration Act which came into force on 1 January 2010, certain groups of migrants need four years of residence for family formation, although there is no such requirement for family reunification.[2] In Finland, an amendment to the Aliens Act which came into force in August 2010 introduced the requirement of "secure income" for foreigners who have received international protection status and wish to apply for family formation.

In the Netherlands, tighter criteria of income applied to family reunification relative to family formation; the latter being defined as a situation where the marital tie was established abroad after the principal migrant's entry into the Netherlands. The distinction between the two was challenged by the European Court of Justice in a ruling in March 2010 (Case C-578/08; Chakroun vs. Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs). Following the Court's ruling, a different treatment depending on whether or not the marital tie was established prior to or after the applicant's entry into the host country is no longer possible for those OECD countries who are covered by the EU directive on family reunification. As a result, the

Netherlands abandoned such differentiation in July 2010. The same age and maintenance requirements now apply both for family formation and family reunification, which resulted in a raise of the age requirements for family reunification from 18 to 21 years.

Other countries have opted for procedural ways to prevent abuses of the family migration system. In 2009, Citizenship and Immigration Canada initiated a process to make regulatory changes aimed at strengthening the Department's capacity to refuse admission under the Family Class in cases of suspected marriage frauds.

In a growing number of countries, family migrants have to pass pre-arrival "integration tests"

Granting migrants the right to family reunion has traditionally been considered as promoting the integration of migrants into their host countries. Recently, however, there have been growing concerns about the integration outcomes of family migrants, particularly of those who are low-skilled. As a consequence, an increasing number of OECD countries have made the admission of family migrants conditional on the fulfilment of integration requirements.

The Netherlands were the first OECD country to make the granting of entry visa to family migrants (between the age of 16 and 65) conditional upon a sufficient level of knowledge of Dutch language and society, which must be demonstrated through an integration test. The test is in force since March 2006 and has been made more difficult several times since then, most recently at the beginning of 2011. Further measures under discussion are to raise the level of the integration and training requirements to pass this "civic integration" test, introducing additional educational requirements applying to family migrants after their entry in the Netherlands, combating forced marriages, as well as greater monitoring and enforcement of compliance with the family migration rules of the Aliens Act.

In Denmark, since mid-November 2010, passing an immigration test which verifies Danish language skills and knowledge about Denmark and Danish society is generally compulsory for spouses and registered partners wishing to be admitted as family migrants, provided the other admission criteria have already been met. The test must be taken by the prospective family migrant in Denmark within three months of entry under a special provisional visa. In case of failure to pass the test, the candidates are given a deadline to leave Denmark, but they may repeat the test until the three month visa expires. Candidates who fail to pass the test before the deadline can reinitiate the family reunification procedure after having left Denmark.

Pre-entry testing on the language and cultural knowledge of the prospective host country is also a mandatory requirement for the admission on the grounds of family reunification in France and Germany. In Germany, since 2007, demonstration of basic German language knowledge by the beneficiary is a condition of admission of spouses under the title of family migration. Exceptions can be granted in case of disability or disease. In France, also since 2007, the family reunion of non-EU residents with their family members aged between 16 and 64 is conditional on proving knowledge of French language and republican values. Prospective family migrants have to take a test in their country of origin.[3] In Austria, in the framework of the ongoing revision of the immigration law, a proof of basic German language knowledge for low-qualified family immigrants prior to embarkation will be introduced. Although not directly targeted at family migrants, they will undoubtedly form the bulk of those concerned by the planned new provisions.

Full labour market access is now generally given to family migrants upon arrival

Most countries now provide family migrants upon arrival with the same labour market access enjoyed by the already resident principal migrant. Among the few exceptions has been Austria, where full labour market access is generally only given to family members after a waiting period of one year. It is currently envisaged to abandon this waiting period. Likewise, in Spain, under the new provisions introduced in late 2009, the authorisation to work is granted upon arrival to all reunified persons over the age of 16. Previously, a one year waiting period applied.

The recent increase in asylum numbers has led some countries to reconsider part of their asylum system

Although not the leading edge of policy development that it was in the early years of the millennium, asylum has continued to occupy policy makers in many countries. The thrust of policy developments then was twofold – reducing inflows of asylum seekers while taking steps to integrate better those accepted.

There is a converging and continuing trend towards improved procedures to speed the process

Across the OECD, there is a trend towards improved procedures to speed decision making in the asylum process. Reasons vary but include putting in systems to deal with sudden waves of asylum seekers, coping with growing numbers of claimants and curbing abuse of the system.

Several countries have introduced or are contemplating comprehensive reform of their systems for dealing with asylum claims. In the cases of Bulgaria and Mexico, new institutional frameworks are being set up. Bulgaria's objective is a system capable of dealing with the regular inflow of asylum seekers and tackling unexpected large inflows. Government proposals in Mexico are designed to regulate the recognition of refugee status, in accordance with the norms and principles of international law on refugees and complementary protection. They include the principle of non-refoulement, access to healthcare and education, the right to work and to apply for family reunification and no sanctions for irregular entry to the country.

A comprehensive approach has been adopted in New Zealand, Switzerland, Norway and Canada. In New Zealand, the Immigration Act 2009 creates a new refugee and protection decision-making framework. It sets out clear processes and protocols for managing claims for refugee and protection status and contains provisions to manage abuse of the asylum process through the provision of false information. Plans in Switzerland for a revision of the law on asylum also aim at making procedures quicker and more effective, with special attention devoted to preventing abuses. If the law is adopted, the Federal Council will be entitled to define countries to which expulsion will generally be considered acceptable. It is also planned to establish a dispersal policy for temporarily admitted persons. Norway, too, is considering a more comprehensive reform. A white paper includes measures to improve the protection of refugees, deal with large influxes of asylum seekers and with asylum shopping. It also examines co-operation on visa matters, border control and return, challenges relating to illegal immigrants and initiatives to achieve better control of migration. In 2010, new Canadian legislation was designed to improve procedures, resettle more refugees from abroad and make it easier for them to start their lives in Canada. The new measures relate to the appeals procedure, designation of countries of origin, identification of manifestly

unfounded claims, timely removals of failed asylum claimants, limits on pre-removal risk assessments, changes to the humanitarian and compassionate and temporary resident permit provisions, introduction of an Assisted Voluntary Returns pilot programme and enhancing Canada's resettlement programme.

Likewise, faced with a rising number of asylum seekers, Australia has taken steps to improve the efficiency and quality of decision making, together with the collation of more up-to-date country information. Similar steps have been taken in the Netherlands by extending the period allowed for the first part of the process with the aim of reducing the number of follow-up procedures.

Asylum policies have become less liberal in some countries

Along with the procedural changes outlined above, there has been tightening up in asylum policies, and several countries made policy changes in the direction of less liberalism.

In January 2010, Austria introduced several changes to tighten alien police and asylum legislation. As a measure to reduce unfounded asylum claims, the protection from deportation was abolished for claimants of subsequent applications. Moreover, the amendment specified the offences which may lead to detention of asylum seekers and introduced the possibility to deprive, under certain conditions, delinquent refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection of their status. In addition, asylum seekers whose request for asylum is judged by the authorities as unlikely to be successful are now required to register. Finally, the legal framework for granting residence permits to rejected asylum seekers based on humanitarian grounds was redefined.

Finland also tightened its policies on asylum in 2010. Age testing of asylum seekers and sponsors using forensic medicine was introduced. Participation is voluntary, but refusal to participate in the test without acceptable cause will result in treating the person concerned as an adult. Restrictions were placed on the asylum seekers' right to work for those without valid travel documents. Their right to work will commence only after six months of residence, compared with three months for those who have valid papers. The requirements for granting a residence permit to a minor on the basis of family ties were also amended, the permit can now generally only be granted to a minor if the child is a minor on the day that the permit application is decided. Finally, under a separate decree, social assistance paid to asylum seekers in cash has been reduced and the share paid in kind at reception centres increased.

Steps taken by the Irish government have the effect of reducing access to welfare payments for asylum claimants by deeming that those who had applied for asylum or protection status in Ireland could not be considered as habitually resident while awaiting a determination. In the Netherlands, group protection for asylum seekers has been removed on the grounds that sufficient safeguards now exist to take the overall situation in the country of origin into consideration in the individual assessment of whether someone needs protection. Policy towards unaccompanied minors has also been changed with the abolition of residence permits for them.

For those claiming asylum in Spain, a new abridged emergency procedure has been established. Although it allows Spanish authorities abroad the option to facilitate the travel of an asylum seeker to Spain for the purpose of submitting the application, the new law does not allow for an asylum application to be submitted outside Spain. Furthermore, refugee resettlement within the UNHCR programme framework is now subject to an annual quota. As with Spain, the new law in Switzerland envisages abolition of the current possibility to request asylum in Swiss embassies abroad.

Measures to facilitate the integration of asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants continue to be adopted

In parallel with the tightening of admission, some countries have introduced measures to ease the constraints on humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers, for example by granting the right to work to asylum seekers, extending rights and assistance to those granted subsidiary protection, and by concessions for family migration. The underlying rationale is to facilitate the integration of those who can be expected to remain in the country for longer, and to provide incentives for active co-operation in the treatment of asylum requests.

The right to work has been extended to all asylum seekers lawfully in Australia and actively engaged in resolving their visa status. New regulations in Norway broadened the concept of refugee to include those granted subsidiary protection status. Because of this change, the right to family reunification has been strengthened for those who are included under the extended refugee concept. An amendment to the Swedish Alien Act allows persons who are granted a residence permit as a refugee to be automatically granted refugee status, thereby limiting red tape for humanitarian migrants.

New legislation in Spain eases the situation for humanitarian migrants in some respects. Those with subsidiary protection status now have equal rights to those with refugee status, including family reunification. Reasons for granting protection have also been broadened to include persecution arising from gender, sexual orientation or identity of an individual. Alleged agents of persecution in an asylum application now include not only the State, but also parties or organisations that control the State or a considerable part of its territory, as well non-governmental entities.

4. Tackling irregular migration remains a challenge

Countries continue to try to direct migration to legal channels, although most already have substantial legislation for this in place. No major amnesties have been announced, but programmes to allow regularisation of individuals have been introduced. Several countries have strengthened sanctions against employers. Some significant moves have been made to deal with crime and criminal activities where migrants are involved, sometimes in the name of security.

Border controls continue to be tightened

Stricter border management is a common theme among OECD countries, related to issues of security, as well as control of illegal flows. The measures in this respect included the introduction of better information systems, policing and border infrastructure.

For the most part, developments have either been in the form of reorganisation of enforcement authorities and/or better operational management, often in association with partner countries (see also Section 7 and Box I.4). Two new similar developments include Canadian participation in an international biometric information-sharing framework, and Finland's new action plan against illegal immigration which involves developing preventive measures in co-operation with other EU member countries and the countries of origin.

Identifying the correct identity of an immigrant is often challenging. In order to improve the identity and documentation work for both the application process and when preparing for the return for persons without a legal residence, Norway established a national identification and documentation centre. At a more general level, Italy increased the penalties for illegal immigration, restricted access to public services for undocumented

immigrants and tripled the maximum detention period for undocumented foreigners to 180 days. A comprehensive plan for enhanced border protection and law enforcement activities has been adopted in the United States.

Regularisation tends to be increasingly at the individual level

The era of large-scale regularisations has gone for the moment.[4] Although Poland is considering an amnesty for irregular immigrants, no other country has announced that it is following this route. Measures that have been adopted are mainly designed to help the most vulnerable, as in Mexico, Spain and Bulgaria.

Victim support has increasingly become a reason for action. Proposals for regularisation in Mexico and measures for the protection of migrants within the country are aimed particularly at unaccompanied minors who are migrants and migrants who are in situations of vulnerability. Similarly, legislative proposals in the Netherlands mention procedures for regularisation and the protection of migrants within the country, particularly unaccompanied minors and others who are regarded as vulnerable.

New legislation in Spain and Bulgaria allows women who are the victims of domestic violence to be granted a temporary residence permit. When such women are in Spain as irregular immigrants, the expulsion order is suspended and they may be granted temporary residence. The legislation also extends the right to non-compulsory education of illegally resident foreigners. There is a minimum period of 30 days for the victims of human trafficking to recover and reflect, during which a temporary stay is authorised and disciplinary procedures or enforcement of removal or refoulement are suspended. Building on its anti-trafficking and smuggling legislation, Bulgaria introduced, in 2009, measures for the protection and re-integration of victims, including provision of temporary shelter and minimum standards of support. The main target is women from vulnerable groups.

In Ireland, the emphasis has been less on those who either entered illegally or changed status unofficially and more on those workers who become undocumented through no fault of their own. A special "Undocumented Workers Scheme" ran through 2009 and allowed non-EEA nationals, who can show that their undocumented status is due to the action or inaction of their employer, to obtain a temporary immigration permission of four months within which to seek legitimate employment. However, the scheme was not considered a regularisation and the numbers taking advantage of it have been small.

In the context of significant irregular migration, a draft legislative proposal for a new migration law to replace existing regulations is under negotiation in Mexico. If accepted, it will establish conditions for entry and exit of persons according to respect for human rights, independently of their legal situation.

More countries are introducing sanctions against employers and sponsors

The last few years have seen sanctions aimed at the employers of unauthorised workers in several countries. Most active have been the European OECD countries, partly inspired by the 2009 EU directive on "minimum standards on sanctions and measures against employers of illegally staying third-country nationals".

In Lithuania, a new law on the prohibition of illegal employment replaces an existing fragmented system. It will result in continuous monitoring of the situation and the collection of statistics on the illegal employment of foreigners. In addition, there will be another basis for granting residence permits to aliens who have been particularly exploited by employers, as long as they co-operate with law enforcement authorities.

More attention to labour inspection in Norway is designed to combat social dumping by strengthening the power of the authorities to go into workplaces to ensure that laws, regulations and applicable collective agreements are adhered to, and to impose sanctions in the event of non-compliance. Identity cards for workers in the building and construction sector have been introduced and a similar measure is under consideration for the cleaning sector.

Spain has taken a broader view, introducing penalties both for workers and any employer who does not register them with the social security system. Sanctions also apply against the sponsors of migrants who subsequently transgress. New legislation introduces the possibility of sanctioning any person who invites a foreigner to stay in Spain, if this person overstays once the period of stay of the visa or authorisation has elapsed and they remain under the responsibility of the person who invited them.

Combating the criminal aspects of migration continues to be a challenge

The main efforts are still directed at the prevention of human trafficking and smuggling. However, security issues, illegal working and criminal activities are also causes of concern.

In Norway, a new action plan against all kinds of trafficking, including sexual exploitation, organised begging, forced labour and illegal donation of organs is being prepared. In 2009, the purchase of sexual services was criminalised in Norway. Information campaigns were conducted to limit the demand for and purchase of such services. New measures for apprehending immigrants involved in criminal activities and irregular migrants have been adopted. They include co-operation projects in four major cities between the police and immigration authorities, local registration units for asylum seekers close to the borders, transportation facilities from the border to the central registration office for asylum seekers and increased numbers of police controls close to the borders.

Tackling smuggling increasingly involves border co-operation. Italy passed a new law making illegal entry and residence in the Italian state a crime and also signed an agreement with Libya for the collective rejection and return to Libya of foreign-born citizens attempting to enter Italy by sea.

Denmark introduced new procedures for the expulsion of foreigners deemed a threat to national security. In Finland, co-operation and exchange of information between tax authorities and those in charge of immigration issues has been intensified to curb financial crime and the "grey" economy.

In the Netherlands, steps have been taken to give the police greater powers to search premises for identity documents in the course of investigative activities during alien detention. High attention in the public debate has been given in Switzerland to the departure of foreign nationals with criminal records. In November 2010, a popular initiative on the expulsion of foreign criminals has been adopted by majority of the people and the cantons. It states that foreign nationals who have committed one of the criminal offenses stated in the text of the initiative should lose their right of residence and return to their country of origin. The initiative still has to be transformed into legislation.

Mexico has introduced measures to fight the kidnapping of migrants. A new law classifies kidnapping as a crime without a statute of limitations, to be punished with a minimum sentence of 20 years in prison. In addition, new proposals are aimed at dissuading Mexicans from emigrating through informal channels.

5. Policies to encourage migrants to return to their countries of origin are growing

Emigration countries increasingly try to re-attract their citizens – especially the highly-skilled – from abroad

A number of countries which have seen a large exodus of emigrants over the past decade now face growing labour shortages and are trying to attract their diasporas to return.

The new Polish migration strategy would grant foreigners with confirmed Polish origin the constitutional right to settle in Poland. Financial support to municipalities inviting repatriates and providing them with housing is proposed in a new bill, designed to speed up repatriation. In Estonia, financial return support is available already since 1992, and in 2010 a specialised web site aimed at connecting Estonians living abroad with possible employers in Estonia was put in place.

However, policy developments in some countries have been tempered by the recession. In Bulgaria, for example, one effect of recession has been a slowdown in the policy of promoting the immigration of ethnic Bulgarians living abroad. Although this remains part of a long-term strategy to address population ageing, the worsening labour market situation and budgetary restrictions on information campaigns designed to promote the return of skilled Bulgarians from abroad meant that programmes to encourage this were stopped in 2009.

On the other hand, the preferential ancestry-based immigration provisions in Finland are being phased out. Amendments to the Finnish Aliens Act, due to come into force during 2011, mean that the specific return migration system for Ingrian Finns will be closed down after a transition period of five years, after which they can only move to Finland through general migration channels.

Promotion of return of foreign nationals to their countries of origin is becoming more common

A major policy trend is to promote the voluntary return of migrants to their origin countries, often but not always without the right to remain. Frequently, such policies are implemented in association with the International Organisation for Migration (IOM). For example, one of the main priorities of the Bulgarian government's migration strategy in 2009 was the voluntary return of irregular migrants, and a Memorandum of Understanding was signed with the IOM aiming at implementing this. At the same time, a joint project with other EU member countries was implemented for a voluntary return of asylum seekers.

The economic slowdown has been the main reason for the introduction of policies on the voluntary return of migrants, notably in Japan, Spain and the Czech Republic. In Japan, the government made funds available for the return to their home countries of unemployed people of Japanese descent who had abandoned hope of re-employment and wished to go back.

A different approach has been adopted in Denmark, where an amendment to the Repatriation Act was designed to encourage voluntary return by certain groups. It was based on the assumption that repatriation could be seen as an attractive alternative to a life in Denmark for elderly persons and for persons without contact with the labour market and surrounding society and with little chance of better integration. The financial benefit for re-establishment in the home country was increased significantly for each adult. In addition, a foreigner with a residence permit based on family reunification must have had

a residence permit in Denmark for at least 5 years to qualify for financial assistance for repatriation. To make repatriation more attractive, among other measures, the age condition to be eligible for the reintegration allowance for elderly persons was lowered from 60 to 55 years of age.

Several projects are being carried out as part of the overall return policy programme in Finland. It is based on signing agreements with origin countries, aimed at promoting voluntary and forced return. So far, agreements have been drawn up with Afghanistan and Iraq. The target group consists of citizens of the two countries whose asylum applications or other applications for a residence permit have been refused, who are in the asylum procedure or who are staying in Finland with a residence permit. Meanwhile, the Finnish immigration police has stepped up removal of irregular foreign nationals from the country. The objective is to make an increasing number of persons faced with expulsion return voluntarily.

Reintegration allowances are another avenue for promoting voluntary return. From 2009, foreign nationals from non-OECD countries without a permit for legal residence in Norway may now benefit from reintegration allowances, if they opt to return voluntarily through programmes operated by IOM. The system is graduated, with persons applying prior to the departure deadline receiving the most money.

The return of rejected asylum seekers has been a priority for many countries for well over a decade and a range of policies has been introduced. This continues, most recently in Sweden, which has allocated an additional fund to the Migration Board to smooth the progress of assisted voluntarily return by means of information, motivation and financial support for reintegration in the home country. Apart from covering the costs for the return journey, the Board can grant allowances to certain groups of failed asylum seekers who opt for voluntary return to countries where reintegration might be difficult.

The Netherlands also took several measures, including greater co-operation with organisations working to bring about the foreign national's return; a high priority for measures to deal with criminal foreign nationals; and co-operation with the countries of origin and with local authorities and civil society in the area of return.

6. EU legislation continues to be a driver of policy in European OECD countries

Over the past few years, EU legislation has been a driver of policy in European OECD countries. In 2010, a number of new initiatives have been proposed at the EU level which are likely to have an impact on policy developments in European OECD countries in the coming years as well (see Box I.4).

For most of the decade, freedom of movement has been a concern to both old and new EU members. Since 1 May 2009 – when Belgium and Denmark opened labour market access for workers from the countries which had entered the EU on 1 May 2004 (EU8) – the labour markets of 24 out of the 27 EU member countries and from Norway are fully opened to EU8 nationals. In the United Kingdom, since 2004, the labour market has already essentially been open for nationals from the EU8, who are only required to register with the Workers Registration Scheme within 30 days of starting their employment in the country. Only in Austria and Germany, workers from the EU8 still generally have to pass a labour market test permit prior to starting employment, although the conditions for obtaining such a permit have been eased in some sectors and professions. In Switzerland, numerical limits apply for labour migrants from the EU8. All transitional measures have ceased on 30 April 2011.

Box I.4. **Main developments in immigration policy at the EU level in 2010**

Adoption of a harmonised legislative framework in the area of labour migration

In 2010, the Commission presented two proposals for directives, which the Council of Ministers and the European Parliament have begun to examine. It thereby completed its role in the implementation of the policy plan on legal migration that it had adopted in 2005, since trainees have been included in one of these proposals and therefore will not be dealt with in a separate initiative as initially planned.

The first proposal concerns intra-corporate transfers of non-EEA/Swiss nationals working for companies established in countries outside of the European Economic Area and Switzerland ("third countries"). It is aimed at supplementing the 1996 directive concerning the posting of workers by undertakings established in a member country in the framework of the provision of services, the scope of which is limited to intra-corporate transfers within companies established in the European Union. The purpose of this directive is to promote the transfer of qualified employees in multinational companies with offices in the European Union. By this, the European Union seeks to become more attractive to these companies through an approach similar to that set out in the 2009 directive on the conditions of entry and residence of non-EEA/Swiss nationals for the purposes of highly-qualified employment (the so-called "Blue Card Directive"), and thereby meet the commitments of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). The persons targeted are managers and specialists and graduate trainees, provided that they have been employed for at least one year. They may be transferred within the same group of companies for a maximum period of three years. The facilitating measures envisaged are a single procedure leading to one permit valid as both residence and work authorisation, the assurance of receiving a reply within 30 days of the application being filed and more favourable conditions governing family reunification than under ordinary law. In order to promote the mobility of workers in companies having offices in several EU member countries, the permit issued by one member country would be valid in another for a maximum period of one year. If this component of the proposal were adopted, it would be the first time that the principle of the mutual recognition would be applied in the area of temporary labour migration.

The second proposal concerns seasonal workers, whose employment in the European Union is limited to a maximum of six months per year. The aim is to facilitate their admission through a single permit procedure, combining a residence and work authorisation; a provision requiring member countries to reply to any application within 30 days; and, possibly, a permit lasting up to three consecutive seasons. The proposal also aims at combating possible exploitation of seasonal workers by requiring employers to ensure that they have decent accommodations and by enabling trade unions and non-governmental organisations to initiate any administrative or civil procedure on their behalf with a view to ensuring compliance with the directive.

The negotiations on the directive establishing a single permit and a common set of rights for third-country workers proposed by the Commission already in 2007 continued without producing results in 2010. In December, the European Parliament rejected the text in a plenary session following the adoption of an amendment authorising member countries to issue additional documents in contradiction with the objective of a single residence and work permit.

Co-operation in combating illegal immigration

In February 2010, the Council of Ministers of Justice and Home Affairs approved a number of measures aimed at reinforcing the protection of the external borders and combating illegal immigration. This is a diverse set of measures, and most of them are focused on existing initiatives regarding which there was a desire to make rapid progress. Some progress has been made in the discussions on bolstering the Frontex Agency. In addition, a number of risk analysis networks in the field of illegal immigration were established, and several simplified agreements by the Frontex Agency with third countries to promote international co-operation in the field of external border control were signed. Finally, Frontex opened its first specialised office in charge of the Eastern Mediterranean in Greece and organised its first return flight, for a group of illegally residing foreigners to Georgia.

Box I.4. **Main developments in immigration policy at the EU level in 2010** *(cont.)*

The year 2010 was also marked by the deployment of the first Rapid Border Intervention Team at the external EU border with Turkey. This Rapid Border Intervention Team, which was deployed on 2 November at the request of Greece, which could no longer monitor this border alone, consisted of 190 persons (mainly border guards) from the other EU member countries.

Co-ordination in the management of legal immigration flows

In 2010, the Pact on Immigration and Asylum adopted by the European Council in 2008 was the subject of an initial report by the Commission on its implementation, on the basis of which the Council adopted conclusions in June 2010. The Commission observed that the Mutual Information Mechanism was not meeting expectations and recommended that the member countries improve reporting on important national developments through future Annual Reports on Immigration and Asylum. It considered that member countries and the Commission should continue to improve labour matching and skills recognition. It also proposed preparatory work to consolidate legislation in the field of immigration, starting with legal immigration as specified in the Stockholm Programme.

In the Europe 2020 strategy that followed the Lisbon strategy, the issue of migration is addressed in one of the seven flagship initiatives devoted to "new skills for new jobs". The Commission aims at promoting a comprehensive, future-oriented labour migration policy to respond to labour needs in a flexible way.

In addition, the guidelines for the employment policies of the member countries were revised in 2010 and now explicitly include targeted immigration and integration policies.

Co-operation in integration policies

With the coming into force of the Lisbon Treaty in December 2009, the European Union now has clearly-established competence regarding the integration of immigrants. In light of this, the fourth European Ministerial Conference on Integration was held in Zaragoza in April 2010. The most significant element of the conclusions adopted on this occasion concerned the launch of European modules for migrant integration intended to help the member countries set up integration programmes. The themes concern language learning and courses introducing the host society, integration by the host community and the active participation of immigrants in all aspects of collective life.

External relations

As a result of the third EU-Africa summit in November 2010, a new action plan for partnership on migration, mobility and development was adopted for the 2011-13 period. Among the practical activities planned is the establishment of an African institute on remittances, the creation of a framework of co-operation for diasporas and of a monitoring centre on migration providing broader coverage of the countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (ACP), which began its activities in 2010. The parties also agreed, in a joint declaration on migration and development, to launch an ACP-EU dialogue on the basis of the three pillars of a comprehensive approach to migration (migration and development, legal migration and illegal migration).

Concerning the 2007 EU enlargement, currently 15 of the EU25 member countries have opened their labour markets completely to workers from Bulgaria and Romania (EU2). The EU8 countries and Sweden had already fully opened their labour markets in January 2007. Greece, Hungary, Portugal and Spain followed in January 2009, and Denmark in May 2009. Transitional arrangements for EU2 countries can be applied until the end of 2013 by the EEA member countries, and until 2016 by Switzerland.

The new EU member countries have been busy incorporating the Schengen *acquis* and EU Directives into their legal systems. This process continues. Indeed, the European countries outside the EU15 have been most active in the implementation EU-related policy developments, although in some cases progress has been affected by the economic slowdown.

Bulgaria introduced a National Action Plan for the full application of the provisions of the Schengen *acquis* and for the abolition of control at its external borders. This involved the introduction of new ID documents with biometric data. In January 2011, Romania passed the last stage of technical procedures which it had to follow in order to access the Schengen area. In parallel, new legislation is in preparation to transpose a number of EU directives.

Several countries are in the process of implementing the EU Blue Card Directive and a few, including France, have already transposed it. Government proposals in Finland for implementation will be submitted to Parliament in 2011 and in the Czech Republic their issue to foreigners will enter into force in 2011. In Lithuania, where EU directives are the main determinants of new schemes of immigration and new grounds for residence permits, the immigration system for highly skilled workers will be simplified and accelerated through the use of a Blue Card. In Romania, the process of implementing the Directive is at the consultation stage with stakeholders.

Since 2010, Switzerland has participated in the European fund for external frontiers, one of the four finance instruments of the programme "solidarity and management of migration flows" whereby EU member countries share responsibility for integrated management of the EU's external frontiers and implement communal policies governing asylum and immigration. Switzerland plans to link up with the Schengen Information System in 2011. In addition, the Swiss Parliament has approved harmonisation with the EU of the methodology of repatriation of illegal immigrants.

In February 2010, the Federal Council in Switzerland approved a number of measures aimed at limiting potential abuses in the framework of the freedom of movement with nationals from the EEA. The measures include restrictions of access to the welfare system for nationals from these countries. In addition, controls against wage and social dumping and against so-called "false self-employment" have been reinforced. In light of these measures and a decline in immigration flows, the government decided in May 2010 not to invoke the safeguard clause to restrict immigration from the EEA.

Although no legislation has yet been drafted, Turkey's Action Plan on Immigration and Asylum envisages the adoption of the EU *acquis*, along with lifting the geographical limitation on the 1951 Geneva Convention.

7. International co-operation addresses an increasingly broad variety of objectives

In recent years, there has been a renewed interest in international co-operation. This has included new international fora such as the Global Forum for Migration and Development, but the main attention has been on bilateral agreements between origin and destination countries.

The objectives behind such bilateral agreements often tend to be multi-fold. The primary objective is generally to reduce irregular migration, by strengthening migration management and border control capacities in origin countries. For example, a bilateral agreement between Italy and Libya in May 2009 substantially reduced illegal migration across the Straits of Sicily. Reducing irregular migration is also a key objective of readmission agreements, such as the ones signed in 2010 by Switzerland with Kosovo, Kazakhstan, Moldavia and Benin, or migration partnerships, such as the one about to be signed between Nigeria and Switzerland including, among other issues, provisions on return assistance and readmission.

Some bilateral agreements also aim at a better selection of less-skilled temporary labour, while contributing to the development of origin countries. In order to reduce illegal fee-taking and to ensure rotation, the Israeli government started a pilot seasonal agricultural worker programme with Sri Lanka in October 2010.

Relatively few recent co-operations focus primarily at labour migration. One example is Slovenia, which engaged in negotiations about bilateral agreements with some of the main countries of origin of migrants, particularly Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, that aim at facilitating labour migration from these countries.

8. Integration and citizenship policies continue to attract policy attention

Integration policies are increasingly focused on new arrivals, linked with compulsory measures.

The ongoing expansion of integration programmes

Since the late 1990s, the design of integration policies in OECD countries has focused on improving the ability of newly arrived immigrants to communicate in the host country language and their knowledge of the principal institutions of the host society. Integration programmes targeting new arrivals – especially family migrants and refugees – are becoming widespread. Many OECD countries have had such programmes for many years, but are now expanding their scale and scope.

In Denmark, an amendment to the Integration Act adopted in May 2010 widened the target group of public integration efforts. As a consequence, all newly arrived refugees and family reunified persons are now entitled to a full integration programme. The full programme comprises a language course, the newly introduced course of Danish society and Danish culture and history, as well as the so-called "offers of active involvement", including training and other measures to facilitate participation in the labour market. Prior to the reform, employment-related activities were offered only to immigrants receiving an introduction allowance. In addition, since August 2010, the Integration Act also covers newly arrived labour migrants, students and nationals of EU and EEA countries benefiting from the rules on free movement of persons in the EU. These groups are offered an "introduction course", which is a lighter version of the integration programme.

Likewise, in Finland, the new Act on the Promotion of Integration which will enter into force in September 2011 expands the scale and scope of integration measures. The main focus of the new Act is the promotion of integration at early stages. The act will apply to all immigrants with a valid residence permit. At present, integration measures only apply to immigrants who are registered as unemployed. Under the new Act, all immigrants will obtain basic information on the Finnish society as well as on their rights and obligations upon reception of their residence permit. They will also be entitled to a needs assessment regarding language training and to determine whether they require a tailor-made integration plan, which can last for up to a year. In addition, the new act includes provisions for trials to study new models of training and/or labour market insertation. The new act also regulates the competences of the municipalities in the integration process, as well as the financing of municipal integration plans.

In Sweden, a new comprehensive act on the introduction of new arrivals entered into force in December 2010. As a result, the Public Employment Service has taken over the primary responsibility for co-ordinating the introduction activities from the municipalities,

thus strengthening the role of measures aimed at speeding up insertion of newly arrived immigrants into the labour market. The target group of the act now also includes newly arrived immigrants aged 18-19 years who have no parents in Sweden, in addition to humanitarian migrants and their family members who continue to be eligible. Introduction activities are defined in individual introduction plans, jointly established by the Public Employment Service and the immigrant on the basis of a needs assessment. Participation in the introduction activities remains voluntary, but the incentives to take up work have been strengthened by substituting the previous means-tested social benefits with an individual introduction benefit which allows the recipient to keep most of the income from employment. Incentives have also been strengthened regarding language learning. Already since September 2010, municipalities can pay a performance-based bonus to newly-arrived immigrants who successfully pass studies in "Swedish for Immigrants" within 12 months.

The scope of integration courses has also been extended in Slovenia. Since 2011, all non-EEA migrants residing on the basis of a temporary residence permit issued for at least one year, as well as family members who get temporary residence based on family reunion provisions, are eligible for these courses which include introduction in the Slovene language, history, culture and political system.

Countries are interlinking residence and integration policies

In a growing number of OECD countries, the participation in integration measures and/or the proof of a certain level of mastery of the host country language is mandatory for non-labour migrants, either already prior to admission or thereafter.

In Italy, an integration contract has been made compulsory for the issuance of most new permits. The contents of the contract were announced in June 2010 and include the requirement for new arrivals to commit to the values expressed in the "Charter of Values of Citizenship and Integration", to acquire elementary language competence in Italian and to participate in a free course on civic values. However, mainly due to issues related to the financing and organisation of the integration courses by the local authorities, the integration contract has not yet been applied.

The obligation to sign an integration agreement and/or to commit to participate in introduction activities was introduced for certain groups of newly arrived immigrants from non-EEA countries in the past decade in Austria, Denmark, France, Germany and Norway.[5] In the Netherlands, compulsory integration programmes for new arrivals have existed already since 1998. The new coalition government formed in October 2010 is considering increasing the sanctions for not passing the civic integration test, by introducing – in certain cases – the possibility to withdraw temporary residence permits. Other proposals include the reintroduction of the requirement that immigrants pay for the entire immigration programme themselves.

Sanctions for non-participation in integration measures vary. In a growing number of European OECD countries, the possibility to obtain secured residence status for certain groups of migrants depends on their capacity to prove integration requirements. In Italy, since 2011, a long-term residence permit can be granted only to immigrants who demonstrate elementary Italian language skills. Likewise, in the Netherlands, since 1 January 2010, access to a permanent residence permit for non-EEA/Swiss nationals is conditional on passing the civic integration examination.[6] A similar obligation is currently under consideration in Norway.

Denmark was the first country to introduce, in June 2010, a points-based system for access to permanent residence permits. In order to qualify for a permanent residence permit, immigrants must score a total of 100 points in a points-based system, in addition to meeting more standard criteria such as four years duration of residence, lack of criminal record and maintenance. Points are awarded for mastery of Danish, employment or study in Denmark and for "active citizenship". This latter requirement can be fulfilled through participation in councils and other organisations of the civil society. An "Active Citizenship Exam" is currently being developed which will be proposed as an alternative. In case of failure to obtain the required points, the immigrant can apply for an extension of the temporary residence permit and apply for a permanent residence permit at a later date.

Proof of mastery of the host country language and, in some cases, of knowledge of the main aspects of the host county's culture and society is a condition for obtaining a permanent residence permit also in other European OECD countries such as Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom.

Integration of established migrants – and their children – remains a priority for policy

In spite of the recent emphasis on the adoption of integration measures for newly arrived immigrants, integration policies in OECD countries continue to address the broader objective of fostering the socio-economic inclusion of immigrants, often in the form of comprehensive action plans. Measures targeted at labour market integration, in particular regarding the recognition of foreign qualifications, have also been prominent in 2009-10. In addition, the integration of the offspring of immigrants continues to attract significant policy attention.

Action plans for integration are becoming widespread

In recent years, a growing number of OECD countries have been implementing their integration policies through the adoption of comprehensive action plans, targeting all domains of the integration process (labour market, education, health, housing, social, etc.).

In Austria, the first National Action Plan on Integration was adopted in 2009. It focuses on areas such as language and education, work and employment, constitutional state and values, health and social issues, intercultural dialogue, housing as well as the regional dimension of integration. Among the main objectives is to improve the co-ordination between all responsible parties in the area of integration. Germany is also in the process of establishing a National Action Plan, which is expected to be finalised in the second half of 2011.

In Norway, in each year in the period 2007-10, in connection with the presentation of the proposals for next year's fiscal budget, the government presented a plan of action for integration and social inclusion of immigrants and their children. In the fiscal budget for 2011, key measures include quicker settlement of refugees in local communities, employment and free core time in kindergartens.

A more narrow action plan was adopted by Bulgaria in January 2011, focusing on refugees. The plan outlines measures for the period 2011-13 to facilitate the integration of refugees through improved reception, housing, employment, education, social welfare, health care, and updating and improving the legal framework on the rights and obligations of refugees.

The labour market is increasingly in the focus of integration policies

Strengthening the integration of immigrants and their offspring into the labour market is one of the key objectives under the Danish plan "Denmark 2020", which was launched in February 2010. Also in Japan, in the context of the economic crisis, the labour market integration of immigrants has been a key focus area. In January 2009, the government released "Immediate Short-Term Support Measures for Foreign Residents in Japan", a package of measures whose main target is the integration or reintegration of unemployed foreigners into the labour market. Measures include the establishment of service centres in areas with high foreign population and language courses for unemployed foreigners, especially those with Japanese ancestry. In August 2010, under the "Basic Policy for Foreign Residents of Japanese Descent", further measures were taken to support foreigners with Japanese ancestry.

In light of skills shortages and evidence that immigrants' foreign qualifications are largely discounted on the labour market (see OECD, 2007 and OECD, 2009), several OECD countries have taken initiatives to improve and speed up the assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications.

In Germany, setting up structures to enable the recognition of vocational qualifications acquired abroad is one of the priorities of the government with respect to integration, and is also seen as a tool to help alleviating shortages of skilled labour. A new law on the recognition of foreign qualifications is currently being elaborated in Germany, which will provide a legal right to a recognition procedure for all immigrants with foreign qualifications. Bridging offers for those who do not get full recognition are also foreseen.

The assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications is also a key issue in the OECD countries with longstanding policies to attract highly-qualified migrants. In Canada, the Pan-Canadian Framework for the Assessment and Recognition of Foreign Qualifications was launched at the end of 2009. The framework sets out a common approach to provide timely and consistent assessment and recognition processes of foreign qualifications, beginning overseas where feasible, to facilitate the integration of internationally trained individuals into the Canadian labour market. In Sweden, a joint project by the National Agency for Higher Vocational Education and the Public Employment Service aims at validating foreign professional qualifications in numerous occupations. Efforts are made to match new arrivals with vocational mentors to improve the prospects of acquiring jobs that correspond to the individual's education and professional background. In addition, a number of universities and colleges are assigned to arrange supplementary courses for non-EEA nationals with a foreign university degree in areas such as health care, law, and teacher education.

Integration of the children of immigrants is a key concern

Education of the children of immigrants is among the priority areas of integration policy. In Denmark, a new agreement was signed between the Government, the municipalities and the social partners in October 2010 which proposes a number of measures to improve training and education for the offspring of immigrants. In Finland, the new *Act on the Promotion of Integration* includes provisions on testing new models for teaching children of immigrants.

Sweden launched a general programme to improve educational performance in school. Together with mainstream measures, actions targeting newly arrived children of immigrants are being implemented. Among other measures, teachers are offered training

to develop their proficiency in teaching Swedish as a second language. In addition, at the end of 2008, the Swedish regional Agency for Education issued guidelines on education of newly arrived students. The package of short-term support measures for foreign residents introduced in Japan in 2009 also contains educational measures for the children of immigrants.

Measures to promote the education of the children of immigrants have also been recently put in place in some Central and Eastern European countries. In Poland, in January 2010, new provisions were introduced which include a right to year-long assistance during school classes for foreign pupils who have difficulties with Polish language. In addition, the right of foreign students to free-of-charge education, which applied previously only to primary and lower secondary schools, has been extended to general secondary, technical secondary and basic vocational public schools. In Hungary, a targeted programme was introduced, providing social and educational assistance to children of refugees, to facilitate their integration into the national educational system.

Avoiding concentration of children of immigrants from low socio-economic backgrounds in schools is a key challenge for education policy in many European OECD countries. In Italy, the Ministry of Education set in January 2010 a 30% ceiling on the enrolment of foreign-born non-Italian students in a single classroom.

There is some convergence in citizenship policies

The conditions under which citizenship is granted have become a major policy issue in most OECD countries. In the past decade, most OECD countries have reformed their legislation regarding access to citizenship. Although criteria for access to citizenship continue to vary considerably across countries, recent reforms have led to some convergence, notably in the minimum residence requirements for naturalisation (see also OECD, 2011).

Residence requirements for ordinary naturalisation are now generally between five and eight years. In Greece, a new citizenship law was adopted in March 2010, lowering the minimum length of residence for candidates for naturalisation from ten to seven years. A reduction in the residency requirements for naturalisation is also planned under the comprehensive revision of the law on citizenship underway in Switzerland. Currently, Switzerland applies the longest length of residence for naturalisation among OECD countries.[7] The reform project aims, among other objectives, at lowering it from twelve to eight years.

In Finland, a reform of the Nationality Act is under consideration in parliament which proposes to shorten the minimum length of residence for all candidates for naturalisation from six to five years. In addition, further reductions of the qualifying length of residence for naturalisation are foreseen for students having completed their studies in Finland and for foreigners with good knowledge of either Finnish or Swedish (that is, the two national languages). The latter could be granted citizenship after four years of residence in Finland.

Conversely, in Belgium, a proposal aimed at tightening residence requirements for naturalisation is under discussion in parliament. Currently, the Belgian Nationalilty Code is among the most liberal legislations in this respect, with three years legal residence required for general candidates for naturalisation, reduced to two for refugees or a stateless person. The main proposal is for those requirements to be raised to five years and to two and a half years, respectively.

Another trend which has emerged over the past decade relates to the introduction of elements of *ius soli* in the citizenship laws of countries where inheritance, rather than birth in the host country, was the means for acquiring citizenship. This has been an issue in the Southern European OECD countries which have recently emerged as countries of immigration. In Greece, Greek-born children of foreigners or foreign-born children with six years of Greek schooling can now be granted nationality by declaration, provided that both parents have been residing legally in Greece for at least five years. In addition, children of immigrants who have been enrolled in a Greek education establishment for at least three years are entitled to apply for Greek nationality at the age of majority. Similar regulations on the acquisition on citizenship by children of foreign parents had been adopted in Portugal in 2006.

Likewise, in Italy, a proposal for a reform of citizenship law which would bring in an element of *ius soli* in the legislation was introduced in Parliament in December 2009. The planned reform proposes to allow children of immigrants who are Italian-born under a number of conditions to automatically acquire Italian citizenship provided that they claim it within one year following maturity. Another amendment would facilitate acquisition of Italian nationality for descendents of Italians abroad. For immigrants themselves, however, the proposed reform would lead to stricter qualifying conditions for naturalisation, including the requirement to hold a long-term residence permit and participate in a one-year citizenship course.

In the past decade, access to nationality has become contingent on verification of the extent of the candidates' "integration" and so-called "citizenship tests" which assess knowledge about the host country's language, history and institutions are now widespread across OECD countries. Among the countries which have them are Australia, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Citizenship withdrawal is an issue in several countries. In the Netherlands, since October 2010, citizenship can be withdrawn as a sanction to immigrants who have severely harmed Dutch interests. The possibility of depriving naturalised foreigners of their acquired citizenship in the case they commit serious crimes is currently also under parliamentary discussion in Belgium.[8]

In the Central and Eastern European countries which have been countries of emigration, concerns related to the status of nationals living abroad were among the main drivers of recent amendments to nationality legislation. In Hungary, a simplified and preferential naturalisation procedure for persons of Hungarian descent entered into force in August 2010. Foreigners who can demonstrate Hungarian ancestry and language proficiency as well as lack of criminal record are no longer subject to the residence requirement. They are also exempt from the condition to pass a "basic constitutional studies exam" in Hungarian which applies for other foreigners.

In Romania, amendments to the law on citizenship entered into force in November 2009. The new regulations facilitate naturalisation, under certain conditions, of former Romanian citizens and their offspring. Likewise, in Poland, a new Act on Nationality which is currently pending a decision by the Constitutional Tribunal includes provisions for the restoration of Polish citizenship.

Dual nationality is now allowed in a growing number of countries, as a measure to overcome institutional obstacles to citizenship take-up. In Luxembourg, the new citizenship law of 2009 introduced dual nationality. In Lithuania, a new citizenship law reintroducing dual nationality under certain conditions was adopted in December 2010 and entered into force in April 2011. However, all children with dual nationality need to select one citizenship when reaching the age of 21.

Finally, in April 2009, Canada implemented amendments to the *Citizenship Act* to automatically restore citizenship to persons who had lost it under previous legislation, as a consequence to becoming citizens of another country, and to grant citizenship to their children. On the other hand, citizenship by descent was limited to one generation born outside of Canada.

The rights related to citizenship are gradually extended to non-nationals

Some countries – namely those where residence requirements to qualify for citizenship are particularly restrictive – have recently decided to partly liberalise their legislation concerning voting rights, as well as other rights traditionally attached to citizenship, in order to allow foreign long-term residents to participate in the political life of their host countries.

In Spain, since 2009 voting rights in municipal elections have been extended to non-EU foreign-nationals via reciprocity agreements with the countries of origin. At present such agreements have been approved with Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, Chile, Paraguay, New Zealand, and Bolivia. In addition, the fundamental rights of assembly, demonstration, association, union membership and strike – which previous legislation restricted to legal residents – have been extended to all foreigners in Spain, including irregular migrants.

In Greece, the new citizenship law of March 2010 introduced full local political rights (both active and passive) for foreign residents who have lived legally in Greece for at least five years, under certain conditions.

Finally, in Luxembourg, a law was adopted in December 2009 to facilitate the access to civil service for nationals of another EU country.

Summary and conclusion

In light of the crisis, labour migration has been somewhat less in the focus of policy developments than in previous years. Few countries have implemented significant policy changes in reaction to the crisis.

Countries which have had little labour migration and/or which have seen large emigration in the recent past tended towards greater opening, whereas some – mainly English-speaking countries – which had recently experienced large-scale inflows of migrants rather opted for more selectivity. This is perhaps most visible in the policies regarding international students. Whereas English-speaking countries have tended to scale back on the possibilities for international students to become labour migrants, non-English-speaking countries have taken the opposite route to facilitate such status changes. A similar trend can be observed in supply-driven labour migration, where countries such as Canada and the United Kingdom which had significant flows through this channel are scaling back, while others with little labour migration such as Austria are opening new pathways.

Categories of migration other than labour (and accompanying family of labour migrants) are increasingly facing restrictions, either because of integration concerns – as in the case of family migration, or because of security and migration management concerns – such as tightened border controls and asylum policies in wake of the renewed growth in the numbers of asylum seekers in many countries. While admission tends to become more difficult, the full set of rights – notably regarding labour market access – is granted for those who have been admitted. In the case of humanitarian migration, there is also a clear tendency to speed up the process and to get clearer-cut decisions, avoiding "in-between" statuses which hamper both integration and repatriation.

Some convergence of policies is also the result of EU legislation which exerts a growing impact on legislation not only in the many OECD countries which are member countries of the EU, but also in Switzerland, Norway and Turkey.

In the area of integration policies, the focus on comprehensive policies for new arrivals is ongoing, as is the trend towards more compulsory integration measures for non-labour migrants. Finally, a clear convergence trend is visible in the citizenship policies, notably regarding residence requirements, with the vast majority of OECD countries moving towards the range of five to eight years for the ordinary naturalisation procedure.

Notes

1. An even more stringent age criterion for family reunification of spouses and registered partners applies in Denmark where, since 2002, in general both the applicant and the beneficiary must be over 24 years of age to be eligible. In addition to the 24-year rule, among other criteria, both the spouses/partners have to pass an integration test.
2. Foreigners who have a residence permit on the ground of family ties, asylum, or other humanitarian reasons have to prove four years of education or work experience in Norway to be entitled to bring in the country their partners for the purpose of family formation. An extension of this four-year requirement to certain cases of family reunification is currently under consideration.
3. If this test reveals that the level is insufficient, prospective family migrants are required to follow a French language course for a period not exceeding two months, after which they have take the test again. However, failure to pass this second test does not hinder the issuance of the residence permit on the grounds of family reunification.
4. Italy was the last country to conduct a major regularisation, it concerned domestic and care workers and was conducted in September 2009, for anyone employed since April 2009. Employers had to demonstrate adequate income or justify their disability, as well as pay a EUR 500 fine. The government received about 295 000 applications.
5. In Switzerland, cantonal authorities may condition the delivery or the renewal of a residence permit on the migrant's commitment, under a "convention of integration", to participate in language or integration classes.
6. In the Netherlands, a pre-arrival integration test for prospective family migrants has been in force since 2006. Similar tests exist in Austria, Denmark, France and Germany. For more details on pre-embarkation tests for family migrants, see Section 2 on family migration.

7. Minimum residence requirements for ordinary naturalisation across OECD countries range from three years in Australia, Belgium and Canada to ten years in Austria, Italy, Slovenia and Spain and twelve years in Switzerland.
8. In France, the original proposal of the text of the new immigration law provided for the possibility of citizenship withdrawal for those French citizens who have been naturalised for less than 10 years and have been convicted for violence against public authority. However, this part of the legislation has been abolished during the parliamentary deliberations of the new law.

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PART II

Migrant Entrepreneurship in OECD Countries*

* This chapter was prepared by Maria Vincenza Desiderio (OECD) and Josep Mestres-Domènech (OECD). The authors gratefully acknowledge the Delegates of the Working Party on Migration who provided the OECD Secretariat with information on specific migration policies for foreign entrepreneurs and investors.

Executive summary

This chapter analyses migrant entrepreneurship and its contribution to employment creation in OECD countries. In addition, it reviews the policy measures established to fostering migrant entrepreneurship, both for prospective migrant entrepreneurs and for those already in the country.

On average across OECD countries, the percentage of migrant entrepreneurs differs only slightly from that of natives (12.6% *versus* 12.0%), but there are significant variations between countries and over time. Nevertheless, migrants are more likely to start a new business in most OECD countries, even if the survival rate of those businesses is lower than that for new businesses started by native-born entrepreneurs.

The contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to employment creation in OECD countries has been increasing steadily during the period 1998-2008. On average, a foreign-born self-employed who owns a small or medium firm creates between 1.4 and 2.1 additional jobs, slightly less than their native-born counterparts (1.8-2.8). Migrant entrepreneurs' contributions to the host-country economy are not limited to job creation, but expand to include innovation and trade.

The potential contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to the host-country's economic growth has drawn the attention of policy makers and several OECD countries have introduced specific migration policies to support them. Two different types of measures have been implemented. The first consists of targeted measures to support migrant entrepreneurs already established in the host country. Those measures aim at enhancing their human, social and financial capital in order to tackle the relative disadvantages they face compared with native-born entrepreneurs. A key element is to ensure equal access to finance among migrant and native entrepreneurs.

The second type of targeted measures includes specific admission policies that regulate the entry and stay of foreign entrepreneurs and investors in a country. These admission policies are designed to select those entrepreneurs whose human and financial capital and business projects are likely to meet the country's economic needs and ensure the success of their businesses. Nevertheless, migrant entrepreneurs accepted through these programmes represent only a small fraction of all migrant entrepreneurs in OECD countries, as most migrant entrepreneurs enter through other channels.

Introduction

Migrants contribute to the economic growth of their host countries in many ways, bringing new skills and talents with them and helping to reduce labour shortages. An aspect that has received only limited attention up to now is migrants' contribution to the economy through the direct creation of new businesses.

The main purpose of this chapter is to expand the existing knowledge on migrant entrepreneurship, providing a comprehensive picture of this phenomenon across OECD countries. To this aim, the contribution of migrants to growth in entrepreneurial activity

and employment creation is estimated in a cross-country comparative framework. In addition, the current profile of migrant entrepreneurs and their businesses is investigated, taking into account those aspects that go well beyond the stereotype image of small shopkeepers catering to the needs of their fellow migrants.

A majority of OECD countries have been adopting in the past decade specific policy measures aimed at fostering migrant entrepreneurship. Those measures include both *targeted support* programmes for migrant entrepreneurs already established in a country and aimed at enhancing their capacity to grow their businesses, and specific *admission* policies designed to select and attract those foreign entrepreneurs and investors whose human and financial capital and business project are likely to meet the needs of the national economy.

An additional objective of this chapter is to enable policy makers to have a better understanding of the key features of migrant entrepreneurship that could help them put in place the most effective measures to foster the success of migrant enterprises and their contribution to economic growth.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. The first section provides a profile of migrant entrepreneurs in OECD countries, including an estimate of the contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to overall employment creation in OECD countries. The second section analyses specific support measures implemented in OECD countries to enhance entrepreneurship among the immigrant population and specific admission policies targeted to migrant entrepreneurs.

1. Measuring migrant entrepreneurship and its contribution to employment creation in OECD countries

Migrants contribute to the economy both as employees and as entrepreneurs, creating new firms and businesses.

Comparing entrepreneurship and employment creation by migrants across OECD countries is not a straightforward exercise, due to the different data sources available for different countries and the lack of an internationally-agreed definition of a migrant entrepreneur. In this chapter, *migrant entrepreneurs* are defined as those foreign-born business owners "who seek to generate value through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying new products, processes or markets" (OECD's established definition of entrepreneur, OECD, 2008a). A standard practice in the entrepreneurship literature is to assimilate entrepreneurs to the self-employed,[1] whether or not they employ other persons. This approach is followed throughout the chapter, where the terms *self-employed* and *entrepreneur* are used interchangeably.[2]

Identifying *migrant* entrepreneurs is not an easy task, as it is necessary to link the migration status of the business owner to the business.[3] However, because the ownership of many firms (in particular publicly-listed companies) is atomised, there are many shareholders, and many may not even be individuals but other firms or corporations, making the link between the firm and the owner be difficult to determine. In addition, available databases on firms – and, notably, business registers – do not have information on the country of birth of the owner (see Mestres in OECD, 2010 for further discussion).

The study presented here therefore concentrates on *self-employed entrepreneurs* using labour force survey data. In this case, an explicit distinction between migrant entrepreneurs and native-born entrepreneurs can be made, and the main characteristics of the business identified. The analysis concentrates on non-agricultural entrepreneurs,[4] as is the norm in the research on entrepreneurship.

This chapter relies on data from the European Union Labour Force Survey, the US Current Population Survey (March supplement), the Australian Labour Force Survey and the Israeli CBS Labour Force Survey to analyse migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries. These data enable identification of those entrepreneurs who define themselves as self-employed, the number of employees that they employ in their business as well as a wide range of socio-demographic characteristics, both specific to self-employment (*i.e.* number of years as self-employed) and to the migration experience (*i.e.* number of years in the host country).

The data sources used in this section have some limitations, however. First, the number of persons who declare they are self-employed may underestimate the actual number of self-employed entrepreneurs. In particular, self-employed persons who own large firms may be underrepresented if they declare themselves as wage employees. On the other hand, the number of firms owned by self-employed entrepreneurs may be overestimated if a firm has several owners and each identifies him/herself as self-employed with employees.[5]

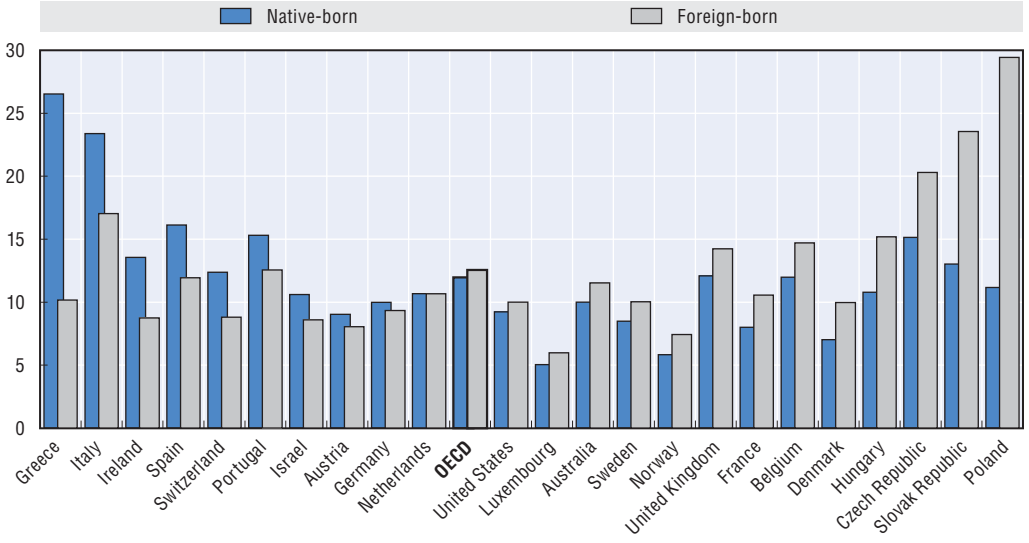
1.1. *The scope of migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries*

In most OECD countries the percentages of migrants and natives that are entrepreneurs differ only slightly

Migrants in OECD countries are on average only slightly more entrepreneurial than natives: 12.6% of migrants of working age were involved in non-agricultural entrepreneurship activities in 2007-08, compared with 12.0% among natives. Figure II.1 shows that the share of self-employment is higher among migrants than among natives in most OECD countries, although there are important differences across countries. In countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the share of entrepreneurs

Figure II.1. **Self-employed persons as a share of all employed persons, native- and foreign-born, 2007-08**

Percentages



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 2007-08; US CPS March Supplement, 2007-08; Australia Labour Force Survey, 2007-08; Israel CBS Labour Force Survey (Analysis by Myers, JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2007-08.

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in total employment is 1.5 to 2.9 percentage points higher for migrants compared with natives. In the United States, albeit to a lower degree, the share of migrant entrepreneurs is also higher.[6] Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Ireland, Israel,[7] Germany, Austria and Switzerland, however, are characterised by a lower migrant self-employment rate.

The two main regions with a high overall rate of self-employment are southern Europe and Central and Eastern Europe. However, while in Central and Eastern Europe the foreign-born tend to have a higher self-employment propensity than the native-born, the opposite is true in southern Europe. The over-representation of migrants in self-employment in Poland, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Hungary might be partly due to relatively flexible visa regulations for migrant entrepreneurs (see Section 2 below). Southern European countries' lower rates of migrant entrepreneurship may be a consequence of the fact that migration in these countries is a relatively recent phenomenon and concerns mostly low-skilled workers who may not have had time yet to build the necessary human, physical and social capital to start a business.

Many factors contribute to explain the differences across countries, including the business environment and the specific constraints that migrants might face the socio-demographic characteristics of migrants relative to natives, the specificities of migration trends, and the sector distribution of migrant employment, among others. Section 1.3 will analyse the determinants of migrant entrepreneurship and try to disentangle the role of these various factors.

The evolution of self-employment among migrants over time is not uniform among OECD countries (see Table II.1). In fact, there is almost no observable trend in either the foreign-born or native-born shares over the decade. In some OECD countries, the share of self-employed foreign-born in total foreign-born employment declined slightly between 1998-2000 and 2007-08. Usually, the trend observed for the foreign-born mimics that observed for the native-born. However, this is not the case in the United Kingdom and especially in Ireland and Spain, where migration increased significantly during the decade in question and was mainly composed by labour migration. In these countries, the share of wage employment increased.

Some countries, on the other hand, saw an increase in migrant entrepreneurship over the 1998-2008 period. In the Netherlands, for example, the share of foreign-born entrepreneurs increased by more than 3 percentage points over the past ten years. The increase is also significant in Austria (+2 percentage points) and to a lesser extent in Germany (+1.3 percentage points).[8]

The proportion of new migrant entrepreneurs in the labour force is much higher than among natives

The number of *new* entrepreneurs in a given year provides a dynamic measure of entrepreneurship, complementary to the stock of *existing* entrepreneurs. Table II.2 shows the estimated number of new entrepreneurs who created a business in a given year split between the foreign-born and the native-born. During the period 1998-2008, the annual number of new migrant entrepreneurs almost doubled in Germany (to over 100 000 per year) and in the United Kingdom (almost 90 000 per year). There were increases in the number of new migrant entrepreneurs as well in Spain (to over 75 000 new entrepreneurs per year), in Italy (to over 46 000) and in France (to over 35 000). In the United States, Fairlie (2008) estimates the monthly number of new migrant business owners at around 81 000 (which represents 16.7% of all new business owners in the economy).

Table II.1. **Evolution of the self-employment share of total employment by place of birth in OECD countries, 1998-2008**

Percentages

	Foreign-born				Native-born			
	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08
Australia	13.7	13.6	13.0	11.5	11.1	11.0	10.7	10.0
Austria	6.1	6.8	8.0	8.1	7.6	8.1	9.0	9.0
Belgium	16.1	15.4	14.8	14.7	13.5	12.4	11.9	12.0
Czech Republic	. .	22.5	24.5	20.3	. .	15.8	15.4	15.1
Denmark	9.8	8.7	8.4	10.0	6.9	6.6	6.7	7.0
France	10.4	10.0	10.9	10.6	8.3	7.6	7.8	8.0
Germany	8.0	7.9	9.6	9.3	9.1	9.3	10.3	10.0
Greece	11.8	9.8	11.0	10.2	28.1	26.9	26.7	26.5
Hungary	15.5	17.3	16.1	15.2	13.0	11.8	12.0	10.8
Ireland	16.8	14.4	11.0	8.7	12.4	12.3	12.6	13.6
Israel	. .	7.9	8.3	8.6	. .	9.8	10.1	10.6
Italy	17.7	15.9	17.9	17.0	23.3	22.6	24.2	23.4
Luxembourg	6.5	6.0	6.7	6.0	7.6	5.9	6.3	5.0
Netherlands	7.6	7.7	9.8	10.7	8.4	9.0	9.6	10.7
Norway	7.4	5.9	7.6	7.4	4.7	4.8	5.5	5.8
Poland	. .	. .	24.8	29.4	. .	. .	11.3	11.2
Portugal	14.9	14.3	12.7	12.6	17.4	17.7	16.1	15.3
Slovak Republic	. .	7.6	19.9	23.6	. .	9.6	12.2	13.0
Spain	19.9	14.2	10.3	11.9	16.7	15.6	15.7	16.1
Sweden	12.1	10.7	10.5	10.0	8.6	8.1	8.5	8.5
Switzerland	. .	9.9	9.5	8.8	. .	11.5	12.5	12.4
United Kingdom	15.5	14.2	14.1	14.2	10.8	11.0	11.6	12.1
United States	9.4	8.6	9.3	10.0	8.9	8.8	9.5	9.2
OECD	**12.2**	**11.3**	**12.5**	**12.6**	**12.0**	**11.6**	**12.0**	**12.0**

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998-2008; Australia Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008; Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers; JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2001-08.

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Table II.2. **Average yearly number of new entrepreneurs, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008**

	Foreign-born				Native-born			
	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08
Austria	. .	4 000	6 000	7 000	. .	36 000	34 000	32 000
Belgium	4 000	3 000	5 000	6 000	23 000	20 000	25 000	25 000
Czech Republic	. .	1 000	2 000	1 000	. .	63 000	56 000	51 000
France	29 000	35 000	38 000	35 000	178 000	164 000	183 000	194 000
Germany	49 000	55 000	88 000	103 000	445 000	442 000	525 000	571 000
Greece	3 000	3 000	. .	. .	46 000	44 000	33 000	26 000
Italy	6 000	12 000	36 000	46 000	531 000	588 000	530 000	505 000
Netherlands	7 000	. .	8 000	11 000	70 000	. .	93 000	99 000
Portugal	4 000	4 000	5 000	7 000	74 000	47 000	46 000	42 000
Spain	13 000	27 000	42 000	77 000	195 000	189 000	192 000	210 000
Sweden	2 000	3 000	3 000	5 000	13 000	12 000	10 000	26 000
United Kingdom	45 000	55 000	62 000	88 000	363 000	374 000	387 000	448 000

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442104*

In addition, migrants are more entrepreneurial in relative terms with respect to their population than natives. Box II.1 shows that the *proportion* of new migrant entrepreneurs in the labour force is much higher than that of natives. This suggests that migrants are more entrepreneurial than natives in most OECD countries.[9]

Box II.1. **Dynamic measures of entrepreneurship: Index of entrepreneurial activity (Proportion of new migrant entrepreneurs in the active population)**

Migrant entrepreneurs contribute to the economy by creating new businesses. A way to estimate their relative contribution to the economy is to compute the proportion of individuals in the active population who became self-employed in the current year (and who were not self-employed in the previous year). This measure summarises the contribution of migrants and natives to the creation of new business with respect to their share in the active population every year. This Index of entrepreneurial activity (IEA) is inspired by the Kaufmann Index of Entrepreneurial Activity (Fairlie, 2009) in the United States, although the latter measures the proportion of non-business owners in the total adult population who start a business as a main job each month. The estimation of the proportion of new migrant entrepreneurs in the active population has the advantage of being a relative measure (in proportion to the size of the active population), and allows a comparison of the entrepreneurship propensities of migrant and native populations.

Table II.3. **Index of entrepreneurial activity, 1998-2008**

	Foreign-born				Native-born				Ratio Foreign-/ Native-born
	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08	2007-08
	Per cent				Per cent				
Austria	. .	0.52	0.62	0.69	. .	0.76	0.75	0.69	0.99
Belgium	0.51	0.42	0.60	0.72	0.39	0.35	0.42	0.41	1.77
Czech Republic	. .	0.85	1.16	0.83	. .	0.90	0.79	0.71	1.16
France	0.66	0.75	0.81	0.72	0.55	0.50	0.53	0.56	1.29
Germany	0.73	0.77	1.11	1.23	1.01	1.01	1.16	1.25	0.98
Greece	0.78	0.65	–	–	0.69	0.66	0.49	0.40	. .
Italy	2.06	2.45	1.73	1.38	1.39	1.54	1.47	1.41	0.98
Netherlands	0.59	. .	0.56	0.80	0.73	. .	0.97	1.03	0.77
Portugal	1.19	1.08	0.93	1.14	1.13	0.72	0.69	0.65	1.77
Spain	1.33	1.37	1.18	1.55	0.74	0.72	0.73	0.80	1.93
Sweden	0.40	0.36	0.30	0.55	0.27	0.24	0.20	0.52	1.06
United Kingdom	1.32	1.46	1.41	1.63	1.06	1.09	1.11	1.30	1.26
United States	0.32	0.35	0.38	0.50	0.27	0.27	0.28	0.28	1.80
OECD	**0.90**	**0.92**	**0.90**	**0.98**	**0.75**	**0.73**	**0.74**	**0.77**	**1.27**

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008. (–) indicates an estimate below the Eurostat reliability threshold. The index of entrepreneurial activity is defined as the percentage of individuals in the labour force who became self-employed in the current year (and who were not self-employed in the past year). Results for the United States correspond to the Kaufmann Index of Entrepreneurial Activity shown in Table 3 in Fairlie (2009).

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The Index of entrepreneurial activity for migrants and natives is shown in Table II.3. Migrants contribute actively to the creation of new firms in the OECD. In relative terms, migrants are more entrepreneurial than natives in most OECD countries. In Belgium and in Spain, the proportion of individuals that became self-employed in 2007-08 was almost the double the proportion of natives. In the United States, the United Kingdom, France and the Czech Republic, as well migrants are more likely to start a new business. In Austria, Germany, Greece and Italy, migrants are almost as entrepreneurial as natives. Only in the Netherlands are migrants less entrepreneurial than natives.

Nevertheless, migrant entrepreneurs are less successful than native entrepreneurs

However, the higher propensity of immigrants to create a new business has to be considered against the sustainability of such business. Here a consistent finding across countries is that entrepreneurship is a less stable state for migrants than for natives. Migrant entrepreneurs' *persistence* in self-employment is lower than native-born entrepreneurs in almost all OECD countries (see Table II.4). While transitions into entrepreneurship from one year to another are higher among the foreign-born, transitions out of self-employment are also higher. This higher transition out of self-employment can indicate that self-employment is a mechanism to move into wage employment but it can also indicate a higher failure rate of migrant firms.

Table II.4. **Flows into and out of self-employment, foreign- and native-born, year-to-year, 1998-2008**

Percentages

	Entry into self-employment		Exit out of self-employment		Self-employment persistence	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Austria	13.9	10.4	14.4	8.2	85.6	91.8
Belgium	7.4	4.8	6.4	3.5	93.6	96.5
Czech Republic	20.5	16.8	13.6	9.1	86.4	90.9
France	18.0	7.7	9.5	4.9	90.5	95.1
Germany	8.3	4.9	5.4	2.0	94.6	98.0
Greece	12.0	8.6	11.9	7.2	88.1	92.8
Hungary	7.8	3.1	7.5	3.1	92.5	96.9
Ireland	13.3	11.4	7.7	8.9	92.3	91.1
Italy	14.9	11.1	7.0	5.5	93.0	94.5
Luxembourg	7.4	4.2	7.7	4.7	92.3	95.3
Netherlands	12.1	11.0	9.5	6.4	90.5	93.6
Poland	6.6	7.9	7.8	6.2	92.2	93.8
Portugal	10.9	5.7	7.7	4.0	92.3	96.0
Spain	17.0	7.2	8.6	4.3	91.4	95.7
Sweden	11.3	7.7	7.6	5.2	92.4	94.8
Switzerland	7.2	7.9	4.5	4.9	95.5	95.1
United Kingdom	17.3	14.3	10.7	9.3	89.3	90.7
OECD	**12.1**	**8.5**	**8.7**	**5.7**	**91.3**	**94.3**

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008.

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In fact, a lower survival rate of migrant businesses compared with those of natives has been observed in many OECD countries. In the United States, *Georgarakos and Tatsiramos (2009)* have shown a lower survival probability for migrant entrepreneurs of Mexican and Hispanic origin. In Norway, around 26% of all companies established by immigrants in 2002 were still in business in 2006 compared with 29% for natives (Liebig, 2009). In France, only 40% of the firms owned by foreign nationals were still operating five years after their creation compared with 54% for French nationals (Breem, 2010). The author has found that even after controlling for qualifications, experience and other factors, migrant businesses are 27% less likely to survive relative to native businesses.

1.2. A profile of migrant entrepreneurs in OECD countries

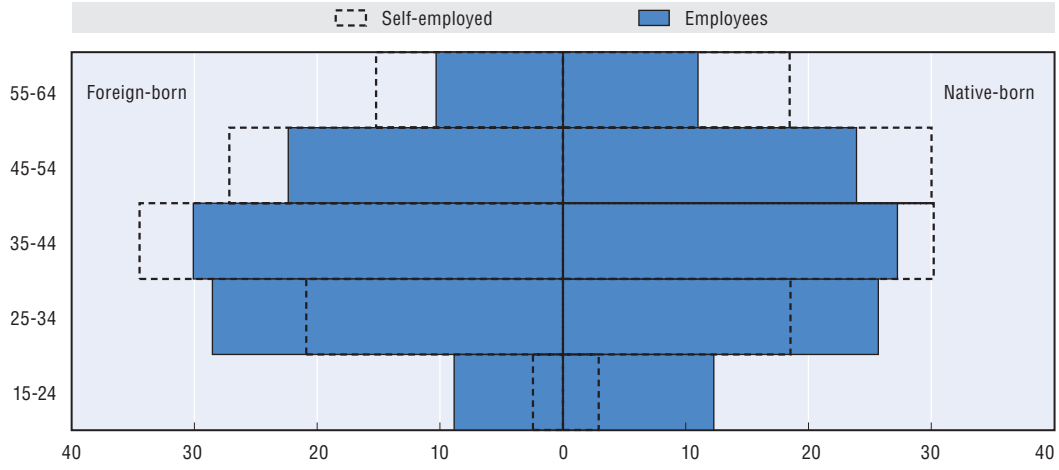
Individual background is an important determinant of the likelihood to be involved in entrepreneurial activities. In general, entrepreneurs are more likely to be men, middle-aged and skilled. Do these findings hold for migrants and for all OECD countries? This sub-section analyses and compares the main socio-demographic characteristics of native- and foreign-born self-employed.

Most migrant entrepreneurs are middle-aged and slightly younger than native entrepreneurs

More than three out of four entrepreneurs are aged over 35 (Figure II.2), among both native-born and foreign-born. The self-employed are also on average older than wage and salary workers. This result might be explained by the need to accumulate enough social and physical capital, as well as experience, before being able to start a business.

Figure II.2. **Age distribution of self-employed persons and of employees, 1998-2008**

Percentages



Note: Average of the national distributions. Countries included are listed in Figure II.1.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998-2008; Australia Labour Force Survey, 2007-08.

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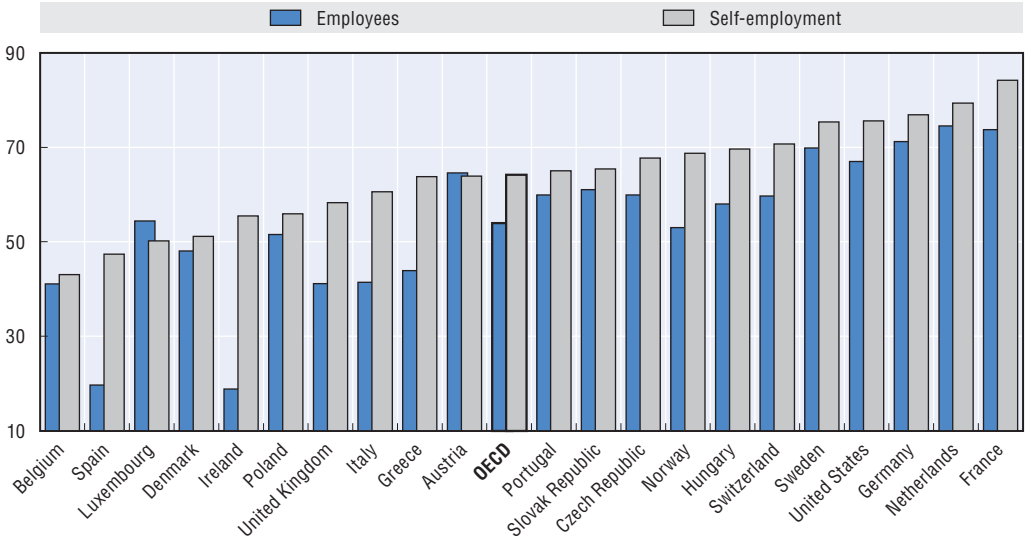
Foreign-born entrepreneurs have a similar age distribution to native-born entrepreneurs, although they are on average slightly younger than their native counterparts. This is also the case for those in wage and salary employment, where the employed foreign-born are younger than their native counterparts.

Migrant entrepreneurs have been in the host country longer than employed migrants

Almost two thirds of migrant entrepreneurs in OECD countries have been in the host country more than ten years compared with just above 50% for migrant wage earners (Figure II.3). In Ireland and Spain, and to a lesser extent in the United Kingdom, Italy and Greece, the difference is particularly significant.

Figure II.3. **Self-employed immigrants and wage-and-salary immigrants with more than ten years of residence in the host country, 2008**

Percentage of all self-employed immigrants and wage-and-salary immigrants, respectively



Source: EU Labour Force Survey, 2008; US CPS March supplement, 2008.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440736

Obviously, duration of stay is correlated to age, as migrants who have been in the country for longer periods tend to be older. The arguments mentioned above to explain why older people are more likely to start a business also apply in relation to duration of stay. However, at a given age migrants may have lower social capital specific to the host country, less financial means and more difficulty raising funds. These limitations diminish, the longer they stay in the country.

A low proportion of migrant women engage in entrepreneurship activities

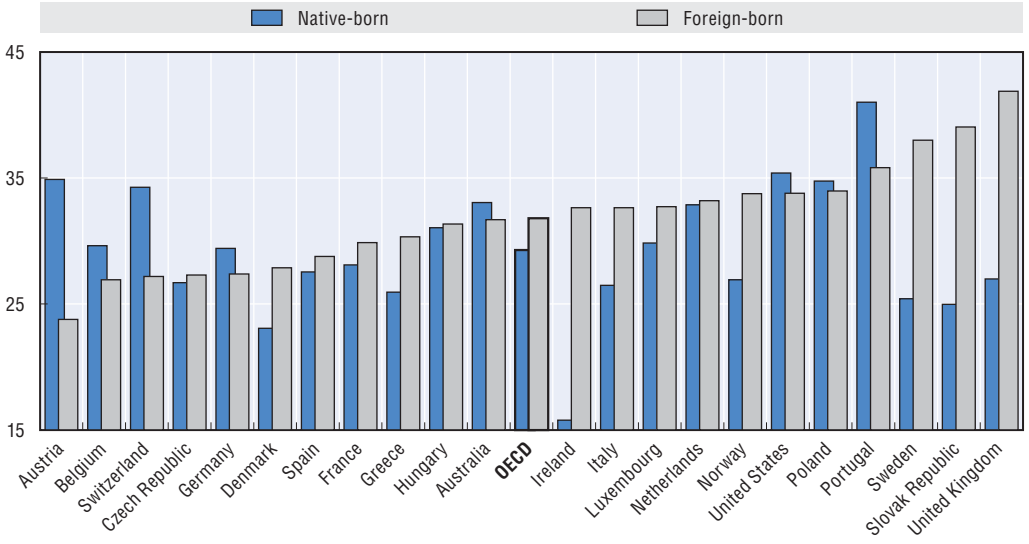
Figure II.4 shows a low proportion of women entrepreneurs in all OECD countries, both for native- and foreign-born. On average, only 30% of all entrepreneurs in the OECD are women, a finding which is explained by Fairlie (2005) by the combination of both a lower entry rate into entrepreneurship and a higher exit rate for women. In addition, the fact that women are less likely to be entrepreneurs could be partly explained by the sectoral distribution of self-employment, notably the fact that it is concentrated in construction, where fewer women are working. However, Breem (OECD, 2010) has shown that women are 26% less likely to succeed as entrepreneurs than men, even after controlling for other factors like sector of activity.

Migrant entrepreneurs have a higher average educational level than their native counterparts

The distribution of migrant entrepreneurs by levels of educational attainment compared with their native peers is shown in Table II.5. The first notable fact is the important share of migrant entrepreneurs who are highly-educated, both compared with natives and with all in general.

Figure II.4. **Women's share of the self-employed, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008**

Percentage of the self-employed



Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998-2008; Australia Labour Force Survey, 2007-08.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440755

Table II.5. **Distribution of educational attainment among entrepreneurs, foreign- and native-born, 1998-2008**

Percentages

	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Austria	13	48	39	15	57	28
Belgium	26	34	40	22	39	39
Czech Republic	12	56	32	3	79	18
Denmark	22	42	36	15	58	27
France	34	30	35	20	50	30
Germany	20	41	39	6	47	46
Greece	30	42	28	45	37	19
Hungary	6	53	41	9	70	21
Ireland	20	35	45	37	40	23
Italy	40	39	20	44	39	17
Luxembourg	14	40	46	14	60	26
Netherlands	21	37	42	22	46	32
Norway	17	45	38	18	59	23
Poland	9	50	42	15	71	14
Portugal	50	29	21	83	10	8
Slovak Republic	8	57	35	2	79	19
Spain	32	32	36	55	21	25
Sweden	20	50	30	19	60	22
Switzerland	16	44	41	6	58	36
United Kingdom	17	47	36	13	58	29
United States	14	50	36	2	63	35
OECD	**21**	**43**	**36**	**22**	**52**	**25**

Note: Educational level categories correspond to ISCED 0/1/2 (Low), ISCED 3/4 (Medium) and ISCED 5/6 (High).
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998-2008.

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Around 30%-40% of migrant entrepreneurs have tertiary education in all OECD countries, except in Italy and Portugal where entrepreneurs in general are low-educated. In addition, the proportion of tertiary-educated entrepreneurs is higher than for natives in all OECD countries (except Germany). This also applies to the United States, even though the share of tertiary educated is lower among migrants than in the total population.

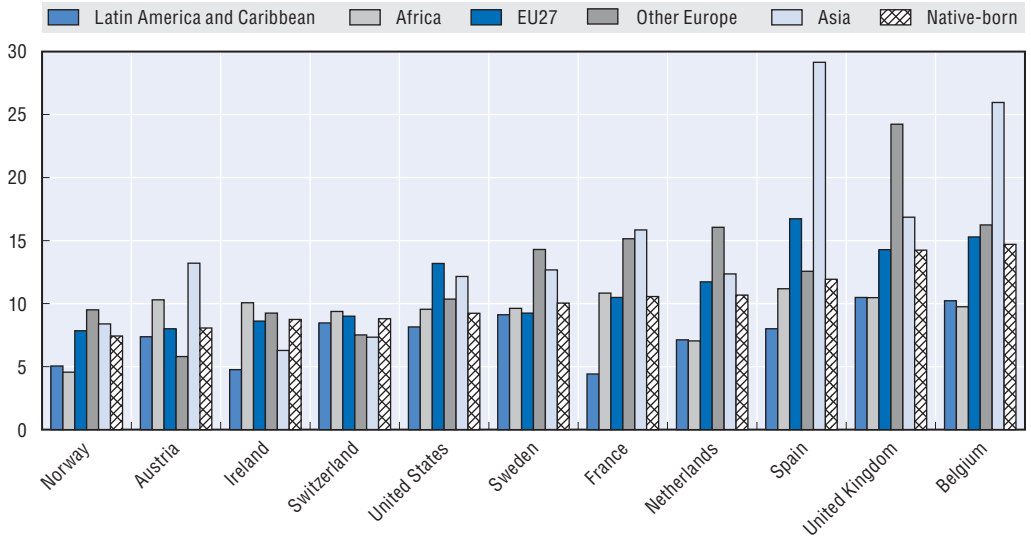
Second, the share of low-educated migrant entrepreneurs is lower on average than for natives, although this finding does not apply in all cases. While some countries have a high share of low-educated migrant entrepreneurs like Portugal (50%) or Italy (40%), others have a relatively low proportion, such as Austria (13%), Poland (9%), and Hungary (6%).

Migrants from different regions of origin have different propensities to become entrepreneurs: Asian migrants have the highest propensity, Latin-American and African migrants the lowest

The share of entrepreneurs in total employment varies significantly by region of birth (Figure II.5). Several reasons explain this diversity. First, migrants of different origins have different background characteristics. Fairlie (2005) and Lofstrom and Wang (2006) have shown how differences in education and wealth explain an important part of the differences in entrepreneurship behaviour between migrant groups. In addition, some origin countries traditionally have a higher share of entrepreneurs in their economies, and individuals that migrate from such countries are more likely to establish a business in the recipient country.[10]

Figure II.5. **Self-employed by country of residence and region of origin, 2007-08**

Percentages



Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 2007-08; US CPS March supplement, 2007-08.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440774

Asian migrants are more likely to become entrepreneurs in several OECD countries than most migrant groups. By contrast, migrants from Latin America and the Caribbean and from African countries are less likely to establish themselves as entrepreneurs. Lofstrom and Wang (2006) and Fairlie and Woodruff (2008) also documented the lower propensity of Mexican-Hispanics to enter entrepreneurship with respect to other Hispanic and non-Hispanic White groups in the United States, for example. European Non-EU migrants have a high proportion of entrepreneurs in countries such as the United Kingdom (24.2%), Netherlands (16.1%) or France (15.1%). The category "Other" corresponds to "North America and Oceania", a group which in many countries has a noticeably high probability to be an entrepreneur.

Migrant entrepreneurs move beyond ethnic businesses and work in a wide range of sectors

Migrant entrepreneurship has been traditionally associated with ethnic businesses that cater mainly to populations from their ethnic enclaves. However, migrants develop their business activities not only in these traditional sectors but also in other high-value activities. In Canada, for example, only one third of Chinese entrepreneurs cater to their ethnic market (see Li in OECD, 2010). This transformation is due partly to the increasing educational attainment of many migrants, as well as the shifts in the economic structures in post-industrial societies (see Kloosterman and Rath in OECD, 2010).

Even if a high proportion of foreign-born entrepreneurs works in sectors more traditionally associated with migrant businesses (*i.e.* wholesale and retail trade), the range of activities that foreign-born entrepreneurs undertake in their host countries is as wide as that of natives. The distribution of sectors where foreign- and native-born entrepreneurs develop their activities is shown in Figures II.6 (a)-(c). A majority of migrant entrepreneurs works outside the traditional ethnic business sectors. In Europe, almost 18% of migrant entrepreneurs work in the construction sector; around 8% work in the professional, scientific and technical sector; around 6% in manufacturing and another 6% in human health and social work. In the United States, 15% work in the construction sector; more than 12% in non-durable manufacturing goods; 8% in finance and insurance activities and 6% in the transport sector. In Australia, 21% work in the construction sector; 9.5% in the professional, scientific and technical sector; around 8% in manufacturing and another 8% in the transport sector.

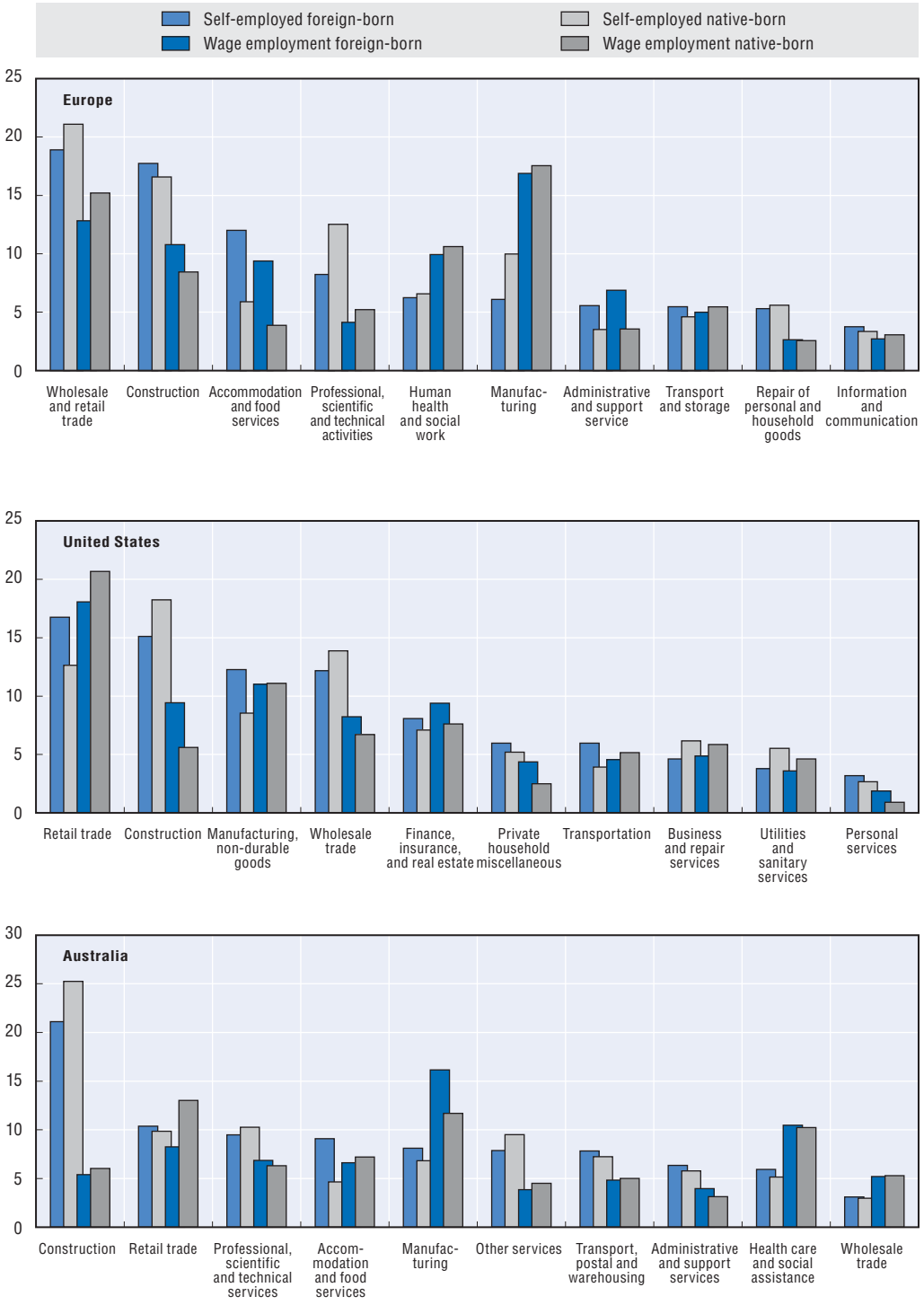
1.3. *What factors are behind a migrant's entrepreneurship decision?*

The profile of entrepreneurs described in Section 1.2 identified differences between migrants and natives in various dimensions. Controlling simultaneously for different sets of individual characteristics should help identify specificities with regard to migrant entrepreneurship. Further, in order to know which policies are best suited to encourage and sustain migrant entrepreneurship, it is necessary to know how each individual factor is related to the entrepreneurship decision.

The factors related to the decision to become an entrepreneur are analysed for several OECD countries (the United Kingdom, France, Spain and the United States) to observe how each factor influences the entrepreneurial status for all the population and for the migrant population, respectively (see Table II.6 for full estimation results[11]).

Figure II.6. **Ten main sectors of activity of the self-employed and distribution of wage-and-salary workers in the same sectors, by place of birth, 1998-2008**

Percentages



Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, NACE classification, 2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998 Census Code classification, 1998-2008; Australia Labour Force Survey, ANZSIC06 classification, 1998-2008.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932440793

Table II.6. **Contribution of various factors to the probability of being self-employed (Logit Model)**

	Native-born and foreign-born				Foreign-born only			
	United States	United Kingdom	France	Spain	United States	United Kingdom	France	Spain
Logit Model	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Foreign-born	**0.006****	**0.012*****	**0.010*****	**–0.033*****				
	(0.003)	**(0.002)**	**(0.002)**	**(0.005)**				
Age 16-24	–0.078***	–0.098***	–0.064***	–0.109***	–0.067***	–0.084***	–0.066***	–0.061***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.005)	(0.008)
Age 25-29	–0.051***	–0.057***	–0.044***	–0.077***	–0.043***	–0.047***	–0.044***	–0.052***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.008)
Age 30-34	–0.040***	–0.040***	–0.034***	–0.052***	–0.036***	–0.030***	–0.030***	–0.037***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.008)
Age 35-39	–0.028***	–0.029***	–0.024***	–0.040***	–0.032***	–0.023***	–0.018**	–0.036***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.008)
Age 40-44	–0.016***	–0.024***	–0.019***	–0.033***	–0.006	–0.020***	–0.009	–0.029***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.008)
Age 45-49	–0.009***	–0.019***	–0.012***	–0.024***	0.003	–0.003	–0.007	–0.008
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.011)
Female	–0.041***	–0.074***	–0.046***	–0.064***	–0.039***	–0.074***	–0.067***	–0.049***
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.007)
Upper secondary education	0.005	0.004***	0.019***	0.003	0.013*	–0.027***	0.011*	0.019**
	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.009)
Tertiary education	0.017***	–0.010***	0.040***	–0.011***	0.01	–0.034***	0.045***	0.032***
	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.009)	(0.003)	(0.008)	(0.010)
Not single	0.013***	–0.001	0.008***	0.019***	0.008	0.001	0.016***	0.001
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.009)
Number of children in the household	0.002***	0.009***	0.002***	0.009***	0	0.009***	0.001	0.007**
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.004)
Household owner	0.027***	0.028***	0.016***		0.032***	0.038***	0.039***	
	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.002)		(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.006)	
0-4 years since migration					0.003	–0.075***	–0.01	–0.036***
					(0.010)	(0.004)	(0.012)	(0.009)
5-10 years since migration					–0.008	–0.028***	–0.026***	–0.028***
					(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.010)
11-16 years since migration					0	–0.018***	0.004	0.029*
					(0.007)	(0.005)	(0.011)	(0.015)
EU27 excl. EU15					0.097***	0.131***		–0.054***
					(0.033)	(0.010)		(0.009)
Other Europe					0	0.066***	0.032***	–0.044***
					(0.017)	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.008)
Latin America and Caribbean					–0.022**	–0.017**	–0.009	–0.065***
					(0.010)	(0.007)	(0.014)	(0.011)
Asia and the Middle East					0.002	0.004		0.03
					(0.010)	(0.005)		(0.021)
Africa					–0.001	–0.022***	–0.015***	–0.059***
					(0.016)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.007)
Other					0.015	0.032***	0.020**	–0.026
					(0.017)	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.024)
Observations	98 283	1 021 302	439 128	73 391	16 279	111 341	51 149	7 125
Pseudo R-sq	0.066	0.067	0.082	0.055	0.055	0.087	0.093	0.125

Note: Reported figures correspond to marginal effects. Calculations were conducted on all active foreign- and native-born population in non-agricultural activities aged 15-64. All regressions control for region of residence in the host country.
* p < 0.10, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Sources: United States CPS March supplement, 2008; United Kingdom Labour Force Survey, Q1 2005-Q3 2009; France Labour Force Survey, Q1 2005-Q4 2007; Spain Labour Force Survey, Q1 2008. For France, category "Other" includes Asia and the Middle East and category "Other Europe" includes EU27 excl. EU15.

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Migrant entrepreneurs have a different propensity to be entrepreneurs, even after controlling for individual background characteristics

After controlling for differences in individual characteristics, a specific effect of being a migrant is still identified in all countries (Columns 1 to 4 – Table II.6). This effect is however, not similar across countries. In the United States, migrants have a higher propensity to be entrepreneurs (1 percentage point more likely). This is also the case in the United Kingdom (2 percentage points more likely) and France (1 percentage point more likely). However, the opposite is observed in Spain, where migrants are 3.2 percentage points less likely to be an entrepreneur.

This effect could be partly explained by the relative concentration of migrant employment in certain sectors where self-employment is more common. However, the above findings remain even controlling for sectors. Indeed, there may be unobserved characteristics which affect the propensity to be an entrepreneur and vary between migrant and non-migrant groups. For example, taking into account the selectivity of the migration process, individuals who decide to migrate may have on average a lower risk aversion than non-migrants, and thus more entrepreneurial skills as well. Migrants may also have a comparative advantage in specific business niches, including in services geared toward their migrant community (Borjas, 1986).

Another aspect that can alter the entrepreneurship behaviour of migrants could be their entry visa. Those migrants that enter with a migrant-investor visa or a self-employed visa will obviously be more likely to be involved in entrepreneurship activities. Hunt in OECD (2010) has found that migrants entering the United States with either a temporary work visa or a student visa are more innovative and entrepreneurial than other migrants and natives. In addition, the OECD *Job for Immigrants* reviews (2007, 2008c) have shown that the integration of migrants in the labour market (employment participation, unemployment, etc.) differs substantially between different entry categories. Migrants with different entry categories might then face different labour market prospects and rely to different degrees on self-employment as a way to improve their situation in the host-country labour market.

Age, gender, education, time spent in the host country and the geographical origin of migrants are related to migrant entrepreneurship status

The marginal probabilities for the age and gender categories show that, all else being equal, younger individuals and women are less likely to be self-employed in all the four countries studied. Similar patterns are observed with respect to age for migrants than for the overall population (after controlling for duration of stay in the host country). The effect of education on the probability of becoming an entrepreneur is different between countries and between natives and migrants. In the United States and France, highly-educated individuals are more likely to be an entrepreneur than those with less than upper secondary education. The reverse is true in Spain and in the United Kingdom. These observations, however, do not always hold for migrants. For example, in the United States those migrants with higher secondary education are more likely to be entrepreneurs than lower or higher educated individuals. In the United Kingdom, the low-educated migrants are more likely to be entrepreneurs than highly-educated migrants. In France and in Spain, the higher the level of education the migrant has, the higher the probability of being self-employed.

The time needed to adapt to the host country delays the start of the entrepreneurship ventures for migrants. The probability of being an entrepreneur increases with years of residence in the host country, after controlling for age and other observed characteristics. This effect is particularly strong in the early years after arrival but after residing ten or more years in the country, duration of stay has little impact. As noted above, migrants from different origins have different propensities to become entrepreneurs. Even after controlling for a wide range of individual characteristics, the region of origin remains a significant factor.

Entrepreneurship can be a strategy to move out from low-wage job or a discrimination situation in paid employment…

The existing evidence shows a mixed picture on the reasons why migrants start a business. Clark and Drinkwater (1998, 2000) found that migrants in the United Kingdom choose entrepreneurship to avoid discrimination in paid employment. They identify a positive wage premium strongly correlated for migrants with the decision to enter self-employment. The lower the premium, the lower is the probability that they engage in self-employment activities. In this context, migrant self-employment appears as a way to overcome discrimination or occupational downgrading in salaried work. Our results showing that highly educated migrants in Spain and France are relatively more likely than their native-born counterparts to engage in entrepreneurship activities may point to a lack of appropriate opportunities in wage employment (compared with natives).

In addition to the reasons why migrants start their business, the expected returns from the entrepreneurial choice are important to be assessed. Lofstrom (2002) showed that in the United States those migrants that choose self-employment converge to natives' wage earnings earlier than employed migrants. In addition, migrants manage to converge later to native self-employed earnings as well. However, a recent study focusing only on low-skilled migrant entrepreneurs (Lofstrom, 2009) shows that the choice of entrepreneurship is less beneficial for those migrants that are low-skilled than the choice of wage employment. The author suggests that overall positive returns to entrepreneurship by migrants in the United States are driven mostly by successful high-skilled migrants, and that for low-skilled migrants it might be more efficient to encourage an increase in human capital than to encourage entrepreneurship at any rate.

Lower returns to self-employment than to wage employment are also found in other countries. Li (2000) showed that in Canada, self-employed migrants earn significantly less than wage-employed migrants. Andersson and Wadensjö (2004) found similar results in Denmark and Sweden.

It has been acknowledged, however, that entrepreneurs have on average lower initial returns and lower growth in returns in general, and that the non-pecuniary benefits of entrepreneurship partly explain the propensity to become entrepreneurs for the overall population (Hamilton, 2000).

… or as a way to overcome difficulties in finding wage employment

In the context of the current economic crisis and high levels of unemployment in many OECD countries, it is important to understand if entrepreneurship is a potential response to a slack labour market. The existing entrepreneurship literature in general has cited two main arguments on how unemployment can affect entrepreneurship behaviour. On the one hand, the "recession-push" argument states that if there is a high level of

unemployment, individuals might be "forced" to become self-employed given the lack of alternatives. On the other hand, the "prosperity-pull" argument says that if the general economic situation is bad, individuals will be less likely to start their own business, given the lower demand for their services.

In fact, both effects might co-exist at the same time. There is, however, no agreement in the empirical literature on which of the two effects dominates. Some found that weak employment prospects (high unemployment) in the local area pushed the individual towards self-employment (*i.e.* Evans and Leighton, 1989), while others found that weak employment prospects delayed the entrepreneurship decision (Carrasco, 1999).[12] An analysis of the correlation between unemployment and migrant propensity to become an entrepreneur by Mestres in OECD (2010) for the United Kingdom and France supports the argument for a delaying effect. These results are in line with those found by Constant and Zimmermann (2004) who showed that migrants in Germany are more likely to become self-employed during the expansionary phase of the business cycle.

1.4. *Contribution of migrant entrepreneurship to employment creation and growth in OECD countries*

This section estimates the contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to employment creation in their host countries. It provides a comparative picture of the number of individuals *employed* by migrant entrepreneurs,[13] not counting their own job.

Most self-employed employ only themselves, although this is even truer for migrants. In OECD countries, between 50% to 75% of migrant entrepreneurs employ only themselves (Table II.7).

Ireland, the United Kingdom, Spain, Greece, Italy and Norway are the countries where the proportion of migrant entrepreneurs who only employ themselves is the highest (around 75%). To some extent, the above distribution reflects difference in the economic structure and the relative importance of small and medium-sized enterprises.

Between 25% and 50% of migrant entrepreneurs employ other individuals in addition to themselves. The majority of these employ fewer than ten individuals. Although migrant entrepreneurs' average firm size is smaller than that of natives, the overall distribution is broadly similar. Almost all businesses owned by entrepreneurs have fewer than fifty employees, both among migrants and for natives.

Migrant entrepreneurs' contribution to total employment has been increasing steadily during the period 1998-2008

This calculation of the number of individuals employed by migrant entrepreneurs is made only for European OECD countries because of limited data availability in other countries.[14] The EU Labour Force Survey allows identifying the number of employees of self-employed. Data are only available for the firm-size bands used in Table II.7. The contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to employment creation is therefore calculated based on the lower-bound figure, so the estimate should be considered a minimum value. Employment creation could also be overestimated if partners of the same business both declare in the labour force survey that they are self-employed with employees.

The number of individuals employed by migrant entrepreneurs during the period 1998-2008 and the corresponding share of total employment are shown in Table II.8. Every year, migrant entrepreneurs employ an average of at least 2.4% of the total employed

Table II.7. **Distribution of firms owned by foreign- and native-born entrepreneurs, by size, 1998-2008**

Percentages

	Foreign-born						Native-born					
	1	2 to 10	11 to 19	20 to 49	50 or more	Total	1	2 to 10	11 to 19	20 to 49	50 or more	Total
Austria	50.0	46.2	2.1	0.9	0.8	100.0	36.3	55.9	3.6	2.7	1.4	100.0
Belgium	70.7	25.0	2.1	1.1	1.1	100.0	67.6	26.5	2.9	2.0	1.0	100.0
Czech Republic	69.2	20.3	6.3	2.3	1.9	100.0	75.1	18.8	3.0	1.9	1.2	100.0
Denmark	55.7	38.1	3.5	1.7	1.0	100.0	46.3	39.4	7.6	4.1	2.7	100.0
France	65.0	29.4	3.6	1.1	0.9	100.0	59.9	33.1	4.5	1.6	0.9	100.0
Germany	52.5	42.3	3.1	1.4	0.6	100.0	47.1	42.2	5.6	3.2	1.9	100.0
Greece	74.9	22.8	1.5	0.3	0.5	100.0	67.9	28.8	2.2	0.8	0.3	100.0
Hungary	47.3	44.1	4.9	1.4	2.2	100.0	58.3	35.0	4.0	1.9	0.9	100.0
Ireland	73.3	21.8	2.3	1.8	0.8	100.0	70.7	23.6	2.8	1.8	1.1	100.0
Italy	75.1	22.4	1.8	0.3	0.4	100.0	58.6	35.5	3.5	1.5	0.9	100.0
Luxembourg	57.2	34.3	5.4	2.1	1.1	100.0	44.9	40.4	8.3	4.1	2.4	100.0
Netherlands	65.3	28.0	3.5	2.1	1.2	100.0	58.4	29.7	5.8	4.0	2.2	100.0
Norway	77.7	20.4	0.7	0.4	0.8	100.0	78.0	19.3	1.6	0.6	0.5	100.0
Poland	68.7	24.1	1.8	2.3	3.0	100.0	60.4	33.1	3.8	2.0	0.7	100.0
Portugal	63.5	30.4	4.4	1.2	0.5	100.0	60.5	32.7	5.2	1.1	0.5	100.0
Slovak Republic	67.3	26.2	5.5	0.0	1.0	100.0	75.9	20.0	2.8	1.0	0.4	100.0
Spain	73.5	23.3	1.8	1.1	0.4	100.0	71.5	23.2	3.2	1.4	0.7	100.0
Sweden	63.4	33.2	1.6	1.6	0.2	100.0	56.9	34.2	4.7	3.1	1.1	100.0
Switzerland	51.9	37.2	4.4	2.3	4.2	100.0	43.6	41.7	6.7	4.2	3.8	100.0
United Kingdom	73.3	19.7	3.2	2.6	1.2	100.0	77.8	15.7	2.8	2.2	1.4	100.0
United States[1]	. .	79.1	7.0	4.0	6.8	100.0	. .	79.2	6.9	4.5	6.9	100.0
OECD	**64.8**	**31.8**	**3.4**	**1.5**	**1.5**	**100.0**	**60.8**	**33.7**	**4.4**	**2.4**	**1.6**	**100.0**

1. For the United States, the firm size categories are the following: category labelled "2-10" corresponds to under 10 (including 1), category labelled "11 to 19" corresponds to 10 to 24, category labelled "20 to 49" corresponds to 25 to 99 and category labelled "50 or more" corresponds to 100 or more.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey 1998-2008; US CPS March supplement, 1998-2008.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442199

population in OECD countries. In both 2007 and 2008, migrant entrepreneurs annually employed more than 750 000 individuals in Germany, around half a million in the United Kingdom and Spain, almost 400 000 in France and around 300 000 in Italy.

In relative terms, this contribution to employment is equivalent to between 1.5-3% of the total employed labour force in most OECD countries (Table II.8). Only eastern European countries and Greece have a lower share of employment by migrant entrepreneurs. The countries where migrants contribute the most to overall employment are Switzerland (9.4%), Luxembourg (8.5%) and Ireland (4.9%). While data limitations do not allow us to study if migrants employ mostly other migrants or not, other studies have shown that migrants employ natives as well as other migrants but also natives. For example, Chinese entrepreneurs in Canada employed over 650 000 workers in 2006, the majority of which were non-Chinese (see Li in OECD, 2010).

The contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to overall employment has been increasing over time in most OECD countries. From 1998 to 2008, the number of individuals employed by migrant entrepreneurs increased in Spain, Italy, Austria, Germany, and the Netherlands among others. In the United Kingdom and France, the level of employment remained high.

Table II.8. **Persons employed in firms of immigrant entrepreneurs and their share of employment in firms of all entrepreneurs, 1998-2008**

	Persons employed in firms of immigrant entrepreneurs				Share of employment in firms of all entrepreneurs			
	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08	1998-2000	2001-03	2004-06	2007-08
	Thousands				Percentage			
Austria	52	54	59	73	7.8	8.3	7.3	8.5
Belgium	74	94	107	100	15.7	11.8	10.2	9.2
Czech Republic	. .	45	50	72	. .	3.7	4.0	5.3
Denmark	11	24	27	50	1.6	3.5	4.3	7.4
France	396	475	309	382	12.6	11.7	10.3	12.8
Germany	529	593	664	757	5.9	6.8	7.5	7.7
Greece	21	31	34	41	2.1	2.9	3.0	3.4
Hungary	7	23	34	33	1.8	3.4	3.3	3.9
Ireland	. .	28	49	79	. .	8.0	9.5	20.5
Italy	41	95	190	282	0.4	0.9	2.7	4.1
Luxembourg	10	12	11	14	22.5	36.8	34.9	41.0
Netherlands	71	36	121	115	5.1	7.6	7.4	6.3
Norway	4	8	8	14	3.7	10.3	10.2	11.2
Poland	. .	. .	15	56	. .	. .	0.6	2.0
Portugal	57	71	79	61	4.7	5.5	6.3	5.7
Slovak Republic	. .	1	8	3	. .	0.1	0.4	0.2
Spain	131	201	185	487	4.0	5.9	6.3	8.8
Sweden	46	61	76	84	6.0	8.1	9.4	10.7
Switzerland	. .	228	315	243	. .	20.8	20.2	19.2
United Kingdom	579	667	621	530	12.3	14.3	13.1	10.9

Note: Employment by foreign-born entrepreneurs is the estimated minimum number of individuals employed in a firm owned by a foreign-born self-employed. Share of employment is the ratio between the estimated minimum number of individuals employed in a firm owned by a foreign-born self-employed divided by the total population aged 15-64 employed by self-employed individuals in the country.
Source: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008.

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These numbers are approximate and might underestimate total employment creation by migrant entrepreneurs. An alternative measure of employment creation can be estimated for small enterprises (less than ten employees) where the exact number of employees is known. The total number of jobs created when considering only those firms corresponds to one-third to two-thirds of the overall employment creation estimated in Table II.8.

A foreign-born entrepreneur in a small firm creates on average between 1.4 and 2.1 additional jobs

A complementary perspective to the overall contribution to employment of migrant entrepreneurs is the average individual contribution of each single entrepreneur. This individual number of additional jobs is estimated for firms with under 50 employees[15] and shown in Table II.9. Every self-employed migrant creates on average between 1.4 and 2.1 additional jobs.

Although these figures have to be treated with caution given the dispersion between the minimum and maximum figures and other data limitations, they highlight the positive contribution to employment of migrant entrepreneurs. However, the comparison with natives suggests that migrant entrepreneurs create relatively fewer jobs. The few exceptions to this general observation are the Czech Republic, Hungary, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom, where self-employed migrants seem to create more jobs than self-employed natives.

Table II.9. **Average number of jobs created per foreign- and native-born self-employed person, firms under 50 employees, 1998-2008**

	Foreign-born		Native-born		Ratio of foreign-born to native-born
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Percentage
Austria	1.6	1.9	2.5	3.5	59
Belgium	1.2	1.7	1.5	2.3	76
Czech Republic	1.9	3.1	1.3	2.1	146
Denmark	1.8	2.5	3.0	4.8	55
France	1.3	1.9	1.7	2.6	77
Germany	1.8	2.5	2.6	4.0	64
Greece	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.5	69
Hungary	1.8	2.6	1.6	2.5	108
Ireland	0.9	1.4	1.0	1.5	93
Italy	1.1	1.4	1.7	2.4	62
Luxembourg	2.1	3.1	3.0	4.9	65
Netherlands	1.4	2.2	2.0	3.5	63
Norway	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.2	79
Poland	1.5	2.4	1.8	2.7	90
Portugal	1.6	2.4	1.7	2.5	96
Slovak Republic	1.3	1.7	1.1	1.6	112
Spain	1.1	1.5	1.2	1.9	81
Sweden	1.4	1.9	2.3	3.6	56
Switzerland	2.3	3.3	3.1	5.2	68
United Kingdom	1.5	2.6	1.3	2.1	120
OECD	**1.4**	**2.1**	**1.8**	**2.8**	**77**

Note: Min and Max correspond to the average number of jobs created by each foreign- and native-born self-employed persons in firms under 50 employees using either the minimum or the maximum values of each firm size band used in public statistics.
Source: EU Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008.

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Migrant entrepreneurs can also contribute to increased entrepreneurship, innovation and trade in their host countries

Migrant entrepreneurs' contributions to their host country are not limited to job creation. Migrant entrepreneurs can help to increase the overall level of entrepreneurship, innovation and trade of the host country. Wadhwa *et al.* (2007) documented that 25% of all engineering and technological companies founded in the United States in the last ten years were founded by a migrant. Hunt in OECD (2010) has shown that skilled migrants outperform natives in terms of patenting, commercialising or licensing patents, publishing and starting successful firms in the United States.

Overall, all migrants (and not only those who are entrepreneurs) can contribute to increase the level of entrepreneurship of the host-country economy and its innovation potential. In the United States, skilled migrants boost total factor productivity and per capita GDP growth (see Hunt in OECD, 2010). They also have positive spill-over effects on natives and are responsible for one third of the increase in patenting per capita in the 1990s.

In addition, migrants can contribute to enhance host-country trade opportunities. Migrants can lower trade-related transaction costs with their countries of origin, using their contact networks and knowledge about their countries' markets. In Sweden, 22% of foreign-owned businesses target their goods and services, at least partially, for the international market, compared with 15% of native-owned businesses [*Swedish Agency for*

Economic and Regional Growth (2007)]. Hatzigeorgiou in OECD (2010) has shown as well that a 10% increase in the migrant stock in Sweden has been associated with a 6% increase in exports and a 9% increase in imports on average. This finding suggests that migrants can play an important role as facilitators of foreign trade by reducing implicit trade barriers with their countries of origin.

This section has highlighted the contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to employment creation and to overall economic growth of the host country. Nevertheless, migrant entrepreneurs' contribution to host countries has a lot of untapped potential. Several OECD countries have implemented specific migration policies to promote migrant entrepreneurship and improve its positive contribution to economic growth. Those policy measures are analysed in the next section.

2. Specific policy measures to foster migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries

A majority of OECD countries have recently introduced policies to foster migrant entrepreneurship. Two main types of measures targeted at migrant entrepreneurs and investors may be distinguished. For immigrant entrepreneurs already established in the receiving country, specific *support measures* aim to enhance their capacity for business development. For foreign entrepreneurs and investors abroad, specific *admission policies* select candidates whose human and financial capital and business plans are likely to meet the country's economic needs and ensure the success of their businesses.

Migrant entrepreneurs may face specific linguistic, social and cultural barriers that limit the successful development of their business. Several OECD countries have set up support measures to help overcome those barriers. These measures consist mostly in programmes to strengthen immigrant entrepreneurs' human and social capital, as well as their business skills. In addition, specific measures try to improve or ensure equality in access to credit. These support measures are discussed in Section 2.1.

Specific admission policies for foreign entrepreneurs and investors consist mainly of the specific criteria used to select candidates for admission and monitoring measures to regulate the entry and stay of those immigration candidates. These policies are described in Section 2.2, which is largely based on the responses to a questionnaire that the OECD Secretariat sent to the OECD countries in September 2009. A more detailed comparative analysis of those policies can be found in the chapter's Annex. Section 2.2 also examines the extent to which foreign-born entrepreneurs enter through specific admission programmes rather than other channels, and the extent to which the availability of investor visas drives investment.

2.1. Targeted measures to support migrant businesses development in OECD countries

Migrant and native entrepreneurs face many of the same problems in setting up and developing their businesses. However, specific constraints appear to affect migrant entrepreneurs in particular. The skills and competencies that migrant entrepreneurs bring from their home countries are often not adapted to the host-country environment. They frequently have limited host-country specific language and business skills and lack familiarity with the overall functioning of the host countries' markets.

Administrative and bureaucratic procedures to which entrepreneurs are subject may be particularly burdensome for migrants. Procedures, such as registering the business, obtaining a professional permit and joining the relevant chamber of commerce or professional body, can prove to be especially complicated for recently-arrived immigrants. Other procedures and related administrative formalities specific to migrants are mostly related to their migration status (*i.e.* residence or employment permits) or to the sector or profession in which they want to set up a business.

To help migrant entrepreneurs overcome those specific difficulties, targeted support measures have been implemented for entrepreneurs of immigrant background – *i.e.* first generations as well as members of ethnic communities born in the host country – in different phases of business development – *i.e.* nascent as well as established entrepreneurs. More specific business support measures targeting a particular sub-group in the immigrant population, such as newcomers, women, refugees or members of specific ethnic communities, also exist in some countries.[16]

The distribution of targeted support measures for entrepreneurs with immigrant background across OECD countries is uneven. Most of those measures are to be found in countries with a long immigration history: the United States, Canada and a number of North-Western European countries (the United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium and the Nordic Countries). In particular, in the United States many targeted public and private programmes to support migrant and minority business have been carried out since the late 1960's. A smaller number of targeted schemes to foster migrant entrepreneurship have been implemented in countries with a more recent experience of immigration, such as Southern and Central-Eastern European countries (see also Kloosterman and Rath in OECD, 2010).

Targeted support measures to foster entrepreneurship among populations with an immigrant background in OECD countries cover not only public but also private initiatives – as in the case of programmes for migrant business development initiated by private banks, credit unions or private associations. Even when they originate in public policy initiatives, support measures for migrant entrepreneurs are, in most cases, run by intermediaries (local government, Chambers of Commerce, business associations and unions, as well as NGOs and other private organisations).

A majority of public business support programmes dedicated to entrepreneurs with an immigrant background are carried out at the regional or local level, in areas where the migrant population is more concentrated, even if their funding is derived from national/federal or even supra-national (in the case of EU member countries) integration or economic development programmes. In Canada, several Provinces and Territories provide guidance and support for new immigrants.

Most targeted support measures focus on empowering migrant entrepreneurs by strengthening their human and social resources

Targeted measures to foster entrepreneurship among populations with an immigrant background generally focus on the entrepreneurs' skills rather than on the economic environment. Usually these "knowledge-based" measures provide information on business regulations and mainstream business support services; educational services and training in language, managerial and marketing skills; and advice and counselling. Measures to build social capital include mentoring, tailored services to improve the network-building

capacity of migrant entrepreneurs and to facilitate their access to mainstream business networks and mainstream markets. Two selected current programmes in OECD countries are presented below.[17]

The *Zentrum fur Existenzgründungen und Betriebe von Migrantinnen und Migranten*, a semi-public organisation funded by the City of Hamburg and the European Social Fund, has run the *Unternehmer ohne Grenzen* (Entrepreneurs without borders) programme since 2000. The programme offers counselling services as well as seminars and briefings on legal and fiscal issues intended to improve migrant entrepreneurs' knowledge of local labour law, income and corporate tax, and social security legislation. More general knowledge-based services – such as training courses in financing, production, investment and marketing and assistance in business planning and accounting – are also delivered. The programme also facilitates migrant entrepreneurs' access to mainstream business organisations and their insertion in local business structures.

The UK's *Ethnic Minority Business Service (EMBS)*, offers another example of targeted support programme for entrepreneurs with immigrant background, covering all aspects of business development, from help with start-up finance, to ongoing support for more mature businesses. The *EMBS* was launched in 1987 as a one-stop shop for business advice and support to Black and Minority communities in the city of Bolton. Business support activities under the *EMBS* are carried out following a three-stage model, with community outreach and individual needs assessment prior to the actual delivery of business support services. Services are offered in various languages and consist of training, counselling and financing facilitation both for nascent and established entrepreneurs. Start-up assistance includes raising finance, business skills training, business planning, locating premises and book-keeping. Seminars are also provided on tax and employment legislation, patenting and trade marking, promotion, marketing, entering international markets, and IT services. Immigrant businesses assisted by the programme between 2001-06 showed a 90% two-year business survival rate against a national benchmark of 62%.

Ensuring the equality of opportunities for migrant entrepreneurs in accessing finance is a key measure to support migrant business development

Access to credit is a very important issue for entrepreneurship, as the lack of adequate finance is one of the main obstacles to business development. Those entrepreneurs without sufficient wealth to provide as collateral often face difficulties accessing credit to finance their business ventures (Evans and Jovanovic,1989; Evans and Leighton, 1989; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998). Fairlie (2005) and Fairlie and Woodruff (2008) have shown that low levels of asset holdings (in addition to education) are an important limit to the development of migrant businesses in United States.

Migrant entrepreneurs face greater problems accessing finance than native entrepreneurs. This is not entirely due to the limited bankability of migrant enterprises or to more stringent criteria applied by banks in granting loans to migrant entrepreneurs compared to natives. Migrant businesses have a higher failure rate compared with native businesses, so financing those businesses exposes the lender to higher default risks. Migrant enterprises might also lack credit history due to their shorter existence, their stronger reliance on savings and, to a greater extent, to the lack of recognition of credit histories in cross-border cases. There is no recognition and practice of exchange of credit

information between national credit registers. In addition, in many cases migrants have no access to their home countries credit registers in order to provide the data to the host country's lending institutions (see Bobeva in OECD, 2010).

Credit institutions also have some weaknesses while dealing with migrant clients. In most cases they lack knowledge, expertise and understanding of this specific group of corporate clients, resulting in higher perceived risk for migrant borrowers. More generally, the conservative approach of lenders towards new client groups partly explains the reluctance of banks to finance migrant enterprises. A negative assessment of creditworthiness and the consequent rejection of the credit application have further negative effects on access to credit for migrant entrepreneurs.

Migrant entrepreneurs can face discrimination when trying to get access to finance. In fact, Blanchflower, Levine and Zimmerman (2003) have shown that ethnic minorities in United States were twice as likely to be denied credit even after controlling for their credit-worthiness and other factors. In addition, in those cases when the credit was approved, ethnic minorities were more likely to pay higher interest than equivalent non-minority individuals (Blanchflower, 2009). Albareto and Mistrulli (2010) have shown that migrant entrepreneurs running small businesses in Italy pay on average 70 basis points more for credit than equivalent native-born entrepreneurs.

As a result, migrant entrepreneurs often rely on informal networks, such as family or community, to obtain finance, rather than formal credit providers. Reliance on community finance however might hamper the potential expansion of the business, in particular beyond the community.

Various support measures – both public and private – have been implemented in OECD countries to facilitate access to bank loans for migrant entrepreneurs. In Sweden, a three-year programme to promote entrepreneurship among people with a foreign background initiated in 2008 by the Ministry of Enterprise, Energy and Communications and implemented by the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional growth (NUTEK), includes specific measures to increase banks' awareness of the needs of migrant business owners in order to facilitate the extension of loans to those clients. In Denmark, a scheme offering bank loans up to DKK 1 million for the creation of a business has been introduced specifically to facilitate access to credit for migrant entrepreneurs.

At the private level, some banking institutions have implemented programmes aimed at encouraging the set-up and development of migrant enterprises. For example, Capital One Bank, Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce and Union Bank offer tailored services for migrant enterprises such as seed loans for start-up business, expansion of loans for growing businesses and other products that incubate new immigrant enterprises until they reach the level to qualify for a regular loan from the bank (see Bobeva in OECD, 2010).

A different approach to improve migrant entrepreneurs' access to credit consists in creating alternative funding sources targeted at migrants outside the regular financial institutions. Their aim is to fill in the gap of financing, particularly for those migrant enterprises that face difficulties to obtain credit from banks. Special programmes aimed at financing migrant businesses through funds made available by the government, the communities, NGOs or associations, are more common in the United States and Canada, but have been appearing recently in some European countries. Credit unions are one of the traditional alternative sources of financing for migrant enterprises.

Not all migration countries within the OECD have public policy support measures directly targeting entrepreneurs of immigrant background. In France, specific programmes to enhance business development tend to target economically depressed areas – and all the potential as well as established entrepreneurs resident in those areas – rather than migrant entrepreneurs as a special group. However, since immigrants tend to be overrepresented in those areas, they appear to be an indirect target of those programmes. The same generally holds true for measures promoting entrepreneurship among vulnerable or socially disadvantaged groups, like unemployed persons.[18] In Australia, while no policy measures specifically help immigrants establish new businesses, a range of State and Federal grants and funding programmes support existing businesses, regardless of the owner's origin. As a rule, mainstream business support programmes implemented under national economic, innovation or education policies are intended for all entrepreneurs in a country and their services are delivered both to native and migrant entrepreneurs.[19]

2.2. The role of specific admission policies for the entry and stay of foreign entrepreneurs and investors in OECD countries

While integration policy may seek to *support* resident immigrants in the creation and expansion of their entrepreneurial activities, migration policy is designed to *attract* immigrants likely to contribute to the development of entrepreneurship in their host county, and encourage them to settle. Most OECD countries have entry and residence policies specifically to admit foreigners who intend to create or operate their own business or invest their capital.

The first to target admission programmes to foreign entrepreneurs and investors were settlement countries. Canada and Australia introduced specific regulations for the entry and stay of these specific groups of immigrants already in the 1970s, and the United States and New Zealand followed in the 1990s. Over time, these regulations have evolved into complex systems for managing the immigration of these particular categories of economic migrants. Specific admission policies and permit regimes targeting migrant entrepreneurs and investors have been introduced in other OECD countries more recently, and the trend accelerated over the past decade (for a detailed comparative description of such programmes, see the Annex II.A1).

The specific admission policies and permit regimes are intended to ensure that, once admitted, those migrants bring a contribution to employment creation and economic growth in their host country. Measures to reach this objective include specific admission criteria designed to select those candidates whose human and/or financial capital and business or investment project are likely to meet the country's economic needs, and measures to monitor the compliance with the conditions of admission over time, in order both to prevent the abuse of immigration procedures and to assess the positive effects of the established immigrant business on the host country's economy. Entry, stay and renewal of permits are authorised on the basis of those specific admission criteria and monitoring mechanisms.

Some entrepreneurs and investors may come from countries that have concluded agreements on freedom of movement and establishment, or other international agreements which allow for more favourable admission requirements for entrepreneurs and investors of signatory countries.[20] Specific admission policies for foreign entrepreneurs and investors are only relevant for entrepreneurs and investors from countries outside such agreements.

2.2.1. Specific Admission policies and permit regimes: main characteristics and objectives

The definitions of a *foreign entrepreneur* and of a *foreign investor* in this section are based on administrative classifications. Thus, they do not cover all non-nationals owning a business or managing an investment, many of whom may have entered through other channels (*e.g.* skilled migration, employer-sponsored, family, humanitarian, free movement) or even have been born in the host country. For the purpose of this section, a *foreign entrepreneur* and a *foreign investor* are those foreigners admitted to stay in a country in order, respectively, to create a business/be self-employed or to invest capital in that country, according to the administrative definitions of the permits granted. The entrepreneur category, as intended in this section, comprises both foreign self-employed that employ others and those who employ only themselves, as most OECD countries admit such migrants on the same terms as entrepreneurs. A few OECD countries have separate rules for the admission of self-employed that employ only themselves and those who employ also other persons.[21]

A distinction is drawn in this section between migration policies governing the entry and stay of foreigners for the purpose of creating a business or self-employment (admission policies for foreign entrepreneurs – Tables II.A1.1a and II.A1.1b in the Annex II.A1), and those that apply to foreigners wishing to invest capital without necessarily being personally involved in managing the business (admission policies for foreign investors – Table II.A1.2 in the Annex II.A1). While separate admission regimes generally apply to those two categories, in practice, the distinction is less clear when the immigrant is the head of a large business. Consequently, some OECD countries have recently introduced admission measures that may apply both to entrepreneurs with large-scale projects and to foreign investors.[22]

The admission of foreign entrepreneurs and investors in OECD countries is conditional on several criteria. For foreign entrepreneurs, visa or residence permit eligibility criteria generally concern both the personal characteristics of the applicant and the planned business. The most frequent conditions for candidates wishing to immigrate as entrepreneurs concern their experience in managing or controlling a business, their assets and their proficiency in the host-country language. There may also be age criteria. In addition, the candidate is generally required to submit a business plan so that the economic viability of the planned business and its possible contribution to the host country's economic growth can be assessed. The latter aspect may involve a requirement to provide a minimum amount of capital or create a certain number of jobs in the host country.

The eligibility criteria described above are to be found in most of the admission systems used in OECD countries to manage the migration of foreign entrepreneurs. However, the weight assigned to each criterion and the precision with which they are defined may vary from one country to another (see Table II.A1.1a in the Annex II.A1 for more details).

Canada and Australia place particular importance on business experience. The business experience is assessed via a points-based system under which other personal characteristics of the applicant are evaluated. A minimum net worth is also required to be admitted in Canada as an entrepreneur.

In Australia, the Business Talent, Business Owner Provisional and State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner Provisional visas are reserved for foreign entrepreneurs who have already had a successful business career in their home country or elsewhere and who wish to come to Australia to create a new business or take part in an existing one.

The size of the investment and the number of jobs created or preserved are the main criteria for the admission of foreign entrepreneurs in the United States,[23] Germany and Ireland. In the United States and Ireland, minimum levels of investment capital and minimum number of jobs are set. In Germany, a residence permit for the pursuit of an independent business activity may be granted provided that it corresponds to an economic interest or meets a major regional need. These conditions are generally deemed to be met where the investment is at least EUR 250 000 and at least five jobs are created. If these levels are not met, the local authorities and chamber of commerce assess the viability of the business plan. Under the new law, a self-employment residence permit may also be granted to foreign professionals wishing to work on a freelance basis (without employing others) if they can be beneficial to the German economy, especially as regards innovation.

A minimum initial investment is a general condition for the issuance of a permit for the purpose of self-employment also in Greece and in Korea. In Japan, foreign entrepreneurs and business people who propose to create or manage a business capable of employing at least two people full-time (plus the entrepreneur) may be granted investor/business manager status. At least three years' experience of managing a company is also required if the immigrant wishes to settle in order to pursue a managerial activity.

In the United Kingdom, one of the four immigration sub-categories in Tier 1 of the new points-based migration management system is for foreign entrepreneurs who plan to create or take over a business employing other persons and be personally involved in managing it. To qualify for this category, foreign entrepreneurs must prove a minimum net worth and show that they are proficient in English and can support themselves and any dependents while they are in the United Kingdom.[24]

Apart from the countries mentioned above, most OECD countries do not define precisely the criteria for granting a visa or residence permit to foreign entrepreneurs. The personal characteristics of the applicant as well as the viability of the business plan are subject to discretionary assessment on the basis of the contribution to the home country's economic growth. The authorities competent for the assessment may be economic authorities, special committees, or the within the migration authority itself, and the requirements, documentation, and procedures may be more or less structured depending on the country.[25]

The Czech Republic is a special case. The need to develop private enterprise following the collapse of the Soviet Union led to the introduction of extremely liberal rules for the admission of foreign entrepreneurs and self-employed workers. Any adult foreigner without a criminal record who has accommodation and sufficient financial resources for self-support[26] may apply for a visa as a self-employed worker. This has resulted in high of inflows of so-called "pretend self-employed". In addition, in recent years, in the context of the economic crisis, an increasing number of unemployed immigrants took advantage of the less stringent requirements to change status from employment to business activity and remain in the Czech Republic. As a consequence, an amendment to the Act on Residence of Foreign Nationals, which came into force on 1 January 2011, tightened the conditions for status changes into self-employment, introducing a 2-year legal residence requirement.

A handful of countries, notably Austria, Italy, Switzerland and the United Sates, set a quota for annual admissions of foreigners for the purpose of self-employment. The cap in the United States is far higher than the actual number of applicants, while the Italian cap is oversubscribed.[27] In Switzerland, the immigration of non-EU/EFTA nationals for the

purpose of self-employment is allowed within the cantonal quotas for the admission of third-country nationals (applying both to employees and self-employed). In Austria, the first issuance of a settlement permit for the purpose of self-employment is subject to the respect of the authorised quotas, as with all other categories of settlement permits.

In addition to the admission arrangements for entrepreneurs, the migration systems of a few OECD countries (*i.e.* Australia, Canada, France, Greece, Korea, the United Kingdom and New Zealand[28]) include categories of visas and residence permits specifically intended for foreign investors. As a rule, admission under this category requires a significant investment in the country, either in bonds of equity interests of companies registered in the country or in national treasury bonds (property investments do not usually qualify). The amount of investment capital required ranges from as little as EUR 300 000 in Greece, to EUR 10 million in France.[29]

Box 2.2. **The Canadian immigrant investor programme**

The Canadian immigrant investor programme differs from the other specific admission programmes for foreign investors implemented in OECD countries, since foreigners admitted to Canada under the scheme are not entitled to place or manage their investment (at least CAD 800 000). Citizenship and Immigration Canada manages the investment for five years, distributing funds to the participating Provinces and Territories and ensuring that they are used to create or preserve jobs. The Provinces and Territories are entirely responsible for deciding how to invest the capital in order to maximize the benefits for local economic development. They must also reimburse the entire capital – without interest – after the five years are up. Currently, British Columbia, Manitoba, Ontario, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland and Labrador and the Northwest Territories participate in the immigrant investor program.

Essentially, immigrant investor capital provides a revolving pool of low-cost investment capital to Provinces and Territories, who determine how it is best invested within their regions. The Provinces and Territories are currently managing almost CAD 2 billion of five-year revolving capital from the immigrant investor programme. In 2009 alone, almost CAD 500 million was allocated through the program. On the other hand, available data and research suggest that foreigners selected for the investor category fare poorly in the Canadian economy, in terms of their economic outcomes, and they do not make a substantial entrepreneurial contribution.

For the immigration application to be accepted, the applicant must undertake to invest the stated sum, have a legally obtained net worth of at least CAD 1.6 million, and prove two years' personal experience of managing an investment or an enterprise. Foreign investors must score 35 points in a selection chart based on criteria of age, education, language proficiency and adaptability to the local context.

Prior to 1 December 2010, the investment and net worth requirement were half the actual thresholds (*i.e.* CAD 400 000 and 800 000, respectively). In light of the high volume of applications in recent years, a rising inventory and longer processing times, the requirements were doubled, although other criteria remained the same. The higher investment amounts were introduced to provide Provinces and Territories with a greater amount of capital, while higher personal net worth criteria are aimed at better positioning the programme to attract investors with valuable global business links and the resources to make secondary investments into the Canadian economy. A "grandfather" rule allows applications received before 26 June 2010 – when the new thresholds were published – to be processed according to the legislation in effect at the time of receipt.

In accordance with the Canada-Quebec Accord*, the new thresholds are the same for both federal investor class applicants and for Quebec-selected investors.

* Under the Canada-Quebec Accord, Quebec has its own business immigrant programme, based on the three categories of self-employed persons, entrepreneurs and investors.

The choice made in a number of OECD countries to make the admission of foreign entrepreneurs and investors conditional on strict eligibility criteria, precisely defined as minimum thresholds of investment capital, experience, number of jobs to be created, language knowledge or education, may be explained by the need to ensure that those immigrants selected under the targeted admission schemes have the human, social and financial resources to bring a successful entrepreneurial contribution to their host countries. However, tight requirements for admission may also make a country less attractive for foreign entrepreneurs and investors than another and thus lose out on a valuable entrepreneurial contribution. In practice, it is no easy task to find threshold levels which achieve a satisfactory balance between these potentially conflicting aims. In New Zealand, for example, the business immigration programme has been reformed several times in the past decade to achieve such a balance. In 2002, a number of policy changes were made to the programme introduced just three years earlier, tightening language and operational requirements and introducing a stricter definition of a business that is "beneficial to New Zealand". Those changes resulted in a significant decrease of inflows, and the programme was modified again in 2005 and 2007. In the period 2008-09, 413 people were approved for residence in New Zealand through the Business categories, representing about 1% of all residence approvals in this period. This was seen as insufficient and a new business migration package was introduced in July 2009, with the aim to make New Zealand more attractive for business migrants (see Tables II.A1.1a and II.A1.2 in the Annex II.A1 for a detailed description of the admission requirements under this new system).[30]

Another way to ensure that immigrants admitted to a country for the purpose of establishing a business or making an investment bring a valuable contribution to the host country's economic growth is to select the applicants according to their capacity to meet specific economic needs, or to boost the economy of certain regions where business activity is less prevalent or in decline. Simplified conditions of admission exist in several OECD countries for entrepreneurs and investors who establish their business in such regions or where there is particularly strong demand for certain types of job or economic activity.

In the United States, up to 10 000 EB-5 visas (including spouses and children) may be granted each year to foreigners who invest at least USD 1 million in the creation of a new commercial enterprise that employs at least ten full-time American workers (or foreigners authorised to work in the United States). However, the minimum capital requirement for an EB-5 visa is halved for investments in a rural area or in an area where the unemployment rate is two and a half times higher than the national average (Targeted Employment Area, TEA). The actual number of recipients of the visa is very low – about 250 in 2009, most of whom were already in the United States and adjusted status (*source:* US Department of State).

A further 3 000 EB-5 visas may be granted each year under less stringent criteria through a pilot scheme for investments affiliated with federally-designated "regional centres". Regional centres are business entities, private or public, that co-ordinate foreign investment within a single geographic area.[31] Foreign investors may receive EB-5 visas for investment in any designated regional centre, and are only required to *indirectly* create at least 10 jobs ("induced jobs"). The pilot scheme, introduced in 1993 for a five-year period, has been extended several times and is due to end in September 2012. The number of green cards issued under the pilot scheme has risen sharply since 2005, albeit from very low numbers, and now accounts for most EB-5 visas. In 2009, there were about 1 200 incoming entrepreneurs investing in regional centres, up from 230 in 2007.

In Australia, simplified criteria apply for the issuance of State/Territory-Sponsored Investor and State/Territory-Sponsored Business Owner Provisional visas to encourage foreign investors and entrepreneurs to establish their business in certain areas. For the programme year 2008-09, a total of 472 entries were recorded under the State/Territory-Sponsored Investor visa, compared to only 12 under the general programme. Similarly, for the same year, 5 740 entries were registered under the State/Territory-Sponsored Business Provisional visa, compared with 129 under the general programme (data include dependants).

Foreigners wishing to immigrate into Germany to carry on an independent business there may be admitted even if their investment is below the EUR 250 000 generally required, provided that their proposed business or their skills meet a specific regional need. In this case, they may be granted a permit that authorises them only to carry out a certain type of independent activity in a particular region. In Greece, immigration applications for entrepreneurial activity are examined by the authorities in the region where the immigrant wishes to settle.

Permit renewal is conditional on compliance over time with the initial admission requirements. In most OECD countries, residence permits for foreign entrepreneurs and investors are temporary, though they may be renewed or converted into permanent residence permits after a certain time. For the initial permit to be renewed, the immigrant entrepreneur or investor must generally furnish proof that the business activity proposed in the immigration application has actually been established or that the promised investment has been made and maintained. Thus, permit renewal is a key element for monitoring compliance with the conditions for admission to carry out an independent economic activity. The average length of permits granted to foreign entrepreneurs on first admission into an OECD country is two years (see the Annex II.A1, Table II.A1.1b for more details).

In Australia, Business Owner Provisional and State/Territory-Sponsored Business Owner Provisional visas are granted for a four-year period. However, after two years in the country under one of these visas, the holder may apply for a Business Owner Residence or State/Territory-Sponsored Business Owner visa respectively, which grant permanent residence. These two types of visa are granted based on the success of the business, and a permanent residence permit is conditional on the creation of at least two full-time jobs for Australian residents.

In New Zealand, the Long-Term Business Visa is initially granted for a probationary nine-month period. Foreign entrepreneurs who have actually established the business proposed in the business plan during that period are entitled to a 27-month extension. The Long-Term Business Permit is one stage in the process of acquiring the right of residence, and after two years in New Zealand on the permit, a successful immigrant entrepreneur may apply under the Entrepreneur and Entrepreneur Plus permanent immigration schemes. As the Long-Term Business Permit may be renewed only once, for an additional three years, the entrepreneur must either qualify for the permanent scheme or leave the country.

In most OECD countries with specific systems for admitting foreign investors, the first permit is granted for a three- or four-year period (see the Annex II.A1, Table II.A1.2). Compliance with the conditions for admission, especially actual realisation of the investment, is monitored while the first permit is valid (between three months and one year after issuance[32]). If checks show that the investment project has not come to fruition,

the permit may be withdrawn early. After the first permit expires, the immigrant investor may apply for a new residence permit, either temporary or permanent, provided that the initial investment has been maintained. Eligibility for renewal or extension requires a minimum consecutive stay in the host country during the validity of the first permit. Proof of language proficiency may also be a condition for a permanent residence permit.

One particular feature of Canada's Business Class immigration scheme is that foreigners who have been admitted under one of the three categories of the programme are immediately granted a permanent residence permit. Self-employed Business Class immigrants not employing other persons do not have to fulfil any specific conditions in order to enjoy a right of residence. Entrepreneurs employing other persons must comply with the commitments they gave when submitting their application (control at least one third of the equity of a Canadian company, involvement in the management of the business for one year during the three years following settlement in Canada, creation of at least one full-time job); if not, their permit may be withdrawn. As immigrant foreign investors are not responsible for placing or managing their investment, the monitoring of the investment activity concerns the Provinces and Territories, which must report quarterly to Citizenship and Immigration Canada on the use of the funds (see Box 2.2). Like all other categories of permanent residents in Canada, immigrants under the Business Class scheme must stay in the country for at least two years out of a period of five in order to keep their status.

Simplified conditions for family reunification are the most common migration policy incentives to attract foreign entrepreneurs and investors. Migration policy measures implemented in OECD countries to attract foreign entrepreneurs and investors in order to stimulate economic growth generally consist of simplified family reunification conditions similar to those introduced to encourage the immigration of highly skilled workers. A majority of OECD countries have an accompanying family procedure for the spouse and children of an immigrant entrepreneur or investor. In Australia, Canada, Denmark, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, the family members of an immigrant entrepreneur or investor have access to the labour market and education system. France applies an accompanying family procedure that is less restrictive than the family reunification procedure, since there is no check on resources or accommodation and exemption from the *Reception and Integration contract*. Where a foreign entrepreneur or investor is granted temporary residence, family members are generally granted residence for the same period, and their status is dependent on that of the entrepreneur or investor.

2.2.2. The contribution of specific admission policies to the development of migrant entrepreneurship in OECD countries

Despite an increasing trend in OECD countries over the past decade towards the adoption of migration programmes aimed at selecting and attracting immigrants to start or invest in business, those programmes only account for a very small fraction of all entrepreneurial activity by foreign-born in OECD countries. Available data for selected OECD countries (see Table II.10) show that the average number of entries registered annually under the migration programmes dedicated to foreign entrepreneurs and investors is marginal compared with the yearly average number of new foreign-born entrepreneurs.[33]

In the United States, on average, 430 EB-5 visas (green cards) were issued yearly in the period 1999-2008; during the same period, about 81 100 foreign-born opened a business each month, according to Fairlie in OECD (2010).

Table II.10. **Average annual number of new migrant entrepreneurs and of special visas issued to foreign entrepreneurs in selected OECD countries**

	Period	Average annual number of new migrant entrepreneurs	Average annual number of special visas issued to foreign entrepreneurs
Germany	2006-08	103 000	2 964
Spain	2004-08	59 000	658
Italy	1998-2008	23 000	4 745
Netherlands	2005-08	10 000	88
Belgium	1999-2008	5 000	927
Sweden	2002-08	4 000	66

Sources: Average annual number of new migrant entrepreneurs: own estimates using EU Labour Force Survey; Average annual numbers of special visas issued to foreign entrepreneurs calculated on the basis of administrative data provided by national authorities.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442256

It appears that most foreign entrepreneurs and investors enter OECD countries through other channels and do not use the special programmes. In the United States, for example, a total of 1 290 green cards were issued in 2009 under the programmes EB-5 and EB-5 pilot (including adjustments), while 24 033 visas were granted, in the same period, under the E-2 scheme for Treaty Investors (*source:* US Department of State). Under this programme, nationals of one of the countries with which the United States maintains a trade agreement[34] can obtain a temporary permit for the purpose of investment in a commercial enterprise – which they will also operate – in the United States. An E-2 visa is not a green card, and it does not allow permanent residence. Nonetheless, it can be renewed for two-year periods indefinitely. Admission requirements for the E-2 programme are less stringent than those for the EB-5.[35]

In the EU countries, EU nationals account, on average, for more than one third of all foreign-born migrant entrepreneurs. Those nationals are not subject to the general requirements for the admission of foreign entrepreneurs and investors, but can enter and establish themselves in EU member countries under the "freedom of establishment rules".

In Canada, the Business Class programme has been relatively successful in numerical terms. Over the period 1998-2008, 132 062 persons were admitted to permanent residence in the country under the three categories of visas of the Business Class programmes (*i.e.* self-employed, entrepreneurs and investors. Admissions under those categories include spouses and dependants). Thus, for the period under consideration, Business Class immigrants accounted for approximately 5% of Canada's very large annual permanent inflow of foreign nationals (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, RDM, Facts and Figures 2008).

Conclusions

In OECD countries, entrepreneurship rates among immigrants and natives differ slightly (12.6% *versus* 12.0%). Migrant entrepreneurs' contribution to employment creation is substantial, even if in relative terms it is smaller than that of natives. Their activities go beyond traditional ethnic businesses, into a wide range of sectors and innovative areas.

Migrant entrepreneurs are more likely to start a business than natives in most OECD countries. However, the survival rate of migrant businesses is often lower than that of their native counterparts. This is partly explained by specific barriers that migrants may face in establishing and developing their businesses in their host countries. In fact, most migrant

entrepreneurs have additional difficulties on obtaining the appropriate human, social and financial capital needed for a business venture.

Several OECD countries have implemented support measures targeted at migrant entrepreneurs in order to ensure that they have equal opportunities as native entrepreneurs to start and expand a business. Both public and private stakeholders have a role to play to guarantee equal access to credit for migrant and native entrepreneurs. This would help migrant entrepreneurs to emerge from traditional occupations confined to the lower segments of markets and expand to high-value activities, with a subsequent greater contribution to their host country economies. In general, support measures for migrant entrepreneurs should extend to the various phases of business development and not only the start-up phase. In addition, their outreach capacity should be strengthened.

Mainstream business support measures, intended for all entrepreneurs in a country, are crucial to foster both native and migrant entrepreneurship. General policies consisting in the reduction of obstacles to entrepreneurship and business creation, as well as policies promoting the economic growth prospects of the country, are at least as important as migration and integration policies in encouraging and supporting migrant entrepreneurship. However, support measures directly targeted at migrant entrepreneurs are also important for the success of migrant businesses.

The specific migration policy measures regulating the entry and stay of foreign entrepreneurs and investors cover only a small part of all migrant entrepreneurs in OECD countries as most migrant entrepreneurs enter through other channels. Targeted admission policies may be relevant for specific categories of migrants or may provide a simplified channel of access, ensuring that foreign entrepreneurs and investors face no obstacles in bringing their capital to a new country, but they have only a partial role in sustaining overall business growth and investment.

This chapter has expanded knowledge on migrant entrepreneurship and shed light on some innovative aspects of the phenomenon in a cross-country comparative perspective. By increasing awareness of the positive role which migrants can play, in their capacity as entrepreneurs, for the economy of the host country, this chapter can contribute to a more balanced public debate on immigration.

Notes

1. Self-employed are defined as those individuals "who work in their own business, professional practice or farm for the purpose of earning a profit" (Eurostat, 2003), whether or not they employ other persons.
2. Nevertheless, both terms are not exactly identical. While all self-employed should clearly be considered entrepreneurs, there may be entrepreneurs who are not self-employed. For example, Blanchflower and Shadforth (2007) estimate that almost 50% more individuals declare taxable income from self-employment in the United Kingdom than declare self-employment in the labour force survey. Identifying the latter is particularly difficult. The OECD is, however, actively working to change this situation and set a standard framework of indicators on entrepreneurship (see *OECD, 2008b* for more detail).
3. Another important issue is the identification of the business unit. Many firms have different establishments and produce a wide range of products and services. In addition, firms are often part of a bigger industrial conglomerate. The "enterprise" is used for structural business statistics (*OECD Manual on Business Demography Statistics 2007*), as opposed to "establishments" (or local units) and "enterprise groups" (all enterprises that belong to a group).

4. In addition, only a small proportion of foreign-born self-employed work in agriculture (2.5% of foreign-born entrepreneurs worked in agriculture compared with 15.7% of native-born entrepreneurs (Secretariat calculation using Eurostat Labour Force Survey, 1998-2008).

5. Although we are unable to identify if two individuals are partners in the same firm, preliminary checks using the United Kingdom Labour Force Survey allows us to approximate this phenomenon for those partners that live in the same household. The maximum potential double-count of members of the same household that are self-employed with employees is under 10% (and could be less if members of the same household have different businesses).

6. Among others, Borjas (1986) and Fairlie (1999, 2005) have found similar results for this country.

7. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

8. Parts of those increases are due to the establishment of several initiatives to encourage entrepreneurship in general, for example among the unemployed in Germany (Caliendo and Kritikos, 2009).

9. Another potential outcome from new migrant entrepreneurs could be the displacement of native entrepreneurs, as found by Fairlie and Meyer (2003) in the United States.

10. Akee *et al.* (2007) showed how previous individual self-employment experience in the home country increases the probability of being self-employed once one migrates. One exception is Mexican migrants in the United States, who have a low propensity to become entrepreneurs compared with their national counterparts in Mexico (Fairlie and Woodruff, 2008).

11. A logit discrete-choice model is used to study the probability of being self-employed (versus being either employed or unemployed). Firstly, it is estimated for all the individuals using the following data on individual characteristics: age, gender, education, marital status, household composition (the number of children under 16 in the household), and whenever available, a wealth measure (an indicator of property ownership of the residence the individual lives in), region and time indicator variables and an indicator variable of whether the individual is foreign-born or not to capture the existence of migrant specificities in entrepreneurship even after controlling for all other observed characteristics. Afterwards, the logit model of the probability of being self-employed is estimated for foreign-born individuals only, including as well a set of specific migrant variables as further determinants of entrepreneurship: the years of residence in the host country and the region of origin. As in the previous section, the sample is restricted to the active population of individuals of working age (15 to 64) not working in the agricultural or fishing sectors. The results are expressed in marginal probabilities.

12. See Parker (2004) for a summary of different results and estimation methods.

13. The number of individuals employed by migrant entrepreneurs is different from the number of new jobs created by migrant entrepreneurs during the period. It is not possible to identify in the data the change in the number of employees hired by the entrepreneur from one period to the other.

14. The estimation was not possible to compute for Australia, where firm size is not available in the Labour Force data. Another problem arises for the United States, given that firm-size bands were not equivalent to the ones used in the Eurostat Labour Force Survey (in particular only one single category for firms of size below ten), and thus for comparability reasons the estimation was not computed either. A special data request has been made to Canada. As soon as the data are received, estimates for this country will be added.

15. Only those firms with fewer than 50 employees has been used in the estimation, as it allows us to use both the lower and the upper bounds of each firm-size band and thus have an indication of the potential dispersion between the two. In addition, focusing on small firms (under 50 employees) allows us to reduce the differential bias arising from the different firm-size distribution between migrant- and foreign-born for bigger firms.

16. One such example is the support measures for migrant entrepreneurship focusing on Roma in central and Eastern European countries, *e.g.* Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Romania.

17. For a comprehensive inventory of support schemes to promote migrant entrepreneurship in the EEA countries, Switzerland and Turkey, see European Commission, DG Enterprise and Industry (2008).

18. Start-up assistance programmes for unemployed persons exist in a number of OECD countries. Those programmes, which are generally implemented by the public employment service, are not specifically directed towards persons with immigrant background even if this group forms part of the target population for those programmes. Services delivered under those programmes are similar to those provided to migrant entrepreneurs under specific programmes targeted to them and often comprise financial assistance through special start-up grants and support in the creation of the business project.

19. In some countries, the delivery of face-to-face services under general business support programmes may take into account the migrant background of the entrepreneur, as is the case for the entrepreneurship and enterprise development services organised by Enterprise Finland.

20. The most significant example in this regard is the freedom of movement and establishment provided for by the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community (25 March 1957, Art. 52-58) and implemented through the Council Directive 73/148/EEC of 21 May 1973. Under those rules, admission into the territory of a member state of nationals from other member states (and their family members independently from their nationality) wishing to establish themselves there in order to pursue a non-salaried activity is not subject to an entry visa or work-permit requirement. Following the entry into effect of the Agreement on the European Economic Area (1994-1995), Community legislation on the freedom of establishment applies also to Iceland, Norway and Lichtenstein. Freedom of establishment between EU member states and Switzerland took effect on 1 June 2002. Other international agreements that provide exceptions, of broader or narrower scope, to the general rules for the admission of entrepreneurs and investors from signatory countries are the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement between Australia and New Zealand, the bilateral agreements for the issuance of E-1 and E-2 visas that the United States has concluded with more than 50 countries, the Agreement between France and Algeria on the entry and stay of Algerians in France (27 December 1968, amended), the Japan-Singapore Economic Partnership Agreement (2002) (see Desiderio in OECD 2010, for more details).

21. Canada, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom have special arrangements governing the entry and stay of migrants wishing to settle in order to create their own employment without employing other persons.

22. One example is the “exceptional economic contribution” residence permit introduced in France in September 2009.

23. In the United States, an EB-5 “green card” may be granted to foreigners who propose to invest at least USD 1 million in a new commercial enterprise and in doing so, create at least ten full-time jobs for American citizens or immigrants authorised to work in the United States in addition to those created for the entrepreneur and his or her family members. The requirement that the investor be personally involved in the management of the business created as a result of the investment shows that this visa is broadly intended for major entrepreneurs rather than being specifically aimed at investors.

24. Foreigners wishing to settle in the United Kingdom as self-employed employing only themselves must submit their application in the Tier 1 general sub-category targeted at highly skilled migrants.

25. In most European OECD countries requiring immigration candidates under self-employment/ entrepreneur programmes to submit a business plan, evaluation of the business plans falls within the competence of the economic authorities (*e.g.* in Austria, the Public Employment Service; in Belgium, the Service for Economic Authorisations; in Finland, the local Employment and Economic Development Centres; in the Netherlands, an agency of the Ministry of the Economy; etc.). In Greece, a special Regional seven-member committee pronounces an opinion on the business plans. This committee is composed of representatives of various authorities (*i.e.* the Agency for Aliens and Migration of the Region; the Directorate of Planning and Development of the Region; the regional tax office; prefectural authorities; local association of municipalities). In a few countries, the business plan is assessed directly by the migration authorities (Ireland, Norway, and Sweden).

26. The minimum sum required as self-support when applying for a self-employment visa is CZK 120 000 (about EUR 5 000).

27. Within the Italian cap for self-employed for 2010 (a total of 4 000 admissions), 1 500 permits are reserved for status changes from students to self-employment, while 1 000 are reserved for Libyan citizens.

28. In Poland, investors may be granted a residence permit under the general rules for granting permits to foreigners who make a positive contribution to the country’s economic growth, whether as investors or entrepreneurs.

29. Under the new regulation in force since September 2009, a residence permit may be granted in France to a foreigner who makes an exceptional economic contribution to the country. This consists in creating or saving at least 50 salaried jobs or, if the immigrant is not personally involved in an entrepreneurial activity, making an investment of EUR 10 million directly or through a company in which the investor has a 30% interest or which the investor manages. Exceptions are possible where those conditions are not met in full if the planned investment is of vital interest in light of the economic and social situation. This may be the case, for example, with an investment that allows a site threatened with closure due to specific competition from another site in a different country to be maintained in the medium term.

30. In addition to the four specific business categories (two for entrepreneurs, two for investors), since March 2010 New Zealand also has two categories dedicated to retired people able to make a significant investment in the country. The Parent Retirement Category allows New Zealand to prioritise individuals who are already seeking to migrate to New Zealand under the Family category and can invest at least NZD 1 million in the country over 4 years. The Temporary Retirement Category allows retired foreigners who are able to invest NZD 750 000 in New Zealand over a two-year period to be granted a temporary permit for a corresponding length of time. A Temporary Retirement visa can be renewed as long as the retiree continues to meet criteria.

31. Regional centres must apply for designation, demonstrating how they intend to promote economic growth through export sales, improved regional productivity, job creation and/or increased domestic capital investment. In 2009, there were about 90 centres. See *www.uscis.gov* for more information on Immigrant Investor Regional Centres.

32. In New Zealand, after an immigration application for investment purposes has been approved, the funds must be transferred to New Zealand and invested in order for the initial Investor or Investor Plus permit to be granted. Further checks are made two years after the first permit is issued.

33. Data on average annual admissions under the migration programmes targeted to foreign entrepreneurs and investors are calculated on the basis of national administrative registers for the time period when the relevant data were made public. Specific data for 2008 are provided in Annex II.A1. The yearly numbers of new foreign-born entrepreneurs in EU countries are estimated using the EU Labour Force Survey (see Mestres, in OECD 2010, for more details).

34. These include a Friendship, Commerce and Navigation (FCN) Treaty, Bilateral Investment Treaty (BIT), and the North American Free-Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The United States currently have bilateral agreements for the issuance of E-2 visa with 62 countries.Treaty countries under E-2 visa are: Albania, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, Chinese Taipei, Colombia, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Kinshasa), Costa Rica, Croatia, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Estonia, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Grenada, Honduras, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea (South), Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liberia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Philippines, Poland, Romania, Serbia, Senegal, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Togo, Trinidad & Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, the United Kingdom, Former Yugoslavia.

35. See Annex II.A1 for more details on E-2 (Treaty Investor) visas.

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ANNEX II.A1

Supplementary tables on admission programmes and permit regimes for foreign entrepreneurs and investors

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria**

		AUSTRALIA		
Programme		**Business Owner Provisional** (subclass 160) under the Business Skills category	**State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner Provisional** (subclass 163) under the Business Skills category	**Business Talent** (subclass 132) under the Business Skills category
First introduced in		1976 (ref. 1981)		
Admission requirements	Experience	Successful business experience = ● AUD 200 000 combined assets of applicant and partner in a qualifying business and ≥ 10% ownership of this business if a public listed company; ● Annual turnover of main business (-es) in 2 of last 4 fiscal years ≥ AUD 500 000.	Successful business experience = annual turnover of main business (-es) in 2 of last 4 fiscal years ≥ AUD 300 000.	Successful business experience = ● AUD 400 000 combined assets of applicant and partner in a qualifying business; ● Annual turnover of main business (-es) in 2 of last 4 fiscal years ≥ AUD 3 million.
	Min. Investment Capital	No, but ≥ AUD 100 000 to settle (additional to net worth)	No	No
	Min. Jobs to be created/maintained	No	No	No
	Min. Net Worth	AUD 500 000 (combined assets of applicant and partner), transferred to Australia within 2 years.	AUD 250 000 (combined assets of applicant and partner).	AUD 1.5 million (combined assets of applicant and partner)
	Language knowledge	Yes (vocational level)	No	No
	Age	< 45	< 55 but regional authority sponsor may grant exception.	No
	Submit business plan/ requirements for business plan	No	No	No
	Other		Be sponsored by a State/Territory.	Be sponsored by a State/Territory.
Recognition of foreign qualifications/registration in local Chambers of Commerce or other public-law professional bodies		No	No	No
Restrictions		Business which primarily consists in providing professional, technical or trade services is not qualifying.	● Business which primarily consists in providing professional, technical or trade services is not qualifying; ● Applicant must create the business and settle in the jurisdiction of the sponsoring State/Territory.	● Business which primarily consists in providing professional, technical or trade services is not qualifying.
International agreements creating special conditions of admission for nationals of member countries		**Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement** (member countries: Australia and New Zealand)		

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

AUSTRIA	BELGIUM	CANADA	
Settlement permit (*Niederlassungsbewilligung)* for self-employed key workers (Art. 24 Aliens Employment Act)	**Long-term stay visa for the purpose of self-employment**	**Self-employed** (one of three Business Class sub-categories, under the Economic category)	**Entrepreneurs** (one of three Business Class sub-categories, under the Economic category)
		1969	1978
Applicant's training, skills, know-how, professional experience evaluated by the competent authority.	Yes	2 years relevant experience (in last 5) in either: ● Farm management; ● Self-employment/world class participation in cultural activities; ● Self-employment/world class participation in athletics.	2 years business experience (in last 5) managing and controlling a percentage of equity in a qualifying business*
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	CAD 300 000
No	No	Yes (under points system)	Yes (under points system)
No	No	Yes (under points system)	Yes (under points system)
● Number of jobs to be created/maintained; ● Investment capital.	● Number of jobs to be created/maintained; ● Investment capital; ● Market study; ● Contacts with commercial partners; ● Planned contracts; ● Planned status of the business.	No	No
● General interest of the proposed activity for Austrian economy; ● Submit last income tax statement.	Obtain "professional card" (issued by the *Service des Autorisations Économiques* based on the assessment of the business plan and the other requirements, according to: job creation, capital invested, innovation, trade expansion, specialisation.	● Score = 35 points on a selection grid assessing age, education, business experience, language ability, adaptability; ● Have the intention and ability to be self-employed in Canada.	● Score = 35 points on a selection grid assessing age, education, business experience, language ability, adaptability; ● Demonstrate the intention and ability to control al least ⅓ of the equity in a "qualifying Canadian business"* and actively manage it for a period of 1 year within arriving in Canada.
Letters from certified accountants, Chamber of Commerce, or solicitors may be required for certain professions.	No	No	No
No	No	Foreign self-employed can be admitted only to practice farm management, cultural activities, athletics.	Business whose main purpose is to derive investment income, such as interest, dividends, or capital gains is not a "qualifying Canadian business".
EC Freedom of establishment (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1995); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1995); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	No	

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

		CZECH REPUBLIC	DENMARK	FINLAND
Programme		**Long term visa for self-employment**	**Residence and work permit for the purpose of self-employment and to operate an independent company**	**Residence permit for self-employed person** (to pursue a trade or profession in his/her own name)
First introduced in				
Admission requirements	Experience	No (but see below for regulated professions)	Documentated relevant training/education, previous experience as a self-employed person and/or work experience in the same field.	Documentated relevant professional qualifications.
	Min. Investment Capital	No	No	No
	Min. Jobs to be created/maintained	No	No	No
	Min. Net Worth	CZK 120 000 (minimum self-support funds)	No	No
	Language knowledge	No	No	No
	Age	≥ 18	No	No
	Submit business plan/ requirements for business plan	No	• Type of business; • Innovative aspects of company or prospects for growth (including expected number of workplaces); • Documentation of any partnership with Danish companies; • Contracts/agreements.	• Estimated turnover in the next 3 years; • Account of the business premises; • Funds available for company's operations; • Number of jobs to be created/mantained.
	Other		• Particular Danish business interest related to the establishment of the proposed business in Denmark; • Proof of sufficient financial means to run the business; • Applicant's presence and involvment are vital to the establishment/ operation of the business.	• Proposed business must meet the requirements for profitable business; • Secured support means.
Recognition of foreign qualifications/registration in local Chambers of Commerce or other public-law professional bodies		Doctor and health professionals must be members of the Czech Medical Chamber.	Foreign trained doctors must be autorised by the Danish National Board of Health; autorisation or similar recognition by the competent public authority may be required for other professions.	Doctors other regulated profession need to obtain the licence for exercising their professional activity in Finland.
Restrictions		Exclusuions: court executors; notaires; court experts; interpreters.Agricultural entrepreneurs (except if EU citizens/ permanent residents).	Exclusions: restaurants and retail shops.	No
International agreements creating special conditions of admission for nationals of member countries		**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

FRANCE	GERMANY		GREECE
"**Exceptional economic contribution residence permit** "	**Residence permit for the purpose of self-employment: to set up a business** (Residence Act, section 21)	**Residence permit for the purpose of self-employment: to work on a free-lance basis** as writers, artists, performers, consultants etc. (Residence Act, Section 21, para. 5)	**Residence permit for the purpose of exercising an independent economic activity** (Basic Immigration Law No. 3386-2005, Art. 24)
2009	2005	2005	
No	Previous business experience may be assessed (see below: "other")		Yes
No	EUR 250 000 (but exception may be granted)	No	EUR 60 000
50*	5 (but exception may be granted)	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No		No
• Calendar of investment operation; • Expected job creation;	• Viability of the business concept; • Investment capital; • Impact on employment; • Contribution to innovation and research.		• Contribution to the growth of national economy; • Impact on employment; • Investment capital; • Effects on environment.
*Exceptions made if business considered a local priority (*e.g.* to prevent closure)	• Overriding economic interest or special regional need for the proposed activity; • Expected positive effects on German economy; • If capital/job creation conditions are not fulfilled the other requirements apply.	• Overriding economic interest or special regional need for the proposed professional activity; • Expected positive effects on German economy.	
No	Depending on the classification of the activity, require licences/certificates or membership of a professional association in order to practice their activity.	A permit to practice the profession from the competent German public-law professional body or confirmation that this permit will be issued is generally required.	
Not applicable to citizens of the EU or Algeria.	In the case the applicant does not meet the min.capital and job creation requirements permit may be valid only for a certain geographical area or a certain type of self-employment.	Can be issued only to "freelancers".	For the first 2 years of residence, the activity has to be practiced within the borders of the same prefecture.
• **EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002); • **France-Algeria agreement** (27/12/1968 amended).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).		**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

		IRELAND	ITALY	JAPAN
Programme		**Business Permission**	**Permit for the purpose of exercising an independent economic activity** (Decreto Legislativo 286/1998, Art. 26)	Status of residence **Investor/Business Manager**
First introduced in			1998	
Admission requirements	Experience	Detailed proof of personal skills levels to undertake the proposed business (academic qualifications, details of apprenticeships, evidence of previous business experience, etc.).	Yes (see below)	At least 3 years experience in the operation and/or management of a business.
	Min. Investment Capital	EUR 300 000 (but exception may be granted)	No	No
	Min. Jobs to be created/maintained	2 (but exception may be granted)	No	2 full-time (in addition to those who operate the business)
	Min. Net Worth	No	No	No
	Language knowledge	No	No	No
	Age	No	No	No
	Submit business plan/ requirements for business plan	• Value added for the commercial activity and competitiveness of the State; • Investment capital; • Impact on employment; • Viability of the business; • Capacity of the business to secure maintenaince; • Details on business operation.		
	Other	Writers, Artists and Craft persons not subject to the capital and employment requirements. Must prove that they are well known/internationally renowned in their chosen field and are in position to fully support themselves from income from their activity.	• Proof of sufficient funds available for the exercise of the proposed activity; • Proof of accomodation; • Proof of secured maintenance funds.	• The facilities to be used as an office for the business concerned must be located in Japan.
Recognition of foreign qualifications/registration in local Chambers of Commerce or other public-law professional bodies			The competent Italian professional body must declare that the applicant possesses the qualification required in order to exercise the proposed activity. For professional activities recognition of qualifications is needed.	
Restrictions		No	For 2010, the following categories could be admitted: • Entrepreneurs who set up a business beneficial to the national economy; • Liberal professions; • Renowned artists; • Craftsmen from countries which invest in Italy.	Legal/accounting services.
International agreements creating special conditions of admission for nationals of member countries		**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**Japan-Singapore Economic partnership agreement** (2002).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

KOREA	NETHERLANDS	NEW ZEALAND	NORWAY
Business Investment visa D8 for entrepreneurs/managers	**Residence permit for labour as self-employed**	**Long Term Business Visa/ Entrepreneur and Entrepreneur plus visas** under the Business category	**Residence permit for self-employment**
	2008 (date of introduction PBS)	1999 (ref. 2002, **2009**)	
No	**Personal experience:** ● Education (35p); ● Experience in business (35p); ● Work experience (10p); ● Income (10p); ● Experience in the Netherlands (10p).	Prove business experience that is relevant to the proposed business (business operation or work experience at a senior managerial level in a substantial, relevant business).	Generally granted only on the basis of special qualifications in exceptional circumstances. Prove specialist training (upper secondary education; university education; expertise gained through professional experience of a certain duration) or possess a craft certificate (whenever relevant).
USD 50 000 (but exception may be granted)	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	Yes (IELTS min.overall score 4)	No
	No	No	No
	Business plan: ● market potential (30p); ● organisation of business (20p); ● financing of business (50p).	● Business description; ● Investment capital; ● Suppliers and customers; ● Proposed marketing; ● staff; ● Required assets; ● Financial forecasts; ● Beneficial effects for NZ*.	● Nature of the enterprise and applicant's role in it; ● Financial premises and plans; ● Market analysis; ● Location of the business premises and name of enterprise.
The requirement on investment capital may be waived when: ● the applicant sets up a venture firm refereed to in the Special Act for Fostering Venture Business on the basis of excellent technological power (*e.g.* the ownership of an industrial or intellectual property right); and ● receives certification for a venture firm	**Added value for the Netherlands:** ● Innovation (20p); ● Creation of employment (40p); ● Investment (40p). Application assessed by Senter Novem (Ministry of Economic Affairs), based on the three fields of personal experience, business plan, added value. **Must score 100 points of which at least 30 in each field, or 90 points in the first two fields**	● Establish a new business or buy an existing business in NZ (at least 25% ownership); ● Sufficient maintenance funds for 3 years; ● Proof of good understanding of the proposed business in New Zealand business environment; ● Be healthy and of good character.	● Be personally responsible for the business (sole proprietorship) and involvement necessary for establishment or countinuation of the business; ● Obtain a statement from the Norvegian Labour and Welfare Service confirming the need for the proposed business; ● Maintenance funds secured, mainly though the business.
Applicant must obtain certification for a venture firm.			If applicable, a permit or promise to issue permit from the relevant trade organisation or other professional public body to start-up the business.
Foreign entrepreneurs can be admitted only in sectors which are referred to in the Special Act for Fostering Venture Business.	No	Sex industry is excluded	The residence permit for self-employed is linked to the specific enterprise proposed.
No	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement:** (member countries: Australia and New Zealand).	**EEA agreement** (1994).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

		POLAND	PORTUGAL	SPAIN
Programme		**Residence permit to conduct an economic activity beneficial to the national economy**	**Residence permit for an independent professional activity** according to law 23/2007, Art. 60	**Residence permit for self-employment (*autorización de residencia temporal y trabajo por cuenta propia*)**
First introduced in			2007	n.a.
Admission requirements	Experience	No	May be required for professions subject to special qualifications.	Applicant must possess the qualifications and experience required for the exercise of the proposed independent activity.
	Min. Investment Capital	No	No	No
	Min. Jobs to be created/maintained	No	No	No
	Min. Net Worth	No	No, but funds must be available in Portugal (including deriving from loans obtained by a banking institution in Portugal)	No
	Language knowledge	No	No	No
	Age	No	No	No
	Submit business plan/ requirements for business plan	• Type of activity; • General conditions of the establishment; • Income generated by the activity; • Job creation; • Salaries of employees.	No	• Expected job creation; • Investment capital.
	Other	• The proposed activity must have beneficial effects on Polish economy (in terms of innovation; growth of investments; transfer of technology; job creation); • Secured maintenance funds.	• Detain a contract or written proposal for a contract for the supply of services with character of self-employment; or • Evidence of the declaration of the start of activity to the Fiscal and to the Social Security Authorities as individual entrepreneur.	• Maintenance funds secured, mainly though the business (since the first year of operation).
Recognition of foreign qualifications/registration in local Chambers of Commerce or other public-law professional bodies			If applicable, declaration by the competent professional public-law authority which certifies the ability to practice the profession when subject to special qualifications in Portugal.	Obtain recognition of qualifications and authorization from the competent public-law authorities for the exercise of regulated professional/activities.
Restrictions		• Specific occupations may be subject to limitations; • Non-EU citizens are not entitled to establish themselves as self-employed in Poland (only as entrepreneurs).	No	No
International agreements creating special conditions of admission for nationals of member countries		**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (2004); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2004).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

SWEDEN		SWITZERLAND	UNITED KINGDOM
Residence permit to start and operate a business (business owner)	**Residence permit to start and operate a business (self-employed)**	**Residence permit for the practice of an independent economic activity**	**Tier 1 Entrepreneur subcategory**
n.a.	n.a.	2008	2009*
• Proof of ≥ 50% ownership of a company.	• Proof of solid experience in the proposed business; • Previous experience in running the business.	• Proof of professional qualifications required for the exercise of the proposed activity.	No
No	No	No	GBP 200 000 (25p)
No	No	No	No
No	No, but must append bank statements proving personal funds for maintenance for the first year in Sweden.	No	No, but maintenance requirement (10p)
No	No	No	Yes (10p)
No	No	No	No
No	• Market study; • Contracts with customers/suppliers; • Contract for business premises; • Investment,liquidity and profit/loss budget; • Budget balance sheet; • Investment capital; • Business permits (if required).	• Description of the activity; • Turnover and profit; • Market study; • Short, mid and long-term projection; • Expected job creation; • Financial conditions and requirements for explotation of enterprise fulfilled.	No
• Proof of ≥ 50% ownership of a company; • Operate the business and have the ultimate responsability for it; • Maintenance funds secured mainly though the business for the 2 year probationary period.	No	• The proposed activity serves the economic interest of Switzerland and has positive mid/long-term effects on the Swiss labour market (*e.g.* contributing to economic diversification at regional level; creating/maintaining jobs for Swiss residents; investing substanial amounts of money). • Proof of satisfactory housing.	Assessment under Tier 1 of the points-based system: must score 75 points, including: • Funds held in a regulated financial institution (25p); • Funds disposable in the United Kingdom (25p).
No	Health professionals, veterinary surgeons, driving instructors, electrical contractors, estate agenst, fire safety officers, interpreters and translators, lawyers, security guards, public school teachers need authorization by competent authority.		
No	No	Cannot be issued to independent foreign doctors (except for EU citizens).	Cannot be issued to take up employment as "Doctor in training".
EC Freedom of establishment (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1995); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).		**Swiss-EU bilateral agreement on the free movement of persons** (2002, amended 2004 and 2009).	**EC Freedom of establishment** (Art. 43 EC Treaty); **EEA agreement** (1994); **EU-Switzerland agreement** (2002).

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

		UNITED STATES	
Programme		**EB-5 residence visa**	**EB-5 residence visa for investment in a Targeted Employment Area (TEA)**
First introduced in		1990	
Admission requirements	Experience	No	No
	Min. Investment Capital	USD 1 million	USD 500 000
	Min. Jobs to be created/maintained	10 (direct creation of jobs US residents other than the applicant and his/her family members).	
	Min. Net Worth	No	No
	Language knowledge	No	No
	Age	No	No
	Submit business plan/ requirements for business plan	No	No
	Other	● Invest and be involved in a new commercial enterprise.	● Invest and be involved in a new commercial enterprise in a TEA = rural area/area where unemployment rate is 150% the national average rate.
Recognition of foreign qualifications/registration in local Chambers of Commerce or other public-law professional bodies			
Restrictions			
International agreements creating special conditions of admission for nationals of member countries		No	

Table II.A1.1a. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: admission criteria** *(cont.)*

UNITED STATES *(cont.)*			
EB-5 residence visa pilot	**EB-5 residence visa pilot in a TEA**	**E-1 visa (Treaty trader)**, based on a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation (non immigrant visa status) according to INA, 101(a)(15)(E)	**E-2 visa (Treaty investor)**, based on a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation (non immigrant visa status) according to INA, 101(a)(15)(E)
1993	1993		
No		Existing trade: trade between the partner country and the US must already be in progress on behalf of the individual. Existing trade includes succesfully integrated contracts binding upon the parties that call the immediate exchange of qualifying items of trade.	Not necessary
USD 1 million	USD 500 000	No, but trade must be "substantial" (see below).	No, but investment must be "substantial".
No,but prove indirect creation of 10 jobs as a result of the activity (*e.g.* induced jobs).		No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No
• Invest and be involved in the operation of a new commercial enterprise in "designated regional centers" = economic unit, public or private, involved with the promotion of economic growth in a contiguous geographic region agreed to receive foreigners'investment.	• Invest and be involved in the operation of a new commercial enterprise in "designated regional centers" in a TEA.	• Applicant and/or business possess the nationality of the treaty country; • Existing activity constitutes "substantial trade" within the meaning of INA*; • Trade is principally between the US and the treaty country (> 50% vol.); • Maintenance funds secured through Income derived from trade; • Declare intention to leave the US when E-1 status terminates.	• Applicant and/or business possess the nationality of the treaty country; • Have invested/be in the process of investing in a real commercial enterprise in the US, and operate it; • Commercial enterprise must be "more than marginal" = capable to generate more than enough income for maintenance within 5 years of entry; • Declare intention to leave the US when E-1 status terminates.
No	No	No	No
		No	No
		* E-1 visa can be issued only to nationals of countries with which the US maintain a qualifying treaty of commerce and navigation: currently 54 countries.	* E-2 visa can be issued only to nationals of countries with which the US maintain a qualifying treaty of commerce and navigation: currently 62 countries.

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Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits**

		AUSTRALIA		
Programme		**Business Owner Provisional** (subclass 160) under the Business Skills category	**State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner Provisional** (subclass 163) under the Business Skills category	**Business Talent** (subclass 132) under the Business Skills category
Permits	Quota	No	No	No
	Initial	Provisional: 4 years	Provisional: 4 years	Permanent residence
	Conditions for permit withdrawal	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Permanent Residence	After 2 years on the provisional visa, can apply for **Business Owner residence visa** (subclass 890).	After 2 years on provisional visa can apply for **State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner Residence** (subclass 892).	Immediately.
	Conditions for permanent residence	● Assets in the main business (2 main businesses) in Australia ≥ AUD 100 000 (net value) ; ● Personal and business assets in Australia ≥ AUD 250 000 (n.v.); ● Annual turnover of the main business (or 2 main businesses) in Australia ≥ AUD 300 000; ● ≥ 2 full-time jobs to non-family members provided by business.	● Sponsorship by State/Territory Government; ● Net assets in main (or 2 main) business(es) in Australia ≥ AUD 75 000; ● Net personal and business assets in Australia ≥ AUD 250 000; ● ≥ 2 full-time jobs for non-family members; ● Annual turnover of the main (or 2 main) business(es) in Australia ≥ AUD 300 000 (waived in exceptional circumstances).	
Change of status	Possibility/ conditions	Yes,people who established or owned a business (ownership ≥ 10% in up to 2 qualifying business; total assets ≥ AUD 250 000) while in Australia on any temporary visa allowing for business, and operate the business can apply for: ● **Established Business in Australia visa** (subclass 845), after 9 months residence if net business assets ≥ 100 000 and score 105 points on the *Established Business in Australia Points Test*;* or ● **Regional Established Business in Australia visa** (subclass 846), after 1 out of 2 years on a Business Long Stay visa (subclass 457) if: have State/ Territory Government sponsorship; net business assets ≥ AUD 75 000; annual turnover ≥ AUD 200 000 or annual exports = AUD 100 000 and score 105 points on the *Regional Established Business in Australia Points Test*. Both visas allow for permanent residence.		
Family members	Permit	Included in the permit of the principal applicant		
	Work and study rights	Yes		
Number of permits issued in 2008	Total	129 (provisional)	5 740 (provisional)	n.a.
		All programs 6667 (2026 primary, 4641 family)		
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		China; United Kingdom; Indonesia; South Africa; Korea (over the last 10 years)		

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

AUSTRIA	BELGIUM	CANADA	
Settlement permit (Niederlassungsbewilligung) for self-employed key workers (Art. 24 Aliens Employment Act)	**Long-term stay visa for the purpose of self-employment**	**Self-employed** (one of three Business Class sub-categories , under the Economic category)	**Entrepreneurs** (one of three Business Class sub-categories , under the Economic category)
Yes (as for all kind of first applications for settlement permit).	No	No	No
Temporary: 1 year, renewable indefinitely.	Temporary: 2 years, renewable indefinitely.	Permanent residence.	Permanent residence.
n.a.	• Business is not beneficial to the Belgian economy; • Tax and social obligations are not fulfilled.	See below: conditions for permanent residence.	Failure to meet the following conditions within 3 years of entry: • control ≥ ⅓ of a qualifying Canadian business; • active involvement in business operation; • create ≥ 1 full-time job equivalent for a Canadian resident (not a family-member).
General EU rules.	General EU rules.	Immediately.	Immediately.
		General residency requirement of 2 out of 5 years residence to maintain status.	
Yes (from employment): same requirements as for a first admission.	Yes (from employment): same requirements as for a first admission.	No	Possible for students under (Provincial Nominee Program).
Can be admitted under general rules for dependants of people who are already living in Austria under *Niederlassungsbewilligung**.	Under general rules for family reunification.	Included in the application of the principal applicant.	Included in the application of the principal applicant.
No*		Yes	Yes
n.a.	731 (includes changes of status).	505 persons (164 primary, 341 family).	1 705 persons (447 primary, 1258 family).
n.a.	India; China; Japan; Turkey; United States.	Iran; China; Pakistan; Korea; India; United Kingdom and Colonies; Unites States; Chinese Taipei.	

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

		CZECH REPUBLIC	DENMARK	FINLAND
Programme		**Long term visa for self-employment**	**Residence and work permit for the purpose of self-employment and to operate an independent company**	**Residence permit for self-employed person** (to pursue a trade or profession in his/her own name)
Permits	Quota	No	No	No
	Initial	Temporary: 1 year, after which a 2-year long-term permit, renewable indefinitely.	Temporary: 1 year, renewable indefinitely (longer permit after 2 years residence).	Temporary: 1 year, renewable. Extended permit for 1-4 years depending on how business meet the requirements.
	Conditions for permit withdrawal	No	n.a.	● Failure to meet the requirements for profitable business; ● Maintenance not secured by the business.
	Permanent Residence	General EU rules.	General EU rules.	General EU rules.
	Conditions for permanent residence			
Change of status	Possibility/ conditions	Yes: after 1 year of residence on a long-term stay permit (*i.e.* after min. 2 years of entry):same requirements as for a first admission.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission; international students have 6 months after competion of their studies in Denmark to look for a job or seek-residence permit as self-employed in the country.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission.
Family members	Permit	Under general rules for family reunification.	Family members can apply for residence permits.	Included in the application of principal applicant.
	Work and study rights		Partner allowed to full-time work	No
Number of permits issued in 2008	Total	77 158 (includes EU residence certificates as self-employed).	122 (includes 117 EU residence certificates as self-employed)	67
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		Viet Nam; Ukraine; Slovak Republic.	The Netherlands; Poland; Germany; United Kingdom; Lithuania; United States (over the period 2000-09).	Turkey; Russian Federation; China; Bangladesh; United States.

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

FRANCE	GERMANY		GREECE
"**Exceptional economic contribution**" **residence permit**	**Residence permit for the purpose of self-employment: to set up a business** (Residence Act, Section 21)	**Residence permit for the purpose of self-employment: to work on a free-lance basis as writers, artists, performers, consultants etc.** (Residence Act, Section 21, para. 5)	**Residence permit for the purpose of exercising an independent economic activity** (Basic Immigration Law No. 3386-2005, Art. 24)
No	No	No	No
Temporary: 10 years.	Temporary: max. 3 years.	Temporary: 2 to 3 years, renewable.	Temporary: 2 years, renewable indefinitely for further 2 year periods.
• Non-compliance with initial permit conditions; • Failure to make investment in first year, or failure to respect schedule of business plan; • Investment capital shown to derive from illicit activities.	n.a.	n.a.	• Required funds not transferred and made available for the activity; • Change of activity or movement to another prefecture (purpose of stay may change after 1st renewal); • Failure to meet tax and social obligations.
After 10 years on the permit.	When the planned activity has been succesfully realised.		General EU rules.
• Meet initial requirements; • Proof of language knowledge; • Committment to the respect of French republican values.	• Planned activity succesfully realised; • Maintenance funds secured.		
n.a.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission.	No
May apply for a long-term visa for visitors following the accompanying family procedure.	Family members can enter the country with the principal applicant or join later (general requirements for family reunification).	Family members can enter the country with the principal applicant or join later (general requirements for family reunification).	Under general rules for family reunification.
No			
n.a.	3 677 (total for both the categories)		600
n.a.	China; United States; Russian Federation; Japan; Korea (2009).	United States; Australia; Japan; Ukraine; Canada (2009).	n.a.

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

		IRELAND	ITALY	JAPAN
Programme		**Business Permission**	**Permit for the purpose of exercising an independent economic activity** (Decreto Legislativo 286/1998, Art. 26)	**Status of residence Investor/Business Manager**
Permits	Quota	No	Yes: in 2010, 4 000, of which 1 500 for conversion of study permits and 1000 for Libyan citizens.	No
	Initial	Temporary: 1 year, renewable indefinitely for further 1year periods (depending on business success).	Temporary: 2 years, renewable.	Temporary: max. 3 years, renewable for further 3-year periods (depending on investment and job creation).
	Conditions for permit withdrawal	• Failure to comply with tax requirement (including P60 for all employees); • Failure to justify valid work permits for employees.	n.a.	• Failure to comply with admission requirements.
	Permanent Residence	General EU rules.	General EU rules.	Under general rules.
	Conditions for permanent residence			
Change of status	Possibility/ conditions	Yes: same requirements as for a first admission.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission, but set-aside quota for students.	Yes: same requirements as for a first admission.
Family members	Permit	Included in the application of the principal applicant.	Under general rules for family reunification.	Family members may apply for a separate permission (status of residence "Dependent").
	Work and study rights	No		No
Number of permits issued in 2008	Total	47	4 967	919
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		n.a.	n.a.	Korea; United States; China; Chinese Taipei; Pakistan.

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

KOREA	NETHERLANDS	NEW ZEALAND	NORWAY
Business Investment visa D8 for entrepreneurs/managers	**Residence permit for labour as self-employed**	**Long Term Business Visa/Entrepreneur and Entrepreneur plus visas** under the Business category	**Residence permit for self-employment**
No	No	No	No
Temporary	Temporary: 5 years	Temporary:9+27 months (3 years) Can be renewed only one time for further 3 years, then must change visa category.	Temporary: 1 year, renewable.
n.a.	n.a.	LTBV is meant to lead to PR under the Entrepreneur category; if conditions for the latter are not met after 6 years the visa expires.	n.a.
	After the expiry of the first permit (5 years).	After 2-6 years on the LTBV (**Entrepreneur visa**).May apply immediately for **Entrepreneurs plus visa** if criteria are met.	May be granted after 3 years on the temporary permit.
	• Same criteria as for first admission; • Maintenance funds secured.	Since 2009, either an "**Entrepreneur visa**" for most cases where the originally approved (or subsequently authorised) business is succesfully established under an initial business visa; or the "**Entrepreneur plus visa**" for succesful LTBV businesses with ≥ NZD 500 000 invested and ≥ 3 full-time jobs for NZ residents created.	Continue to meet the requirements for first admission.
n.a.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission under LTBV.	Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission.
Eligible for an accompanying visa (D8).	Included in the application of the principal applicant.	Included in the application of the principal applicant (but separate permits).	Included in the application of the principal applicant.
No	No	Yes	n.a.
n.a.	50	380 (Program year 2008-09, Entrepreneur category).	2 932 (1998-2008; include 2 807 residence certificates to EEA).
n.a.	United States; Canada; India; Turkey.	United Kingdom; Korea; China; Fiji; India.	Poland; Germany; Netherlands; United Kingdom; Lithuania.

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

		POLAND	PORTUGAL	SPAIN
Programme		**Residence permit to conduct an economic activity beneficial to the national economy**	**Residence permit for an independent professional activity according to law 23/2007, Art. 60**	**Residence permit for self-employment (*autorización de residencia temporal y trabajo por cuenta propia*)**
Permits	Quota	No	No	No
	Initial	Temporary: max. 2 years, renewable indefinitely.	Temporary: 1 year, renewable indefinitely for 2-year periods.	Temporary: 1 year, renewable indefinitely for 2-year periods.
	Conditions for permit withdrawal	• The activity is not beneficial to the Polish economy; • The activity fails to provide a stable and regular source of income (maintenance).	n.a.	• Failure to comply with tax and social obligations; • Conditions for delivery of the first/ former permit no more in place; • The activity has failed – since its first year - to provide the applicant sufficient income for maintenance.
	Permanent Residence	General EU rules.	General EU rules.	General EU rules.
	Conditions for permanent residence			
Change of status	Possibility/ conditions	No	Yes (from study): same requirements as for a first admission.	No
Family members	Permit	Under general rules for family reunification.	Under general rules for family reunification.	Under general rules for family reunification.
	Work and study rights			
Number of permits issued in 2008	Total	1 162 (include investors).	n.a.	516
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		Viet Nam; Ukraine; Armenia; China.	n.a.	China; Morocco; Argentina; Colombia; Ecuador (over the period 2004-09).

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

SWEDEN		SWITZERLAND	UNITED KINGDOM
Residence permit to start and operate a business (business owner)	**Residence permit to start and operate a business (self-employed)**	**Residence permit for the practice of an independent economic activity**	**Tier 1 Entrepreneur subcategory**
No	No	Yes: permits for independent economic activity issued within cantonal quotas for admission of third-country nationals.	No
Provisional: valid for 1 year at a time for the 2-year probationary period		Temporary: 2 years, renewable indefinitely.	Temporary: 3 years, renewable for further 2 years.
● The activity doesn't provide the applicant with sufficient maintenance funds; ● The activity hasn't been started; ● The business has not been registered.		● The expected positive effects of the proposed business for the Swiss economy have not been realized in the 2-year period.	● Investment not realized; ● Business not registered within 3 months of entry; ● Entrepreneur not actively engaged in the business; ● Failure to create 2 full-time jobs for at least 12 months.
May be granted after the 2-year probationary period.		Under general rules.	After 5 years.
● Prove that the business is runningg according to the reported plans; ● Maintenance funds secured through the business activity.			
Yes (from employment and study): same requirements as for a first admission; foreign students must have reached 30 higher education credits (one term) or have completed one term of research education at institutions of higher education.		Yes (from study): proposed activity has major scientific or economic interest and serves fundamental scientific research or the implementation of new technologies; meet requirements for a first admission.	Yes: must meet the requirements for Tier 1 entrepreneur subcategory.
Family members can apply for residence permits.		Under general rules for family reunification.	As for dependants of a Tier 1 PBS Migrant.
No			Yes
104		n.a.	n.a.
China; Iran; Turkey; Russian Federation; United States.		n.a.	n.a.

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

		UNITED STATES			
Programme		**EB-5 residence visa**	**EB-5 residence visa for investment in a Targeted Employment Area (TEA)**	**EB-5 residence visa pilot**	**EB-5 residence visa pilot in a TEA**
Permits	Quota	Yes: yearly maximum of 10000 EB-5 visa.	(within general quota).	3000 EB-5 visa set-aside yearly for pilot project.	(within quota for EB-5 pilot).
	Initial	2-year conditional permanent resident status ("green card"); for the conditions on residency to be removed must file a second application within the 90-day period preceding the second anniversary of admission as conditional permanent resident.			
	Conditions for permit withdrawal	In the 2-year period following the admission as conditional permanent resident: ● The new commercial enterprise was not created; ● Required investment of funds in a new commercial enterprise was not made; ● Funds were not maintained at risk in the new commercial enterprise; ● The investor was not involved in the management of the new commercial enterprise; ● The required number of jobs have not been created and are not expected to be created in a reasonable period of time.			
	Permanent Residence	After 2 years.			
	Conditions for permanent residence	Conditions on permanent status removed (see above).			
Change of status	Possibility/ conditions	n.a.			
Family members	Permit	Included in the application of the principal applicant			
	Work and study rights	Yes (after the 2-year conditional period)			
Number of permits issued in 2008	Total	427 (includes 304 new arrivals and 123 adjustments; includes 49 EB5 visas granted under the general program and 378 pilot and TEA programs).			
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		n.a.			

Table II.A1.1b. **Self-employed/Entrepreneurs: permits** *(cont.)*

UNITED STATES *(cont.)*	
E-1 visa (Treaty trader), based on a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation (non immigrant visa status) according to INA, 101(a)(15)E	**E-2 visa (Treaty investor)**, based on a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation (non immigrant visa status) according to INA, 101(a)(15)E
No	No
Temporary: 2 years, renewable indefinitely	
No (Non immigrant visa).	
Not applicable.	
No	
Family members may receive derivative visas in order to accompany the principal applicant.	
Spouses may apply for employment authorisation.	
	28 588
n.a.	n.a.

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Table II.A1.2. **Investors**

		AUSTRALIA		CANADA	FRANCE	GREECE
Programme		**Investor** (subclass 132) under the Business Skills category	**State/Territory Sponsored Investor visa** (subclass 165)	**Investor** (one of three Business Class sub-categories)	"**Exceptional economic contribution**" residence permit	Yes (Basic Immigration Law 3386/2005)
First introduced in				1986 (ref. 2010)	2009	
Admission Requirements	Investment capital	AUD 1.5 million in Australian state treasury bonds.	AUD 750 000 in Australian state treasury bonds.	CAD 800 000 (to be paid to Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC)).	EUR 10 million directly, or through a corporation of which the applicant controls at least 30% or manages.*	EUR 300 000
	Min. Duration	4 years	4 years	5 years	No	No
	Min. net Worth	AUD 2.25 million (combined assets of applicant and his/her partner)	AUD 1.125 million (combined assets of applicant and his/her partner)	CAD 1.6 million	No	No
	Experience	≥ 1 year (in last 5) maintaining an investment of AUD 1.5 million or managing a qualifying business in which the applicant and partner had ≥ 10% ownership.	≥ 1 year (in last 5) maintaining an investment of AUD 750 000 or managing a qualifying business in which the applicant and partner had ≥ 10% ownership.	2 years (in the last 5) managing and controlling a qualifying business/ managing 5 full-time employees in a business.	No	No
	Age	< 45	< 55 but regional authority sponsor may grant exception.	Yes (under points system)	No	No
	Language Knowledge	No	No	Yes (under points system)	No	No
	Min. number of jobs to be created	No	No	No	No/≥ 50 to be created/ maintained in French enterprises in France (alternative to the requirement on capital).*	No
	Involvement in business	No	No	No	Not necessary	No
	Other		Be sponsored by a State/Territory.	Score = 35 points on a selection grid assessing age, education, business experience, language ability, adaptability.	*Exceptions made if business considered a local priority (*e.g.* to prevent closure); Applicant must submit a calendar of investment operation and expected job creation.	The investment must have positive effects on the Greek economy.
Restrictions		No	Reside in the sponsoring State/Territory for at least 2 years.	Applicant cannot place or manage the capital invested. He/she pays the investment to CIC. CIC distributes it to the participating Provinces and Territories and repays it after 5 years without interest.	Not applicable to EU or Algerian citizens.	No

Table II.A1.2. **Investors** *(cont.)*

KOREA			MEXICO	NEW ZEALAND		POLAND	PORTUGAL	UNITED KINGDOM
F5 residence visa ("foreign high investor"*)	**F2 residence visa** (regional programme for investors)	**G1 visa** (regional programme for investors)	Permiso de immigrante inversionista extranjero	**Investor programme** under the Business category	**Investor plus programme** under the Business category	Residence permit to conduct an economic activity beneficial to the national economy	Residence permit for investment according to law 23/2007, Art. 60	**Tier 1 Investor subcategory**
	01/02/2010	01/02/2010		1999 (ref. 2002, 2005, 2007, **2009**)	1999 (ref. 2002, 2005, 2007, 2009)		2007	2009 (previously Investor Scheme)
USD 500 000	USD 500 000	USD 200 000	No	NZD 1.5 million	NZD 10 million	No	No	GBP 750 000
No	No	No	No	4 years	3 years	No	No	3 years
No	No	No	No	NZD 1 million to settle in New Zealand (transfer not required).	No	No (general requirement of secured financial funds for maintainance)	No	GBP 1 million **or** GBP 2 million net personal assets *and* GBP 1m in loans under control.**
No	No	No	No	3 years business experience	No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No	≤ 65	No	No	No	No
No	No	No	No	Yes (IELS min.overall score 3)	No	No	No	Exempt from Tier 1 requirement.
5	No	No	No	No	No	No (see below: "other")	No	No
Not necessary	No	No	No	No	No	Not necessary	Not necessary	No
				Be healthy and of good character.	Be healthy and of good character.	Evaluation according to benefit of activity for Polish economy (investment growth, technology, innovation, job creation), especially income generated, taxes paid, job creation.	prior investment in Portugal; or proof of financial means in Portugal (incl. loans from a Portugal bank) and demonstrated intention to invest in Portugal.	Assessment under Tier 1 of the points-based system: must score 75 points, including sufficient disposable funds in the UK. Exempt from maintenance requirements.
	Investment in recreational facilities (condominiums, resorts, villas, etc.) in Jeju special self-governing province.		Foreigners cannot invest in certain sectors (energy; communication technology; postal services; banks; public transport), and their investment in others is limited to a fixed percentage of ownership.	Acceptable investment: ● Bonds (of NZ government/local authority, or NZ firms in the NZDX or, NZ firms with BBB rating); equity (in NZ firms, public or private, including management funds); or currency (NZD invested in lawful enterprises or managed funds). ● Produces commercial return and contributes to economy. ● Not for personal use, not in residential property or deposit-taking financial institutions.			No	Investment in UK Goverment bonds **or** share or loan capital in active and trading UK registered companies excl. those investing principally in property.

Table II.A1.2. **Investors** *(cont.)*

		AUSTRALIA	CANADA	FRANCE	GREECE
Permits	Initial	Provisional: 4 years	Permanent residence	Temporary: 10 years, renewable	Temporary: 3 year, renewable indefinetly for 3-year periods
	Conditions for withdrawal of permit	● Failure to inform Department of Immigration and Citizenship of any change of circumstances. ● Significant change of circumstances (ex. leave the sponsoring State).	See below: conditions for permanent residence.	● The investment was not made in the 1-year period following the permit delivery, or was not realised following the time schedule of the business plan; ● Investment capital is proved to come from illicit activities.	● The investment was not made or there was no progress after 1 year (the Ministry of Economy and Finance informs the Ministry of Interior which take the withdrawal decision).
	Permanent Residence	After 4 years on the provisional visa. (two-stage visa)	Immediately.	After 10 years.	
	Conditions for permanent residence	● Fulfil requirements of the provisional visa; ● Acceptable business record; ● Residence for 2 out of 4 years; ● Committment to maintain investment in Australia.	General residency requirement of 2 out of 5 year presence to status.	● Meet initial requirements; ● Proof of language knowledge; ● Committment to the respect of French republican values.	
Family members	Permit	Included in the permit of the principal applicant, although applicant must enter before dependents; applicant may not marry between receiving visa and entry to Australia.	Included in the permit of the principal applicant.	May apply for a long-term visa for visitors following the accompanying family procedure.	As for family reunification conditions but exempted from waiting period.
	Work and study rights	Yes	Yes	No	No
Number of investor permits issued in 2008	Total	12 (program year 2008-09) / 472 (program year 2008-09)	10 197 persons (2 831 primary, 7 366 family)	n.a.	1 (in the period 2006-09)
Main origin countries (all programs 2008)		Chinese Taipei, Malaysia, United Kingdom, Singapore, South Korea (over the last 10 years).	China, Chinese Taipei, South Korea, Iran, Egypt.	n.a.	Ukraine.

Notes to Tables II.A1.1a, II.A1.1b and II.A1.2.
AUSTRIA: *Family members can get *Niederlassungsbewilligung-unbeschränkt* (access to work) after one year of residence, if the spouse of parent, has the permit *Niederlassungsbewilligung-unbeschränkt*.
CANADA: *In order to be admitted in Canada under the Entrepreneur subclass, applicant is required to have experience in a qualifying business abroad. For this purpose it is considered a qualifying business a business: whose main purpose was not to derive investment income, such as interest, dividends, or capital gains; and for which, during the year under consideration, there is documentary evidence of any two of the following: the percentage of equity multiplied by the number of full-time job equivalents is ≥ two full-time jobs equivalents per year; the percentage of equity multiplied by the total annual sales is ≥ CAD 500 000; the percentage of equity multiplied by the net yearly income is ≥ CAD 50 000 and the percentage of equity multiplied by net assets at the end of the year is ≥ CAD 125 000.
Once admitted entrepreneurs must operate a qualifying Canadian business. It is considered a qualifying Canadian business a business whose main purpose is not to derive investment income, such as interest, dividends, or capital gains; and for which there is in any year within the period of three years after the day the entrepreneur becomes a permanent resident documentary evidence of any two of the following: the percentage of equity multiplied by the number of full-time job equivalents is ≥ two full-time jobs equivalents per year; the percentage of equity multiplied by the total annual sales is ≥ CAD 250 000; the percentage of equity multiplied by the net yearly income is ≥ CAD 25 000 and multiplied by the net assets at the end of the year is ≥ CAD 125 000.

Table II.A1.2. **Investors** *(cont.)*

KOREA			MEXICO	NEW ZEALAND		POLAND	PORTUGAL	UNITED KINGDOM
Permanent	Permanent (without conditions)	Temporary (long-term)	Temporary: max. 1 year, renewable indefinitely.	4 years conditional residence.	3 years conditional residence.	Temporary: max. 2 years, renewable.	Temporary: 1 year, renewable for 2-year periods.	Temporary: 3 years, renewable for further 2 years.
				● Funds were not transferred; ● Funds were not placed in an acceptable business. (requirements checked after 2 years)			n.a.	● Investment was not realised within 3 months of entry the UK; ● Investment is not maintained in the same capacity for the whole period.
Immediately	Immediately			After 4 years	After 3 years	Under general rules	Under general rules	After 5 years
				● Initial requirements fully met; ● Residence requirement (146 days in each of the last 3 years of the 4-year investment period).	● Initial requirements fully met; ● Residence requirement (73 days in each of the last 2 years of the 3-year investment period).			● Investment maintained throughout the whole period of the leave in the same capacity; ● English language and life test.
Eligible for accompaining visa (D8).	Accompanying family members receive F1 (visiting or joining family) status.		General conditions for family reunification.	Included in the permit of the principal applicant.	Included in the permit of the principal applicant.	General conditions for family reunification.	General conditions for family reunification.	As for dependants of a Tier 1 PBS Migrant, but exempt from proof of maintenance funds.
No	No	No		Yes	Yes			Yes
n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		33 (all programmes; program year 2008-09)	n.a.	1161 (including entrepreneurs, excluding EU)		79 (under the previous scheme)
				Great Britain, China		Viet Nam, Ukraine, Armenia, China		Russian Federation, China, Australia, India, United States.

KOREA: *F-5 visa can be granted also to "foreigners of superior ability in specified fields".
NEW ZEALAND: *A business is considered of potential benefit for New Zealand if it promotes NZ economic growth by means of technological innovation; introduction of new products or services; trade expansion; employment creation; revitalisation of an existing business; successfully established business in NZ = applicant has established/purchased made a substantial investment in a business operating in New Zealand; been self-employed in this business for two years; created economic benefit for New Zealand.
UNITED KINGDOM: *Previously Business persons and Innovation schemes. **Investment capital must be held in regulated UK financial institution and disposable in the UK. In the case of loans, capital must be loaned by a regulated UK financial institution and disposable in the UK.
UNITED STATES: *Following the INA, 101(a)(15)(E) "substantial trade" for E-1 purposes is the continuous flow of goods or services between treaty countries that involves numerous transactions over time. The smaller businessman is not excluded if he can demonstrate a pattern of transaction of value. Income derived from the international trade must be sufficient to support the treaty trader and family.

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PART III

International Migration to Israel and its Impact[1, 2]

1. This chapter was prepared by Jonathan Chaloff (OECD) and Josep Mestres-Domènech (OECD).
2. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction

Israel joined the OECD on 7 September 2010, becoming its 33rd member. Its accession to the OECD brings in its train a different model of immigration and provides an opportunity to compare not only integration policy and outcomes for immigrants, but also the management and impact of temporary labour migration programmes.

Israel, a country of 7.5 million inhabitants, is built on immigration: since its creation in 1948, Israel has accepted 2.8 million immigrants, and one in four of today's Israelis is foreign-born. The characteristics of immigrants, however, have evolved in the past two decades, and expanded beyond permanent immigration by Jews and their families to include temporary labour migration by foreign workers. More recently, Israel has also become a destination for asylum seekers.

The magnitude and level of permanent migration to Israel has varied throughout the country's history, with the two most significant waves having occurred first in 1948, following independence, and then in the early 1990s, following the breakup of the Soviet Union. Israel's immigration rate in the early 1990s was higher than that of any OECD country at the time, and created significant challenges for labour market and social integration of those who arrived. Immigration has since declined and over the past decade, relative to the population, has remained well below the OECD average.

While the permanent migration channel to Israel is not based on economic considerations, the early 1990s wave of migration occurred during – and contributed to – rapid economic growth. This growth, following market-oriented reforms since the mid-1980s and the expansion of the high-tech sectors in the 1990s, has continued, except for brief slowdowns in the early 2000s and 2008-09, for two decades. Against this background of continuous growth, Israel also saw the expansion of temporary labour migration from abroad.

In terms of inflows, temporary migration of foreign workers has exceeded permanent migration over the past decade. Israel has also registered an increase in undocumented foreigners – principally overstaying tourists – and, since 2007, a growing phenomenon of asylum-seeking by Africans crossing the border from Egypt. These groups have contributed more to the stock of foreign-born in the past decade than permanent migration.

The different flows of permanent and temporary migrants into Israel provide an opportunity to examine the impact of migration on the labour market outcomes of natives and on the economy in general. The mass immigration of the 1990s has been widely studied. Less analysis has focused on the impact of temporary labour migration.

The first part of the chapter begins with an overview of Israeli definitions and classifications compared with those used internationally, followed by an analysis of permanent migration to Israel, covering its evolution since the creation of the country in 1948 and the immigrant integration policy in place. It then compares the labour market integration outcomes of Israeli immigrants with those of the native-born as well as with

immigrants in other OECD countries. The second part of the chapter focuses on the temporary labour migration system. The third part looks more closely into the impact of immigration – permanent and temporary – on the labour market and the economy in Israel. The chapter ends with conclusions and a discussion of the implications of the findings in a comparative OECD perspective.

Key findings

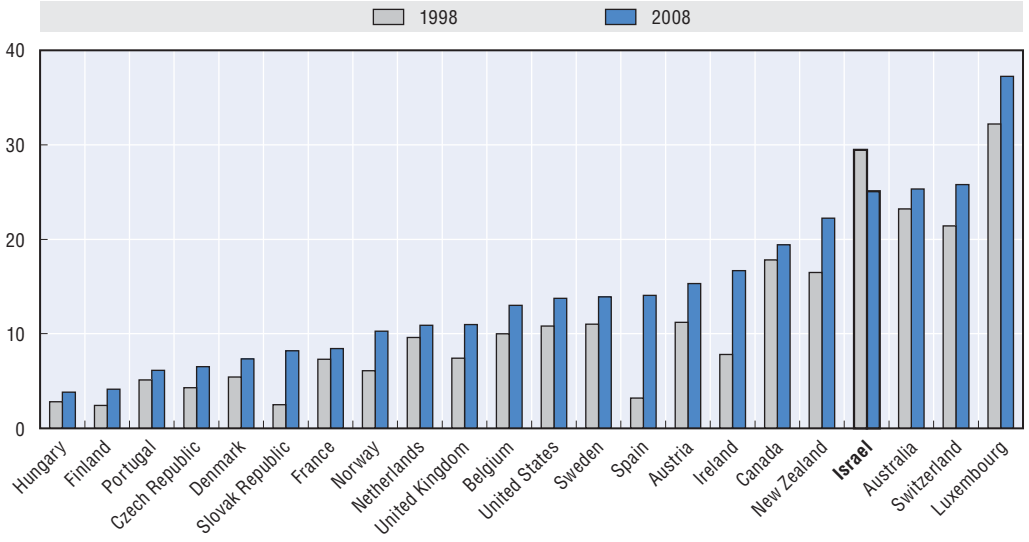
- Although permanent migration to Israel is almost entirely "ethnic", the characteristics of immigrants vary widely according to the country from which they come. Overall, they have tended to be better educated than their Israeli peers.
- In the early 1990s, inflows, mostly from the former Soviet Union, amounted to 10% of the population at the time. Migration has since slowed to levels below the OECD average, although one in four Israelis is foreign-born.
- Integration policy in Israel is front-loaded and choice-based, with immigrants receiving a "basket" of cash payments and vouchers to spend on housing, training and consumption. Immigrants are expected to complete an intensive language course and move quickly into the labour market.
- Permanent immigrants move quickly into employment and have higher employment rates than natives. They do, however, suffer from overqualification, and for most groups, wages increase with duration of stay but do not converge fully with those of natives.
- The return (or emigration) rates of immigrants to Israel appear low in international comparison, although emigration of the Israeli-born is significant, especially among the highly educated.
- Outcomes vary by group, with immigrants from the former Soviet Union showing the highest employment rates, and Ethiopians the lowest. While Ethiopian employment rates have been increasing in recent years, their average earnings remain far below the national average, and have increased less than for other groups.
- Palestinian cross-border workers represented a significant share of total employment in Israel for many years, until they were largely replaced by temporary workers – not always documented – from other countries starting in the early 1990s. Foreign workers now represent around 9% of total employment.
- The temporary labour migration management system is based on a five-year maximum stay, with workers restricted to a specific sector and with limitations on their mobility. There are a series of critical problems with the system, primarily illegal fee-taking and insufficient inspection, with consequent vulnerability of foreign workers and, often, a real wage below Israeli minimum standards.
- While the large-scale permanent immigration of the early 1990s did not have a long-term negative effect on the native-born labour market outcomes, there is widespread concern that temporary labour migration has a negative impact on Israelis. The empirical analysis of the impact of temporary foreign workers on the labour market outcomes of Israelis shows a more complex picture, however, with different groups affected positively or negatively by different categories of foreign workers.

1. International migration and Israel

Israel has two principal channels of migration, and these channels affect the national classifications used and the statistics produced by the Israeli authorities (Box III.1). The first is permanent migration, restricted to Jews and their families, and is known as *aliyah* (ascent). This immigration is a central tenet and objective of the state, codified in the 1950 Law of Return (Box III.2), and is actively encouraged. Citizenship is generally granted immediately to these immigrants, who comprise almost all permanent immigration. Immigration of those with no family ties to Jews is not allowed, aside from family reunification and marriage to Israeli citizens. The latter is allowed, although restrictions may be placed on marriage migration of nationals of hostile countries. Still, almost all foreign-born permanent residents of Israel have come through the Law of Return and are Israeli citizens. Permanent immigrants comprise more than a quarter of the Israeli population (Figure III.1), and about 30% of employment. The second channel is temporary labour migration, where the duration of stay is limited and no change of status to permanent residence is allowed. This channel comprises foreign workers from the West Bank and Gaza (cross-border workers) and those from other countries ("foreign workers").

Figure III.1. **Share of the foreign-born in total population, selected OECD countries, 1998 and 2008**

Percentages



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: OECD, *International Migration Outlook*; Israel CBS. Data for Israel exclude temporary foreign workers. Data for France are for 1999 and 2008. Data for Slovak Republic are for 2001 and 2008.

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1.1. *The Israeli population is largely first and second-generation immigrants*

The State of Israel is built on immigration.[1] At independence, the registered population was 862 000, and the inflows in the following three years were enormous in relative terms: 26.2% in 1949, 14.5% in 1950 and 12.8% in 1951 (Figure III.2), almost half of whom came from Middle-Eastern and North African countries. Flows exceeded 2% of the population in the mid-1950s and again in the early 1960s. In general, immigration to Israel corresponded to crises in the countries of origin (Figure III.2). In fact, permanent migration

Box III.1. **Immigrants, cross-border workers, and foreign workers: definitions and sources**

Israeli national definitions and statistics on immigrants are different from those used in most OECD countries, and pose some difficulty when attempting to make international comparisons, and in interpreting data published by Israeli authorities. This chapter uses the internationally accepted definitions of immigrants (*i.e.* the foreign-born), except where noted.

Israeli statistics often separate the population into "population groups", *i.e.* Arabs and Jews (or Jews and others), and labour market statistics are often presented and analysed using this distinction. The Israeli Labour Force Survey publishes and makes available data only on Arabs born in Israel or in other countries. For categories of entry, Israel has only two permanent channels: the Law of Return (see Box III.2) and the Law of Entry. The Law of Return covers a heterogeneous group and includes, for example, family members of prior entries under the law, individuals with Jewish connections fleeing persecution, Jews coming to Israel to seek employment or with a prior job offer, eligible tourists or students who change status, retirees, and ideological or religious migrants. These immigrants are registered by country of birth and country of last residence, rather than country of citizenship. The second category includes family reunification and formation with non-Jews or by non-Jewish Israelis, and adoption from abroad. No data on the country or place of origin is published for the second group. For temporary flows, Israel distinguishes between temporary foreign workers and cross-border (Palestinian) workers. It also calculates the number of overstaying tourists.

Statistics on persons entering and staying under the Law of Return are reliable, although no distinction is made between permanent residents and citizens under this category (*i.e.* between those who have naturalised and those who have permanent residence). In fact, no data on the stock of permanent residents are published, nor are data on naturalisations available. Nonetheless, study of the integration of immigrants is much facilitated because administrative data not only allow identification of immigrants by their year of arrival and by their country of origin, but provide details on parental origins, educational attainment abroad, and occupation in the country of origin. The characteristics of permanent immigrants are also available in detail; for example, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) contains questions on country of birth, father's and mother's country of birth, and year of immigration (month of immigration for those immigrating in the past three years), except when the place of birth is the West Bank or Gaza, which is not specifically identified. Migration stock statistics in most OECD countries include either all foreign-born residents, or all foreign residents. Israel tends to use the first definition, although published data cover only the part of the population not classified as Arab, and completely exclude both legal temporary foreign workers and undocumented foreigners. In Israeli statistics, this lowers the denominator in any analysis of the proportion of foreign-born in the population. Separate data on the stock of legal foreign workers, and estimates of foreign workers and overstayers, are provided by the Central Bureau of Statistics. The Ministry of Interior population register ("Population Registry") includes data on citizens, legal temporary and permanent foreign residents by status and year of entry, but these data are not published. The register also contains citizens and permanent residents who live abroad. Finally, Israeli analyses generally define "immigrants" as permanent immigrants arriving after 1990, rather than all foreign-born residents. However, this chapter considers immigrants in principle to be all foreign-born in line with the OECD standard. However, if the Labour Force Survey is the data source that is referred to, the statistics only include Arabs born in other countries among the foreign born. Elsewhere, the statistics provided for Israel do not include Arabs born outside of Israel who, according to Israeli authorities, represent a small share of both immigrant entries and of the immigrant population.

Box III.1. **Immigrants, cross-border workers, and foreign workers: definitions and sources** *(cont.)*

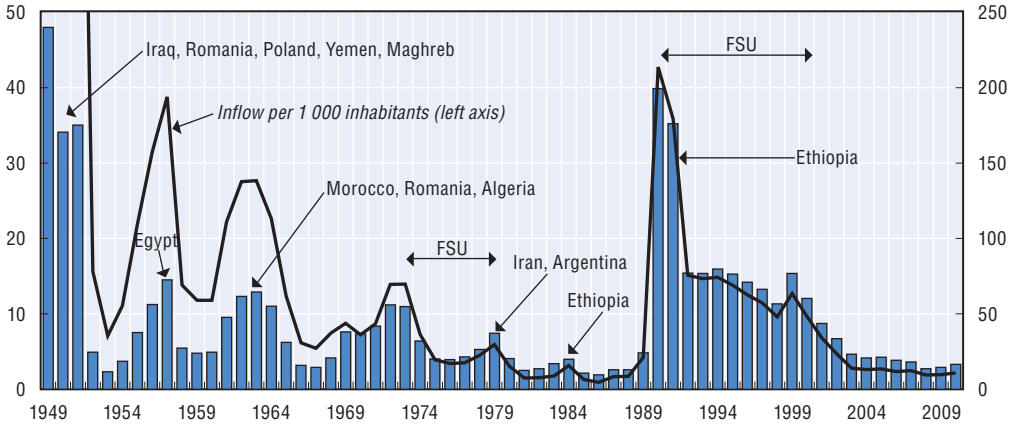
All analyses of foreign-born in the labour market separate foreign-born Israeli citizens (and permanent residents entering under the Law of Return) from other foreign-born persons (legal and undocumented "foreign workers" and cross-border workers). Administrative data on the wages and jobs performed by the latter two, namely foreign and cross-border workers, are partial and subject to classification errors. Israeli analyses of the presence of foreign workers in the labour market, such as those by the Bank of Israel, use estimates. As foreign workers are excluded from public employment (more than a quarter of the total), Israeli analyses of foreign workers' share of employment also differ from those of OECD countries because they are calculated using private-sector employment, rather than total employment.

Estimates of emigration rates and of overstaying by tourists and workers are based on the double-card system*, although exits and changes in status may go unregistered. This explains some of the wide variance in estimates of the number of undocumented foreign workers.

* In the double-card system, the Border Authority checks individuals at entry and exit, and individuals who have not exited are considered to have remained.

Figure III.2. **Annual inflows of permanent immigrants in Israel, 1949-2010**

Per 1 000 inhabitants (left axis) and in thousands (right axis), and main source countries during peak years



Source: Israel CBS, 2011. Flows per 1 000 inhabitants in 1949-51, not shown, were 262, 145 and 128, respectively.

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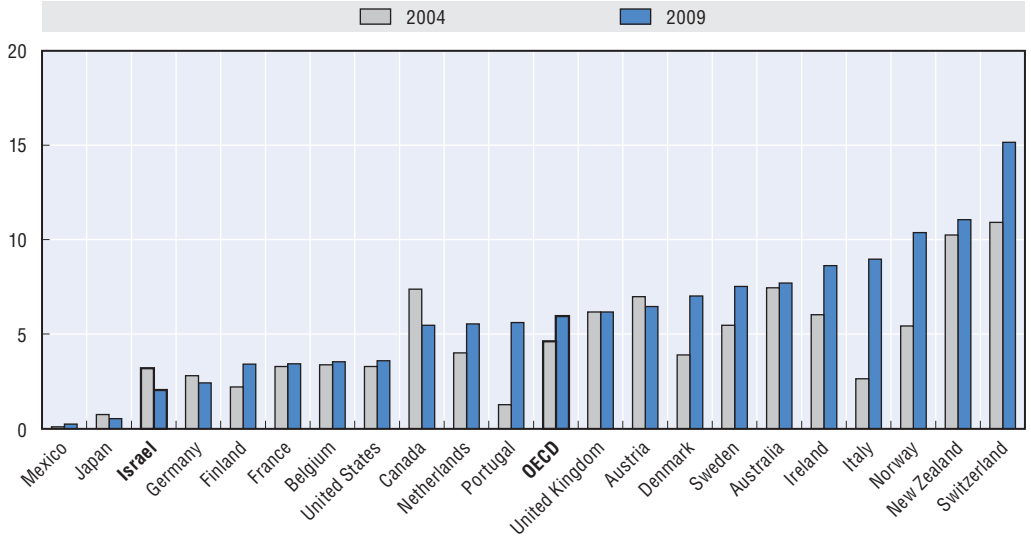
to Israel appears primarily driven by *push factors*, and is not correlated with economic growth in Israel as much as with conditions in the country of origin. While many distinctions in the origins of Israelis continue to be relevant in Israeli society today, the main division concerning those of immigrant origin is between those who arrived from Europe and those who arrived from the Middle East and North Africa.

Immigration declined to a trickle from 1973 until an unexpected wave of immigration in 1990-91, as restrictions on Jewish emigration from the former Soviet Union (FSU) ended. More than 330 000 permanent immigrants arrived from the FSU in 1990-91, and another 540 000 before the end of the decade, adding about 20% to the population. In 1991 and 1992, a large group of Ethiopian Jews were also brought from rural areas and refugee camps.

Now, however, in comparison with many OECD countries, Israel in recent years ranks relatively low in terms of inflows (Figure III.3). Current inflows under the Law of Return are low. Since 2002, net immigration, including family reunification, has accounted for only 12% of population growth, compared with an OECD average of 50% (2006), and Israel is the only OECD country (except Estonia) where the proportion of the population which is foreign-born has declined over the past decade (Figure III.1). Immigration from the FSU has declined in relative importance, and immigrants from OECD countries now comprise almost 40% of the permanent inflow. Over the past decade, Ethiopians continued to arrive, mostly those considered the descendents of Jews who converted to Christianity in the 19th century. The number admitted each year is determined by the government, and they are subject to special integration requirements. Their naturalisation is contingent on conversion to Judaism.

Figure III.3. **Inflows of permanent immigrants in OECD countries, 2004 and 2009**

Per 1 000 inhabitants



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: United Nations Population Division, data on population; OECD, data on inflows of permanent immigrants; CBS, Israel.

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In terms of the context for policy, the difference between immigration to Israel and that in other OECD countries makes comparison difficult. In most OECD countries, for example, different categories of entry pose distinct challenges for policy makers. For example, selected skilled migrants, especially if they have a job prior to arrival, do well and require little support. Unskilled labour migrants have less good outcomes, and their family members also have more difficulty with labour market integration. Humanitarian migrants tend to fare worst of all. Many OECD countries have planned specific integration programmes depending on the composition of their immigrant population. In Israel, migration under the Law of Return is a single category of entry, but includes migrants with characteristics of all these groups (Table III.1).

Box III.2. **The Law of Return**

Under the Law of Return (1950), any Jew is immediately entitled to Israeli citizenship, although the law did not define who was considered a Jew. In 1970, the law was extended to include spouses of Jews, children of Jews and their spouses, and grandchildren of Jews and their spouses. About half of the permanent immigrants in 2008 were not Jews according to the religious definition (which requires that one's mother be Jewish), but were covered under the 1970 amendment; there are now more than 300 000 non-Jewish permanent immigrants in Israel (about 4% of the population).

Israel applies no selection criteria (*e.g.* age, education, capital) beyond that of the Law of Return. The Jews who immigrated to Israel appear to have different characteristics than those meeting selective criteria in other OECD countries. This was the case with Russians through the 1990s (Cohen and Haberfeld, 2007; Lewin-Epstein *et al.*, 2003), of whom one in four was over 55 years of age.

89% of permanent immigration to Israel in 2010 was under the Law of Return. While Israel is not unique in allowing and promoting "ethnic priority" immigration, the Law of Return is a fundamental element of the identity of the state and, outside of family reunification, the only channel for permanent migration. Germany, Greece, Hungary and Finland all have programmes for the "return" of foreigners of national ethnic origin, and other countries (Korea, Japan and Italy) have entry categories for those of national origin, but these are not the central element in their migration policies.

Outside of these channels, family reunification and formation is generally allowed, with citizenship later granted subject to discretion; these flows are non-negligible (averaging more than 4 000 in the past seven years, and about 20% of total flows in 2007-08). Permanent residence – potentially followed by naturalisation – has also been granted exceptionally to specific groups.

The characteristics of permanent immigrants vary principally according to the country of origin. Table III.1 shows the educational characteristics of immigrants from the main source countries. Immigrants from OECD countries tend to be highly educated (70% have 13+ years of schooling), as are those from the former Soviet Union and Central and South America (62 and 68%, respectively), while more than half of the Ethiopian immigrants have less than secondary education.

As inflows decline, outflows increase

During the early 2000s, despite economic growth in Israel, emigration of Israeli-born, especially of those with tertiary education, was substantial. The stock of Israeli-born living in OECD countries rose by about 25% in the first half of the 2000s. Further, Israeli emigrants tend to be more educated than those who remain. The *Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries* (OECD, 2011b) found more than 200 000 Israeli-born over the age of 15 living in selected OECD countries in 2000-01 (Table III.2).[2] Israeli emigrants to the United States are positively selected and have higher wages than native-born Americans with the same characteristics (Cohen and Haberfeld, 2007). There is a substantial flow of university researchers to the United States (Ben David, 2008), and Gould and Moav (2008) argue that Israel offers a lower return to education than the United States, enticing educated Israelis to leave the country. The stock of Israeli-born abroad has been rising rapidly, and largely comprises the educated. DIOC data suggest that about 8% of the tertiary-educated

Table III.1. **Socio-demographic characteristics of the foreign-born vs. the native-born, aged 15-64, by country of birth, Israel, 2008-09**

Percentages

	Region of birth						Native-born	Total
	OECD	Ethiopia	Former Soviet Union	Central and South America	Others	Total Foreign-born		
Population	**198 300**	**47 800**	**603 700**	**42 900**	**252 400**	**1 145 100**	**2 815 600**	**3 960 700**
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Gender								
Men	46.3	47.6	45.5	46.3	46.0	45.9	50.1	48.9
Age								
15-24	8.1	20.1	11.7	8.8	1.2	9.0	20.2	17.0
25-34	13.6	29.9	22.7	17.4	5.3	17.4	29.3	25.9
35-44	18.4	27.4	20.7	21.5	10.0	18.2	23.6	22.1
45-54	21.1	14.2	23.1	26.2	28.3	23.7	16.9	18.8
55-64	38.7	8.5	21.7	26.1	55.3	31.7	9.9	16.2
Years of education (Men)								
0-11	10.1	46.9	20.3	7.4	36.5	22.8	20.0	20.8
12	19.6	42.7	21.6	23.9	31.2	24.4	38.1	34.4
13+	70.3	10.4	58.0	68.7	32.3	52.9	41.9	44.9
Highest certificate (Men)								
Up to secondary	11.5	46.4	7.7	6.0	33.5	15.7	21.6	20.0
Secondary	31.4	45.8	36.7	40.0	39.2	36.8	47.3	44.5
Post secondary	57.1	7.9	55.6	54.0	27.3	47.5	31.1	35.6
Years of education (Women)								
0-11	7.5	59.5	16.0	5.2	35.9	20.3	17.2	18.1
12	22.4	26.0	19.6	28.4	34.2	23.9	36.9	32.9
13+	70.0	14.5	64.4	66.4	29.9	55.9	45.9	49.0
Highest certificate (Women)								
Up to secondary	6.3	58.5	5.1	4.1	33.2	13.6	17.5	16.3
Secondary	32.2	31.8	32.2	38.6	41.8	34.5	45.0	41.8
Post secondary	61.5	9.7	62.7	57.3	25.0	51.9	37.5	41.9
Marital status								
Married	75.6	56.2	63.7	69.0	75.3	68.2	62.7	64.3
Separated	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.5	3.7	1.8	0.7	1.1
Divorced	6.8	8.0	11.2	8.3	7.8	9.4	4.0	5.6
Widowed	2.9	2.1	2.5	1.8	4.8	3.0	1.2	1.7
Single	13.5	32.5	21.4	19.3	8.4	17.5	31.4	27.4
Family status of women								
Single parent	3.9	16.6	8.9	8.3	3.0	7.0	4.8	5.5
Married mother	36.6	49.7	29.9	38.6	20.5	30.1	48.5	42.8
No children	59.5	33.8	61.2	53.1	76.4	62.9	46.8	51.7
Years since immigration								
Native-born							100.0	71.2
0-5	8.8	16.1	4.0	10.6	6.2	6.1		1.7
40 822	6.5	10.3	17.3	13.6	3.8	12.0		3.5
11+	84.8	73.5	78.7	75.7	90.0	81.9		23.6
Year of arrival								
Native-born							100.0	
Pre 1990	69.2	25.8	13.4	61.0	86.3	41.3		71.2
1990-94	9.7	41.8	48.7	8.4	2.4	30.0		11.9
1995-99	8.2	8.2	23.6	9.7	1.9	15.0		8.6
2000-04	6.4	12.8	12.0	14.5	4.7	9.5		2.7
2005-09	6.6	11.3	2.3	6.5	4.6	4.1		1.2

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Analysis of CBS Labour Force Surveys by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute. Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis. Temporary foreign workers are not included. StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442313*

Table III.2. **Stock of Israeli-born living in selected OECD countries, 2005-06, and change from 2000**

Country	Educational level				Change 2000-2005/06	
	ISCED 0/1/2	ISCED 3/4	ISCED 5/6	Total	Number	Percentage
	Number					
Australia	660	2 580	2 940	6 940	1 140	20
Austria	490	580	310	1 380		
Belgium	1 050	810	750	2 610	330	14
Canada	2 110	5 970	11 120	19 190	4 470	30
Denmark	230	460	420	1 370	50	4
France	1 980	2 440	2 980	7 400	800	12
Italy	10	2 180	1 600	3 790	1 700	81
Netherlands	760	1 350	880	3 330		
Sweden	290	780	490	1 740	100	6
Switzerland	230	990	930	2 140	360	20
United Kingdom	1 200	1 910	5 530	10 220		
United States	15 440	54 310	66 800	136 550	28 830	27
OECD	**25 670**	**75 590**	**96 300**	**201 400**	**41 530**	**26**

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*
Source: Database on Immigrant in OECD countries (DIOC). International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 5/6 refer to tertiary education, levels 3/4 to secondary and post-secondary and levels 0/1/2 to less than secondary education. Totals may not add up due to rounding. The OECD total excludes countries not covered by DIOC.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442332

Israeli-born were living in OECD countries in 2005-06 (it is impossible to know if these Israeli-born were educated in Israel or abroad). Against this apparent loss, however, the foreign-born comprise a third of all tertiary-educated in Israel itself.

Israeli estimates cover *emigration* of Israeli nationals, including immigrants to Israel who later leave the country. These figures place annual emigration of Israeli nationals at between 20-28 000 since 1990. Many of these Israelis later return, making *net* emigration of nationals fairly constant at about 12-18 000 annually. Emigration fluctuates largely according to the economic situation and opportunities abroad, rather than the political situation in Israel.

According to Israeli estimates, most – about 60% in 2006-07 – of the Israeli citizens emigrating were foreign-born.[3] While most OECD countries see return rates for migrants – after 5 years – of 25-35% (OECD, 2008a), the return rate *from* Israel appears somewhat lower. For immigrants arriving in the 1990s, most of whom were from the former Soviet Union, it has been estimated at about 10% (Cohen, 2009). The return rate for recent permanent immigrants from OECD countries is, however, much higher – around 50%.

Finally, asylum-seekers in Israel first appeared in significant numbers in 2007, illegally crossing Israel's border with Egypt. At the end of 2010, there were 33 000 asylum seekers, of which 57% were from Eritrea, and 25% from Sudan.[4]

1.2. Integration policy for immigrants in Israel: front-loaded and choice-based

Integration policy for immigrants in Israel has evolved in line with the characteristics of immigration and with the trends in provision of services by the State. Until 1968, responsibility for integration was largely in the hands of the Jewish Agency for Israel (JAFI). In 1968, the Ministry of Immigrant Absorption (MOIA) was created, and currently shares responsibility for integration with JAFI and other government bodies. The budget for MOIA in 2008 was USD 0.35 billion (about 0.2% of GDP), although many services and subsidies for immigrants are provided through other government ministries and agencies.

With the major post-independence waves of immigration, the state played an active role in settling new immigrants, dispersing them around the country according to central planning objectives. As immigration slowed in the mid-1950s, most permanent immigrants received more expensive in-kind services through reception centres (Gal and Leshem, 2000). "Direct absorption", in which immigrants bypassed absorption centres and moved directly into mainstream housing, was introduced in the late 1980s, as part of a trend towards market-based approaches to give more choice and to lower overheads. Direct absorption consists in a "basket" of benefits for immigrants (Box III.3).

Box III.3. **Direct absorption: the basket of benefits for immigrants**

Cash payments and vouchers comprise a basket of benefits, and immigrants choose where to live and how to spend their benefits on housing, education and consumption. While the "basket" was originally developed in a period of low immigration, it became the policy for the large wave of immigrants from the former Soviet Union – almost all of whom took this "direct absorption" option rather than go into state-run reception centres. Until 2002, the basket was more generous for immigrants from poorer countries, but is now the same for all those who enter under the Law of Return. The absorption basket cost the MOIA USD 58 million in 2008, for 8 560 family units and individuals.

The main elements in the basket are cash grants (see table below), paid during the first seven months (12 months for Ethiopians), which are above the minimum wage and approach the Israeli median, depending on family size. The benefit is paid even if the immigrant begins employment. Permanent immigrants have a customs exemption for their household belongings and white goods; those from all but the rich western countries may receive instead a cash grant to buy appliances. Permanent immigrants who are not working after seven months may receive means-tested benefits until they become eligible for NII income support after 12 months. In general, permanent immigrants become eligible for means-tested mainstream social coverage after one year, although replacement rates in Israel are low and provide strong incentives to work (OECD, 2010a).

Cash benefits (USD) for immigrants in general and from Ethiopia, 2009

	General		Ethiopians	
	Absorption Basket	Additional grant if close to eligibility for pension	Absorption Basket	Additional grant if close to eligibility for pension
Two-parent family, couple	7 654	1 764	7 823	1 764
Single-parent family	6 491	1 134	5 310	1 134
Single	4 015	943	4 796	943
Pensioners: family, couple	6 342		2 590	
Pensioner: single parent family	5 198		1 811	
Single pensioner	4 216		1 298	
Child 0-4	2 375		1 302	
Child 6-17	1 577		1 302	
Youth 18-25	2 091		1 912	
Supplement for family 6+	1 096			

Source: Ministry of Immigrant Absorption. By comparison, the average wage was about USD 2 000 monthly.

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Other substantial benefits are also available beyond the first year. The MOCH provides a rent subsidy, regardless of means, for up to five years (six years for single parents). This amounts to more than USD 200 million annually. Mortgage subsidies are provided, and permanent immigrants also enjoy a ten-year exemption on taxes on income from abroad.

In addition to the "basket", MOIA also contributes 22% to the funding of the Ministry of Education's Hebrew-language classes.

Box III.3. **Direct absorption: the basket of benefits for immigrants** *(cont.)*

MOIA provides vocational training "vouchers" worth up to 80% of the cost of privately-offered approved training courses chosen by the immigrant. The initial eligibility was five years, extended to ten years in 2008 (15 for Ethiopians). Professional licensing is facilitated by a separate grant.

Targeted interventions for specific communities can also be developed. Alongside the free-choice model for most permanent immigrants, there is a centralised approach to absorption for the Ethiopian population. Almost all Ethiopians are now assigned to absorption centres, where they live with their families, so their "basket" reflects their lower housing costs. Their expenses in the absorption centre are covered and they are provided with more intensive, longer and culturally-specific language courses and cultural orientation.

The choice model has yet to be evaluated alongside more structured models, in terms of the advantages and disadvantages of allowing immigrants to choose how to spend their support, and the impact on outcomes.

The fact that both the State and the immigrant aim for permanent settlement influences the reciprocal investment strategies. Israel grants most immigrants entering under the Law of Return citizenship immediately, which obviates the significant labour market effect of non-citizenship (OECD, 2010c). Benefits and support reduce the need to enter the labour market immediately, and facilitate acquisition of language and professional qualifications. The presumption is that immigrants will want to integrate into Israeli society and into the labour market. At the same time, the relatively short benefit horizon – seven months – is meant to remove disincentives for staying out of the labour market after the initial phase.

As in other OECD countries, language skills are a good predictor of outcomes. Since most permanent immigrants come to Israel with – at best – rudimentary knowledge of modern Hebrew, Israel invests in language education for immigrants through a system called Ulpan. Ulpan is free for immigrants within three years of arrival (seven for Ethiopians and ten for those with learning disabilities), and provides a basic module of 500 hours over five months, with special modules for specific groups, and 450 additional hours for professional language training. The accelerated pace is meant to help rapid transition into the labour market.

Not everyone emerges from these courses speaking Hebrew. According to the national standard written and oral evaluation, 14% of participants failed to achieve even basic language skills (equivalent to A2 in the Common European Framework), although half reached level B2 or higher. Additional resources are available for certain groups for a longer time (OECD, 2010a)

Entrepreneurship support is also provided, and immigrants can apply for entrepreneurship support at any point within ten years of arrival.[5]

Qualifications earned abroad may be worth less – or nothing – once an immigrant arrives (OECD, 2007b). While the Israeli Ministry of Education provides certificates of equivalency of foreign qualifications for salary, grading and classification in civil-service jobs, Israeli universities apply their own standards for recognition of prior academic training. Foreign-trained professionals must take the relevant national licensing examination, although immigrants receive subsidies for training for these exams, and some are available in other languages.

Older immigrants with no work experience in the new country are a particularly difficult group to place, and wage subsidies are one response to overcome the reluctance of employers to hire this group. A *Center for Absorption in Science* grants employers up to three years of subsidies and workplace orientation for immigrant scientists; other subsidies are available for high-skilled jobs outside of science. Most businesses end up keeping the immigrants.

There are many specific initiatives aimed at improving the poor outcomes for immigrants from Ethiopia. One approach used for the group, successful in integrating immigrant youth in a number of OECD countries, is mentoring programmes. Another is more specific to Israel, where military service is a predictor of later outcomes. Pre-induction training for army recruits helps ensure that Ethiopians are not disproportionately referred to low status units.

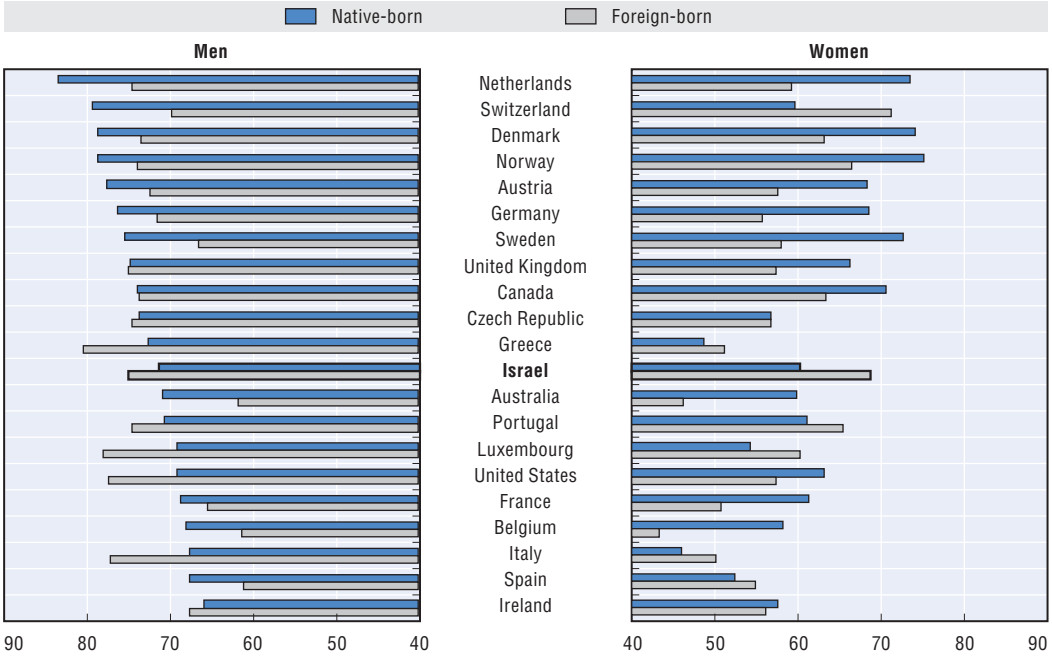
Finally, Israel has a high rate of participation in public boarding schools, especially for immigrant youth. These "youth village" residential schools support integration of adolescents arriving alone or from newly-arrived families, accelerating language acquisition and acculturation.

1.3. Labour market outcomes have generally been good for immigrants

Labour market outcomes have been generally positive. Overall, immigrants have a higher employment rate than the native-born. However, outcomes differ significantly among immigrants, depending on a number of endogenous factors (gender, age, education, etc.) and exogenous factors (discrimination based on ethnicity; geographical placement).

More significantly, there is an issue in Israel regarding the appropriate native-born group with which to compare the foreign-born. The participation rate of native-born persons tends to be lower than in other OECD countries (Figure III.4). Low participation rates among two population groups – Arab Israelis, especially women, and ultra-Orthodox Jews, especially men – lower the average for native-born Israelis (OECD, 2010a).

Figure III.4. **Employment rate of the foreign-born and the native-born, in selected OECD countries, by gender, 2009**



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 2009; US CPS March Supplement, 2009; Australia Labour Force Survey, 2009; Canada Labour Force Survey, 2009; Israel CBS Labour Force Survey, 2009 (foreign workers are excluded, analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute).

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Therefore, one issue in interpreting Israeli data on outcomes for immigrants is the choice of an appropriate benchmark. As noted in Box III.1, Israeli analyses usually compare post-1990 immigrants with the rest of the population. In analysis of outcomes of the second generation (the children of immigrants), the question of the reference group is perhaps even more determinant (see Box III.4). In addition, as Israel is divided socially and economically, principally between the Jewish and Arab populations, in Israeli analyses, the benchmark for integration of Jewish immigrants is often the Jewish population rather than the total population. Table III.3 shows how the foreign-born, by gender, compare with the groups used in Israeli analyses. Among *men*, the foreign-born have higher employment rates than all native-born groups. Among *women*, only the post-1990 immigrants (largely from the FSU) have higher employment rates than native-born Jews.

Table III.3. **Employment, unemployment and non-participation rates of immigrants and native-born groups of Israelis aged 15-64, by gender, 2009**

Percentages

		Native-born			Foreign-born		Total
		All	Jews	Non-Haredi Jews	All	Arrived since 1990	
Employment	Men	71.3	72.1	74.0	75.1	75.7	72.3
	Women	60.1	72.1	72.1	68.5	73.5	62.7
Unemployment	Men	8.1	8.2	8.1	6.9	7.4	7.8
	Women	8.2	8.0	8.0	6.7	7.1	7.7
Non-Participation	Men	22.4	21.4	19.4	19.3	18.2	21.6
	Women	34.5	21.6	21.6	26.6	20.8	32.1

Note: "Haredi" refers to Ultra-Orthodox Jews. Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Analysis of CBS Labour Force Surveys by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute. Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis.

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Foreign-born immigrants in Israel are on average more likely to be employed than native-born, both for males and females (see Annex Tables III.A1.1 and III.A1.2). Nevertheless, once different individual characteristics are taken into account, foreign-born men have similar employment probabilities to those of native-born Jewish men, and foreign-born women have lower employment probabilities than native-born Jewish women.[6]

Education acquired abroad is wholly discounted, but can be unlocked through experience and retraining

Qualifications and work experience earned in origin countries are not necessarily recognised by many employers in receiving countries (OECD, 2007b and 2008b). This is true in Israel, where what appears to matter is work history once in Israel (Buchinsky and Gotlibovski, 2006). Eckstein and Weiss (2004) find that wages of highly skilled immigrants rise by 8% annually over the 1990s, but that the annual return to schooling converges to under 3%, compared with almost 7% for natives. They attribute this gap largely to low returns on their foreign qualifications and experience. In a sample of FSU men arriving between 1989 and 1992, 70% had worked in white-collar jobs prior to immigration, but most left unemployment for blue-collar jobs (Cohen and Eckstein, 2001).

While there is no return to foreign qualifications upon arrival, there is partial convergence over time and with experience (Eckstein and Weiss, 2002, and 2004). After five years, wages for FSU immigrants were 62% of those of Israelis (Eckstein and Weiss, 2002). Education and experience from the FSU was not valued in Israel, and this discounting explained the large wage gap. Eckstein and Weiss also found that immigrants who had arrived from the FSU in the 1970s experienced further wage growth – to 80% after 20 years – but this was due to occupational changes rather than rising returns to foreign education.

The advantages and limits of additional training for immigrants have been examined, and the findings are that rather than increasing employment, training increases wages and better job opportunities. Most importantly, *training in Israel* partially unlocks the benefits of prior education, as demonstrated for immigrants prior to 1983 (Friedberg, 2000). This is also relevant for the mass immigration of the 1990s, where many of the educated immigrants had Soviet training of little immediate relevance to the Israeli labour market. While the quarterly probability to receive a white-collar job offer was 12% (males) and 6% (females), training increased these probabilities by 50-100% (Cohen-Goldner and Eckstein, 2002). Looking at men immigrating from the former Soviet Union, Cohen-Goldner and Eckstein (2008) find that the returns to training, experience and the Hebrew language are significant at five years from immigration, as well as the transition from blue-collar to white-collar occupations. For women, Cohen-Goldner and Eckstein (2004) found a wage impact only for white-collar jobs, and the greatest benefit via opportunities rather than wages. They conclude that despite no reduction in unemployment, the gain in job quality justifies the investment in training.

Training significantly increased the propensity to work in high-tech jobs (Cohen-Goldner, 2006), whereas foreign education had no effect. On the other hand, vocational education from abroad gives no benefits (Neuman and Ziderman, 2001), and few immigrants with vocational education from abroad worked in their field of training in Israel. However, vocational training in Israel does seem to have an effect. According to the Ministry of Immigrant Absorption, for those who have used the vocational training vouchers offered since 2005, 76% (of 3 600 beneficiaries in 2008) are employed in the professions for which they trained, and 46% report a wage increase due to their vocational training.

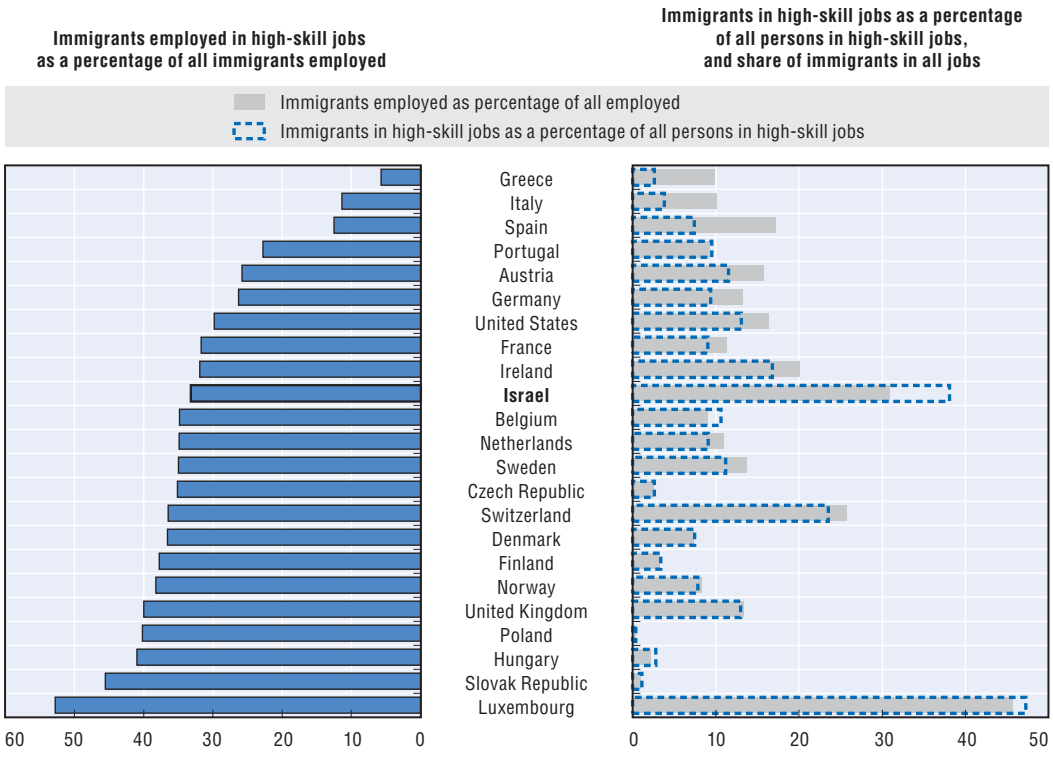
Immigrants are present in skilled occupations, but not all skilled immigrants are in skilled occupations

In many OECD countries, employed immigrants are often in skilled occupations (Figure III.5), although they are more likely than natives to be employed in less skilled occupations. Israel is an exception. Not only do immigrants comprise more than a third of total skilled employment in Israel, a figure exceeded only by Luxembourg, immigrants are more likely to be in high-skilled employment than in employment in general: they comprise 31% of total employment but 37% of high-skilled employment. This underlines the contribution of educated immigrants to the skilled workforce in Israel.

Outcomes, however, vary significantly among immigrant groups. The largest group of recent immigrants to Israel, from the former Soviet Union (FSU), generally found low-skill and low-status jobs at first, with many gradually transitioning to higher status jobs corresponding more closely to their educational level. Overall, the participation and employment rates for immigrants from the FSU are ten points higher than those for the

Figure III.5. **Immigrants employed in high-skill jobs, in selected OECD countries, 2009**

Percentages



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey; US CPS March Supplement; Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), foreign workers are excluded. High-skilled is defined as ISCO 11, 12, 2 and 3.

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native-born and compare favourably to indicators for immigrants relative to native-born in international comparison (Table III.4). The labour market outcomes for Ethiopian immigrants to Israel, the group which fares the worst relative to natives, are largely explained by their low education level and by the fact they are the most recent arrivals. Among working-age adults, 13% arrived in the early 2000s, and 12% in the late 2000s. Their outcomes still appear better, however, than the outcomes for foreign-born in a number of European OECD countries.

For migrants from OECD countries, the longer the stay in Israel, the more likely they are to be employed (Annex Tables III.A1.1 and III.A1.2). However, the very low participation rate among immigrants from OECD countries is also partly due to the presence of ultra-Orthodox in this group. On the other hand, while the self-employment rate among immigrants is lower than that of Israelis (8.8% compared with 10.7%), immigrants from OECD countries have higher rates (14.5%) of self-employment. This is consistent with observations in some other OECD countries (OECD, 2011a).

Among migrant groups, Ethiopian men have the lowest probability of employment while Central and South-American men have the highest. Among women, migrants from the FSU have the highest probability of employment.

Table III.4. **Labour market outcomes of immigrants and natives in selected OECD countries, by region of origin, 2009**

Differences in employment, unemployment and non-participation rates between foreign-born and native-born

Country	Differences between foreign-born and native-born		
	Employment rates	Unemployment rates	Non-participation rates
Sweden	–12.1	8.2	–6.6
Netherlands	–12.0	3.9	–9.5
Belgium	–11.0	9.6	–5.4
Germany	–9.0	6.0	–5.0
Denmark	–8.5	4.2	–5.7
Austria	–8.4	5.6	–4.6
France	–7.1	5.8	–3.5
Israel – Born in Ethiopia	–6.9	3.3	5.0
Norway	–6.9	4.0	–4.0
Switzerland	–4.6	3.8	–1.5
United Kingdom	–4.5	1.4	–3.8
Israel – Born in other countries	–2.4	–2.0	3.9
Spain	–2.1	11.2	8.1
Ireland	0.2	4.3	3.7
Czech Republic	0.4	2.9	2.7
United States	1.6	0.3	2.0
Israel – Born in OECD countries	2.6	–1.5	–1.7
Portugal	3.9	3.4	7.3
Italy	5.9	3.5	9.1
Israel – Born in South or Central America	9.7	–2.0	–8.8
Israel – Born in the Former Soviet Union	10.4	–1.7	–9.8

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Sources: EU Labour Force Survey; US CPS March supplement; Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09. Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis.

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Immigrants converge to Israeli participation and employment rates over time

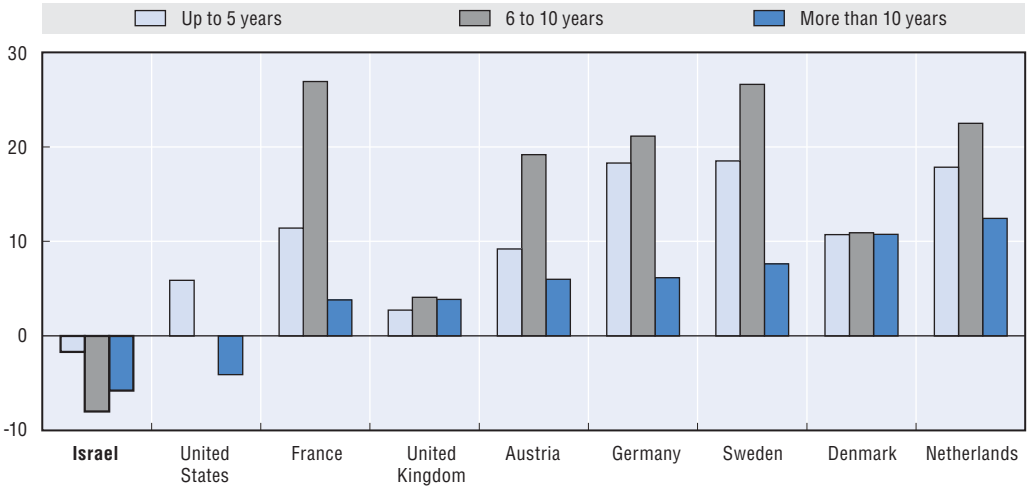
In general, immigrants to Israel have a higher participation and employment rate than Israelis at first, although this declines towards the Israeli average over time – as much as 15 years. Wages – which are lower – and occupational composition, on the other hand, do not fully converge.

Israel is, as noted, among those OECD countries with a higher employment rate among immigrants than among natives: the United States and recent migration countries of Southern Europe. While most countries see improvement in employment the longer immigrants have been in country, in Israel duration of stay does not seem to play a major role in determining employment rates (Figure III.6), which remain higher than for natives. These rates do not take into account wages or occupational distribution, where changes have been noted over time.

Changes in labour market outcomes over time, however, reflect the composition of immigrant groups. The employment rate of immigrants from the FSU increased throughout the 2000s (Table III.5). On the other hand, the employment rate of immigrants from OECD countries fell, as the proportion of ultra-Orthodox – with low male participation rates – in this group increased. The employment rate for immigrants from Ethiopia rose noticeably throughout the 2000s, from 45% to 60%.

Figure III.6. **Differences between the employment-population ratios of native-born and immigrants, 15-64 years old, by years of presence in selected OECD countries, 2009**

Percentage points



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: EU Labour Force Survey, 2009; US CPS March Supplement, 2009; Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2009 (15-64 years).

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Table III.5. **Employment, unemployment and non-participation rates of immigrants and native-born Israelis aged 15-64, by country/region of birth, 2000-09**

Percentages

Years	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born by region of origin					
			Total	OECD	Ethiopia	Former Soviet Union	Central and South America	Others
Employment rates								
2000-01	63.5	62.2	65.9	71.2	44.6	68.2	77.1	59.1
2002-03	62.5	61.1	65.3	69.4	39.3	68.9	70.1	58.4
2004-05	63.8	62.3	66.8	67.0	43.7	72.0	73.1	57.9
2006-07	66.1	64.4	70.1	69.2	52.7	75.8	75.5	60.4
2008-09	67.8	66.2	71.7	68.8	59.3	76.6	75.9	63.8
Unemployment rates								
2000-01	9.3	9.6	8.8	5.6	17.5	10.0	6.3	8.3
2002-03	10.8	11.2	9.9	6.4	25.6	10.6	11.1	9.5
2004-05	9.9	10.3	9.1	7.2	22.3	8.7	8.6	10.2
2006-07	8.0	8.7	6.6	5.5	15.4	6.3	5.9	7.4
2008-09	7.0	7.5	5.9	6.0	10.8	5.8	5.5	5.5
Non-participation rates								
2000-01	30.0	31.2	27.8	24.6	45.9	24.2	17.7	35.5
2002-03	29.9	31.2	27.5	25.9	47.2	22.9	21.2	35.5
2004-05	29.2	30.5	26.5	27.8	43.8	21.1	20.1	35.6
2006-07	28.1	29.5	24.9	26.8	37.7	19.2	19.8	34.8
2008-09	27.1	28.5	23.8	26.8	33.5	18.7	19.7	32.4

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2000-09. Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis.

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The sectoral distribution of employed immigrants suggests that they disproportionately entered certain sectors, especially manufacturing, health and welfare services, cleaning and security, and domestic work (Table III.6). At the same time, they have little presence in certain sectors which remain the domain of the native-born – especially education, banking and insurance. They also did not enter two of the sectors where temporary foreign workers are concentrated: agriculture and construction.

In terms of occupational distribution, immigrants are overrepresented in the least skilled occupations – 11% of immigrants are in unskilled jobs, compared with 6% of natives – and somewhat underrepresented in the most skilled occupations (33% compared with 39%), although immigrants who have been in Israel for at least 10 years have a distribution close to that of natives.

Within high-skilled occupations, a higher proportion of immigrants than natives are employed in the health care sector (physicians and nurses) and in engineering. These occupations expanded significantly with the migration of Soviet-trained doctors, nurses and engineers in the 1990s.

Table III.6. **Distribution of the employed immigrants and native-born Israelis aged 15-64 by sector of economic activity, 2008-09**

Percentages

	Native-born	Foreign-born
Manufacturing industry	12.5	20.8
Health services, welfare, social work	7.8	14.6
Wholesale and retail trade	14.1	12.1
Real estate, renting, business activites (excl. security, cleaning)	12.1	9.9
Education	14.5	8.6
Transport, storage and communication	6.9	5.4
Security and cleaning activities	2.0	4.6
Community, social and other services	5.0	4.5
Accommodation services and restaurants	5.1	3.7
Construction	6.0	3.6
Public administration	5.3	3.4
Private households with domestic personnel	1.0	3.4
Banking, insurance	4.2	2.7
Agriculture	1.8	1.2
Others	1.7	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09.

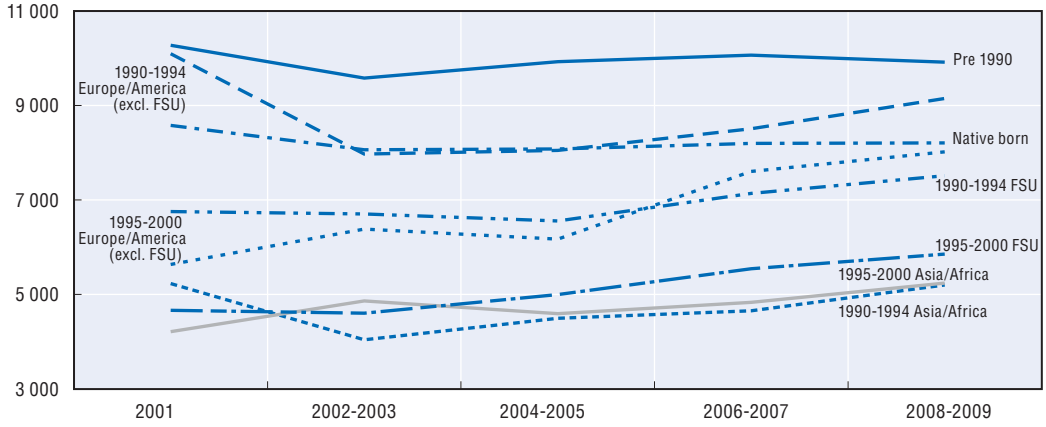
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The earnings gap between immigrants and the native-born varies according to the period of immigration (years since migration) and to the region from which immigrants came (Figure III.7). Some groups, such as immigrants prior to 1990, have higher earnings than the native born, although, as noted, the native-born include low-earning groups (Arabs and ultra-Orthodox). Most post-1990 immigrants have lower earnings than Israeli natives, although immigrants from the FSU show rapid progress during the 2000s. Immigrants from Asia and Africa – largely Ethiopia, in this group – have consistently lower incomes and do not show much improvement over the decade, even as their employment rate rose.

Despite the successful integration in terms of employment, migrants face important wage differences once employed (See Annex Tables III.A1.3 and III.A1.4). Immigrant men

Figure III.7. **Gross monthly earnings of employed Israelis, by year of arrival and region of origin, 2001-09**

In 2009 New Israeli Shekel



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: Analysis of CBS Labour Force Surveys by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute. Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis.

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(women) have a 17% (20%) lower wages than natives even after controlling for socio-demographic characteristics. A significant 10% (9%) difference persists even allowing for difference between occupations and sectors of employment. These wage differences are reduced for those migrants that stay longer in the country. Immigrants from North America and Europe (excluding FSU) have lower wage differences than migrants from other origins.

Where immigrants perform worse than comparable natives, it is largely due to lower returns to prior education, lack of local experience, and poor language skills (OECD, 2007b). This can often lead to immigrants working in jobs for which they are *overqualified*. In fact, only half of employed immigrants with more than secondary education were working in high-skilled jobs in Israel (Table III.7). This is a higher rate of overqualification than in other

Table III.7. **Proportion of employed highly-qualified individuals in low- and medium-skilled jobs in various OECD countries, population aged 15-64, 2008-09 (Israel) and 2002-04 (other countries)**

Percentages

	Foreign-born	Native-born	Ratio
Australia	31.9	23.1	1.4
Canada	33.3	18.5	1.8
Denmark	22.4	13.3	1.7
France	21.2	18.5	1.1
Germany	33.5	22.2	1.5
Israel	**49.2**	**30.7**	**1.6**
Sweden	25.2	10.4	2.4
United Kingdom	23.2	22.2	1.0
United States	28.0	23.2	1.2

Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: Australia Survey of Education and Work, 2004; EU Labour Force Survey, 2002-04; US CPS March supplement, 2002; Canada Survey of Labour and income Dynamics, 2003; Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute) – foreign workers are excluded – 2008-09.

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countries, although the rate of overqualification for the native-born in Israel is also high. Still, immigrants in Israel are significantly more likely to be overqualified than the native-born than in the United States, United Kingdom or France.

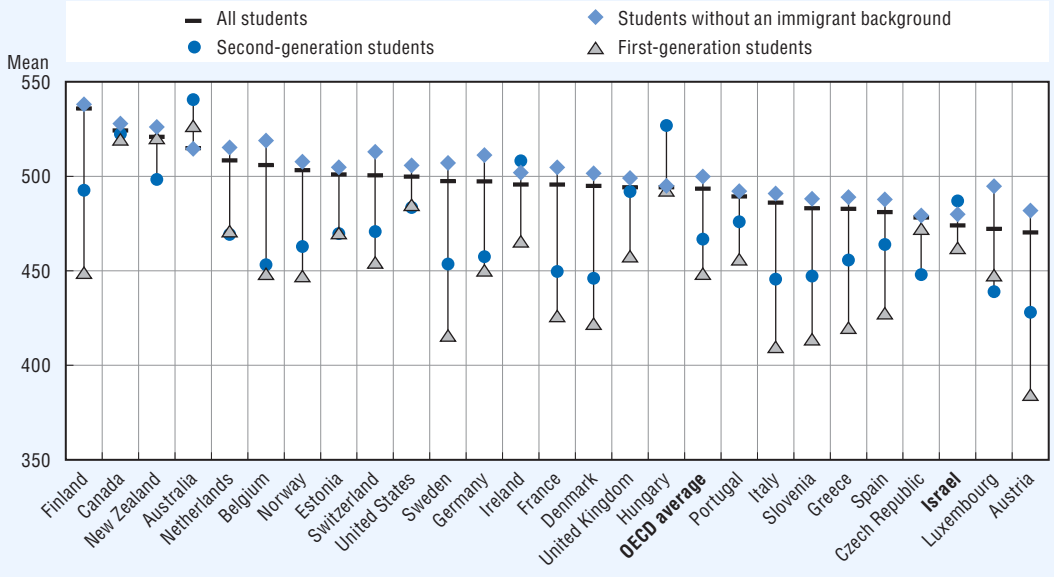
This section has covered the characteristics of permanent immigrants to Israel and their largely successful labour market integration. As Israel's permanent migration system is not based on labour market demand or the labour market characteristics of immigrants, the positive labour market outcomes of permanent immigrants are notable. However, next to this permanent migration channel, there is also a temporary labour migration channel closely related to demand. The next section addresses this channel.

Box III.4. **Children of immigrants: the labour market and educational outcomes of the second generation**

As a large proportion of the Israeli population is of immigrant origin – only half the population has an Israeli-born father – the reference group of native-born with native-born parents is limited. Further, the reference group is disproportionately Arab, with consequent poorer outcomes.

This may explain why Israel is unusual among OECD countries for the small difference in school performance between immigrant students, native-born students with immigrant parents, and those without an immigrant background (Figure III.8). The OECD Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA) measures performance of children in school at 15. While Israelis score well below the OECD average, the children of immigrants in Israel perform better than those without an immigrant background. In part this is due to depressed average scores for native-born in Arab schools.* Nevertheless, first-generation immigrants have lower reading scores than the already low (in OECD standards) Israeli average.

Figure III.8. **Students' performance on the reading scale by immigrant background, PISA 2009**



Note: Information on data for Israel: http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.

Source: *OECD PISA Database 2009*, Table II.4.1. Countries are ranked in descending order of the mean score of all students

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Box III.4. **Children of immigrants: the labour market and educational outcomes of the second generation** *(cont.)*

The age at arrival for students has been shown in other countries to be related to school performance and to subsequent labour market outcomes (Böhlmark, 2008). The difficulty of acquiring a new language after a certain age increases with age; a significant threshold appears to be around age 8. However, labour market outcomes in Israel actually appear better for immigrants who arrived later rather than as small children. For post-1990 immigrants, those who arrived after age 8 were 40% more likely to be employed than those who arrived before age 8. This may be due to the better education which older immigrant children received abroad, or to successful support for their integration.

Outcomes for the children of Ethiopian immigrants are, however, poor (State Comptroller, 2008). Immigrants from Ethiopia and their children (a population of more than 110 000) are very poor (68% live below the poverty line) and spatially segregated. They have higher drop-out rates (20% vs. 7%), lower graduation rates (41%), and lower university eligibility (19%).

* Analyses of PISA scores from the 2006 assessment have shown that native-born students in Jewish schools perform better (23 points below the PISA average) than first (–44) or second generation (–45) immigrants in those schools, with Arab schools (–113) lagging far behind (OECD 2010b).

2. Temporary labour migration in Israel

Temporary foreign workers have become increasingly important in the Israeli labour market. They account for almost 9% of employment and are predominant in several occupations. Despite more than a decade of policy strategy aimed ostensibly at reducing the number of temporary foreign workers, the stock of such workers remains significant. In 2010, the number of foreigners holding permits to work in Israel was more than 88 000, and a further 23 000 were legal cross-border workers from the West Bank. In addition to work-permit holders, there were about 115 000 undocumented foreign workers, and about 25 000 Palestinians working without permits, as well as about 33 000 asylum seekers. Foreign workers were almost entirely concentrated in the lowest wage occupations, with legal workers in home care, agriculture and in construction; undocumented workers in housecleaning, construction and services; and asylum seekers in the hotel industry.

2.1. A history of labour migration in Israel

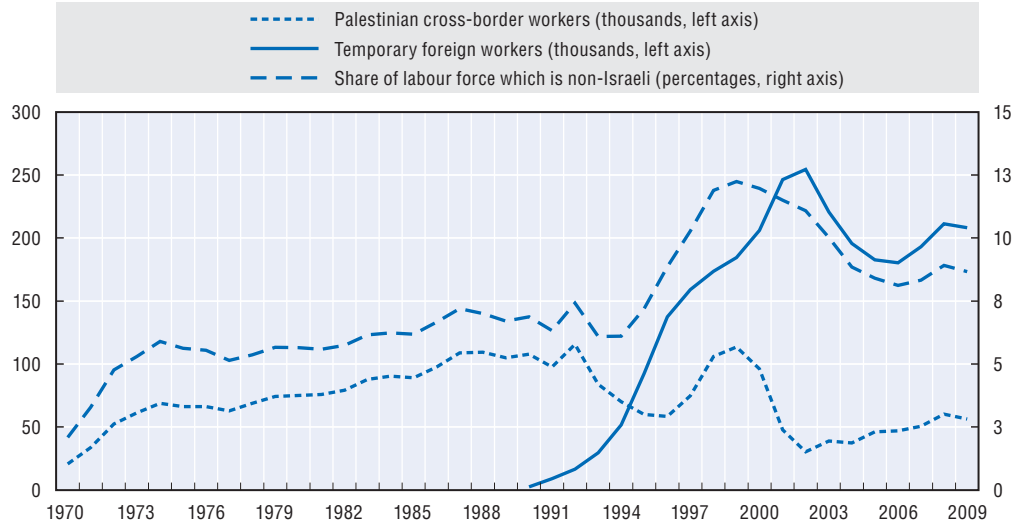
For several decades, Israel did not consider temporary labour migration, as its challenge was to find employment for the permanent immigrants who were arriving. Other OECD countries with permanent migration programmes – Australia, New Zealand, Canada – established temporary labour migration programmes alongside their permanent streams. These programmes were created to meet seasonal or cyclical demands, or as a recruitment channel for permanent migrants. In Israel, the demand for foreign workers was related to a number of factors, including a reduction in permanent immigration, the refusal of both natives and recent immigrants to take certain jobs, and the transformation of the collective farms and production which had played an important part in the early development of the country.

Cross-border workers first appeared in 1967 and quickly became significant

Israel had foreign workers before it had a foreign-worker policy, and migration management policy has followed, rather than driven, a phenomenon linked to the changing geopolitical situation of the country. The first temporary foreign workers entered the Israeli labour market as cross-border workers following the 1967 war. Cross-border

workers live in one country and work – usually through daily commuting – in a neighbouring country. In Israel, it meant Palestinians from the West Bank and Gaza, who crossed the previously sealed border to work. By 1970, with increased numbers (Figure III.9), trade union concern over the possible deleterious effect on wages of Israeli workers grew, and a labour migration system was formalised. Palestinians were hired through the Israeli public employment service (PES) offices in the West Bank and Gaza, and their wages and social contributions were paid to the PES, which remitted the wages and provided the social benefits. Palestinians were required to hold a work permit, linked to a specific employer and subject to the same wages as Israeli workers. The National Insurance Institute (NII) is still responsible for social benefits and contributions, although wages are now paid directly to cross-border workers without passing through the PES.

Figure III.9. **Palestinian cross-border workers and foreign workers in Israel, 1970-2009**



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

Sources: Bank of Israel (2010); Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Includes both legal and undocumented foreign and Palestinian workers, but excludes asylum seekers.

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By the late 1980s, cross-border workers had become an important part of the labour force, reaching about 7% of total employment (in 1987, Palestinian workers constituted 49% of all employees in construction, and 45% in agriculture).

A quota was imposed on cross-border workers in 1993, and border-crossing became more difficult with increased Israeli security concerns. While the quota for cross-border workers increased in the late 1990's, in 2000, again for security reasons, it was drastically cut. It slowly rose in the late 2000s, to about 23 000 in 2009.

In contrast to other OECD countries, the main determinant for cross-border workers is not employer requests, but the quotas and security clearance. Palestinian workers are dependent on their employers for their work permit, since they must demonstrate a full-time job offer prior to applying for security clearance.[7] Employers do not consider workers from the West Bank a reliable source of labour, as their entry is subject to permit issuance and daily passage at checkpoints.

"Foreign workers" appear in the early 1990s

The first guidelines for recruiting foreign workers were formulated in 1990, with the intention of imposing high costs on employers to discourage them from using foreign workers (Borowski and Yanay, 1997). The Foreign Workers Law (1991) created a legal framework for employment of foreign workers and established penalties for illegal employment.

At the time, the demand for labour in the construction industry was particularly acute due to the need to build housing for the enormous number of new immigrants arriving from the FSU in 1990-92. Similarly, the agricultural industry protested against the sudden loss of its foreign workforce due to border closures. New immigrants from the FSU rejected work in either sector under the prevailing conditions (Weiss *et al.* 2003; and Boroski and Yanay, 1997). Their refusal largely reflected their occupational distribution and educational level in their home country, and the occupations they entered in Israel (Table III.6). In response, employers were allowed to recruit workers from abroad.

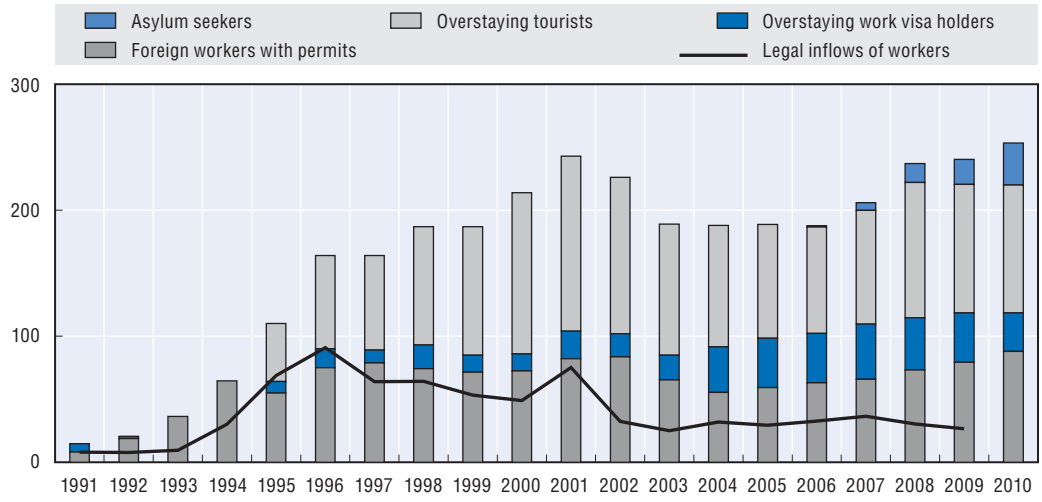
In order to regulate the access of employers to foreign workers, Israel imposed quotas on certain sectors. Quotas for foreign workers were introduced in September 1993 for agriculture and in May 1994 for the construction sector, based on estimates of demand by employers. By the end of 1994, the annual quota was over 50 000.

Increases in the number of workers authorised also led to increasing overstay by workers whose permits had expired or whose contract with the employer had been broken (Figure III.10). In 1996, the government formulated a policy to reduce both the quota and the number of undocumented foreign workers but did not implement it (Amir, 2000). While permits issued for construction work declined in the late 1990s, the care sector was drawing in more foreign workers. More significantly, the number of undocumented foreigners grew, in part due to illegal recruitment practices and the limits of the "binding system" described below.

Another phenomenon which first appeared in the 1990s was that of overstaying tourists who entered the expanding informal labour market. The number of overstaying

Figure III.10. **Foreign workers with permits, overstaying workers and asylum seekers, Israel, 1991-2010**

Thousands



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

Sources: Bank of Israel Annual Reports 2007, 2008; Central Bureau of Statistics; Friedberg and Sauer, 2003 (for 1991-95); Rosenhek, 2003 (foreign workers with permits, 1996) and Fefferman, 2000 (foreign workers with permits, 1998), Drori, 2009 (overstaying tourists, 1995-2001).

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tourists, estimated using double-card entry/exit data, grew to exceed the number of legal workers, although the method used tends to overestimate the number of overstayers, and it is not clear if, as most analyses assume, all overstayers entered the Israeli labour market.

In 2000, the proportion of foreign workers in the labour force (including irregular immigrants and cross-border workers) was higher than in most OECD countries. The number of undocumented foreign workers also rose until 2002. The 2002 Rachlevsky Commission Report blamed underemployment of low-educated Israelis on the presence of foreign workers, and recommended an active expulsion policy. The foreign labour force fell in the mid-2000s, in a period when most OECD countries saw increases. The number of undocumented foreigners – mostly overstaying tourists from the FSU – remains higher than the number of regular foreign workers.

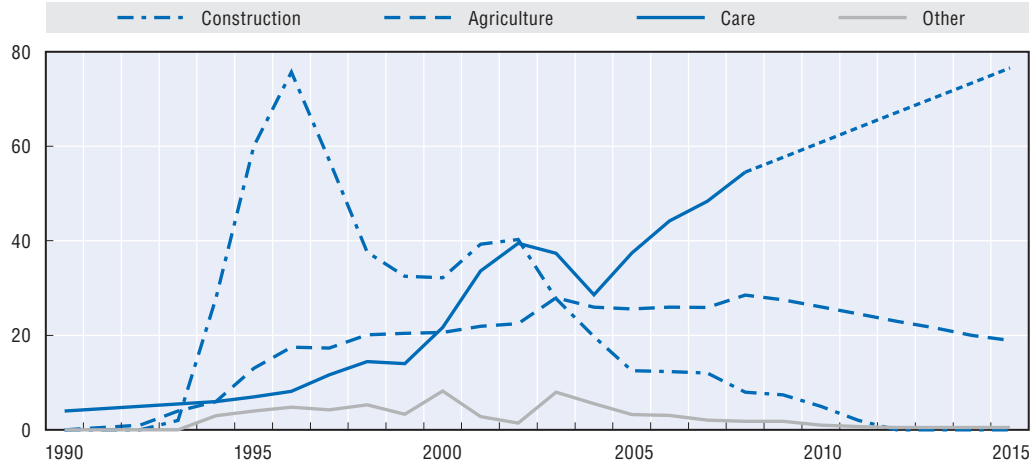
2.2. A sector-specific scheme with no access to permanent residence

Israel does not allow foreign workers to settle permanently, and limits the maximum stay to 63 months.[8] For agricultural and construction workers, to improve compliance with the limit, part of the salary is set aside and either received at departure or forfeited for overstay. No change of status to permanent resident is contemplated or allowed.[9] Candidates with first-degree family (except siblings) in Israel are not accepted, and there is no provision for family reunification. If a foreign worker has a child in Israel, she must leave within 90 days or send the child abroad (Kemp, 2010), although this requirement was ruled illegal by the High Court of Justice in April 2011.

There are three principal permit systems for foreign workers: care, construction and agriculture (Figure III.11). Each sector is subject to its own regulations and transfer among sectors is not generally allowed. Recruitment is through agencies.

Figure III.11. **Foreign workers holding permits, in Israel, 1990-2009 and projections to 2015, by sector**

Thousands



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Sources: Israel Manpower Agency 1990-95; Bank of Israel 1996 to 2008; Ministry of Industry, Trade and Labour decision 12/5/2009 from 2009-15, except for care workers, which are projections by Eckstein (2007) based on demographic trends and assuming the same rate of recourse to foreign care workers. "Other" includes industry, hospitality and chefs but excludes "foreign experts".

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The Israeli model resembles that in operation in certain non-OECD countries, especially in South-East Asia, where temporary workers may be employed for long periods with limited labour market rights and no chance of change of status. This model was employed in a number of OECD countries in Europe in the past, especially during the guest-worker phase, but is no longer considered compatible with labour and human rights law. It shares some elements with the Korean system of employment permits for less skilled occupations – which also does not allow family reunification – although Korea allows indefinite extension and a greater degree of employer mobility.

The largest sector, and one not subject to quotas, is the *care sector* – live-in care for the elderly and/or the disabled. Since 1988, a long-term care (LTC) benefit, up to about 20 hours a week, has allowed an increasing number of Israelis to employ foreign care workers in the home. The LTC benefit is paid to the worker through care-giving agencies, while the employer is expected to pay the worker directly for additional hours, opening a margin for abuse. There were 54 000 registered foreign-care-workers in 2010, representing about half of total employment in the sector and almost all live-in care.

All foreign care-workers must be registered with a licensed care-giving agency, which places foreign workers directly with the patient. If eligible for NII benefits, the patient registers the worker with a care-giving agency. Workers and care receivers may change agencies as they wish, but pay no fees for mediation once they are in Israel. Recruitment agencies have a strong incentive to favour fee-bringing international recruitment. To counter abuse by agencies recruiting and abandoning care-workers, agencies are now held responsible for placing their workers. In principle, 97% of their workers must be employed in order to recruit more from abroad, and workers who "disappear" are counted against the agency's quota for a year.[10]

More than half the families employing care workers do so directly, without an LTC subsidy. Care receivers must pay social contributions for the wages they pay directly, but do not have to provide workers with pay slips.

In the *agricultural sector*, the quota – 26 000 in 2010 – of foreign workers is allocated by the MOITAL to individual employers (about 5 500 in 2009), and represents almost half of salaried employment in the sector. Permits for employment of foreign workers are issued to farmers based on calculations by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MARD). The MARD calculations are based on crop type, and on the assumption that certain jobs will only be done by foreign workers. Since this calculation exceeds the overall quota (by about 50% in 2010), foreign workers themselves are allocated according to a formula which favours smaller and medium-sized farms over larger ones (OECD, 2009b). Employers are not allowed to subcontract their workers, although they may legally transfer workers to another farmer with an employment permit. An illegal black market in agricultural workers exists, with farmers renting workers from those who have received authorisation, or foreign workers deserting their authorised employer to work for cash wages for unauthorised employers.

Foreign agricultural workers are generally employed in year-round activities rather than seasonal work, which involves mostly cross-border workers. In an attempt to reduce illegal fee-taking in the agricultural sector, the Israeli government started, in 2010, a pilot rotational programme, with Sri Lanka, with workers selected randomly from a list of pre-approved candidates, and admitted for 6-month periods.

In the *construction sector*, workers must be employed through one of about 40 agencies, which contract workers to the labour user. Employment is allowed only in one of five authorised trades (masonry, tiling, plaster, scaffold work and welding), collectively called "wet work", and a quota is applied (7 000 in 2010). Foreign workers represent less than 8% of employment in the sector. Labour users must apply for authorisation to use foreign workers, and more labour users are authorised than workers available, in order to create competition for workers and, in principle, ensure full employment of the workers and increase the wages paid them. There is, however, no incentive for the employment agency to transfer higher hourly rates paid by labour users on to the workers, and wages have not grown.

Outside of the above sectors, there are two other channels for temporary labour migration: specialists and specialty workers (in industry and "ethnic cuisine"). For specialists, employer applications for such high-skilled foreign workers are individually evaluated and approved, and wages must be double the mean Israeli wage. There is little use of this channel since Israel trains high-skilled professionals. For specialty industrial workers and specialty restaurant workers (also called "ethnic chefs"), there is a 30-day labour market test through the PES, and a salary threshold. Specialty chefs in "ethnic restaurants" are subject to a quota – set at 800 in 2010. Speciality industrial workers, particularly in skilled trades, are often recruited for short-term projects, since vocational training in Israel has not produced welders, pipefitters and other such professionals in sufficient numbers.

Lower social contributions are imposed on employment of foreign workers, who are excluded from the public health insurance and pension schemes and required to hold private insurance. However, Israel imposes fees on the employers of foreign workers, to raise the cost of their employment relative to Israeli workers (Table III.8). Fees have increased over time, with a sharp rise in 2009 as part of a policy to further discourage employment of foreigners. In the construction sectors, fees can add as much as one-third of total wages to the cost of employment. None of these fees may be deducted from wages.

Table III.8. **Foreign worker fees, in Israel, by sector, 2011**

Sector	Processing fee	Annual fee for permit to employ foreign worker	Monthly Levy	Average reported monthly wage
	USD		Percentage	USD
Care giving	78	Exempt	Exempt	550
Agriculture	152	305	10	1 242
Construction	227	4 908	15	1 603
"Ethnic restaurants"	204	1 629	15	1 688*
Industry	227	1 819	15	n.a.
Experts	305	2 423	Exempt	n.a.

Notes: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*
* Includes hotels.
Sources: Ministry of Industry, Trade and Labour, 2011; CBS, data on wages, 2009.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442446

Employment of asylum seekers and tolerated foreigners is illegal in Israel. The absence of a reception system, however, has led the authorities to suspend enforcement of this rule. This ambiguous status creates problems for enforcement of labour law, as well as ensuring social and health insurance contributions.

2.3. Key problems in the labour migration management system

The primary objective of any *managed labour migration system* is to meet labour needs that cannot be reasonably satisfied with locally available labour without adversely affecting the local labour market. There is some question about whether this aim is being achieved in Israel.

Following the blueprint for managing labour migration which was set out in OECD (2009a), in terms of *i)* identification of needs which can only be met through foreign recruitment; *ii)* recruitment methods, and *iii)* enforcement mechanisms, the Israeli system presents the following critical issues (OECD, 2010a).

Recruitment channels are plagued by illegal fee-taking

The single largest problem with the Israeli system is its vulnerability to abuse through illegal fee-taking. These fees far exceed the legal limit; fees charged to Chinese construction workers can reach USD 18 750 (Minghuan, 2009), and NGOs and inspectors cite cases of even higher fees. The fees create an incentive for employers (intermediary employment and recruitment agencies) to exaggerate the number of workers needed, since each worker hired represents an opportunity for fee-taking (Israeli State Comptroller, 2002). They reduce the incentive to hire workers within Israel, whether Israeli or legally-present foreign workers seeking to change employer. The need to pay off the high level of debt assumed by many foreign workers makes them especially vulnerable to exploitation while employed and, when fired or at the end of their contract, more likely to overstay and work illegally. While many OECD countries give a role to recruitment agencies in their labour migration management system, the scope offered to such agencies for rent-taking in Israel is exceptional.

No "labour market test" to encourage the employment of Israelis

In contrast to all OECD countries, Israel does not conduct a labour market analysis or test before allowing foreign recruitment in low-skilled sectors. The sector and occupational restrictions and quotas are set through informal negotiations between different ministries, and are often strongly influenced by requests from the employer organisations.

Employers illegally pay foreigners a real wage below the minimum

A low level of enforcement and a particularly vulnerable population of foreign workers have meant that employers have been able to pay illegally low wages. Inspection, enforcement and institutional oversight in the homecare sector is particularly weak. The situation has improved somewhat in the past two years, with greater enforcement powers granted to labour inspectors, collaboration between the Immigration Authority and the labour inspectorate, and the strengthening of the Ombudsman for Foreign Workers. However, the Ombudsman does not have jurisdiction over labour law violations in the home-care sector, on the ground that employers (the disabled) are a vulnerable category themselves.

High fees meant to favour hiring Israelis are not effective in the absence of enforcement

Israel imposes fees on employers who wish to hire foreign workers to discourage hiring, and to favour employment of Israelis. The fees in Israel are higher than in any OECD country, both in absolute terms and relative to the minimum wage. As Israeli employers have been able to illegally pass these fees on to employees through unpaid hours, high fees are more of a revenue stream for the government than an incentive to hire locally. Further, if there really were no local workers to be hired, the fees would be unnecessary.

Foreign workers are subject to a separate insurance system

Foreign workers do not pay the same health insurance contributions as Israelis and do not have access to the same Health Management Organisations (HMOs) in which Israelis must be enrolled. Foreign workers must hold separate private insurance, paid for by their employers, with coverage inferior to that of the HMOs to which nationals have access. This is in contrast to prevailing practice in OECD countries.

The equalisation tax on Palestinian workers does not compensate for a lower real wage

Palestinian workers are excluded from most social coverage and therefore pay lower social contributions. An equalisation tax on employer and employee contributions (about 7% and 4% respectively) has not brought the real wages and costs of Palestinian workers up to that of Israelis – or foreign workers.

Bilateral arrangements for recruitment have been slow to take off

Bilateral recruitment channels are useful to fight illegal recruitment fees. Farmers' representatives and the governments themselves delayed negotiation with Thailand. Only in 2010 did a pilot project with Sri Lanka begin. There is no incentive to participate: the pilot is not mandatory, and fees for employers are the same as through channels under which employers have traditionally received rents.

Limits on occupational mobility make foreign workers especially vulnerable

When workers must remain with their authorised employer, they are unlikely to take legal measures against their employer for contractual violations. This "binding" increases the risk of losing status and of illegally overstaying. Following a 2006 High Court of Justice (HCJ) ruling, mobility is now allowed among employment agencies. The illegal fees and the quota, however, both provide an incentive for agencies to push workers into undocumented status, so as to allow them to bring in new workers rather than place those currently in Israel.

Measures to encourage hiring from within Israel have not been implemented

A number of regulations and incentives to hire Israelis instead of foreign workers were not implemented, or only partially implemented.

Limited rights are not compensated with protection

The policy for foreign workers is aimed at ensuring that foreign workers do not settle or form families in Israel. Similar restrictions in other OECD countries apply only to workers with much shorter periods of stay, and exist alongside a system where skilled workers, or those meeting shortages, have the prospect of permanent residence and family reunification. Exclusion from the 1996 Manpower Agencies Law, which requires employers to directly hire temporary workers after nine months, ensures a continuing weak position on the labour market. Foreign workers cannot pursue claims once they have left the country; this provides an incentive for abusive employers to push for deportation. Finally, access to workplace injury benefits is difficult for foreign workers.

No policy for asylum-seekers or refugees

While Israel has tried to reduce incentives for economic migrants by imprisoning new arrivals for extended periods, providing no services or assistance, and denying access to the labour market, asylum flows are often independent of receiving-country policies. However,

such a status favours their exploitation, undermining the objectives of the labour migration management system. Finally, despite well-developed absorption services for permanent immigrants, recognised refugees have no public integration or support programme.

The critical issues listed above help explain the policy concern over the impact on Israeli workers of temporary foreign workers, since the conditions of recruitment and employment weaken their position on the labour market and lower the wage they are willing to accept. The next section examines the empirical basis on which these policy concerns are based.

3. Impact of migration on the Israeli economy

The different patterns and characteristics of permanent and temporary migration flows, with a well-documented mass migration observed in the 1990s followed by a significant inflow of temporary foreign workers, make Israel a very interesting case for studying the impact of different types of immigration on the labour market outcomes of natives, and on the economy in general.

Most of the literature on the impact of migration on labour market outcomes of natives in OECD countries has generally found no effect on average (or only a small one); a negative effect on the least educated, especially prior immigrants; and a positive effect on the more educated native population (*e.g.* Borjas, 2003; Card, 2005; Ottaviano and Peri, 2006; Manacorda *et al.* 2006; Dustmann *et al.* 2008).[11] This section analyses the available evidence on the impact of permanent and temporary migration on natives' labour market outcomes in Israel and compares it with that of other OECD countries.

3.1. *The impact of permanent migration: evidence from the 1990s*

As described above, Israel has developed a broad set of policies and initiatives to promote immigration by Jews and assist them with their integration. The mass migration observed in the 1990s provides a major opportunity for studying the impact on natives, in terms of their employment outcomes, and the effect of different integration programmes and services. The unique conditions of this migration, and the rich statistical data available, have led to many studies on the impact of the Russian immigration on Israel's labour market in the 1990s.

Studies of the impact of the mass immigration in the 1990s generally find no negative impact on natives by the end of the decade, with some positive effects. Hercowitz and Yashiv (2002) find an initial positive effect on native employment due to increased consumption – a result of the "absorption basket" – but a negative impact one year after arrival. Cohen and Hsieh (2001) find that native wages and return to capital fell during the peak immigration period but returned to prior levels by 1997. Skill premia for natives were not affected by the high average educational attainment of Russians, because the latter suffered occupation downgrading and therefore did not compete directly with many natives. However, Friedberg (2001) looks at the impact on wages and employment within occupations and finds that native wage and employment growth was negatively affected in those occupations which attracted many immigrants. But when the author looks at prior occupation of immigrants, she finds that natives in these occupations did not suffer from immigration. Immigrants appear to have entered occupations with low wage growth and employment contraction, or to have been complementary with natives in their prior occupations. Cohen-Goldner and Paserman (2004a) distinguish between short- and

long-term impacts of immigration on natives' wage and employment. They find that a 10% increase in the share of immigrants lowers natives' wages in the short run (by 1-3%), but that this effect disappears after four to seven years. They find no effect of immigration on employment, either in the short or in the long run. In a separate analysis, they also find (2004b) that immigrants are negatively selected into occupations with high turnover, but do not cause a higher probability to exit among natives. In terms of transitions from employment to non-employment, they find that young men, skilled men and private-sector workers are adversely affected by the presence of immigrants.

Labour market conditions vary significantly among the different regions in Israel, and the low-educated local population in less skilled occupations varies in different regions. Immigration appears to have had a significant impact on certain occupations, and therefore on specific local population groups. Shapira (2007) looks at the local labour market impact of highly educated migrants and finds a negative impact on native high-skilled workers. When looking at local labour markets, specific population groups and occupations, Shapira (2009) also finds that there is a short-term negative impact on wages for all groups, and for occupational outcomes for the – largely low-skilled – immigrants from North Africa and Asia.

Detailed data on immigration and on the uptake of active labour market policy initiatives by immigrants make the boom in immigration to Israel in the 1990s a natural experiment in unrestricted mass migration and its impact.

Israel received significant human capital through these immigrants, although much was not compatible with the demands of the labour market at the time. Throughout the 1990s, more than half of all immigrants had at least 12 years of education, and almost one in five had 16 or more years. The average education of new immigrants from the FSU declined during the 1990s, perhaps because higher educated migrants enjoy a greater return for migrating earlier (Locher, 2000). The first wave of immigration also led to chain migration and greater information in the FSU about Israel as a destination.

However, historically, the better educated FSU Jews had gone to the United States, where they experienced much faster wage assimilation (Cohen and Haberfeld, 2007). From 1989-92, this selection was much weaker, as the United States imposed obstacles for this group. A comparison of outcomes between FSU Jews immigrating to Israel and to Canada (Lewin-Epstein *et al.* 2003) found that immigrants to Canada – who had been selected on the basis of their education and experience – ended up in higher status and wage occupations, while those in Israel entered the labour market more quickly. Canada received younger and better educated immigrants, and the selection process ensured that even older immigrants would have a skill set enabling them to find jobs.[12]

Compared with prior waves of immigration, per capita income increased during the 1990s (Neuman, 1999). The 1990s were a period of expansion of the high-tech sector in Israel, and one hypothesis is that the growth in that sector was fuelled by the arrival of Russian engineers (82 000 Soviet-trained engineers arrived in the 1990s compared with only 30 000 engineers already in Israel). Paserman (2008) looks at the impact of high-skill immigration on productivity and finds a negative overall impact in low-tech industry and a slight positive effect on the high-tech industry as a whole.

Immigrant health professionals encounter difficulty in fully utilising their skills in many OECD countries (OECD, 2008b). Licensing is often an obstacle for immigrants planning to practice medicine in OECD countries and delays entry into the profession.

Israel, which received a large number of Soviet-trained physicians, does impose a mandatory licensing procedure which requires retraining. Kugler and Sauer (2002) look at Soviet-trained physicians and whether they go through the licensing procedure or not. They find negative selection into the occupation, as high-skilled Soviet-trained physicians opt for higher-paid jobs in other fields and lower-skilled physicians go through the licensing process. Licensing leads to higher wages for these Soviet doctors, but immigrant doctors earn significantly lower wages than Israeli-trained doctors. Importantly, neither the latter nor young Israelis entering medicine see their wages depressed due to greater competition from immigrant doctors.

The research tends to show that the large-scale permanent immigration of the 1990s had a positive impact for Israeli natives and for the economy in general. Outcomes for the immigrants themselves, as described above, have been largely positive.

3.2. Measuring the impact of temporary foreign workers on the Israeli economy

If the impact of permanent immigrants in the 1990s has been extensively studied and generally found positive, there is much less evidence on the impact of temporary labour migration. The policy shortcomings cited in the 2010 OECD Review, especially regarding the absence of a labour market test, low wages of foreign workers and the perverse incentives for recruitment, suggest that temporary migrants may substitute Israeli workers. In fact, since the beginning of the upsurge in temporary labour migration in Israel, there has been an ongoing discussion about their impact on the economy, and more specifically on the employment of Israelis.

The impact of temporary foreign workers on natives' wages and employment is at the core of policy debate on immigration in many OECD countries as well. The most common argument against foreign workers employment is that it adversely affects wages and employment of low-skilled natives, and thus increases wage inequality and poverty amongst natives.

Policy consensus in Israel is that foreign workers negatively affect employment outcomes of Israelis

The main assumption in the policy debate is that foreign workers affect negatively the labour market prospects of Israeli workers, in particular those low-skilled working in the same sectors as foreign workers. As a result, even before the economic downturn in 2008, the ostensible policy aim was to reduce the number of foreign workers in Israel on the grounds that foreign temporary workers were crowding out low-educated Israeli workers, especially Arabs (*e.g.* Ministry of Finance, 2005; Eckstein, 2007; Bank of Israel Annual Report, 2010). Since 1996 official labour market policy has included the objective of reducing reliance on foreign workers, and this objective has been reiterated by all government coalitions. To some extent, this has led to a lower number of temporary migrants in the construction and industry sectors (Figure III.11), albeit not in agriculture or the care sector.

The main argument is that foreign workers depress wages in these sectors below levels which would attract Israelis. The inflow of foreign workers coincided with a relative decline in construction wages from 90% of the average wage in 1994 to 75% in 2001. Overall employment grew while productivity declined. Eckstein (2007) suggested while the current gross wage for Israelis is about USD 9.7, it would take an hourly wage of USD 12.2 to ensure return of Israelis to working in the sector. In this context, Bar Zuri (2009) suggests that

low-educated Israelis came back to the construction sector following the reduction in foreign workers in 2004, and considered this responsible for the decline in the unemployment rate among low-educated Arabs from 16.8% in 2002 to 13% in 2008. Easy and excessive recourse to foreign workers has also been held partly responsible for the difficulty in helping the long-term unemployed back into the labour market (Tamir Committee, 2001).

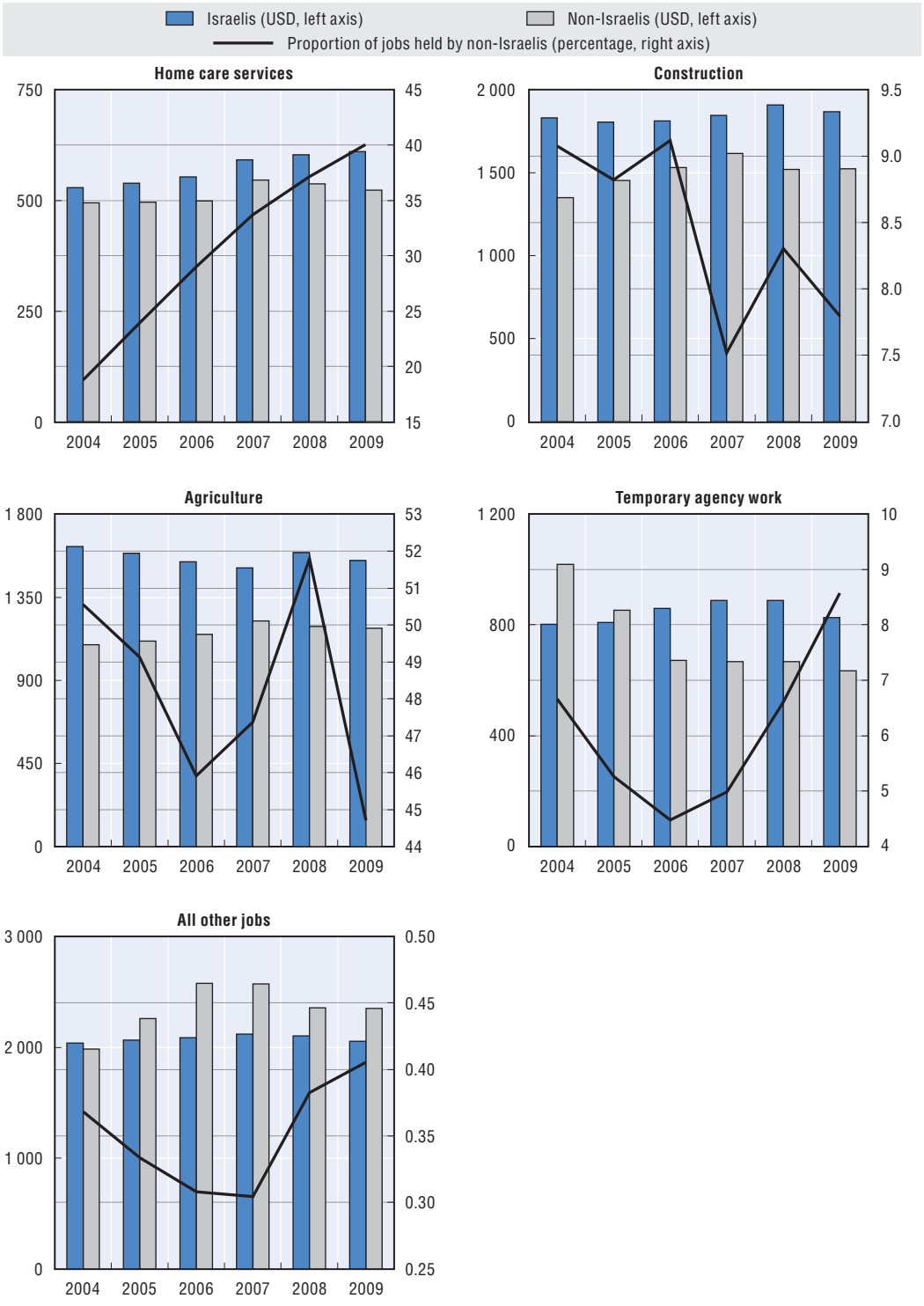
In agriculture, access to cheap foreign labour is a form of government support (OECD, 2009b). Farmers have preferred to recruit foreign workers: the Farmers Federation claims that Israelis will not do greenhouse work at *any* wages. Yet agricultural wages have not risen in periods where farmers have complained of shortages of labour. However, the characteristics of Israeli agriculture affect the long-term demand for foreign workers. Part of the employment is in greenhouse jobs with inconvenient, gruelling and long shifts, or in remote desert areas. The seasonal fluctuation in the Israeli agricultural workforce suggests that there is still a margin to increase employment of Israelis, yet some jobs may remain difficult to fill.[13]

The live-in care sector is the least controversial, raising less concern over the impact of foreign workers, and more attention to the benefits of access to affordable long-term care. In addition to the inherent difficulty of the work, unpaid overtime and undeclared hours by live-in carers make the sector unattractive to Israeli workers.[14] Eckstein (2007) forecasts that, in light of ageing trends and the rate of recourse to foreign workers in the sector, the number of foreign workers in the sector could well double to 108 000 by 2025. As in some other OECD countries, 24-hour care is often economically accessible to large segments of the population only through resort to illegal employment practices (Fujisawa and Colombo, 2009).

Figure III.12 shows the average monthly wage in 2005-09 for the sectors which accounted for most jobs held by temporary foreign workers for which wage data are recorded by the Israeli CBS.[15] The wage paid to foreign workers is significantly lower than that paid to Israelis in each category, which is not surprising, since Israelis occupy more productive positions.[16] The absence of wage growth is evident. The proportion of jobs held by foreign workers has decreased in the past six years in construction and agriculture, mostly a result of the policy to reduce reliance on foreign workers. The high salary threshold for hiring temporary foreign workers in other sectors is reflected in the higher wages received outside of the sector-based programmes.

While reports from special commissions, Ministry policy reports and the Bank of Israel have often pointed out that temporary migration has a negative effect on Israeli workers, through lower wages and higher non-participation, the employers' view is different. The construction industry argues that its allotment of foreign workers is justified by the shortages in the five authorised construction trades ("wet work"). While training for these activities is not particularly long, the work is unattractive – in part, according to employers, because it is associated with foreign workers. Employers also complain about the low productivity of Israeli workers and unreliability of cross-border workers. The construction industry argues that shortages of foreign workers have contributed to the current increase in housing costs in Israel, through wages, yet the wages of foreign workers – which represent only a fraction of total construction cost – have not risen.[17] In agriculture, farmers have organised protests and a "vegetable strike" in November 2010 to pressure authorities to admit additional workers, arguing that they cannot find substitutes locally.

Figure III.12. **Reported average monthly wages of Israeli and foreign workers and proportion of jobs held by foreigners, 2004-09**



Note: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: Israel CBS. Home care excludes those paid directly by families and those listed as maids or domestic helpers. Wages are adjusted to 2009 prices.

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Claims by employers are supported by the limited success of programmes to train Israelis for jobs in construction, or subsidies for employment of Israelis in agriculture, construction and home care. While agriculture and home care present specific difficulties due to the nature of the job, the low uptake of training and employment in "wet" construction jobs is less easily explained. In fact, the wage subsidy represents a significant premium to the prevailing wage for these occupations, and the high fees on foreign workers in construction should make Israeli workers attractive for employers.

The evidence on the impact of foreign workers on Israeli employment and wages is less clearcut

Somewhat surprisingly, given the extent of the ongoing policy debate regarding the impact of foreign workers, empirical research has been limited. The few analyses which have been conducted into the impact of foreign workers have all found a negative effect on the participation rate of Israelis, including a spillover effect as low-skilled Israelis were crowded out of certain occupations and increased the low-skilled labour supply for other occupations. Gottlieb (2002) showed that the ratio of foreign (and Palestinian) workers to Israeli workers in the sector had a negative effect on wages of low-educated Israelis in industry, agriculture and business services, and a positive effect on wages of high-educated Israelis in these sectors. Zussman and Romanov (2003) and Gottlieb and Amir (2005) also found crowding-out effects, specifically for Israeli Arabs. The substitution effect of foreign workers on employment and their spillover effect on Israeli wages were attributed to the low real wages and poor working conditions of many foreign workers. Research has also concentrated on the effect of foreign workers on the employment of Palestinian cross-border workers, for whom, *de facto*, they were first recruited as substitutes. The large-scale arrival of foreign workers depressed employment opportunities for Palestinians in Israel (Miaari and Sauer, 2006; Friedberg and Sauer, 2003), although other analyses using Palestinian labour force data (Aranki and Daoud, 2008) find that border closures had a stronger effect on Palestinian employment in Israel, while foreign workers depressed the wages of Palestinians working in Israel.

So far, few research has shown the differential impact of different types of foreign workers, nor how different Israeli population groups may have been affected. The main reason is the limited data available on legal temporary foreign workers and undocumented workers. For example, the Israeli LFS data do not include foreign workers, either because they are not in the sample (for the case of registered foreign workers or undocumented workers) or because they do not reside in Israel (for the case of cross-border workers).[18]

The OECD commissioned a study (Cohen-Goldner, 2011) to try to fill this gap and assess the impact of foreign workers on labour market outcomes of Israeli workers. Cohen-Goldner's study assesses separately the impact of three groups of foreign workers: *i)* temporary registered foreign workers; *ii)* unregistered foreign workers; and *iii)* Palestinian workers from the West Bank. In addition, it differentiates the impact of foreign workers on Israeli workers by population group (using the Israeli definition: Jews vs. non-Jews), by gender and by sector (agriculture, construction, home care services and the overall economy). The study matches data from the Israeli Labour Force Surveys with wage data from the Income Surveys of 1998-2008. In addition, as foreign workers are not covered by the LFS, quarterly CBS data on the number of registered and unregistered foreign workers, as well as Palestinian workers by sectors, are used for the years 1998-2008.

Self-selection of migrants across occupations and local labour markets is usually one of the main problems when estimating the effect of migrants on natives' labour market outcomes. Nevertheless, this issue is not a major concern for temporary foreign workers in Israel, since they are allowed to work only in specific sectors (construction, agriculture or home-care) and cannot move between sectors. In addition, there are many restrictions on the movements of foreigners between locations. Selection bias is less likely also because the actual number of foreign workers is, as noted above, driven less by labour demand than by quotas related to security concerns (for cross-border workers) or political decisions. Nevertheless, reverse causality cannot be completely ruled out as foreign workers are only allowed to work in sectors where labour shortages are thought to be present.

The usual assumption is that foreign workers should affect mainly local workers with similar characteristics – the low-educated – and in particular those who work in sectors that employ foreign workers. However, in the Israeli case, it is important to note that, while low-educated foreign workers are concentrated in three sectors (construction, agriculture and home care) and hold specific jobs within these sectors, low-educated Israeli workers are distributed across all sectors and perform a variety of jobs. In addition, low-educated workers tend to have low levels of specialisation, which might allow them to move across sectors and jobs more easily. This mobility can create a spillover effect of foreign workers on Israeli workers in all sectors and the impact on natives may not necessarily be found in the specific sectors that employ foreign workers.

Table III.9 shows the synthetic results of Cohen-Goldner's (2011) study. Each cell shows the significance and the sign of the effect of different categories of foreign workers on the employment and wages outcomes of different groups of the native population. Full estimation results are shown in Annex Tables III.A1.5 to III.A1.9 and a full description of the empirical analysis and the specifications is contained in Cohen-Goldner (2011).[19] The presence of foreign workers is defined as the ratios of the number of registered foreign workers (RFW), unregistered foreign workers[20] (UFW) and Palestinian workers (PW) relative to the number of Israeli workers in the sector in 1990 (in 1995 for home care).

The presence of foreign workers did not have the same effect on all Israeli workers in the construction sector. Non-Israelis (mainly Palestinian workers) seem to have substituted for Israeli workers in wet jobs in construction. However, for non-Jews, this substitution led to lower employment opportunities in construction while for Jews it actually expanded their employment opportunities in the sector. In general, the wages of Israelis seem mostly unaffected by the presence of foreign workers. However, wages of those working in wet jobs are negatively correlated with the presence of unregistered foreign workers in the construction sector.

The analysis for the agricultural sector suggests that foreign workers have positive complementarities on Israeli workers in that sector. The presence of foreign workers seems to have enabled the expansion of the sector and made more room also for employment of Israeli workers.[21] Nevertheless, lower-educated Jews have seen a decrease in their employment opportunities in agriculture due to the inflows of foreign workers. No significant changes in wages due to the presence of foreign workers have been observed in this sector.

Foreign workers may have displaced as well low-educated Israeli Jewish women, mostly from working in the home-care sector to non-participation in the labour force. No significant effect of foreign workers on wages of Israeli women is found, although the explanatory power of the wage regressions in home care is extremely low[22], perhaps due to a higher measurement error in the wage data observed in the home-care sector.

Table III.9. **Synthetic results: the impact of temporary foreign workers on Israeli workers, Israel, 1998-2008**

		Employment												Wages					
		Jews						Non-Jews						Jews			Non-Jews		
		Employed vs. unemployed			Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF			Employed vs. unemployed			Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF			Log wages			Log wages		
Sector	Groups	RFW	UFW	PW	RFW	UFW	PW	RFW	UFW	PW	RFW	UFW	PW	RFW	UFW	PW	RFW	UFW	PW
Construction, Men	*All*	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	**(+)**	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	**(–)**	n/s	n/s	n/s
	Specific groups	n/s	n/s	**(–) Wet**	n/s	**(–) Wet**	**(–) Wet**	n/s	n/s	**(–) Wet**	n/s	n/s	**(–) Wet**	n/s	**(–) Wet**	n/s	n/s	**(–) Wet**	n/s
Agriculture, Men	*All*	n/s		n/s	**(+)**		n/s	n/s		n/s	n/s		n/s	n/s		n/s	n/s		n/s
	Specific groups	**(–) Low educ**		**(–) Low educ**	**(–) Low educ**		n/s	n/s		n/s	**(+) Med educ**		n/s	n/s		n/s	n/s		n/s
Home Care, Women	*All*	n/s		n/s	n/s		n/s							n/s		n/s			
	Specific groups	n/s		n/s	**(–) Low educ**		n/s							n/s		n/s			
Overall Economy, Men	*All*	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	**(–)**	**(–)**	n/s	n/s
	Specific groups	**(+) Constr (–) Low educ**	n/s	**(+) Constr (–) Low educ**	**(+) Med educ and Constr**	n/s	**(+) Constr (–) Low educ**	n/s	n/s	n/s	**(+) Med educ**	**(–) Med educ**		n/s		**(+) HH Serv**	**(+) Med educ**	**(–) Med educ**	n/s
Overall Economy, Women	*All*	n/s		n/s	n/s	n/s	**(+)**							n/s	n/s	n/s			
	Specific groups	**(+) Low Educ**	**(–) Low and Med educ**	**(–) Low and Med educ (+) HH Serv**	n/s	**(–) Low educ**	**(–) Low educ**							**(–) Low educ**	n/s	**(–) Constr**			

Notes: RFW, UFW, PW refer to Registered Foreign Worker, Unregistered Foreign Worker, and Palestinian Worker.
(+) indicates positive and significant effect and (–) negative and significant effect of the presence of foreign workers on native labour market outcomes. n/s indicates a non significant coefficient. *Low educ* refers to low education level of natives (0-11 years of schooling). *Med educ* refers to a medium education level (12 years). *Constr* refers to the construction sector. *HH Serv* refers to the household services sector. *Wet* refers to "wet jobs" only.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442465

As mentioned above, foreign workers can have spillover effects if Israeli workers move to other sectors where foreign workers are not permitted to work. Indeed, Cohen-Goldner's (2011) results show that the employment and wages of all Israeli men are correlated with the share of foreign workers in the economy. The effects, however, are not homogeneous across population groups. For example, the presence of foreign workers seems to affect negatively the employment of Israeli Jewish men with lower educational level, but positively those working in the construction sector. The wage results seem to indicate that all male Israeli workers (Jews and non-Jews) earn less due to the presence of foreign workers in the economy.

The presence of foreign workers has spillover effects on the labour market outcomes of Israeli Jewish women as well, although the mechanisms behind some results are difficult to explain. For example, the presence of Palestinian workers (mostly men) is positively correlated with the probability of employment of Israeli Jewish women, and in particular those employed in services. While employment of low-educated females is negatively associated with the presence of Palestinian and unregistered foreign workers, it is positively associated with the number of registered foreign workers.

Cohen-Goldner's contribution to the debate on the impact of temporary foreign workers on native labour market outcomes in Israel shows a complex picture. Her analysis suggests that the impact of non-Israeli workers on Israelis' labour market outcomes is heterogeneous according to the type of the foreign worker, the sector and the characteristics of Israelis themselves (Table III.9). In construction the results imply that foreign workers substituted for some Israeli workers, expanded employment opportunities for others and lowered the wages of those who continued to work in the sector. In agriculture they imply that foreign workers are more complements to Israeli workers in the sector, and even led to an increase in Israelis' employment. In the home-care sector, the presence of foreign workers is associated with lower employment opportunities for low-educated female Jews.

For the overall economy, the number of foreign workers is associated with higher employment opportunities for some Israelis, and lower opportunities for others, mostly those with lower levels of education. In terms of wages, a higher number of foreign workers is associated with lower wages of all Israeli workers, but to a greater extent for non-Jewish men. Nevertheless, the wage results should be taken with caution as wages are observed only for those who work, and the analysis suggests that foreigners affect employment opportunities as well.

Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed international migration to Israel, in terms of its history, the policy for supporting integration, the integration of immigrants, and the temporary labour migration system. It has also looked at the impact of permanent immigration and temporary labour migration on the labour market outcomes of native-born Israelis. In light of the specificities of the Israeli case, what relevance do these findings have for understanding migration and integration in other contexts?

First, immigrants to Israel have higher employment rates than the native-born, and higher employment rates than immigrants in most OECD countries, suggesting at first glance that they have been successfully integrated. While they suffer from overqualification, perhaps more than in most OECD countries, they are also an important part of the high-skilled workforce. This is a notable outcome since migration to Israel is not driven by labour market demand, and most immigrants do not arrive with a job offer.

Israel's integration policy is clearly part of the answer. The granting of citizenship upon arrival, and a political culture of absorption of immigrants into the majority group, may have contributed to the favourable outcomes. Other obstacles, such as poor language skills, mismatched occupations or unrecognised qualifications, remain a problem, and to some extent seem to ensure that wages and opportunities, on average, lag behind the native-born even after two decades.

Second, the Israeli debate over the impact of the temporary foreign worker programme has implications for similar debates in other countries. Israeli policy makers have long been convinced that temporary foreign workers have a negative impact on low-educated Israeli workers. The substitution effect is suspected in part due to a failure to ensure respect for legal wages and working conditions. In addition to imposing the highest fees in the OECD on temporary foreign workers, Israeli policy makers have also experimented – unsuccessfully, so far – with subsidies, training and incentives to encourage employers to favour low-educated Israeli workers.

Empirical evidence suggests that the impact of temporary foreign workers is ambiguous: some population groups seem to be negatively affected, while others benefit. The effect is different for different sectors of employment of foreign workers as well, and takes different forms. While the analysis did not take into account the impact of temporary foreign workers on productivity, exports or growth of the sectors involved, the insistence of the construction industry, farmers and health-care providers on continued access to foreign workers indicates the positive impact they perceive for themselves.

This finding underlines the difficulty in making a temporary labour migration programme benefit both the migrants and workers in the host country, as well as the host country in general. Israel, more than other OECD countries, has tried to reduce negative externalities of foreign workers by limiting their stay, preventing family formation, and excluding them from some social benefits. However, these controls have not succeeded in limiting the labour market impacts of foreign workers in Israel. The fact that some native workers lose, some gain, and some industries benefit makes it difficult to draw a single conclusion regarding the overall impact of the Israeli scheme. In fact, Israel has also grown dependent on foreign workers for its long-term care system, and the negative employment impact on some population groups has been considered an acceptable trade-off. Policymaking in this area means deciding which gains are to be given priority and which losses to be considered acceptable in exchange.

Notes

1. This chapter only treats post-independence (1948) immigration.
2. DIOC does not include 2005/2006 data for several OECD countries, including Germany. There were about 10 000 Israeli *citizens* aged 15 and over living in Germany in 2008.
3. Foreign-born Israelis are also more likely to stay abroad once they emigrate: among Israeli nationals *returning* to Israel after a period of emigration, less than 40% were foreign-born.
4. Repatriation to Sudan is not possible, and Israel does not repatriate to Eritrea, so citizens of these countries are given a form of tolerated stay rather than access to refugee status determination. Asylum flows into Israel have put Israel into the upper range of receiving OECD countries (about 1.8 per thousand inhabitants, lower than only Norway, Sweden, Greece and Switzerland). Nonetheless, the authorities have not yet established a reception centre nor regulations regarding the stay, rights and labour market access of asylum-seekers. A small number of refugees have been recognised and have received temporary permits.

5. Business incubators, consulting, networking and support, as well as favourable start-up loans are offered. There were 410 loans in 2008, for a total of USD 6.2 million. In 2008, the survival rate of the 1 200 businesses started in the previous three years was 65%.
6. Employment probabilities of different native-born population groups are significantly different, even after controlling for age and education.
7. Currently, most Palestinian workers are subject to a minimum age requirement, depending on the sector, and must be married with children to receive clearance, after which they are issued a work permit which must be renewed every three months. This kind of selection criteria is not used in other OECD countries.
8. For foreign experts, a work visa may be extended beyond 63 months subject to special request and the approval of two ministers; for care workers assisting a dependent recipient, extensions may be granted based on a social worker's assessment.
9. The absence of civil marriage means that foreign workers cannot acquire permanent residency by marrying an Israeli, unless the marriage occurs abroad, although a documented "common-law" marriage may grant a temporary visa, convertible to permanent residence after five to seven years. Foreign workers are not allowed to form such relationships with other foreign workers, as this would violate the prohibition on first-degree relatives.
10. A registry of unemployed foreign care-workers created in 2009 was meant to prevent new entries of care workers when the number of unemployed care workers exceeded 1% of the total foreign care-worker population (currently, equivalent to about 550 unemployed). The number of registered unemployed care workers was about 1000 in late 2010 (partly due to turnover as employers die), and agencies continue to recruit new workers from abroad. Agencies have a disincentive to report unemployed workers, as this prevents them from bringing in new workers. Employees also distrust the registry, as it was initially also used to identify unemployed workers for expulsion.
11. See Dustman *et al.* (2008b) for an extensive review of the literature on the impact of migrants on native labour market outcomes.
12. No such selection was observed when comparing Jewish emigrants from the FSU in Germany and Israel, although their outcomes differed (Cohen and Kogan, 2007).
13. A number of programmes to subsidise Israeli workers in agriculture have not been successful. A 2009 requirement to hire Israelis as a condition for receiving foreign workers was also rejected by farmers.
14. A 2009 NII/Ministry of Finance programme granted four additional hours weekly to recipients of the LTC benefit if they hire an Israeli rather than a foreign worker, but these few additional hours attracted few Israelis into full-time live-in care.
15. The CBS does not have wage data for care workers employed directly by families and individuals (who represent more than half the workers in the care sector) and those employed illegally (including almost all undocumented foreign workers).
16. These data mask a much larger wage gap because they do not account for hours worked nor for the greater mobility among Israeli workers who can change employer much more easily than non-Israeli workers (which reduces average wage per job). Further, non-Israeli workers generally work at least the maximum monthly hours (186; 180 in construction), while part-time work is much more common among Israeli job holders.
17. The construction industry association also blames the shortage of foreign workers for a supposed increase in construction times, calculating that 24 man-months of "wet work" are required for each apartment. However, according to the Ministry of Finance, construction times have not changed with variations in the number of foreign workers.
18. See Box III.1 for more details.
19. The impact on employment of Israelis is assessed using two sets of estimations: the first set includes only employed and unemployed Israelis who reported they worked in that sector, while the other set also includes individuals who are currently out of the labour force but reported they worked in that specific sector previously. Different results between both sets of estimations may signal that the impact of foreign workers might be found on the decision to participate in the labour market. The impact on log hourly wages is assessed for those in salaried work only.
20. Information on the number of unregistered foreign workers is available for construction only, since the CBS assumes there are no unregistered foreign workers in agriculture and there is no available information on the number of unregistered foreign workers in home care.

21. During the investigated period there was also a considerable fall in the share of self-employed Israelis in agriculture. The possible links between foreign workers in agriculture and employment and earnings of self-employed are not considered in Cohen-Goldner's analysis.

22. Cohen-Goldner does not find any correlation between foreign workers in home-care and natives' wages, which may reflect the employment self-selection of Israeli workers to the home care sector and not necessarily imply that foreign workers do not affect wages of native Israelis.

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ANNEX III.A1

Supplementary tables: Regressions

Table III.A1.1. **Logistic regression: employment of men, age 15-64, 2008-09**

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Foreign-born	1.2	1.051	1.036			
	(0.000)**	(0.052)	4			
Aged 15-24		0.696	0.698	0.382	0.694	0.724
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 25-34		2.83	2.867	2.528	3.531	3.591
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 35-44		2.574	2.605	2.537	2.906	2.948
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 45-54		1.997	2.011	1.968	2.033	2.066
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Secondary		1.744	1.448	1.695	1.57	1.55
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Post-secondary		2.888	2.497	2.879	2.517	2.468
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Married		2.012	2.046		2.165	2.292
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Haredi		0.169	0.16			
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**			
Arabs		1.073	0.761			
		(0.023)**	(0.000)**			
Arabs X Secondary			1.905			
			(0.000)**			
Arabs X Post-secondary			1.422			
			(0.000)**			
Year of entry 1990-94					1.143	0.774
					(0.047)**	(0.119)**
Year of entry 1995-99					1.003	0.606
					(0.973)	(0.004)**
Year of entry 2000-04					0.773	0.302
					(0.002)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 2005-09					0.833	0.522
					(0.111)**	(0.001)**
Ethiopia (ETH)					0.728	0.948
					(0.003)**	(0.784)
Former Soviet Union (FSU)					1.113	0.765
					(0.105)**	(0.004)**

Table III.A1.1. **Logistic regression: employment of men, age 15-64, 2008-09** *(cont.)*

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Central and South America (CSA)					1.398	1.188
					(0.006)**	(0.273)**
Others					1.028	0.821
					(0.667)**	(0.007)**
ETH X 1990-94						0.909
						(0.734)
ETH X 1995-99						1.039
						(0.923)
ETH X 2000-04						1.1
						(0.786)
ETH X 2005-09						0.787
						(0.503)
FSU X 1990-94						1.853
						(0.001)**
FSU X 1995-99						2.212
						(0.000)**
FSU X 2000-04						3.569
						(0.000)**
FSU X 2005-09						1.318
						(0.332)**
CSA X 1990-94						1.512
						(0.377)**
CSA X 1995-99						0.707
						(0.401)
CSA X 2000-04						2.846
						(0.004)**
CSA X 2005-09						2.914
						(0.020)**
Others X 1990-94						2.285
						(0.015)**
Others X 1995-99						1.323
						(0.432)**
Others X 2000-04						4.897
						(0.000)**
Others X 2005-09						6.644
						(0.000)**
Observations	65 056	65 056	65 056	17 555	17 555	17 555
Cox and Snell R^2	0.007	0.151	0.153	0.106	0.121	0.127
Nagelkerke R^2	0.009	0.219	0.222	0.158	0.181	0.189

Notes: Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis. Additional variables in the regressions correspond to region and time indicators. Standard errors appear in parentheses. ** Significant at 1% level. * Significant at 5% level.

Base categories: foreign-born; age = 55-64; highest certificate =up to secondary; marital status = unmarried; nationality = Jews; year of entry = pre 1990; country of birth = OECD countries.

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442503

Table III.A1.2. **Logistic regression: employment of women, age 15-64, 2008-09**

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Foreign-born	1.365	0.95	0.937			
	(0.000)**	(0.025)	(0.004)**			
Aged 15-24		1.385	1.327	1.3	1.35	1.366
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 25-34		3.327	3.237	3.35	4.145	3.827
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 35-44		3.927	3.964	3.747	4.812	4.568
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 45-54		3.063	3.09	2.874	3.172	3.107
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Secondary		2.293	1.745	1.936	1.761	1.759
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Post-secondary		5.463	3.61	3.415	3.041	2.977
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Single parent		0.786	0.786		0.784	0.812
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.001)**	(0.007)**
Married mothers		0.715	0.719		0.751	0.817
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Arabs		0.178	0.06			
			(0.000)**			
Arabs X Secondary			2.636			
			(0.000)**			
Arabs X Post-secondary			8.265			
			(0.000)**			
Year of entry 1990-94					1.097	0.662
					(0.094)**	(0.002)**
Year of entry 1995-99					0.985	0.62
					(0.810)	(0.001)**
Year of entry 2000-04					0.899	0.432
					(0.119)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 2005-09					0.582	0.268
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Ethiopia					0.934	1.199
					(0.473)*	(0.323)**
Former Soviet Union (FSU)					1.464	1.021
					(0.000)**	0.792
Central and South America (CSA)					1.353	1.161
					(0.002)**	(0.215)**
Others					1.285	0.989
					(0.000)**	(0.863)
ETH X 1990-94						0.833
						(0.457)
ETH X 1995-99						1.495
						(0.249)**

Table III.A1.2. **Logistic regression: employment of women, age 15-64, 2008-09** *(cont.)*

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
ETH X 2000-04						1.533
						(0.169)
ETH X 2005-09						0.966
						(0.919)
FSU X 1990-94						2.152
						(0.000)**
FSU X 1995-99						1.969
						(0.000)**
FSU X 2000-04						2.565
						(0.000)**
FSU X 2005-09						1.933
						(0.002)**
CSA X 1990-94						0.965
						(0.914)
CSA X 1995-99						2.326
						(0.013)**
CSA X 2000-04						1.648
						(0.099)**
CSA X 2005-09						2.464
						(0.034)**
Others X 1990-94						1.078
						(0.773)
Others X 1995-99						1.11
						(0.713)
Others X 2000-04						4.283
						(0.000)**
Others X 2005-09						9.497
						(0.000)**
Observations	71 330	71 330	71 330	21 821	21 821	21 821
Cox and Snell R^2	0.043	0.223	0.233	0.114	0.123	0.132
Nagelkerke R^2	0.058	0.304	0.317	0.16	0.173	0.185

Notes: Those currently studying and not looking for work are excluded from the analysis. Additional variables in the regressions correspond to region and time indicators. Standard errors appear in parentheses. ** Significant at 1% level.* Significant at 5% level.

Base categories: foreign born; age = 55-64; highest certificate = up to secondary; marital status = women with no children; nationality = Jews; year of entry = pre 1990; country of birth = OECD countries

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442522

Table III.A1.3. **Log-linear regression, wage per hour of men, age 15-64, 2008-09**

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Foreign-born	–0.171	–0.205	–0.106			
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**			
Aged 15-24	–0.546	–0.372	–0.371	–0.421	–0.003	–0.095
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.952)	(0.014)**
Aged 25-34	–0.336	–0.259	–0.258	–0.249	0.055	–0.025
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.042)	(0.323)
Aged 35-44	–0.122	–0.092	–0.096	–0.076	0.107	0.058
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.003)**	(0.000)**	(0.011)**
Aged 45-54	–0.049	–0.039	–0.031	–0.066	0.024	0.011
	(0.002)**	(0.013)**	(0.034)**	(0.008)**	(0.296)	(0.591)
Secondary	0.22	0.167	0.128	0.12	0.118	0.053
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	0.038
Post-secondary	0.65	0.58	0.357	0.477	0.511	0.244
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Part-time work	–0.024	–0.012	0.018	–0.135	–0.108	–0.066
	(0.097)	(0.396)	(0.200)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.0160)**
Married		0.170	0.142		0.175	0.146
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Haredi		–0.116				
		(0.001)**				
Arabs		–0.24				
		(0.000)**				
Year of entry 1990-94					–0.293	–0.211
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 1995-2000					–0.418	–0.274
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 2001-09					–0.563	–0.366
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Asia/Africa					–0.120	–0.046
					(0.000)**	(0.056)
Former Soviet Union					–0.14	–0.072
					(0.000)**	(0.003)**
Occupation and Sector Indicators	Not included	Not included	Included	Not included	Not included	Included
Observations	14 786	14 786	14 786	4 259	4 259	4 259
R^2	0.293	0.315	0.398	0.181	0.292	0.427
Adjusted R^2	0.292	0.314	0.397	0.178	0.289	0.421

Notes: Additional variables in the regressions correspond to region and time indicators. Standard errors appear in parentheses.
** Significant at 1% level. * Significant at 5% level.
Base categories: foreign-born; age = 55-64; highest certificate = up to secondary; position = full time work; marital status = unmarried; nationality = Jews; year of entry = pre 1990; continent of birth = America/Europe (excluding FSU).
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442541

Table III.A1.4. **Log-linear regression, wage per hour of women, age 15-64, 2008-09**

	Native- and foreign-born			Foreign-born only		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Foreign-born	–0.203	–0.200	–0.089			
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**			
Aged 15-24	–0.523	–0.520	–0.558	–0.352	–0.137	–0.258
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Aged 25-34	–0.256	–0.316	–0.340	–0.189	–0.038	–0.128
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.144)	(0.000)**
Aged 35-44	–0.088	–0.182	–0.194	–0.088	–0.016	–0.069
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.561)	(0.005)**
Aged 45-54	–0.039	–0.092	–0.086	–0.073	–0.037	–0.044
	(0.014)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.084)	(0.025)
Secondary	0.208	0.191	0.079	0.176	0.142	0.068
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	0.006
Post-secondary	0.568	0.545	0.255	0.478	0.462	0.193
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Part-time work	0.039	0.036	0.093	0.021	–0.014	0.041
	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.000)**	(0.218)	(0.387)	(0.007)**
Single parent		0.060	0.067		0.048	0.047
		(0.002)**	(0.000)**		(0.094)	
Married mothers		0.151	0.122		0.119	0.083
		(0.000)**	(0.000)**		(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Arabs		–0.162				
		(0.000)**				
Year of entry 1990-94					–0.258	–0.151
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 1995-2000					–0.399	–0.228
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Year of entry 2001-09					–0.526	–0.283
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Asia/Africa					–0.210	–0.082
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Former Soviet Union					–0.157	–0.088
					(0.000)**	(0.000)**
Occupation and sector indicators	Not included	Not included	Included	Not included	Not included	Included
Observations	13 976	13 976	13 976	4 793	4 793	4 793
R^2	0.245	0.259	0.37	0.155	0.281	0.425
Adjusted R^2	0.245	0.258	0.368	0.152	0.278	0.42

Notes: Additional variables in the regressions correspond to region and time indicators. Standard errors appear in parentheses.
** Significant at 1% level.* Significant at 5% level.
Base categories: foreign-born; age = 55-64; highest certificate = up to secondary; position = full time work; marital status = women with no children; nationality = Jews; year of entry = pre 1990; continent of birth = America/Europe (excluding FSU).
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: Israel CBS Labour Force Surveys (Analysis by Myers-JDC-Brookdale Institute), 2008-09.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442560

Table III.A1.5. **Regression: employment of Israeli men in construction, 1998-2008**

	Employment				Wages	
	Jews[1]		Non-Jews[2]		Jews[1]	Non-Jews[2]
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages	Log Wages
Ratio of registered foreign workers (FW)	–0.421 (1.279)	–0.164 (1.086)	–0.0853 (1.512)	–1.703 (1.230)	0.197 (0.407)	0.440 (0.347)
Ratio of unregistered FW (UFW)	–2.117 (1.561)	–1.984 (1.302)	–2.630 (1.801)	–0.116 (1.455)	–0.470 (0.527)	–0.132 (0.369)
Ratio of Palestinian workers (PW)	0.739 (0.475)	0.896* (0.394)	0.747 (0.487)	0.604 (0.44)	–0.264* (0.137)	0.062 (0.109)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with "wet-jobs"	–0.007 (0.008)	0.001 (0.007)	–0.009 (0.010)	0.001 (0.008)	0.002 (0.003)	–0.0009 (0.002)
Ratio of unregistered FW interacted with "wet-jobs"	–0.0106 (0.007)	–0.015* (0.006)	0.007 (0.008)	–0.004 (0.006)	–0.010* (0.002)	–0.004* (.001)
Ratio of PW interacted with "wet-jobs"	–0.006* (0.003)	–0.006* (0.003)	–0.006* (0.003)	–0.008* (0.003)	–0.00006 (0.001)	–0.0008 (.0009)
Observations	13 150	13 583	9 784	10 158	1 802	1 726
R^2	0.040	0.046	0.064	0.038	0.238	0.328

Notes: Columns (1)-(4): Logit Regressions. Columns (5)-(6): OLS. Dependent variable: log hourly wage from salaried work. Dropped observations: People with schooling over 30 or with missing schooling, ultra-Orthodox Jews. Standard errors appear in parentheses. * Significant at 5% level. The ratios correspond to the quarterly number of registered foreign workers (RFW), unregistered foreign workers (UFW) and Palestinian workers (PW) relative to the number of Israeli workers in the construction sector in 1990.
Additional variables in the regressions correspond to individual demographic characteristics of individual i at time t (years of schooling, age and age squared; a marital status dummy (1 if married, zero otherwise), number of children aged 0-14 and a dummy for whether the individual migrated to Israel after 1989), a control for labour demand shocks in the construction sector investigated at time t (metering of new apartments in construction) and year dummies.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
1. Born in Israel or immigrants. Ages 22-64.
2. Ages 22-64.
Source: CBS Labour Force and Income Surveys 1998-2008, in Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442579

Table III.A1.6. **Regression: employment of Israeli men in agriculture, 1998-2008**

	Employment				Wages	
	Jews[1]		Non-Jews[2]		Jews[1]	Non-Jews[2]
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages	Log Wages
Ratio of foreign workers (FW)	7.862 (5.676)	7.646* (3.997)	2.291 (5.908)	–2.378 (4.841)	4.156 (2.293)	0.055 (1.259)
Ratio of Palestinian workers (PW)	–2.868 (2.75)	–2.2 (1.999)	6.781 (7.901)	10.73 (6.516)	0.743 (1.438)	4.232 (2.718)
Ratio of FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–1.953* (.967)	–1.467* (.719)	1.33 (1.988)	2.614 (1.443)	–0.559 (.422)	0.251 (.598)
Ratio of FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	–0.55 (.886)	0.0683 (.604)	2.23 (2.056)	3.823* (1.48)	–0.365 (.364)	0.412 (.602)
Ratio of PW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–0.006* (0.003)	0.816 (1.948)	–6.219 (7.636)	–10.71 (6.371)	0.812 (1.432)	–3.86 (2.71)
Ratio of PW interacted with 12 years of schooling	0.457 (2.562)	0.395 (1.796)	–5.512 (8.231)	–11.38 (6.736)	–0.093 (1.385)	–3.667 (2.773)
Observations	5 207	5 359	1 709	1 768	352	224
R^2	0.100	0.126	0.060	0.0335	0.244	0.157

Notes: Columns (1)-(4): Logit Regressions. Columns (5)-(6): OLS. Dependent variable: log hourly wage from salaried work. Dropped observations: People with schooling over 30 or with missing schooling, ultra-Orthodox Jews. Standard errors appear in parentheses. * Significant at 5% level. The ratios correspond to the quarterly number of foreign workers (FW) and Palestinian workers (PW) relative to the number of Israeli workers in the agricultural sector in 1990.

Additional variables in the regressions correspond to individual demographic characteristics of individual i at time t (years of schooling, age and age squared; a marital status dummy (1 if married, zero otherwise), number of children aged 0-14 and a dummy for whether the individual migrated to Israel after 1989), a control for labour demand shocks in the agricultural sector investigated at time t (agricultural output) and year dummies.

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

1. Born in Israel or immigrants. Ages 22-64
2. Ages 22-64.

Source: CBS Labour Force and Income Surveys 1998-2008, in Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442598

Table III.A1.7. **Regression: employment of Israeli Jewish women in home care, 1998-2008**

	Employment		Wages
	1	2	3
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages
Ratio of registered foreign workers (FW)	–0.376 (0.987)	–1.076 (0.703)	–0.615 (0.913)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–0.239 (0.179)	–0.229* (0.117)	–0.001 (0.025)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	0.066 (0.144)	0.051 (0.097)	0.001 (0.021)
Observations	9 132	9 557	1 950
R^2	0.032	0.038	0.034

Notes: Columns (1)-(2): Logit Regressions. Dependent variable = 1 if employed in occupation 451. Column (3): OLS. Dependent variable: log hourly wage from salaried work. Dropped observations: People with schooling over 30 or with missing schooling, ultra-Orthodox Jews. Standard errors appear in parentheses. * Significant at 5% level. Born in Israel or immigrants. Ages 22-64.
The ratio of registered foreign workers (FW) correspond to the annual number of work permits issued to home care relative to the size of the home care sector in 1995.
Additional variables in the regressions correspond to individual demographic characteristics of individual i at time t (years of schooling, age and age squared; a marital status dummy (1 if married, zero otherwise), number of children aged 0-14 and a dummy for whether the individual migrated to Israel after 1989), a control for labour demand shocks in the home-care sector investigated at time t (number of Long-Term Care (LTC) allowance recipients) and year dummies.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
Source: CBS Labour Force and Income Surveys 1998-2008, in Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442617

Table III.A1.8. **Regression: employment of Israeli men, all sectors, 1998-2008**

	Employment				Wages	
	Jews[1]		Non-Jews[2]		Jews[1]	Non-Jews[2]
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages	Log Wages
Ratio of registered foreign workers (FW)	–6.134 (10.322)	–3.808 (8.411)	–42.404 (28.386)	–30.897 (22.060)	2.877 (2.788)	–10.6* (5.814)
Ratio of unregistered FW	–10.866 (6.720)	–5.284 (5.384)	5.203 (17.931)	5.715 (13.651)	–1.605 (1.776)	1.688 (3.559)
Ratio of Palestinian workers (PW)	0.293 (2.225)	1.115 (1.649)	0.713 (5.393)	6.4298 (4.294)	–1.245* (.559)	–.564 (1.305)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with agriculture sector	37.337 (58.935)	17.417 (44.993)	–11.365 (105.7)	13.879 (78.972)	23.012 (20.496)	14.244 (21.865)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Construction sector	35.157 (28.667)	46.836* (24.558)	14.225 (41.952)	–9.718 (32.174)	–1.768 (8.551)	9.841 (9.498)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Industry sector	–24.46 (19.131)	–15.108 (16.185)	1.753 (43.996)	3.704 (34.628)	0.532 (4.902)	–3.05 (9.457)

Table III.A1.8. **Regression: employment of Israeli men, all sectors, 1998-2008** *(cont.)*

	Employment				Wages	
	Jews[1]		Non-Jews[2]		Jews[1]	Non-Jews[2]
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs. unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages	Log Wages
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Services for Households sector	–54.618 (125.135)	–129.1 (112.7)			64.4 (49.572)	
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Agriculture sector	23.762 (38.424)	28.8 (29.897)	21.768 (67.761)	–24.339 (49.032)	–21.426 (13.757)	–17.6 (14.076)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Construction sector	–16.448 (18.6)	–27.071 (15.683)	–13.368 (27.786)	–5.641 (21.123)	–3.469 (5.887)	–3.569 (5.547)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Industry sector	12.784 (12.836)	11.1 (10.619)	–20.05 (29.19)	–14.452 (22.293)	1.617 (3.088)	–.487 (5.827)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Services for Households sector	65.551 (88.419)	86.026 (75.905)			–7.169 (34.002)	
Ratio of PW interacted with Agriculture sector	–1.024 (9.321)	3.126 (7.323)	14.107 (15.108)	1.404 (13.102)	1.114 (3.967)	2.355 (3.606)
Ratio of PW interacted with Construction sector	10.537* (4.910)	9.246* (4.038)	3.857 (6.360)	–2.248 (5.335)	–1.343 (1.463)	–1.132 (1.603)
Ratio of PW interacted with Industry sector	3.603 (3.538)	2.371 (2.834)	5.237 (7.956)	–1.762 (6.463)	0.251 (0.929)	–0.265 (1.849)
Ratio of PW interacted with Services for Households sector	16.8 (32.724)	–17.208 (35.993)			43.13* (9.405)	
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	3.79 (6.109)	6.301 (5.022)		19.268 (12.734)	–0.425 (1.708)	2.451 (3.19)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	3.941 (5.710)	9.215* (4.518)	29.278 (18.730)	30.432* (14.162)	–2.254 (1.463)	8.35* (3.393)
Ratio of unregistered FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–3.394 (2.755)	–3.323 (2.272)	–10.053 (7.95)	–10.294 (5.881)	–1.098 (.768)	–1.705 (1.438)
Ratio of unregistered FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	–1.397 (2.554)	–2.73 (2.024)	–15.688 (8.768)	–14.192* (6.526)	–.244 (.652)	–4.907* (1.534)
Ratio of PW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–5.291* (1.776)	–2.885* (1.443)	–3.799 (4.286)	–5.002 (3.489)	–0.043 (0.504)	0.98 (0.973)
Ratio of PW interacted with 12 years of schooling	–2.399 (1.69)	–1.865 (1.323)	–1.087 (4.732)	–3.152 (3.868)	0.339 (0.444)	–0.414 (0.990)
Observations	197 803	203 376	42 281	44 442	31 703	7 011
R^2	0.054	0.068	0.060	0.048	0.323	0.403

Notes: Columns (1)-(4): Logit Regressions. Columns (5)-(6): OLS. Dependent variable: log hourly wage from salaried work. Dropped observations: People with schooling over 30 or with missing schooling, ultra-Orthodox Jews. Standard errors appear in parentheses.
* Significant at 5% level. The ratios correspond to the quarterly total number of registered foreign workers (FW), unregistered foreign workers and Palestinian workers(PW) relative to the total number of Israeli workers in 1990.
Additional variables in the regressions correspond to individual demographic characteristics of individual i at time t (years of schooling, age and age squared; a marital status dummy (1 if married, zero otherwise), number of children aged 0-14 and a dummy for whether the individual migrated to Israel after 1989), real GDP, sector, year and year-sector fixed effects.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.
1. Born in Israel or immigrants. Ages 22-64.
2. Ages 22-64.
Source: CBS Labour Force and Income Surveys 1998-2008, in Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442636

Table III.A1.9. **Regression: employment of Israeli Jewish women, all sectors, 1998-2008**

	Employment		Wages
	1	2	3
Variable	Employed vs. unemployed	Employed vs unemployed or out of the LF	Log Wages
Ratio of registered foreign workers (FW)	–7.706 (9.074)	–7.215 (6.475)	–2.631 (2.048)
Ratio of unregistered FW	–5.577 (5.912)	–1.99 (4.131)	0.060 (1.315)
Ratio of Palestinian workers (PW)	2.378 (1.876)	3.129* (1.279)	0.342 (0.438)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Agriculture sector	–93.024 (82.298)	–68.32 (56.281)	–43.091 (31.788)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Construction sector	–13.080 (57.882)	–15.194 (48.817)	20.847 (14.625)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Industry sector	–0.48 (25.176)	5.933 (19.864)	11.926 (6.33)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with Services for Households sector	16.562 (39.044)	40.986 (31.345)	4.864 (11.71)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Agriculture sector	53.476 (44.485)	44.557 (33.445)	9.436 (17.3)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Construction sector	23.706 (42.24)	13.34 (33.931)	–16.393 (9.948)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Industry sector	–13.47 (16.78)	–7.604 (12.758)	0.148 (4.051)
Ratio of un-registered FW interacted with Services for Households sector	–32.806 (24.979)	–9.119 (18.975)	4.056 (7.55)
Ratio of PW interacted with Agriculture sector	–8.472 (23.502)	–16.04 (12.392)	–5.061 (5.356)
Ratio of PW interacted with Construction sector	–24.492 (21.782)	–4.222 (9.713)	–8.067* (2.176)
Ratio of PW interacted with Industry sector	4.769 (4.337)	–0.413 (3.208)	0.122 (1.233)
Ratio of PW interacted with Services for Households sector	16.459* (6.963)	9.627 (5.099)	–5.107 (2.029)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	14.549* (6.958)	9.94 (5.189)	–3.358* (1.631)
Ratio of registered FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	6.647 (5.21)	3.953 (3.8)	–0.492 (1.261)
Ratio of unregistered FW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–8.851* (3.132)	–5.853* (2.334)	0.784 (0.737)
Ratio of unregistered FW interacted with 12 years of schooling	–4.697* (2.33)	–2.318 (1.7)	–0.962 (0.564)
Ratio of PW interacted with 0-11 years of schooling	–6.728* (2.004)	–3.858* (1.489)	–0.435 (0.474)
Ratio of PW interacted with 12 years of schooling	–3.854* (1.545)	–1.671 (1.121)	0.002 (0.381)
Observations	200 511	210 059	34 190
R^2	0.054	0.049	0.299

Notes: Columns (1)-(2): Logit Regressions. Column (3): OLS. Dependent variable: log hourly wage from salaried work. Dropped observations: People with schooling over 30 or with missing schooling, ultra-Orthodox Jews. Standard errors appear in parentheses. * Significant at 5% level. Women born in Israel or immigrants, aged 22-64. The ratios correspond to the quarterly total number of registered foreign workers (FW), unregistered foreign workers and Palestinian workers(PW) relative to the total number of Israeli workers in 1990.

Additional variables in the regressions correspond to individual demographic characteristics of individual i at time t (years of schooling, age and age squared; a marital status dummy (1 if married, zero otherwise), number of children aged 0-14 and a dummy for whether the individual migrated to Israel after 1989), real GDP, sector, year and year-sector fixed effects.

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: CBS Labour Force and Income Surveys 1998-2008, in Cohen-Goldner (2011).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442655

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PART IV

Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies

(Country Notes)

Australia

In 2009-10, permanent migration to Australia decreased by 7%, the first decline in seven years. Still, with about 207 000 permanent migrants (excluding returning Australian citizens), it was the second largest intake ever and more than twice the level of a decade earlier. 82% of the permanent migrants were admitted under the migration program – around two-thirds through the skill stream (including accompanying family) and one-third through the family stream – and 7% through the humanitarian programme. Within the skill stream, the proportion of employer-sponsored places has continued to increase from 33% in 2008-09 to 39% in 2009-10. In addition, 24 300 New Zealanders entered Australia under the 1973 Trans Tasman Travel Arrangement. For 2010-11, the overall size of the permanent migration and humanitarian programmes is maintained at 2009-10 levels, but with an additional 5 800 places in the skill stream and offsetting reductions in the family stream.

Although the downturn affected Australia less than most other OECD countries – Australia was among the few OECD countries to record positive GDP growth during 2008-09 – the slowdown in the Australian economy was associated with a decline in the number of temporary long-stay business visas granted in 2009-10, one-third less than in the previous year. Working holiday visas also decreased by 6% from the record high in 2008-09, when at the height of the global economic downturn some were probably seeking to avoid a more severe downturn in their home country. Inflows of international students also fell by 16% compared with the record high of 2008-09. This is attributable to several factors, including tightened integrity checks on applications from selected student caseloads, increased requirements to establish financial security while in Australia and the appreciation of the Australian dollar. In addition, changes in skilled migration policy tightened the pathway to permanent residence for former students. As a result, only 30 000 visas were granted to Indian students, a drop of more than 50% compared with the previous year. The main contingent of new students is now Chinese, with 54 400 entries recorded in 2009-10.

The number of asylum seekers arriving in Australian waters by boat has increased. Their number totalled more than 5 600 in 2009-10, compared with about 1 000 in 2008-09 and only 30 in 2007-08.

Net overseas migration has declined from a peak of 320 300 for the year ending March 2009, when it comprised two-thirds of population growth. This decline has been driven by falls in international students, skilled temporary workers and New Zealand citizens. In April 2010, the government appointed Australia's first-ever Population Minister, charged with developing a Sustainable Population Strategy by mid-2011.

In February 2010, the government revoked the Migration Occupations in Demand List (MODL) and provisional Critical Skills List that favoured the migration of those with certain skills. These lists were subsets of the Skilled Occupation List (SOL) which determines occupations eligible under skilled independent and state sponsored skilled migration. Since the introduction of the MODL in 1999, there were often long lags between identifying an occupation as being in shortage, and migrants coming through in this particular occupation. Also, temporary skilled visas are seen to be a much more efficient means of adjustment to skill shortages. Since July 2010, there is a new SOL, which cuts the number of eligible occupations by more than half. The new list contains occupations which fulfil three criteria. First, the skills needed take a long time to learn; second, there is evidence of high skills matching (*i.e.* the skills acquired were deployed as intended); and third, the costs of the skills being in short supply are high to the economy or to the respective local communities.

In November 2010, the government announced some significant changes to the points test for general skilled migration, effective from July 2011. The age eligibility range will be extended, qualifications obtained from recognised overseas institutions will be treated as equivalent to Australian qualifications, Australian work experience will attract more points than experience gained overseas, and English proficiency will be given greater importance.

State migration plans were also introduced in 2010, to ensure that state-sponsored migrants are satisfying local needs. This includes the possibility for state-sponsorship in certain skilled occupations not on the SOL but in short supply locally.

For further information:

www.immi.gov.au

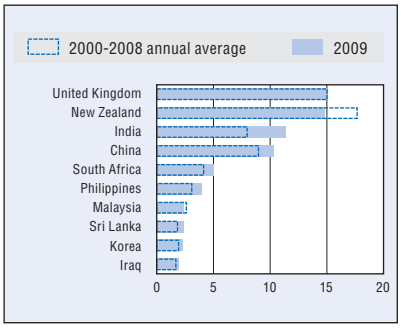
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRALIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.6	7.9	9.5	10.1	6.3	9.0	*222.6*
Outflows	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	*16.8*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	52.3	51.7	25.4	23.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	105.8	111.6	51.4	54.1
Humanitarian	11.7	14.9	5.7	6.7
Free movements	34.5	33.0	16.7	14.9
Others	1.6	1.8	0.8	0.8
Total	205.9	221.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	116.7	198.4	227.9	167.9
Trainees	7.0	5.4	5.3	6.1
Working holiday makers	104.4	154.1	187.7	138.9
Seasonal workers	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1
Intra-company transfers	. .	6.9	6.0	4.9
Other temporary workers	71.6	140.6	126.7	110.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	*6 206*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.3	14.3	21.7	19.8	12.4	18.0	*435*
Natural increase	6.3	6.5	7.4	7.2	6.0	6.9	*157*
Net migration	5.8	6.7	14.0	12.7	5.8	10.5	*278*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	23.0	24.2	25.8	26.5	23.4	25.2	*5 817*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*99 221*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	79.9	80.7	78.8	. .	80.1
Foreign-born men	. .	74.6	77.0	75.1	. .	75.7
Native-born women	. .	67.0	69.1	69.0	. .	68.4
Foreign-born women	. .	58.0	60.5	59.5	. .	59.1
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	4.9	4.0	5.6	. .	4.7
Foreign-born men	. .	5.2	4.2	6.5	. .	5.0
Native-born women	. .	5.2	4.4	5.0	. .	4.8
Foreign-born women	. .	5.5	5.2	6.9	. .	5.7

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.0	3.1	1.1	1.2	3.2	2.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	0.7	1.6	–0.8	–0.9	1.9	0.8	*31 845*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.6	3.5	2.8	0.7	2.0	2.5	*11 011*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.2	5.0	4.2	5.6	6.1	4.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441040

Austria

In 2009, according to national statistics, the total inflow of foreign nationals to Austria declined slightly, back to the 2007 level of about 91 800. At the same time, outflows increased from 55 300 in 2008 to 66 100 in 2009, resulting in a net migration of 25 700, 38% lower than in 2008.

About half of all new immigrants to Austria came from outside the EU, and one-quarter each from the old and new EU member countries. Germany remained the main country of origin, making up for almost 20% of total inflows. In 2009, however, immigration of Germans decreased for the first time since 2001, while their outflow increased by 20%. Other major countries of origin were Romania, Serbia and Montenegro, and Hungary, all of which recorded slight increases in inflows. Taken together, the successor countries of the former Yugoslavia accounted for 11% of new immigrants.

Family migration accounted for the bulk of permanent migration from outside the EU, with a large share of third country nationals entering outside the quota system, that is, as family members of Austrian or EEA-citizens. Among the 4 400 persons who acquired residence permits under the quota system, only about 530 were admitted under the key worker scheme, while the remainder were mainly family members of third country nationals. As a measure to prevent forced and arranged marriages, the minimum age of partners requesting to enter Austria as family migrants was raised from 18 to 21 years in 2010.

As a consequence of the economic downturn, the number of temporary migrants slightly decreased to 17 200 in 2009. This was partly due to a 3% decline in the number of seasonal workers to 11 700 in 2009. However, this group still accounted for the bulk of temporary inflows. The second major group was international students from inside and outside the EU whose share remained rather stable at 18%. The number of temporary residence permits acquired by third country nationals decreased slightly, to 5 500. The inflows registered under temporary migration have become less volatile since 2006, as seasonal labour migration of less than 6 months is no is longer subject to such permits, but regulated by special work visas.

After several years of steady decline, the number of asylum seekers had started to rise again in 2008 and reached 15 800 in 2009, an increase of 23% compared with 2008. However, preliminary data for 2010 indicate a significant decline for that year. By the end of November 2010, Austria registered 30% fewer claims than for the same period a year before. The main countries of origin continued to be the Russian Federation, Afghanistan and Kosovo. The acceptance rate was 19% in 2009.

In January 2010, a comprehensive revision of the Alien Law Act came into effect. It introduced several changes to tighten alien police and asylum legislation. As a measure to reduce unfounded asylum claims, the protection from deportation was abolished for claimants of subsequent applications. Moreover, the amendment redefined the offenses which may lead to detention of asylum seekers, and introduced the possibility to deprive, under certain conditions, delinquent refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection of their status. In addition, asylum seekers whose request for asylum is judged by the authorities as unlikely to be successful are now required to register. Finally, the legal framework for granting residence permits to rejected asylum seekers based on humanitarian grounds was redefined.

As a measure to harmonise the Austrian legislative framework with EU legislation, the grant of residence permits to EEA-citizens was redefined. The law now distinguishes a temporary residence permit from a permanent residence permit which is granted after 5 years of uninterrupted legal residence. Moreover, beneficiaries of subsidiary protection can now request a permanent residence permit after five years of residence. Further measures aimed at preventing forced marriages, and at facilitating, under certain conditions, naturalisation for Austrians' spouses working abroad, as well as for adopted children residing outside Austria.

As a reaction to shortages in skilled labour, the Austrian government has included a reform of labour migration policy in its recent government programme. In October 2010, the social partners agreed on the introduction of the so called "Red-White-Red-Card" that will provide a job-search permit for highly-qualified persons without a job offer as well for skilled workers in shortage professions and "key workers" with a job offer, based on a point system. Moreover, it is planned to facilitate access to the labour market for international students and family members of labour migrants. It is also intended to introduce a requirement for family migrants to have basic knowledge of German prior to arrival. The draft of the corresponding legislation is currently being discussed in parliament, and implementation is expected for the second half of 2011.

For further information:

www.bmi.gv.at
www.bmask.gv.at
www.parlament.gv.at
www.statistik.at/web_en/statistics/population/index.html

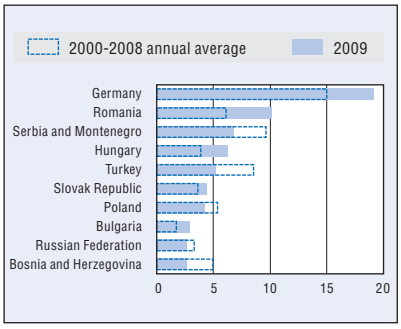
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	8.1	11.9	11.4	11.0	10.5	11.1	*91.8*
Outflows	5.5	6.1	6.6	7.9	5.9	6.7	*66.1*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	0.8	0.6	1.7	1.2
Family (incl. accompanying family)	10.8	10.2	21.8	22.0
Humanitarian	5.5	5.0	11.2	10.9
Free movements	32.2	29.9	65.0	65.4
Others	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5
Total	49.5	45.7	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.0
Trainees	0.4	. .	. .	0.4
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	11.4	12.1	11.7	11.5
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other temporary workers	6.3	2.7	2.4	3.6

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.3	2.7	1.5	1.9	3.6	1.8	*15 821*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	6.4	4.4	2.4	4.9	4.2	*20*
Natural increase	0.2	0.4	0.3	–0.1	0.2	0.2	*–1*
Net migration	2.2	5.4	4.1	2.5	4.3	3.8	*21*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.4	14.5	15.3	15.5	13.3	15.0	*1 293*
Foreign population	8.7	9.7	10.4	10.7	9.1	10.1	*895*

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Percentage of the foreign population	3.5	4.4	1.2	0.9	4.8	2.3	*7 978*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.2	76.2	79.2	77.7	75.3	78.0
Foreign-born men	76.1	71.1	74.9	72.5	74.4	73.2
Native-born women	59.9	63.5	67.9	68.4	60.8	66.3
Foreign-born women	58.3	54.2	56.6	57.5	57.6	55.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.3	3.9	2.9	3.9	4.2	3.4
Foreign-born men	8.7	10.8	7.3	10.7	9.4	9.4
Native-born women	4.2	4.6	3.5	3.9	4.1	4.1
Foreign-born women	7.2	10.5	7.8	8.2	7.8	9.2

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	2.5	2.2	–3.9	1.8	1.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.4	1.8	1.7	–4.2	1.4	1.1	*31 475*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.6	2.2	1.5	–0.3	0.3	1.7	*4 078*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	3.5	5.2	3.8	4.8	4.0	4.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441059

Belgium

As of 31 December 2009, the foreign population amounted to 9.8% of the total population of Belgium, that is to say 1 058 000 persons out of a total of 10 839 000. The share of the population accounted by foreigners was up by 0.4% compared with the previous year. The number of immigrants (Belgians and foreigners) who entered Belgium in 2009 was down by 1.9% compared with 2008, falling from 119 200 to 117 000.

The number of first-time work permits issued to migrant workers (that is to say, all foreigners coming to Belgium to work), fell sharply in 2009. From around 25 000 first time permits awarded in 2008, the number fell to 13 000 in 2009. This significant decline is due to the liberalisation of the movement of workers who are citizens of new EU member countries, which entered into force on 1 May 2009. The citizens of eight of the ten new EU member countries no longer need to apply for a work permit to come and work in Belgium as they now benefit from the freedom to circulate and exercise any type of profession. Solely Bulgarian and Romanian nationals are still required to apply for a work permit. If the figures for these eight countries are disregarded, the number of permits issued has remained stable.

The proportion of highly-skilled workers among migrants entering for work-related reasons climbed to 26%, after falling from 19% to 15% between 2007 and 2008. However, this increase is due more to the liberalisation of worker movement than to a significant increase in highly-skilled workers. Over half of the permits issued to highly-skilled workers went to Indian, Japanese or US citizens.

In 2008, there were 37 700 naturalisations, an increase of 4.5% compared with 2007. Morocco and Turkey still remain the two main countries of origin of naturalised Belgians, although their share is falling while the shares of the Russian Federation and the countries of the former Yugoslavia are rising. The figures for 2009 indicate a resumption in the downward trend with 32 800 naturalisations.

Just over 17 000 applications for asylum – covering around 22 800 persons – were received in Belgium in 2009. This figure is 40% up from 2008, but remains close to the average for the past twenty years. Afghanistan and the Russian Federation were the main sources of refugees, with each country accounting for around 10% of applications. The number of favourable decisions granting refugee status amounted to almost 1 900 in 2009, of which 270 were for Iraqi citizens.

In 2010, a draft Royal Order aimed at both clarifying and ensuring that legislation relating to workers' employment was consistent with that regarding the right of residence was drawn up. This draft legislation was approved by the Advisory Council for the Employment of Foreign Workers dated 3 June 2010. The amendments provided for in this Order are aimed at making the legislation clearer and at increasing its legal safety. The concept of spouse, for example, has been broadened to include registered partners. To comply with EU Directives 2004/38 on the right of free movement and 2003/86 on the right to family reunification, registered partners and spouses will be placed on an equal footing with regard to access to the labour market.

For further information:

www.emploi.belgique.be
www.ibz.be
www.dofi.fgov.be
http://statbel.fgov.be/

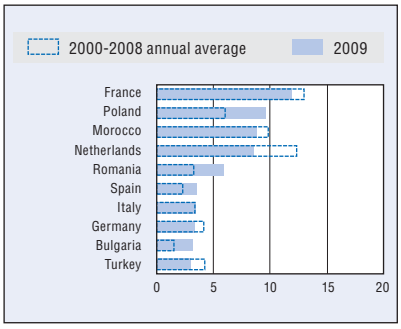
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

BELGIUM

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.6	7.4	9.9	9.5	6.5	8.7	*102.7*
Outflows	3.5	3.7	. .	. .	3.3	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	10.7	7.4	24.4	19.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	14.3	14.2	32.7	37.7
Humanitarian	2.1	1.9	4.9	5.0
Free movements	16.7	14.2	38.1	37.7
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	43.9	37.7	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	0.4	0.2	0.3
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	2.7	19.9	4.8	10.4
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	2.8	14.3	0.7	7.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	4.2	1.5	1.1	1.6	2.3	1.3	*17 186*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.4	6.3	. .	. .	4.0	. .	. .
Natural increase	1.0	1.4	. .	. .	0.9	. .	. .
Net migration	2.5	4.5	. .	. .	3.6	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.3	12.1	. .	. .	11.1	. .	. .
Foreign population	8.4	8.6	9.5	9.8	8.3	9.2	*1 058*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	7.2	3.5	3.7	3.1	5.6	3.5	*32 767*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	70.8	69.3	69.1	68.1	69.4	69.0
Foreign-born men	62.2	61.2	63.5	61.4	60.1	61.6
Native-born women	53.8	56.0	57.8	58.2	53.6	57.1
Foreign-born women	37.3	39.7	43.0	43.4	37.6	41.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.2	6.5	5.5	6.4	5.1	6.0
Foreign-born men	14.7	15.7	15.3	16.3	15.6	15.8
Native-born women	7.4	8.4	6.8	7.0	6.9	7.5
Foreign-born women	17.5	18.9	15.7	16.1	16.5	17.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	1.7	1.0	–2.8	2.0	1.1	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.4	1.2	0.2	–3.5	1.6	0.4	*29 445*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.0	1.4	1.7	–0.3	0.9	1.1	*4 517*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.9	8.5	7.0	7.9	7.5	7.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441078

Bulgaria

In 2009, migration to and from Bulgaria declined in the context of the economic downturn and preliminary data for 2010 indicate that this decline is ongoing. Immigration decreased in all major categories, except for international students. The total immigration flow reached about 22 000, a decrease of 23% compared with 2008.

Most migrants with permanent residence status are of Bulgarian origin, coming from countries with significant Bulgarian ethnic minorities, such as the former Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), Serbia, Moldova, the Russian Federation and Albania. The decline in the inflows is mainly attributable to a decline in immigration from the former Republic of Macedonia which nevertheless remains the most important country of origin, accounting for 34% of the flows, followed by Turkey (14%) and the Russian Federation (8%).

The main grounds for admission of new permanent residents are Bulgarian ethnicity (51%) and family reunification (20%). Immigrants from the EU with permanent residence status constitute 11% of the flow, of which most originate from Greece, Germany and Poland. In 2009, the total stock of permanent residents in Bulgaria reached almost 70 000 persons, which is an increase of 3 000 persons compared with 2008. The number of asylum seekers has decreased significantly in recent years, from the record high of almost 2 900 applications in 2002 to only 648 in 2009.

Data on emigration is mainly available from the immigration statistics of the destination countries. Spain has been the most important destination country in recent years and Spanish inflow data indicate that about 9 700 Bulgarians entered in 2009, the lowest number since 2000. There are no consistent data for Greece, the second main destination of Bulgarian immigrants in recent years, but the available evidence suggests that emigration to Greece also declined. The removal of restrictions for Bulgarian migrant workers in Spain in January 2009 did not thus increase emigration to these two countries, but helped regularise many migrants who were already in these two countries on other grounds. Despite the worsening economic situation in Bulgaria, return migration increased in 2009; according to official statistics there were about 3 300 return migrants in 2009 compared with about 200 in 2008. Preliminary data for 2010 suggest that this trend continued. Overall, the migration balance remained negative; Bulgaria is still a net emigration country. As in the previous years, immigrant women accounted for the bulk of the outflows (60% in 2009), while the number of immigrant men returning to Bulgaria exceeded that of women.

One of the main pillars of the immigration policy in the last few years has been the promotion of immigration of ethnic Bulgarians. This policy was further strengthened in a 2009 Action Plan which recognised immigration of this group as a long-term priority to help address population ageing and decline. The Action Plan was rather ambitious in the area of return migration and both budgetary restrictions and the worsening situation on the labour market limited its implementation. Contrary to the initial plans, the network of migration offices in Bulgarian embassies abroad was not enlarged and the planned information campaigns by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy aiming to promote return of skilled migrants were abolished. Most of the envisaged measures regarding the integration of immigrants were not activated, although some information and education campaigns were carried out which aimed at improving integration. Likewise, consultations with non-EU countries regarding bilateral treaties for labour migration were frozen.

One of the main policy measures in 2009 and the beginning of 2010 was Bulgaria's preparation for joining the Schengen area. In March 2010, the Council of Ministers approved a new National Action Plan for the full application of the provisions of the Schengen *acquis* and for the abolition of the control at the external borders in order to guarantee the successful accession of Bulgaria. The measures and activities envisaged in the Plan relate to legislation, institution building, and strengthening of the administrative capacity.

On 5 January 2011, the Council of Ministers adopted the *National Programme for the Integration of Refugees* in Bulgaria. The plan outlines actions for the period 2011-13 by the State Agency for Refugees, other state institutions, local governments and non-governmental organisations to facilitate the integration of refugees in Bulgaria. The envisaged measures include improved reception, housing, employment, education, social welfare, health care, and updating and improving the legal framework on the rights and obligations of refugees.

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=0136&g

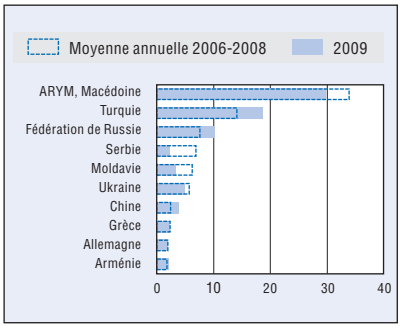
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

BULGARIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.5	2.0	3.3	2.9	1.2	2.9	*22.0*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	2.1	. .	. .	2.5
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	0.6	. .	. .	1.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*853*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	–5.5	–4.4	–5.6	. .	–5.1	*–43*
Natural increase	–5.1	–5.5	–4.3	–3.5	–5.5	–4.7	*–27*
Net migration	. .	. .	–0.1	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	68.6	67.1	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	53.1	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	59.6	58.3	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	57.4	50.4	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	5.6	7.1	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	8.5	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	5.8	6.7	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	6.0	3.0	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.7	6.4	6.2	–5.5	. .	. .	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (level in thousands)	. .	2.0	3.3	–3.2	. .	. .	*3 254*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.4	10.1	5.6	6.8	16.0	7.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441097

Canada

Canada admitted about 252 000 permanent migrants in 2009, a 2% increase over 2008. As in previous years, the top sending countries were China (12%), the Philippines (11%) and India (10%). While the share of permanent immigrants from the Philippines and India increased by 15% and 6%, respectively, inflows from China decreased marginally by 1%. In 2009, the bulk of permanent migrants (61%) entered Canada for family-related reasons. Labour migrants (*i.e.* economic principal applicants) accounted for one-quarter of long-term inflows and one out of eight permanent migrants acquired a residence permit on humanitarian grounds.

Canada received 382 000 temporary immigrants in 2009, a decrease by 4% compared to 2008. With a share of 47%, temporary foreign workers remained the largest group of temporary migrants. However, their total number decreased for the first time since 2003, to 178 500, which is 7% less than in 2008. This decrease resulted from a reduction in the demand for foreign labour in 2009 in response to the economic downturn. The main sending country for temporary workers remained the United States. International students accounted for 22% of temporary inflows. Their total number increased by 7% over 2008, to 85 100.

In August 2010, the government announced changes to the temporary foreign worker programme that will come into effect in April 2011. To ensure that the temporary foreign worker programme is fair and equitable, the genuineness of job offers will be assessed more rigorously, and the employer's past compliance with labour laws will be checked. Moreover, the duration of temporary employment in Canada will be limited to four years, followed by a four-year re-entry ban. However, temporary foreign workers can apply for a permanent residence permit during or after their stay in Canada, and Canadian experience is a factor in considering their applications.

Canada received almost 23 000 refugees in 2009. More than half entered through resettlement programmes assisted by the government and private sponsors. These included over 4 000 Iraqi refugees for whom resettlement facilities were extended. The remaining refugees were granted asylum on the basis of successful asylum requests in Canada. Their main countries of origin were Sri Lanka, Colombia and China. In 2009, Canada recorded 33 200 requests for asylum, 10% less than in 2008. Preliminary data for 2010 indicate an even greater decrease for this year.

The number of naturalisations has been declining continuously since 2006. In 2009, 156 300 persons were naturalised, a decrease by 11% compared with 2008. The main countries of origin of new citizens were the three top sending countries China, India and the Philippines. In April 2009, Canada implemented amendments to the *Citizenship Act* to restore citizenship to persons who had lost it under previous legislation, as well as to naturalise others for the first time. Citizenship by descent is now limited to one generation born outside of Canada.

In 2008, the Canadian government established an *Action Plan for Faster Immigration* that aims at reducing the backlog of applications from foreign workers by accelerating their processing. In order to make Canadian migration policy more flexible and responsive to changing labour demands, the plan also introduced the possibility to amend admission procedures on short notice through ministerial instructions. A first set of ministerial instructions was issued in November 2008 and defined eligibility criteria for foreign workers to have their applications considered. They either need to hold a job offer, or have been temporary residents in Canada before, or demonstrate work experience in one out of 29 shortage occupations. While even applications that were likely to be unsuccessful had to be processed before, the new measure now allows Citizenship and Immigration Canada to return unprocessed applications that are not aligned with Government of Canada objectives. A second set of ministerial instructions was issued in June 2010 and limited the number of new applications to be considered under the shortage occupation scheme to 20 000 per year and 1 000 per occupation. In addition, all permanent migrants now need to prove language proficiency through an independent test.

Two measures were launched in 2009 that aim at facilitating the recruitment of foreign workers, as well as their integration into the Canadian labour market. The government announced the establishment of an *Employer's Roadmap to Hiring and Retaining Internationally Trained Workers* in June 2009 to provide practical advice for employers in small and medium-sized enterprises concerning the recruitment, assessment of foreign qualifications, integration and retention of internationally trained workers. Furthermore, in November 2009, federal, provincial and territorial authorities jointly established a *Pan-Canadian Framework for the Assessment and Recognition of Foreign Qualifications*. Immigrants wanting to enter regulated occupations in Canada will receive information on assessment as early as possible in the immigration process and timely communication of recognition decisions.

For further information:

www.cic.gc.ca

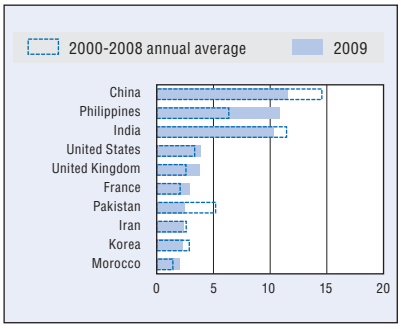
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

CANADA

Migration flows (foreigners)					Average		Level ('000)
National definition	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**2000-04**	**2005-09**	**2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.4	8.1	7.4	7.5	7.4	7.6	*252.2*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	61.3	64.0	24.8	25.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	153.3	153.0	62.0	61.3
Humanitarian	32.5	33.4	13.1	13.2
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Total	247.2	252.2	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	56.7	59.7	66.8	61.9
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	28.0	41.1	45.3	35.6
Seasonal workers	20.3	24.2	23.4	22.3
Intra-company transfers	6.8	10.5	10.1	9.0
Other temporary workers	62.4	106.6	90.4	84.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.1	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.8	*33 970*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	9.7	9.9	12.4	12.0	9.9	11.2	*404*
Natural increase	3.6	3.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.9	*135*
Net migration	6.5	7.0	8.4	8.0	7.0	7.5	*269*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	17.4	18.7	19.4	19.6	17.9	19.2	*6 618*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*156 304*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	77.4	. .	77.0	74.0	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	77.0	. .	77.8	73.9	. .	. .
Native-born women	66.0	. .	71.8	70.7	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	59.6	. .	64.0	63.4	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.7	. .	6.6	9.3	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	6.1	. .	6.9	10.7	. .	. .
Native-born women	6.2	. .	5.3	6.4	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	8.7	. .	7.6	9.6	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.2	3.0	0.5	–2.5	3.0	1.2	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.3	2.0	–0.7	–3.7	2.0	0.1	*30 263*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.5	1.4	1.5	–1.6	2.1	1.1	*16 849*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.8	6.8	6.2	8.3	7.3	6.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441116

Chile

According to national estimations based on Census data which include irregular migrants, more than 350 000 immigrants were living in Chile in 2009, twice the number of immigrants registered in 2002. The vast majority of the immigrants in Chile are from other Southern American countries, mainly from the neighbouring countries. Peru is the main country of origin, accounting for 37% of the migrant population, followed by Argentina (17%), Bolivia (7%), Ecuador (5%) and Colombia (4%).

Over the past few years, Peru has replaced Argentina as the main origin group. Between 2002 and 2009, the number of immigrants from Peru in Chile more than tripled, from 38 000 to 131 000.

Regulated immigration flows have been declining in recent years. In 2009, a little over 57 000 residence permits were granted, 17% less than in 2008 and 28% less than in 2007. The largest source country remains Peru (31%), followed by Argentina (17%) and other Latin American countries (in total 19%). The only sizeable groups from other regions were immigrants from Spain and the United States, each accounting for about 3% of the flows.

Half of the residence permits issued in 2009 were for labour migrants and were again mainly granted to immigrants from neighbouring countries. The main sectors of employment for these labour migrants are domestic services, trade and health and social work. Peruvian migrants, especially women, are heavily concentrated in domestic services; almost three out of four women from Peru work in this sector. In contrast, trade is the principal sector of employment of immigrants from Bolivia (24%) and Argentina (22%). Ecuadorians mainly work in health and social work (33%).

The numbers of asylum seekers in Chile is low compared with other OECD countries and has further declined in 2009, from about 870 applications in 2008 to 560 in 2009. The vast majority of asylum seekers are from Colombia. In 2010, Chile's Senate adopted a new Law for the Protection of Refugees, which establishes the legal framework for the protection of refugees and incorporates the country's obligations under the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol of the *United Nations relating to the Status of Refugees*.

Irregular inflows have been a significant feature of immigration in Chile, although this seems less pronounced than in other Latin American countries. According to national estimates, about 18 000 immigrants (5% of the total) are in an irregular situation, the vast majority from Peru (72%). To address this issue, Chile has advanced several regularisation programmes over the past fifteen years. During the first regularisation, in 1998, 44 000 persons obtained temporary residence permits and 18 000 long-term permits. 30% of the total beneficiaries were from Peru. A second regularisation took place in 2007/2008. More than 44 000 persons applied with the vast majority of applicants having been accepted. Among the applicants, 32 000 were from Peru, 6 000 from Bolivia and 1 800 from Ecuador.

In 2006, in line with the practices in other OECD countries, Chile extended access to education to all children of immigrants, regardless of the immigration status of their parents. In the recent years, Chile also undertook a modernisation of its borders, in response to the challenges imposed by the new integration agreements in South America (MERCOSUR) and the human trafficking within the region. Through this process, the Chilean government aims to update the technology and integrate systems of information to make crossing both quicker and more secure.

In spite of the increase in the stock of immigrants over the past years, Chile is still a country with more expatriates abroad than immigrants in the country. About 860 000 Chileans were living outside the country in 2004, the latest year for which figures are available. This was almost four times the number of immigrants reported in that year as living in Chile. Emigration from Chile peaked during the military dictatorship of the 1970s. Overall, 50% of Chilean emigrants settled in Argentina. Other important destinations, especially for the migrants of the 1970s, were Australia, Canada and Sweden.

For further information:

www.extranjeria.gov.cl/

www.minrel.gov.cl

www.interior.gov.cl

www.eclac.org/migracion/imila/

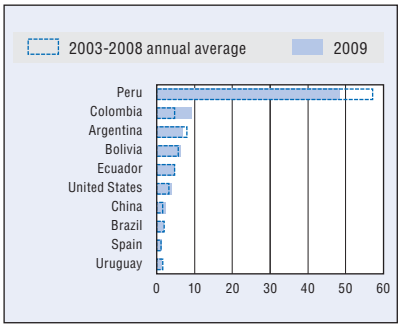
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

CHILE

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	2.3	4.1	3.4	. .	3.5	*57.1*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.1	. .	0.0	. .	. .

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	1.5	1.9	2.1	. .	1.8	*352*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*812*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.5	5.6	3.7	–1.7	4.0	3.3	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.1	4.4	2.6	–2.6	2.8	2.3	*11 581*
Employment (level in thousands)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	9.7	9.2	7.8	10.8	9.8	8.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441154

Czech Republic

In the context of the economic crisis, immigration inflows into the Czech Republic declined rapidly in 2009, following a trend already started in 2008. According to national statistics, about 39 000 immigrants entered the country in 2009, which was nearly half the number of entries registered in the previous year (78 000). In parallel, outflows almost doubled, growing from about 6 000 to almost 12 000 persons. In total, net migration declined by almost two-thirds.

A sharp decline in immigration inflows from Ukraine and Viet Nam accounted for more than half of the decline in the total inflow into the Czech Republic in 2009. Despite a decrease by almost 60% in the entries of Ukrainians compared to 2008, Ukraine remained the main origin country of immigrants into the Czech Republic, with 8 100 inflows, followed by the Slovak Republic and the Russian Federation. Immigration of Vietnamese declined by some 83% in 2009. With a little over 2 300 inflows, Viet Nam went down in the ranking of the main origin countries of immigrants into the Czech Republic from the second to fifth position. Inflows of German and Moldovan nationals also more than halved. In contrast to the general trend, inflows from the United States continued to increase in 2009, albeit at modest levels (about 2 500).

The total number of foreigners holding a residence permit slightly decreased in 2009, to about 433 000, compared with 438 000 in 2008. Most of the decrease was attributable to a decline in the number of labour migrants with a long-term residence permit, whose number declined by 17%. In contrast, the stock of family migrants and persons receiving business authorisations increased by 28% and 16%, respectively. In the context of the crisis, many foreigners who would have been obliged to leave the country as a consequence of job loss (after a so-called "protection period" of 60 days), changed their purpose of residence from "employment" to "business activity" as a way to legalise their stay in the Czech Republic. Abuses of the system for issuing business authorisations to foreign nationals (the so-called "Schwarz" System), which had slowly diminished in the previous years, thus appear to have become more frequent again in 2009.

The number of persons seeking asylum in the Czech Republic continued to decline in 2009, to less than 1 300, its lowest level ever. Less than 10% of asylum seekers obtain refugee status. The main countries of origin of persons having been granted asylum in the Czech Republic in 2009 were Myanmar, Ukraine, Viet Nam and Kazakhstan.

An amendment to the "Act on Residence of Foreign Nationals" entered into force on 1 January 2011. Among the main changes with respect to the previous legislation has been the introduction of new (and tighter) requirements for the proof of secure accommodation and of health insurance to be submitted by the applicants for a long-term visa, a long term residence or permanent residence (which are three different categories in the Czech Republic). The proof of secured funds, required for certain types of permits, including permanent residence, has also been strengthened. In addition, the new law introduced some restrictions to the permit regime for the purpose of carrying out an independent economic activity, among which is a two-year legal residence requirement for status changes into self-employment. Other measures have been introduced as a consequence of the transposition of the EU "Blue Card"-directive and the directive on employer sanctions. Finally, under the new legislation, the responsibility for the issuance of long-term visa and residence permits has been transferred to the new regional offices of the Department for Asylum and Migration Policy of the Ministry of the Interior. The foreigners' police, which was previously in charge of this dossier, remains competent for the issuance of short-term visas and residence certificates.

In 2010, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs sent out a proposal for the elimination of the High-Skilled Migration Programme called "Project of Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers", approved in 2001 and in place since 2003. This programme aimed at attracting young, qualified people to the Czech Republic by facilitating their settlement in the country (together with their family members) through the shortening of administrative terms for obtaining permanent residence. After a pilot phase, when it applied only to nationals from Bulgaria, Croatia and Kazakhstan, the programme was extended to nationals of 51 countries from outside of the EU. According to data of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, as of 30 September 2010, a total of 1 820 principal applicants and more than 1 700 family members were registered within the "Project of Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers".

In September 2009, the programme for the voluntary return of immigrants having lost their jobs as a result of the crisis entered in its second phase. In this phase, the facilitations to the return are extended also to illegal migrants.

For further information:

www.mvcr.cz

www.czso.cz

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

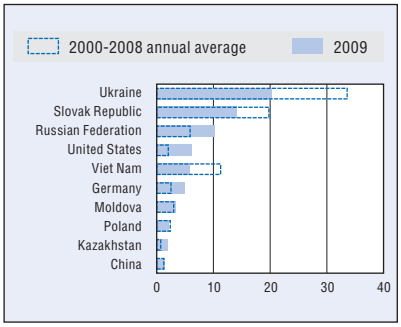
CZECH REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.4	5.7	7.5	3.8	3.3	6.7	*40.0*
Outflows	0.0	2.1	0.4	0.9	2.3	1.6	*9.4*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	71.8	39.0	. .	. .

Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	4.4	6.0	. .	5.3
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.1	1.0	0.2	*1 355*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	–1.1	3.0	8.3	3.7	–1.2	5.5	*39*
Natural increase	–1.8	–0.6	1.4	1.0	–1.4	0.6	*11*
Net migration	0.6	3.5	6.9	2.7	1.1	4.9	*28*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	4.2	5.1	6.5	6.4	4.6	5.9	*676*
Foreign population	2.0	2.7	4.2	4.1	2.2	3.6	*433*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	4.1	0.9	0.4	0.4	2.5	0.6	*1 621*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	73.3	75.4	73.8	. .	74.2
Foreign-born men	. .	71.0	77.5	74.6	. .	74.0
Native-born women	. .	56.4	57.6	56.7	. .	57.0
Foreign-born women	. .	51.3	55.4	56.8	. .	54.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	6.4	3.5	5.9	. .	5.2
Foreign-born men	. .	9.7	4.5	8.5	. .	7.7
Native-born women	. .	9.7	5.6	7.7	. .	7.7
Foreign-born women	. .	15.8	10.2	11.0	. .	12.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.6	6.3	2.5	–4.1	3.2	3.5	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.8	6.0	1.4	–4.9	3.4	2.9	*19 607*
Employment (level in thousands)	–0.7	1.4	1.6	–1.3	–0.1	1.0	*4 920*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.9	7.9	4.4	6.7	8.1	6.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441173

Denmark

In 2009, the total number of new residence permits granted in Denmark was about 57 000, a decrease of more than 15% compared with 2008, but still well above the levels of 2004-06. The numbers in all major categories, except for family reunification, registered a decline.

New rules regarding permanent residence permits entered into force in June 2010. In order to qualify for a permanent residence permit, the applicant must meet a number of criteria along a points-based system. Points are awarded for Danish language knowledge, active participation in Danish society, a completed degree in Denmark, and employment for a number of years prior to acceptance of the application, among other criteria. Exemptions may apply for disabled, pensioners, young applicants, and applicants with strong ties to Denmark. In addition, all applicants must have at least four years of residence and no serious criminal record. If the foreigner cannot obtain the required 100 points, he or she can apply for an extension of the time-limited residence permit and apply for a permanent residence permit at a later date.

Since 1 August 2010, a spouse/partner living in Denmark must not have received public assistance for a period of three years prior to the application of his/her spouse/partner. This period was one year before. Since 15 November 2010, spouses/partners are also required to pass an immigration test veryfing Danish language skills and knowledge about Denmark and Danish society. This test has to be taken in Denmark, and a fee of DKK 3 000 (EUR 400) applies.

On 1 September 2010, the practice for residence permits for au pairs was modified to respond to the growing flow and to reports of abuse. As a starting point au pairs may no longer have children back in their country of origin and during the assessment of the application, the applicant's family ties to the host family may be taken into account. In addition, every host family must have a separate room for the au pair.

On 16 March 2010, legislative changes passed parliament which amend the Danish Repatriation Act. The purpose of the amendments is to facilitate voluntary return for elderly persons and for persons without contact to the labour market. The payment for voluntary return was increased significantly from up to DKK 28 256 (about EUR 3 800) in 2009 to DKK 117 581 (about EUR 15 800) in 2010 for each adult. In addition, a foreigner holding a residence permit based on family reunification no longer must hold a permanent residence permit to qualify for financial assistance, but must have had a residence permit in Denmark for at least five years. Furthermore, the age condition to be eligible for the so-called "reintegration allowance for elderly persons" has been lowered from 60 to 55 years. In addition, this allowance was increased, and certain groups of foreigners can be granted additional payments. Finally, the municipality spending on repatriation grants and reintegration allowances is fully covered by state subsidies.

In February 2010, the Government launched its work plan "Denmark 2020", including goals for boosting labour supply and for strenghening the integration of migrants and their descendants into the labour market by 2020. To reach these goals, facilitations for high-qualified immigrants to work and study in Denmark are considered, as well as improved facilities and integration measures for accompanying spouses and children. In addition, in October 2010, the Government launched a campaign to combat residential segregation and social exclusion.

Since 1 August 2010, the Integration Act also covers newly arrived labour migrants, students and nationals of EU and EEA countries benefiting from the rules on free movement of persons in the EU. These groups will be offered a so-called "introductory course" (a lighter version of the integration programme for refugees and family reunified persons). Furthermore, a course of Danish society and Danish culture and history will be offered to all newly arrived refugees and immigrants covered by the Integration Act. In addition, municipalities must be able to offer employment-related activities to newly arrived refugees and immigrants who do not work and are supported by their spouse.

In October 2010, a new agreement – called the "Four-Partite Agreement 2010" – was signed between the Government, the local municipalities and the social partners. The main focus of the agreement is to improve training and education for the offspring of immigrants with a view to providing them with more opportunities in the labour market.

For further information:

www.newtodenmark.dk

www.workindenmark.dk

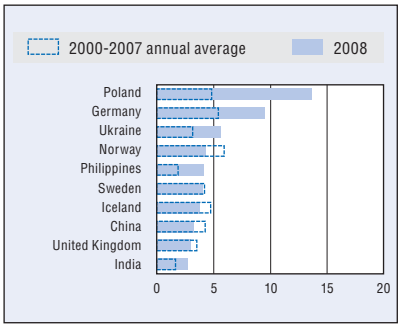
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

DENMARK

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.3	3.7	5.6	. .	3.9	. .	. .
Outflows	2.6	3.0	3.6	. .	2.8	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	6.0	6.6	13.1	17.2
Family (incl. accompanying family)	6.0	6.8	13.3	17.8
Humanitarian	1.5	1.4	3.2	3.6
Free movements	30.8	21.9	67.6	57.0
Others	1.3	1.7	2.9	4.5
Total	45.6	38.4	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	6.9	7.4	6.1	6.3
Trainees	1.9	3.1	3.1	2.8
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	2.6	4.2	3.7	3.3

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.4	0.4	*3 819*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	3.6	3.0	7.2	5.3	3.0	5.0	*29*
Natural increase	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.7	*8*
Net migration	1.7	1.2	5.3	4.0	1.5	3.3	*22*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	5.8	6.5	7.3	7.5	6.1	7.0	*414*
Foreign population	4.8	5.0	5.8	6.0	4.9	5.5	*330*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	7.3	3.8	1.8	2.0	5.3	2.3	*6 537*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	81.5	80.4	82.6	78.8	81.1	81.2
Foreign-born men	67.0	71.0	73.8	72.9	66.2	71.4
Native-born women	73.3	73.2	75.8	74.3	73.0	74.7
Foreign-born women	53.3	55.7	59.3	62.3	53.9	58.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.7	4.2	2.8	6.4	4.0	3.9
Foreign-born men	10.7	9.0	6.6	10.3	11.6	8.4
Native-born women	4.9	4.9	3.3	5.0	4.9	4.3
Foreign-born women	6.6	10.4	7.5	10.1	9.0	8.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.5	2.4	–1.1	–5.2	1.5	0.2	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.2	2.1	–1.7	–5.7	1.2	–0.2	*29 193*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.5	1.0	1.9	–3.4	0.0	0.9	*2 864*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.3	4.8	3.2	5.9	4.8	4.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441211

Estonia

There were 1.34 million people living in Estonia on 1 January 2011, of which 16% are foreigners. The vast majority the foreign population is longstanding and arrived to Estonia as internal migrants from different parts of the Soviet Union during Estonia's occupation until 1991.

In the context of the severe economic crisis which has hit Estonia particularly hard (a decline in GDP by 5.1% in 2008 and a further 14.9% drop in 2009), net migration has been negative over the past few years, albeit less than in the two other Baltic countries. According to Statistics Estonia, about 3 900 persons migrated to Estonia in 2009, while almost 4 700 persons emigrated from Estonia. The main emigration countries have been Finland (59% of all emigration in 2009), the United Kingdom (9%) and the Russian Federation (6%). The distribution was roughly the same over the past few years.

Since Estonia's accession to the EU in 2004, return migration has accounted for a large proportion of immigration to Estonia. In 2009, returning Estonian citizens made up about 43% of all immigrants, slightly less than in the two preceding years. There are several measures aimed at promoting return of Estonian migrants. Financial return support is available already since 1992 and in 2010, a specialised web site aimed at connecting Estonians living abroad with possible employers in Estonia was put in place.

Among the slightly more than 2 200 immigrants with a foreign nationality who entered Estonia in 2009, 23% (or 505 persons) were Russians. The other main nationalities were Finns (14%) and Ukrainians (10%). There were no major changes in the size and composition of migration flows compared with 2008.

After Estonia regained its independence in 1991 it was decided to define citizens of Estonia through legal succession in accordance with the 1938 Citizenship Act and thus established the principle of *jus sanguinis*. On this basis, Estonian citizens were defined as those who were Estonian citizens prior to 17 June 1940 (the beginning of the occupation by the Soviet Union) and their descendents. Others who were not granted Estonian citizenship on the basis of the above principle had the opportunity to become naturalised Estonian citizens, register as Russian citizens or apply for a citizenship of their country of origin (*e.g.* Ukraine, Belarus etc). There is a large group of people who have not determined their citizenship status by acquiring Estonian, Russian or any other country's citizenship. In 1992, shortly after independence, around 32% of the Estonian population had not determined their citizenship status. Estonia has put a lot of effort into trying to decrease the number of persons with undetermined citizenship by active promotion of Estonian citizenship and indeed, their number has declined, *e.g.* since 2002 by more than 40%. Still, by early 2011, this group represented slightly more than 100 000 persons, 7.5% of Estonia's population.

Persons with undetermined citizenship make up almost half of all non-Estonians living in Estonia on the basis of a residence permit (which excludes citizens of the European Union). Among the non-citizens with a foreign nationality, the overwhelming majority are Russians (almost 90%) and Ukrainians (5%).

Naturalisation numbers were highest in the early 1990s, peaking in 1996 with almost 23 000 persons, but have been declining since then. Since 1992-2010 more than 152 000 persons have become naturalised Estonian citizens. In 2010, about 1 200 persons were naturalised. After persons with undetermined citizenship living permanently in Estonia (90% of all applicants), the main groups were citizens of the Russian Federation and Ukraine.

Estonia operates a system of quotas for labour migration. The quota for the respective calendar year is set annually by the government within a maximum framework of 0.1% of the permanent population; for 2011, the quota has been set at about 1 000 persons, *i.e.* 0.075% of the permanent population. In 2010 the quota was set at roughly the same level and was fulfilled only by 82%.

On 1 October 2010, a revised Aliens Act entered into force. The changes were modest and mainly aimed at enhancing the transparency of the immigration system.

Like its Baltic counterparts, Estonia has not been a main destination country for asylum seekers; in 2009 there were only 40 applications. Most applicants for asylum over the past decade were from the Russian Federation (about 16%), Afghanistan (12%), and Iraq (11%).

For further information:

www.politsei.ee/en/
www.tootukassa.ee/?lang=en
www.stat.ee/en
www.meis.ee/tagasiranne-eng
www.sisekaitse.ee/eass/the-academy/emn/

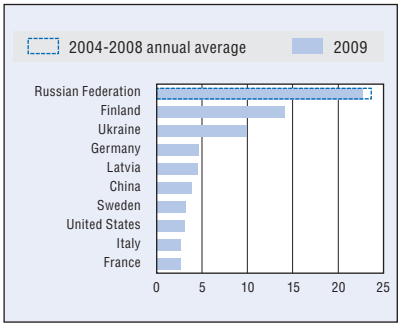
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ESTONIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	0.7	1.4	1.7	. .	1.3	*2.2*
Outflows	. .	0.5	0.4	0.5	. .	0.4	*0.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*36*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	18.4	17.5	16.7	16.6	18.1	16.9	*222*
Foreign population	20.9	18.9	16.7	16.4	20.0	17.5	*219*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	1.2	2.8	0.9	0.8	1.5	1.7	*1 670*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	62.2	66.1	72.6	63.5	64.6	69.0
Foreign-born men	70.5	73.4	80.5	68.8	70.2	75.1
Native-born women	57.1	61.4	65.7	62.4	57.8	63.8
Foreign-born women	57.7	65.6	70.0	67.0	59.1	68.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	15.3	8.9	6.0	17.3	11.9	8.7
Foreign-born men	13.4	9.4	5.4	17.7	13.0	9.6
Native-born women	11.8	6.3	5.2	10.5	10.1	6.3
Foreign-born women	11.1	11.4	6.5	12.3	13.1	8.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	10.0	9.4	–5.1	–13.9	8.0	1.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	10.5	9.7	–5.0	–13.9	8.5	1.8	*14 288*
Employment (level in thousands)	. .	2.0	0.2	–9.2	. .	0.1	*596*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	13.6	7.9	5.6	13.8	11.2	7.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441249

Finland

In 2009, according to national statistics, 26 700 persons migrated to Finland, which is 8% less than in 2008. Out of these immigrants, foreign nationals accounted for 18 100, a slight decrease compared to the previous year (19 900). The main immigrating groups came from Estonia (3 176), the Russian Federation (2 336), Iraq (907), Somalia (804) and Sweden (836). Preliminary statistics show that 24 600 people moved to Finland in 2010.

The number of residence permits for employment purposes decreased in 2009 by 42%, whereas the number of permits issued on the basis of family ties increased by 15%. Preliminary figures for the first eight months of 2010 suggest an increase for that year, in particular on family ties.

The number of asylum seekers reached a record high number in 2009, to around 6 000, a 48% rise compared with 2008. Most asylum seekers are of Iraqi (1 200) and Somali (1 180) origin. Preliminary data for 2010 suggest that asylum seeking is declining again; in 2010 there were around 4 000 applications, nearly 33% less than in 2009.

New amendments to the Aliens Act came into force on 1 August 2010. Provisions were added to the Aliens Act regarding a medical age assessment of minors. An examination will be conducted if there are apparent grounds to suspect the credibility of the information provided by the alien concerning his or her age. Participation is voluntary, but refusal to participate in the test without acceptable cause will result in treating the person concerned as an adult. Family reunification provisions were amended. A residence permit can be refused, if there is reasonable cause to suspect that the sponsor's own residence permit is based on false information given by the sponsor concerning his or her identity or family relations. The requirements for granting a residence permit to a minor on the basis of family ties were amended, so that the permit may be granted to a minor only if the chid is a minor on the day that a decision is made on the permit application. However, the permit may not be refused if the processing of the application has been delayed considerably for reasons beyond the applicant's control. The Aliens Act was also amended so that a sponsor, who has received international protection, is required to have secure income to be able to be reunited with his/her family if the family has been formed after arriving in Finland. Finally, restrictions were made to the asylum seeker's right to work. In the future, only asylum seekers with valid travel documents will have the right to work after a three months waiting period. Without a valid travel document, the waiting period is six months.

A new *Act on the Promotion of Integration* was adopted in Parliament in December 2010 and will enter into force on 1 September 2011. The Act will apply to all immigrants with a valid residence permit or whose right of residence has been registered. At present, integration measures only apply to immigrants who are registered as unemployed. The objective of the new Act is to expand the scope of application of the Act and to promote integration especially at early stages. Under the new Act, all immigrants will be provided basic information on the Finnish society and their rights and obligations when granted a residence permit. All immigrants are also entitled to a needs assessment regarding language training and to determine whether they require an integration plan.

The new Act envisages minimum standards for municipal integration plans and the integration programme will become part of municipal budgeting. Municipalities will receive computational state subsidies based on the number of refugees or persons under international protection allocated to them. The Centres for Economic Development, Transport and the Environment are charged with drafting a multi-year agreement with regional municipalities on the allocation of refugees. This agreement will, together with the integration plan, be a precondition for payment of state subsidies.

In addition, the new Act includes provisions for trials to study new models of integration training under the project *Participative Integration in Finland*. The objective of the project is to develop new models of arranging integration training. The aim is to find the most effective ways to assign people to the labour market or support the integration of those who are already in the labour market. The provisions for the trial included in the Act came into force on 1 January 2011 and will be effective until the end of 2013.

For further information:

www.migri.fi/netcomm/?language=EN

www.intermin.fi

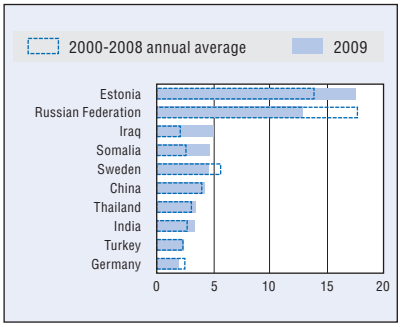
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FINLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.8	2.4	3.7	3.4	2.0	3.1	*18.1*
Outflows	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	*4.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	3.0	1.6	15.1	8.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	6.7	6.3	33.7	35.0
Humanitarian	2.2	3.0	10.8	16.6
Free movements	7.5	6.5	37.5	35.8
Others	0.6	0.7	2.8	3.7
Total	19.9	18.1	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	4.8	4.3	4.2
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	12.2	12.0	12.5	12.7
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	6.5	13.0	10.0	9.7

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.7	*5 910*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	1.9	4.0	4.7	4.5	2.5	4.3	*25*
Natural increase	1.5	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.5	2.0	*10*
Net migration	0.4	1.7	2.6	2.6	1.0	2.3	*14*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.6	3.4	4.1	4.4	2.9	3.8	*233*
Foreign population	1.8	2.2	2.7	2.9	2.0	2.5	*156*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	3.3	5.0	4.7	2.2	3.9	3.8	*3 413*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	71.2	71.2	73.0	69.5	71.0	71.6
Foreign-born men	49.9	61.7	73.0	66.2	62.6	67.4
Native-born women	65.3	68.0	69.3	67.9	66.8	68.5
Foreign-born women	39.0	49.7	58.2	62.7	48.6	56.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	10.3	9.3	6.0	8.7	10.2	7.8
Foreign-born men	36.6	22.4	11.0	17.9	23.6	15.8
Native-born women	12.0	9.4	6.3	7.4	10.5	7.8
Foreign-born women	21.3	22.7	19.1	14.6	22.3	18.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.3	2.9	0.9	–8.2	3.1	1.1	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	5.1	2.6	0.5	–8.6	2.9	0.7	*28 841*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.7	1.5	1.6	–2.9	0.6	0.8	*2 449*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	9.8	8.4	6.4	8.3	9.2	7.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441268

France

Permanent immigration excluding freedom of movement (that is, nationals from Romania, Bulgaria and non-EEA/Swiss citizens) reached a level of roughly 126 000 entries in 2009, down by 7% compared with 2008. This decrease stemmed as much from labour migration (22 500 entries), which dipped by 6% compared with 2008, as from family migration (78 100 entries), which decreased by 10%. This trend is due in part to the transition that followed institution of the "long-stay visa constituting a residence permit" (*Visa de long séjour valant titre de séjour*, VLS-TS) and which deferred the recording of some entries until 2010. In addition, the economic crisis affected requirements for the recruitment of foreign workers, and criteria for family reunification were tightened subsequent to the entry into force of the November 2007 law on immigration, integration and asylum.

Most non-European Union citizens admitted for permanent residence were from Africa (62%), and especially north Africa (34%). Roughly a third of the new permanent immigrants were from Algeria or Morocco. Asia was the second-ranking region of origin (19%), followed by other European countries (6%).

Following a database overhaul as a result of the latest legislative amendments, temporary non-European Union labour migration in 2008 was not comparable to that of 2009. In 2009, 14 600 new work permits were issued, including 8 000 new seasonal work permits. Over two-thirds of the new temporary work permits (excluding seasonal permits) were granted to immigrants already living in the country under non-job-related immigration categories, for example students.

In 2009, 50 700 permits were granted to foreign students, an increase of approximately 2% over the previous year despite the fact that recent data no longer include Romanian and Bulgarian students. The main countries of origin were China (9 900), Morocco (4 400), Algeria (3 400), the United States (2 500) and Tunisia (2 400).

The number of asylum seekers has been rising constantly for three years, while falling short of the record 59 300 applications registered in 2003. In 2009, more than 42 000 asylum requests were recorded, or roughly 19% more than in the previous year. This trend continued over the first two quarters of 2010 with an increase of 15% from the previous year. Nearly 10% of the applications were from Serbia and Montenegro. The other countries, in order of volume, were Sri Lanka, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Russian Federation, Turkey and China. In 2009, approximately 15 000 persons were granted the protection of France, including 4 600 accompanying minors and 2 450 persons qualifying for subsidiary protection.

The number of persons receiving assistance for voluntary departures rose in 2009 to 2 900 but remained limited in spite of the economic crisis. In addition, 12 300 persons qualified for humanitarian repatriation, including 10 000 Romanians, and 16 900 expulsions were carried out in 2009 (82 500 had been ordered).

Subsequent to the Act of 24 July 2006 on immigration and integration, "Welcoming and Integration Contracts" have been compulsory since 1 January 2007. In 2009, these were signed by 97 700 persons. This figure was down slightly compared with the previous year (103 900) because of a drop in entries, but also because of a slight decline in the rate of signatures (98.3% in 2009 versus 99.6% in 2008).

In 2009, 135 800 acquisitions of citizenship were recorded. It should be noted that the majority of acquisitions were by decree (92 000), and that acquisitions by marriage (16 400) declined significantly, due in particular to legislative changes (increasing the length of marriage required before applying for French citizenship).

The purpose of the Decree of 27 April 2009, which entered into force on 1 June 2009, is to enable foreigners in possession of a visa issued by diplomatic or consular authorities to reside in France for one year with all of the rights accruing to possession of a residence permit, while at the same time dispensing them, during this first year, from having to undertake any formalities at the prefecture. This simplification measure applies in particular to foreign spouses of French citizens and to other categories of foreigners in possession of a long-stay visa (for example, temporary workers and visitors and students).

A new immigration bill is currently being debated at the National Assembly and the Senate which aims in particular to transpose three European directives into French law (including the so-called "Return Directive", the European Blue Card Directive and the directive instituting minimum standards for penalties and measures against employers of undocumented third-country workers).

For further information:

www.immigration.gouv.fr

www.ofii.fr/

www.ofpra.fr

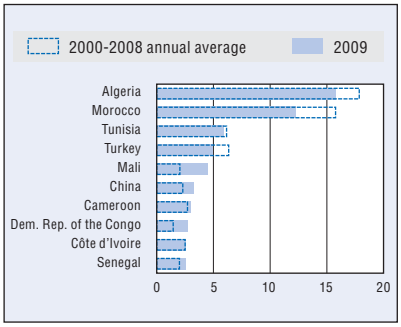
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FRANCE

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.6	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	*126.2*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	23.1	22.5	12.0	12.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	85.3	76.6	44.4	42.8
Humanitarian	11.4	10.4	6.0	5.8
Free movements	58.5	54.0	30.4	30.2
Others	13.9	15.3	7.2	8.6
Total	192.2	178.7	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	46.2	49.7	50.7	47.4
Trainees	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	16.2	11.6	8.0	14.4
Intra-company transfers	1.0	1.1	0.7	1.0
Other temporary workers	6.5	5.2	3.5	5.4

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.6	*42 118*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	6.9	7.1	5.4	5.2	7.0	5.9	*324*
Natural increase	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.1	3.9	4.2	*254*
Net migration	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.3	*70*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.1	11.0	11.4	11.6	10.5	11.3	*7 235*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*135 842*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	69.8	69.6	70.5	68.6	70.2	69.3
Foreign-born men	66.7	67.1	68.8	65.0	66.6	66.9
Native-born women	56.6	59.9	62.1	61.2	58.1	60.9
Foreign-born women	45.6	48.2	52.3	50.5	47.4	50.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.7	7.5	6.4	8.4	7.1	7.5
Foreign-born men	14.5	12.5	11.5	15.3	13.6	13.1
Native-born women	11.3	9.0	7.8	9.1	9.8	8.6
Foreign-born women	19.7	16.8	12.8	14.9	16.7	15.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	1.9	0.2	–2.6	2.1	0.8	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.2	1.1	–0.3	–3.2	1.4	0.2	*26 391*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.7	0.7	1.4	–0.9	1.0	0.7	*25 696*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.6	8.9	7.4	9.1	8.3	8.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441287

Germany

Partly as a result of the economic crisis, overall long-term immigration to Germany declined further in 2009 from the already modest level observed in 2008. According to data from the Central Foreigners Register, family migration continued its declining trend, recording only about 48 000 new immigrants under this title, the lowest in more than a decade. The immigration of ethnic Germans (*Spätaussiedler*) from Eastern Europe and Central Asia also continued to decline. Only 3 400 ethnic Germans entered in 2009, compared to annual averages of between 100 000 and 230 000 throughout the 1990s. This component of immigration flows is gradually disappearing, as is the resettlement of Jews from countries once in the former Soviet Union (about 1 100 in 2009).

On 1 January 2009, amid the crisis, Germany introduced a number of measures which facilitated immigration of highly-skilled labour to Germany. In spite of this, permanent-type labour migration from non-EU countries – which is essentially highly-skilled – remained very limited.

About one out of four permanent-type labour migrants from non-EU countries in 2009 were graduates from German tertiary educational institutions. Indeed, international students have evolved as a key source of labour migration to Germany. In 2009, more than 60 000 students entered Germany to study, the highest number on record. The Chinese account for almost 15% of international students.

Germany is among the OECD countries in which the demographic change is already associated with a decline in the working-age population. In light of the upswing of the German economy in 2010/2011 and reports of labour shortages in certain occupations, several proposals to further facilitate skilled labour migration have been discussed, but an agreement has not yet been reached. The debate has been fuelled by national statistics which show for both 2008 and 2009 negative net migration (including nationals). This, however, seems to be mainly attributable to comprehensive adjustments in the registers which took place in these two years.

To get more precise information on the country's labour needs, the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is currently developing a job monitoring system. First results are expected in the autumn of 2011.

Entries in the two main categories of temporary labour migration – seasonal workers and contract workers – remained broadly at the same level as in 2008. Both programmes were essentially for nationals from the new EU member countries, in particular Poland. Germany has applied the transitional arrangements for labour migration from the new EU member countries which joined the EU in 2004. These arrangements will end on 1 May 2011.

Following the low in 2007, the number of asylum requests has started to grow again in recent years. Preliminary figures for 2010 show a further strong increase of 50% for that year, to a total of more than 41 300. Afghanistan replaced Iraq as the main country of origin. Asylum seekers from Serbia were the third most important group, their number increased almost eight-fold in 2010.

Over the past few years, integration has gained increasing importance in the federal government's policy. The national integration plan is currently being further developed into a national action plan with clearly defined and measurable objectives. Eleven thematic dialogue forums have been set up to address key issues of integration policy to be included in the new action plan.

One area which has received particular attention is a better utilisation of the skills of migrants with foreign qualifications. A new law on the recognition of foreign qualifications is currently being elaborated. The new law will provide a legal right to a recognition procedure. Bridging offers for those who do not get full recognition are also foreseen.

On behalf of the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Federal Employment Agency, the Network "Integration through Qualification" has been developing and testing new labour market concepts over the past few years to increase the chances of persons of migrant origin to find lasting employment. Between 2011 and 2014 the network's tasks will be extended with the aim of consolidating the many existing labour market policies and instruments; ensuring a migration-sensitive approach to labour market policy by building intercultural skills among employment service personnel; and finally, developing a structure for the implementation of the planned law on the recognition of foreign qualifications.

For further information:

www.bmas.bund.de

www.bmi.bund.de

www.bamf.de

www.integrationsbeauftragte.de

www.destatis.de

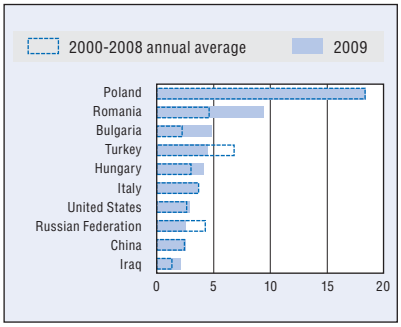
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GERMANY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.9	7.0	7.0	7.4	7.8	7.0	*606.3*
Outflows	6.8	5.9	6.9	7.1	6.3	6.3	*578.8*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	21.9	18.1	9.6	9.1
Family (incl. accompanying family)	51.2	48.2	22.4	24.4
Humanitarian	37.5	11.2	16.4	5.6
Free movements	113.3	116.7	49.6	59.1
Others	4.3	3.4	1.9	1.7
Total	228.3	197.5	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	55.8	58.4	60.9	56.5
Trainees	2.6	5.4	4.8	4.4
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	329.8	285.2	294.8	302.6
Intra-company transfers	3.6	5.7	4.4	4.8
Other temporary workers	63.6	34.5	32.2	43.5

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.3	*27 649*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	1.2	–0.8	. .	. .	0.8	. .	. .
Natural increase	–0.9	–1.7	–2.0	. .	–1.3	. .	. .
Net migration	2.0	1.0	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	12.5	12.6	12.9	12.9	12.5	12.8	*10 601*
Foreign population	8.9	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.7	8.2	*6 695*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	2.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	2.2	1.6	*96 122*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.8	72.6	76.5	76.4	72.5	75.0
Foreign-born men	66.3	64.9	72.5	71.5	65.6	69.1
Native-born women	59.6	63.2	67.6	68.5	60.4	66.0
Foreign-born women	46.6	49.1	53.7	55.3	47.4	52.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.9	10.2	6.8	7.2	8.4	8.3
Foreign-born men	12.9	18.4	11.8	13.8	14.7	15.1
Native-born women	8.0	9.8	6.8	6.5	8.4	8.1
Foreign-born women	12.1	16.8	13.1	12.0	12.9	14.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.2	0.8	1.0	–4.7	1.1	0.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.1	0.8	1.2	–4.4	1.0	0.8	*27 398*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.9	–0.1	1.4	0.0	0.2	0.7	*40 272*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	7.4	10.5	7.3	7.4	8.4	8.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441192

Greece

Data on immigration in Greece are not consistently available, but all major sources indicate that there has been significant immigration in 2009. According to the fourth quarter Labour Force Survey (LFS) in 2009, there were 840 000 foreigners living in Greece, a 24% increase over LFS estimates for mid-2008. According to the Ministry of Interior permit data, the stock of non-EU permit holders at the end of 2009 stood at 587 000, an increase from April 2008, when there were 432 000 permits. There were also 136 000 citizens of the new EU countries holding permits at the end of 2009. The largest group with permits were from Albania (414 000), followed by Bulgaria (55 900), Romania (42 000), Ukraine (21 600), Georgia (17 700), and Pakistan (17 100).

While immigration to Greece has contributed to population growth in the past decade, estimates from the 2010 Labour Force Survey suggest that this trend has come to a halt, mainly attributable to the difficult economic situation.

In 2009, according to official figures, about 81 000 migrants illegally crossed into Greece. The number rose to 92 000 in 2010. In 2009, the detention centre system was expanded and the maximum duration of detention extended to twelve months. In October 2010, the EU's external border service Frontex expanded its operations in Greece, first with an office in Piraeus, and later to supply additional guards to focus on the land border with Turkey, which had become the main crossing point in 2010. About 47 000 people crossed at this point in that year. Most people illegally crossing the Greek border aim to travel on to another European country.

According to UNHCR, the number of asylum seekers in Greece fell from to 33 300 in 2008 to 15 900 in 2009. This was due in part to a bottleneck even to file an asylum application. Few (1%) received refugee status. The number of applications fell further in 2010, although the backlog of asylum applications reached 45 000 in late 2010. In July 2009, the government abolished the asylum appeal system, and transferred status determination to the local police, which further discouraged applications. Due to the inadequate reception facilities and limited access to asylum, a number of other European countries halted the return of asylum seekers to Greece under the Dublin Convention. In January 2011, the Greek parliament approved an Asylum Law, transferring refugee status determination from the police to a new civilian body, establishing an appeals system, creating a first reception system, and transposing the EU directive on the return of illegally staying third-country nationals.

Applications for naturalisation in Greece have historically been low, due to high fees and a discretionary procedure. In late 2006, the Greek authorities waived the fee and discretionary element for applications for naturalisation from ethnic Greek Albanian citizens. The number of naturalisations increased from 10 000 in 2007 to about 17 000 in both 2008 and 2009. The vast majority (85%) of those naturalised in 2009 were previously Albanian citizens.

The citizenship law was changed in March 2010 to grant citizenship to Greek-born children of foreigners, or those with six years of Greek schooling, when both parents have been legally resident in Greece for at least five years. The law also granted local voting rights to foreigners with at least five years residence and a long-term permit.

A General Secretariat for Immigration Policy was created in February 2010 within the Ministry of Interior, Public Administration and Decentralisation. The Hellenic Migration Policy Institute (IMEPO), created in 2002 to provide policy support to the Greek government on migration, was merged into this secretariat as part of these structural reforms.

For further information:

www.statistics.gr

www.ypakp.gr

www.ypes.gr/el/MigrationSocialIntegration/

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GREECE

Migration flows (foreigners)	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level ('000)
National definition					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level
					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.8	1.8	1.4	0.5	1.5	*15 928*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level ('000)
					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	3.8	4.1	. .	3.2	. .	. .
Natural increase	–0.2	0.3	0.9	. .	–0.1	. .	. .
Net migration	2.7	3.5	3.2	. .	3.3	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level ('000)
					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	2.8	5.0	6.5	7.4	3.8	6.0	*840*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level
					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	2.3	2.0	. .	. .	*17 019*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average	
					2000-04	2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	71.3	73.5	74.0	72.7	72.1	73.6
Foreign-born men	78.1	82.6	85.0	80.5	80.9	83.2
Native-born women	41.6	45.7	48.6	48.7	43.1	47.6
Foreign-born women	45.0	50.2	49.5	51.1	46.8	50.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.5	6.2	5.2	6.5	6.7	5.8
Foreign-born men	9.5	6.7	5.0	10.4	7.9	6.5
Native-born women	17.0	15.4	11.5	13.2	15.6	13.3
Foreign-born women	21.4	15.6	12.3	14.5	19.5	14.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average		Level
					2000-04	2005-09	2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.5	2.3	1.0	–2.0	4.5	2.1	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.1	1.9	0.6	–2.4	4.1	1.7	*23 565*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.4	1.3	1.1	–1.1	1.4	0.9	*4 509*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	11.4	9.8	7.7	9.5	10.5	8.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441325

Hungary

Hungary is a not a major destination for international migrants, but a country rather affected by transition movements from east to west. The stock of foreign nationals is comparably small and makes up only 2% of the overall population. It is estimated that up to 40% of these are ethnic Hungarians who entered Hungary from neighbouring countries.

In 2008, long-term migration to Hungary (as defined by residence of at least one year) reached the highest level since 1991, peaking at 35 500. In 2009, it declined sharply to 25 600. This development is to be seen in the context of the economic crisis, which hit Hungary hard. Outflows have increased continuously since 2001, culminating at 5 600 in 2009. Net long-term migration thus amounted to about 20 000, a decrease of 36% compared to 2008.

Romania has been, by far, the most important country of origin over the past decade, although its share in long-term inflows declined from 50% in 2001/2002 to 28% in 2009. At the same time, the share of nationals from the EU-15 rose from less than 10% during the first half of the decade, to almost 20% in 2009. After Romania, the other main countries of origin for long-term migration were Germany, Ukraine and China.

As a consequence of the economic downturn and the associated tightening of the labour market, only some 28 200 work permits were issued in 2009, 34% less than in 2008 and almost 50% less than in 2007. Likewise, the number of residence permits issued for the purpose of "gainful employment" decreased by 20% to roughly 14 000. Family migrants obtained 4 300 permits, 11% less than in the previous year. In contrast, the number of permits for students rose by 13% to about 9 800. Since January 2009, citizens of the EEA (including Romania and Bulgaria) and their family members have full access to the Hungarian labour market.

In 2009, Hungary recorded 4 700 requests for asylum, an increase of 50% compared with the previous year. This was mainly due to a sharp rise in the number of asylum seekers from Afghanistan who filed 1 200 applications that year, a ten-fold increase over 2008. Kosovo was the single most important country of origin with 1 800 applications. Preliminary data for 2010 indicate a significant decline in the number of asylum seekers. By the end of October 2010, the UNHCR registered some 47% fewer claims for asylum than during the same period in 2009.

The Government decided to establish a pilot project for humanitarian resettlement, financed with resources from the European Refugee Fund. Furthermore, a programme to provide social and educational assistance to refugees aged 6 to 14 was introduced, to facilitate their integration into the Hungarian educational system. About 6 000 persons were apprehended for attempted or actual illegal border crossing at the borders with Ukraine, Serbia and Romania in 2009. Irregular migrants mainly came from Eastern and South Eastern Europe, as well as from Afghanistan, China, Viet Nam and Mongolia. The majority enters Hungary in their transit to Western Europe. Until 2013, Hungary will strive to enforce the protection of its external borders with the help of the EU's External Borders Fund.

About 5 800 foreign nationals acquired Hungarian citizenship in 2009, a decrease of 30% over 2008. Nearly 90% of the new citizens came from neighbouring countries, in particular from Romania (66%), followed by Serbia and Montenegro (12%) and Ukraine (10%). In May 2010, the Hungarian National Assembly approved an amendment to the Hungarian citizenship law that introduced a simplified and preferential naturalisation procedure for persons of Hungarian descent. To be considered, applicants need to demonstrate Hungarian ancestry and language proficiency, as well as a lack of a criminal record. Residence in Hungary is not a requirement any more. However, the voting right and the Hungarian passport are subject to separate procedures. The amendment came into effect in January 2011.

In April 2009, Hungary made a step forward towards a more comprehensive migration policy when the government adopted the "Strategy of the Co-operation in the Area of Freedom, Security and Justice of the Republic of Hungary". This strategy represents the official guidelines for the development of migration, asylum and integration policy for the next five years, and stipulates policy goals in a number of migration-related areas.

For further information:

http://portal.ksh.hu

www.bmbah.hu/

http://mfa.gov.hu/kum/en/bal

https://magyarorszag.hu/

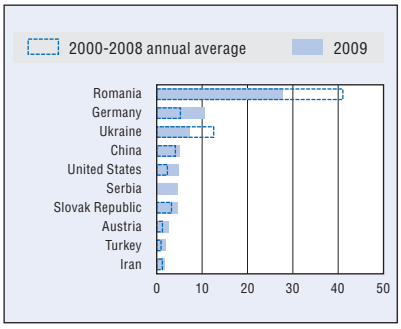
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

HUNGARY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.0	2.5	3.5	2.6	2.0	2.6	*25.6*
Outflows	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.4	*5.6*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	*4 672*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	–2.2	–2.2	–1.4	–1.8	–2.4	–1.7	*–18*
Natural increase	–3.7	–3.9	–3.1	–3.4	–3.7	–3.4	*–34*
Net migration	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.7	*16*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.1	3.0	3.7	*407*
Foreign population	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.0	1.2	1.7	*198*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	6.9	6.4	4.4	2.9	5.0	4.5	*5 782*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	62.6	63.0	62.8	60.9	62.9	62.8
Foreign-born men	69.4	72.3	72.9	74.0	71.4	73.1
Native-born women	49.4	50.9	50.4	49.7	50.0	50.6
Foreign-born women	49.8	54.3	58.3	59.2	48.9	55.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.3	7.1	7.7	10.4	6.4	7.9
Foreign-born men	3.5	3.0	6.3	8.6	2.5	4.9
Native-born women	5.8	7.4	8.1	9.8	5.4	8.2
Foreign-born women	4.8	6.4	5.9	9.6	6.2	7.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.9	3.2	0.8	–6.7	4.3	0.3	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	5.2	3.4	1.0	–6.5	4.5	0.5	*14 717*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.6	0.0	–1.2	–2.3	0.6	–0.5	*3 754*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.5	7.3	7.9	10.1	6.0	8.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441344

Ireland

Migration to Ireland has been particularly hard hit by the severe economic crisis touching the country. Between 2007 and 2010, net migration fell from 1.6% to –0.8% of total population. Irish employment and immigration levels reached peaks at the last trimester of 2007. Two years later, the country had lost 253 000 jobs, a decline of 12%. As a result, migrant inflows to Ireland decreased sharply from 110 000 in the year to April 2007 (FY 2007) to 31 000 in FY 2010.

Inflows from non-EEA countries have dropped steadily since 2004. The modest decline, from 25 000 in FY 2003 to 21 000 in FY 2007, reflected Irish policy of seeking labour market needs from within the enlarged European union. The subsequent decline, to less than 5 000 in FY 2010, reflects the unfavourable labour market conditions. The decline in inflows was even more pronounced among nationals from the eight countries from Central and Eastern Europe which entered the European Union in 2004 (EU-8). Their numbers fell from 53 000 in FY 2007 to less than 6 000 in FY 2010.

While inward migration came back to the low levels of the early 1990s, outward migration has increased to over 65 000 in both FY 2009 and 2010, leading to a net outward migration of 7 800 in FY 2009 and 34 500 in FY 2010. It mainly concerned citizens of the EU8 (30 100 emigrants) in FY 2009. For 2010, in contrast, estimates indicate that the main group was Irish citizens. 38% of all jobs lost in Ireland between 2007 and 2010 concerned citizens from the EU8. Their unemployment rate was the highest (20% *versus* 13% for the Irish nationals). Evidence shows that many of them migrated on to other destinations.

There were less than 2 000 applications for asylum in FY 2010, the lowest number since 1996. Among the factors influencing the decrease in recent years in the number of applications for asylum have been the provisions of the Immigration Act 2003 and the Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act 2004 that withdraw the automatic granting of citizenship based by virtue of birth on the island of Ireland. In addition, since December 2009, asylum seekers no longer have access to the Irish welfare system.

A review of student immigration started in September 2009 and reforms came into effect on 1 January 2011. The length of time a person from outside of the European Economic Area (EEA) can spend in Ireland as a student was capped to two years for language or non degree programmes or five years for the degree programmes.

In response to the difficult economic situation, the entry of new migrant workers from countries outside of the EEA was made more difficult. Since 1 June 2009, work permits for jobs paying less than EUR 30 000 per annum are only granted in "exceptional" cases and will no longer be issued for domestic workers and truck drivers. The labour market test was extended to eight weeks and now also applies to renewals and to spouses and dependants of an immigrant employee (except green card holders and researchers), these are required to apply for an employment permit in their own right according to standard eligibility criteria. Since January 2010, nationals of Mauritius, the country of origin of a substantial number of non-EEA immigrants, are required to have an entry visa before coming to Ireland.

Since July 2009, there is a fee of EUR 500 on the initial granting of long-term residency permission to a non-EEA national. Concerning immigrants who are already in Ireland, renewal fees for work permits increased by 50%.

In August 2009, several measures were taken that facilitate migrants' stay and economic activity. Those who stayed and worked legally in Ireland for at least five consecutive years continuously, and holders of green cards which were due to expire no longer require a work permit. The permission is for one year and can be renewed, but the holders of the permit are expected to work and support themselves. The time to seek alternative employment for unemployed work permit holders was expended from three to six months, and the labour market test no longer applies to them. 185 applications were received by the "Undocumented Workers" Scheme that allowed workers in the last quarter of 2009 who had become undocumented through "no fault of their own" to obtain a temporary immigration permission of four months within which they could seek legitimate employment or obtain an employment permit if they were already employed. The measure thus only concerned a small part of the estimated 30 000 undocumented migrants living in Ireland at that time.

For further information:

www.inis.gov.ie

www.entemp.ie/labour/workpermits

www.ria.gov.ie

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

IRELAND

Migration flows (foreigners)	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level ('000)**
National definition					**2000-04**	**2005-09**	**2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.3	16.0	15.3	8.7	9.4	16.3	*38.9*
Outflows	. .	. .	7.2	10.5	. .	. .	*46.7*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	6.0	3.1	8.9	7.9
Family (incl. accompanying family)	11.7	10.4	17.3	23.1
Humanitarian	0.6	0.4	0.9	0.9
Free movements	49.3	26.5	72.9	68.1
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	67.6	38.9	100.0	100.0

Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**
				2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level**
					2000-04	**2005-09**	**2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.9	1.0	0.9	0.6	2.3	0.9	*2 689*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level ('000)**
					2000-04	**2005-09**	**2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	14.5	23.9	. .	. .	16.8	. .	. .
Natural increase	6.1	8.1	. .	. .	7.5	. .	. .
Net migration	8.4	15.9	. .	. .	9.2	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level ('000)**
					2000-04	**2005-09**	**2009**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	8.7	12.6	16.7	17.2	10.0	15.3	*767*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level**
					2000-04	**2005-09**	**2009**
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*4 594*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**	
					2000-04	**2005-09**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.8	75.8	74.6	66.0	75.4	73.9
Foreign-born men	75.2	78.8	79.5	67.7	74.9	77.8
Native-born women	53.1	58.0	60.0	57.6	54.7	58.8
Foreign-born women	54.9	57.7	62.5	56.1	55.0	59.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.4	4.5	6.2	14.4	4.5	6.8
Foreign-born men	5.4	6.0	7.1	18.2	5.8	8.6
Native-born women	4.1	3.5	3.4	7.2	3.8	4.4
Foreign-born women	6.1	6.0	6.5	11.7	5.4	7.2

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average**		**Level**
					2000-04	**2005-09**	**2009**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	9.7	6.0	–3.5	–7.6	6.2	1.2	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	8.3	3.7	–5.2	–8.1	4.5	–0.8	*31 593*
Employment (level in thousands)	4.8	4.7	–0.7	–8.8	2.9	0.7	*1 917*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.3	4.3	6.0	11.7	4.4	6.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441363

Israel*

In 2009, there were 14 600 new permanent immigrants to Israel, a slight increase (6%) over 2008, but far below the level of the 1990s, when immigration averaged almost 100 000 annually. The main countries from which immigrants arrived were the Russian Federation (22%), the United States (17%), Ukraine (11%) and France (11%). One notable absence in inflows in 2009 was Ethiopia, which had provided about 11% of the inflow over the previous decade.

While permanent immigration is generally limited to entries under the Law of Return (Jews and their family members) and family reunification with an Israeli citizen (only 120 persons in 2009), Israel has a large temporary labour migration programme, under which workers may stay up to five years for employment in specific low-skill sectors or in specialist jobs. In 2009, there were 26 600 new entries for employment under this programme, a decline of about 13% from the 2008 numbers. The main sending countries were Thailand (19%), the Philippines (17%), the former Soviet Union countries (17%), Nepal (9%) and India (7%). The stock of legally employed foreign workers was about 90 000, mostly in care work (about 50 000), agriculture (26 000) and construction (9 000). The number increased slightly in 2010, due to a rise in the number of care workers.

There were also about 30 000 workers who had lost their right to stay, and up to 100 000 individuals who had entered with a tourist visa, illegally overstayed, and assumed to have entered the labour force. About 40% of the latter group are citizens of the former Soviet Union. Altogether, these workers were estimated to account for about 7% of total employment in Israel.

Israel also admits Palestinian workers for employment, on a temporary renewable basis. In 2009, there were about 22 600 Palestinian workers legally employed in Israel, although the government estimated that an additional 25 000 were employed illegally. In early 2011, the stock of permits for Palestinian workers was raised to 28 000.

2009 saw a significant number of Africans – 4 000 – crossing the border from Egypt into Israel, a phenomenon which began in 2007. An additional 13 000 arrived in 2010, bringing the stock to about 32 000. Most are Eritreans (61%) or Sudanese (26%), who are not generally granted access to the asylum process in Israel, but who receive a tolerated temporary status. Others may apply for asylum, although acceptance rates are low. In 2009, there were 810 applications, 30% from Georgians, 25% from Nigerians, and 14% from Ghanaians. To address the inflow of asylum seekers, the government plans to build a reception centre. In the meanwhile, in the absence of reception services, it is not enforcing the prohibition on employment of asylum seekers and those with tolerated status. The hotel industry is the single largest employer of these workers.

The main policy developments in 2009-10 concerned changes to the temporary labour migration management system, under which quotas are applied for the agricultural, construction and restaurant sectors, and employees may only change occupations within the sector for which they are admitted. While the government agreed on reductions in the quotas for construction (to be eliminated entirely) and for agriculture (to be gradually reduced), the full implementation of these reductions was delayed. The government objective is to train Israeli workers for jobs in construction, and subsidise employment and mechanisation in agriculture, to reduce dependence on foreign workers in these sectors. The home care sector remains uncapped.

In order to reduce illegal fee-taking and to ensure rotation, the government started a pilot seasonal agricultural worker programme with Sri Lanka in October 2010, under which 300 workers arrived in the first group.

Responsibility for immigration matters – enforcement, licensing of agencies, permit issuance and renewal, and refugee status determination – was shifted in 2009 from the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Labour (MoITAL) to the Population, Immigration and Border Authority (PIBA) at the Ministry of Interior. However, an ombudsman remains at the former ministry, and MoITAL continues to oversee labour inspectors.

Finally, a government resolution in February 2010 contained a commitment to develop a new framework law for immigration. Separately, an opposition proposal for a framework immigration law, specifying criteria for family reunification, refugee status, labour migration, and naturalisation, is scheduled to be discussed in 2011.

For further information:

www.cbs.gov.il

www.moit.gov.il/NR/exeres/8CD0F279-80FA-43A6-934B-35B28B0CDE1F.htm

www.piba.gov.il

* The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

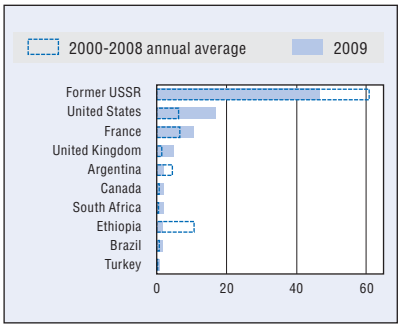
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ISRAEL

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	9.6	3.1	1.9	1.9	5.6	2.4	*14.6*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	1.4	0.1	10.5	0.8
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	12.3	14.5	89.5	99.2
Total	13.7	14.6	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	0.1	1.1	0.1	. .	0.4	*809*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	27.7	26.4	26.9	. .	27.2	. .	. .
Net migration	9.8	2.4	1.7	. .	4.6	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	32.2	29.1	26.9	26.2	31.2	27.6	*1 878*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	9.1	4.9	4.2	0.8	3.0	4.2	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	6.3	3.0	2.4	–1.0	0.9	2.4	*25 832*
Employment (level in thousands)	3.9	3.8	3.4	0.3	2.4	3.0	*2 782*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.7	9.0	6.1	7.6	9.9	7.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Source: Information on data for Israel: http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602. StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441382

Italy

Permanent immigration to Italy remains at high levels, making it the leading immigration destination among European OECD countries in 2009. Data from population registers show a 9% increase in the stock of foreign residents, to 4.24 million, including 407 000 new enrolments of foreigners from abroad. Preliminary data for 2010 show a further increase of 376 000.

Most of the increase was due to a 9% rise in the number of non-EU residents, to 3 million. While precise permit data is not available for 2009, entrance visa data indicate that most came for employment or family reunification. The number of entrance visas for employment was 136 300 in 2009, close to the 2008 level, although this includes some seasonal permits. The number of visas for family reunification, which had risen from 89 000 in 2007 to 123 000 in 2008, fell back to 107 000 in 2009. At the end of 2009, the largest groups of non-EU foreigners resident in Italy were Albanians (467 000) and Moroccans (432 000).

The total registered population of EU citizens, who are not subject to residence permits, increased by almost 10% in 2009, to reach 1.24 million. The number of Romanian residents rose 12%, to 888 000 (and a further 12% in 2010). Citizens of Romania and Bulgaria have unrestricted access to certain occupations, and this transitional arrangement has been extended through 2011. In practice, almost all occupations are unrestricted, and those which require authorisation are almost always approved.

Entry of non-EU citizens for employment is governed by annual quotas. Seasonal quotas have been kept at 80 000 for the past few years. Non-seasonal quotas dropped from 170 000 to 150 000 in 2008 (largely limited to domestic workers). In 2009, the quota was restricted to 10 000 places for training and apprenticeships. A quota was set in December 2010 to 98 000 entries, with sub-quotas by nationality and occupation. About 392 000 applications were filed, of which 65% were for domestic work and 9% for long-term care. The distribution of quotas at the provincial level implies that the total may not be used despite overall high demand (20% of the 2008 quota was reallocated in May 2009).

In January 2010, the Ministry of Education set a 30% ceiling on the enrolment of foreign-born non-Italian students in a single classroom. 3% of Italian public elementary schools, and 2% of secondary schools, had at least 30% foreign students in 2009/2010.

A bilateral agreement with Libya in May 2009 substantially reduced illegal migration across the Straits of Sicily. While 37 000 migrants were intercepted along the Italian coast in 2008, the number fell to 9 600 in 2009 and to less than 3 000 in 2010. The number of asylum seekers consequently fell from 31 000 in 2008 to 17 600 in 2009. In the first half of 2010, asylum requests fell a further 35%. In 2009, asylum seekers were principally from Nigeria (23%), Somalia (9%), and Pakistan and Bangladesh (8% each). Of the 24 000 cases reviewed in 2009, 10% received refugee status and 30% received a stay permit for humanitarian reasons or subsidiary status.

By July 2010, more than 176 000 permits had been approved for applicants for the 2009 regularisation for home and care workers, with one in eight applications rejected and 100 000 applications still awaiting processing.

In July 2009, a "Security Law" raised penalties for illegal immigration, restricted access to public services for undocumented immigrants, and tripled the maximum detention period for undocumented foreigners to 180 days. Fees were also raised. The law facilitated stay for graduating foreign students at Italian universities and the recruitment of high-skilled foreign workers. An Integration Contract was made compulsory for most new permits; while the contents of the Contract were announced in June 2010, it has not yet been applied. As of 2011, the long-term residence permit is granted only to immigrants with adequate Italian language skills, as proven by a test organised by the provincial representative of the Ministry of the Interior or through other documentation.

Applications for naturalisation rose 8% in 2009 to reach 61 300. A proposed reform of the citizenship law, which would have imposed additional requirements on applicants for naturalisation and facilitated acquisition of citizenship for descendents of Italians abroad, was introduced in Parliament in December 2009 and discussed in 2010, but has not been approved.

Further information:

www.interno.it/
www.istat.it/
www.lavoro.gov.it/lavoro/

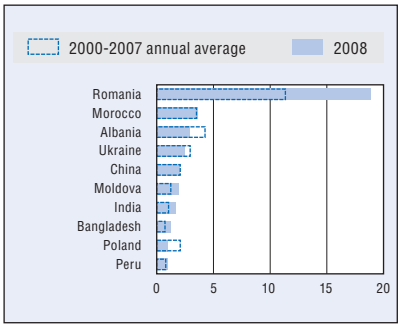
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ITALY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.7	3.6	4.8	. .	. .	. .	. .
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	145.1	130.0	29.7	35.2
Family (incl. accompanying family)	132.4	116.3	27.1	31.2
Humanitarian	10.0	9.6	2.0	2.6
Free movements	197.3	109.6	40.3	29.7
Others	4.2	4.7	0.9	1.3
Total	489.1	369.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	31.7	37.2	34.5	34.3
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Seasonal workers	42.0	41.5	34.7	39.4
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	*17 603*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.8	4.9	. .	. .	2.7	. .	. .
Natural increase	–0.3	–0.2	. .	. .	–0.3	. .	. .
Net migration	3.1	5.2	. .	. .	6.3	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	2.4	4.6	6.6	7.1	3.1	5.8	*4 235*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.7	1.0	*40 084*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	67.4	69.2	69.3	67.7	68.6	69.1
Foreign-born men	82.4	79.9	80.9	77.3	83.3	80.5
Native-born women	39.3	45.1	46.8	45.9	42.0	46.0
Foreign-born women	40.5	47.6	51.1	50.2	45.4	50.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.4	6.2	5.6	6.6	7.3	5.8
Foreign-born men	6.5	6.8	5.9	9.4	5.7	6.6
Native-born women	14.9	9.7	8.2	8.8	12.5	8.6
Foreign-born women	21.2	14.5	11.8	13.0	16.9	12.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	0.7	–1.3	–5.2	1.5	–0.5	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.6	–0.1	–2.1	–5.8	1.1	–1.1	*24 507*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.8	0.7	0.8	–1.5	1.5	0.6	*23 053*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	10.1	7.7	6.7	7.8	8.9	7.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441401

Japan

Inflows of foreign nationals to Japan in 2009 reached 297 000 (excluding temporary visitors), a 14% decrease compared with the previous year. The number of new entrants with the status of residence for the purpose of work totalled about 57 100, a decrease of 15 100 (20%) from the previous year. This has been the fifth consecutive year of decline in the entries of foreign workers. The most important category of entry for employment was "entertainers" (31 000). Skilled labour and intra-company transferees account for about 5 000 entries each, which represents a significant decline compared with 2008, by 21% and 28%, respectively.

A major group among temporary migrants are international students (65 000, up from 58 000 in 2008), about 90% of whom come from Asia, especially China and Korea. According the Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO) in May 2010, the total number of foreign students was 141 800, a 7% increase compared with the previous year and a 15% increase compared with 2008.

Trainees are invited to Japan, and the economic downturn lead to a decline in the numbers. The number of incoming trainees supported by the Japanese International Training Co-operation Organisation peaked in 2007 at 65 000 before falling by 6% in 2008 and a further 18% in 2009, to reach 50 000. The numbers for the first ten months of 2010 indicate a further decline, in the order of 5%. The number of status changes from trainee to technical intern remained stable in 2009, around 62 000. In total, at the end of October 2009, technical interns accounted for 112 000 employees, and students authorised to work for another 97 000 employees.

The number of registered foreigners slightly declined in 2009, to 2.2 million, about 1.7% of the population. The largest origin groups are Chinese (31%), Koreans (27%) and Brazilians (12%). The number of Brazilians in Japan fell by more than 14% in 2009, as reduced employment opportunities led some to return to Brazil.

Since 2007, employers must report when hiring foreign workers (except "special permanent residents"). According to these reports, there were 562 000 foreign workers employed in Japan at the end of October 2009. The bulk of these were of Japanese descent (so-called *nikkeijin*).

The number of overstayers hit a record high of almost 300 000 in 1993 and has decreased since then. It fell by a further 19% in 2009, to 92 000. The government attributes part of this decline to greater enforcement and new fingerprinting techniques introduced at the border control in 2007.

Although there is no regularisation in Japan, undocumented foreigners may obtain special permission to stay on a case-by-case basis. The Ministry of Justice issued about 4 600 of these special permits in 2009, a 46% decline compared with 2008.

In the context of the economic downturn and its impact on foreign residents in Japan including those of Japanese descent, the government of Japan established an "Office for the Co-ordination of Policies on Foreign Residents" within the Cabinet Office in January 2009. In addition, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare implemented several measures to facilitate immigrants' integration into the labour market, as well as return migration. In April 2009, the government launched a voluntary return programme, providing financial incentives to return to their home countries to unemployed foreign workers of Japanese ancestry and their dependents. Beneficiaries are barred from returning to Japan with the same visa type. This programme ended in March 2010. About 21 700 persons participated in this programme, the vast majority (93%) from Brazil.

In January 2009, the government released a package of support measures ("Immediate – Short-Term – Support Measures for Foreign Residents in Japan") for foreign residents in Japan, including those of Japanese descent, who are having difficulties in leading their daily lives in Japanese language, such as education, employment. Support measures – including the establishment of service centres in areas with high foreign population and language courses for unemployed foreigners, especially those with Japanese ancestry – have also been strengthened to support the re-employment of unemployed foreign workers. The package also included educational measures for the children of foreign residents. Amid the ongoing difficult economic condition, in April 2009, further measures were taken to support foreigners of Japanese descent ("Promotion of Support Measures for Foreign Residents in Japan"). Moreover, the Japanese government established the "Basic Policy on Measures for Foreign Residents of Japanese Descent" in August 2010. The Basic Policy indicates that the government should properly accept foreign residents of Japanese descents as members of Japanese society and prevent them from being excluded from society.

In March 2010, the fourth Basic Plan for Immigration Control was approved. The new plan includes strategies to favour highly-qualified immigration to Japan, both through recruitment and through increasing the number of international students. A target of 300 000 foreign students has been set, more than twice the current number. The plan also includes measures related to stricter border and residence control.

Further information:

www.immi-moj.go.jp/english
www.mhlw.go.jp/english/index.html
www8.cao.go.jp/teiju-portal/eng/index.html

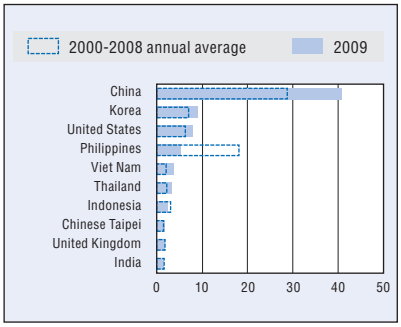
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

JAPAN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.7	2.9	2.7	2.3	2.8	2.6	*297.1*
Outflows	1.7	2.3	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.9	*262.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	33.7	23.4	34.4	35.7
Family (incl. accompanying family)	35.4	27.5	36.3	42.1
Humanitarian	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6
Free movements	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	28.2	14.2	28.9	21.6
Total	97.7	65.5	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	41.5	58.1	66.1	51.9
Trainees	83.3	101.9	80.5	92.1
Working holiday makers	4.7	6.5	6.5	6.0
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	4.2	7.3	5.2	5.9
Other temporary workers	110.2	45.6	41.6	61.2

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*1 388*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	0.5	0.4	. .	. .	0.8	. .	. .
Natural increase	1.8	0.0	–0.5	. .	1.0	. .	. .
Net migration	0.3	0.0	–1.0	. .	–0.1	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.7	*2 185*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.7	*14 785*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.9	1.9	–1.2	–5.2	1.5	0.0	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	2.7	1.9	–1.0	–5.1	1.3	0.1	*26 647*
Employment (level in thousands)	–0.2	0.4	–0.4	–1.6	–0.4	–0.1	*62 819*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.7	4.4	4.0	5.1	5.0	4.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441420

Korea

Long-term inflows to Korea declined by 22% in 2009 to reach 243 000. The decline in permanent-type labour migration, which had been the driving component of the growth in migration to Korea in the years prior to the crisis, was particularly pronounced. Only about 100 000 persons entered under this title, a decline by more than a third from 2008. Family migration remains limited in Korea and tends to be more stable. It declined slightly from its 2008 level of 33 000 to 29 800 in 2009. It now represents slightly less than a fourth of total permanent-type inflows.

Temporary labour migration to Korea reached 21 500 in 2009. This represents a 33% decline compared to 2008 and a 44% drop compared with the peak year in 2007. New entries of trainees and of international students reached 11 300 and 15 800, respectively. While the number of international students has been slightly increasing, that of trainees declined by about 18% compared with 2008.

The foreign population reached 2.35% of the total population in 2009, with about half of this total consisting of workers in low-skilled jobs (525 000). Many of them are persons of Korean ancestry from China and the Russian Federation. Citizens of China represent more than half of the foreign population, followed by citizens of the United States (123 000) and Vietnamese (91 000).

The total number of foreign students increased more than three-fold between 2005 and 2009, from 24 800 to 81 000. The number of highly-skilled workers and professionals also increased over that period, from 25 800 to 41 000, but it is the stock of low-skilled workers which increased the most, from 175 500 to 511 00.

In 2009, a total of 26 800 foreigners acquired Korean nationality. The number of naturalisations has more than tripled since 2006 and, for the first time in 2009, exceeded the number of Korean citizens who lost their Korean nationality (mainly Koreans who obtained US, Japanese or Australia citizenship).

The number of overstaying foreign nationals in Korea stood at about 178 000 in 2009, which represents about 15% of the total foreign population. The number had fluctuated around 200 000 over the past decade, but declined by more than 11% in 2009. In particular, the percentage of overstayers among the low-skilled foreign workers has declined with the introduction of the Employment Permit System and the opportunities it provides for employers to recruit low-skilled workers from abroad at normal wages and working conditions.

As of December 2009, about 125 000 migrants entered Korea for marriage, a slight increase compared with 2008. The vast majority (87%) were women. The main origin countries are China (53%), Viet Nam (24%), Philippines (5%) and Japan (4%). In practice, this means that despite the fact that only a little more than 2% of the Korean population are immigrants, the number of children who have at least one foreign-born parent in the future is likely to resemble that of a country with a much larger immigrant population.

In March 2010, the foreign workforce policy committee decided the 2010 quota for foreign workers. The quota was initially set to 24 000 for the period from March 2010 to February 2011. In light of the economic recovery, it was increased by an additional 10 000 in July 2010. At the same time, the quota for H-2 permits which is dedicated to Ethnic Koreans was eliminated. Most of the permits are allocated to the manufacturing sector (28 100).

For further information:

www.immigration.go.kr

www.eps.go.kr

www.kostat.go.kr

www.moj.go.kr

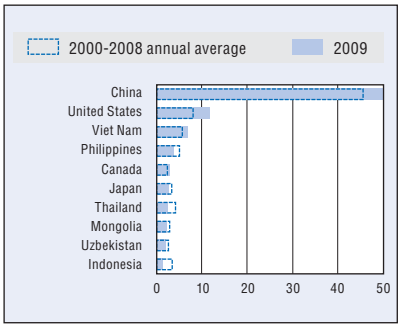
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

KOREA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.9	5.5	6.4	5.0	3.8	6.0	*242.8*
Outflows	1.9	5.5	4.4	4.8	2.6	4.4	*236.4*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	157.6	104.1	81.0	74.9
Family (incl. accompanying family)	32.8	29.8	16.8	21.4
Humanitarian	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	4.2	5.1	2.2	3.6
Total	194.7	139.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	9.0	15.1	15.8	13.6
Trainees	4.4	13.6	11.4	10.4
Working holiday makers	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	8.4	. .	. .	8.4
Other temporary workers	24.7	32.6	27.2	30.7

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*324*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	0.4	1.1	1.8	1.9	0.7	1.6	*921*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	3.3	1.7	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	8.8	4.0	2.3	0.2	5.5	3.3	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	7.9	3.7	2.0	–0.1	4.8	3.0	*23 407*
Employment (level in thousands)	4.3	1.3	0.6	–0.3	2.2	0.8	*23 506*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.4	3.7	3.2	3.6	3.8	3.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441439

Lithuania

The deterioration of labour market conditions in Lithuania has resulted in a 30% drop in total immigration in 2009, to 6 500, and a parallel increase in emigration. The number of registered departures increased by almost 30% to 22 000 persons. Preliminary data for 2010 show that immigration continued to decrease (5 200 entries recorded in 2010) and registered emigration increased strongly over that period, a total of 83 600 persons, but this seems, but this seems mainly due to the obligation to deregister to avoid payment into the compulsory health insurance. These official figures only reflect emigrants who leave the country for a period longer than one year and report their departure. The Labour Force Survey provides some estimates on the undeclared emigration. In 2009, undeclared emigration was estimated to have risen again, accounting for a third of the total outflows.

The net migration rate in 2009 was –4.6 per 1 000 inhabitants, the lowest in Europe after Ireland. In contrast to Ireland, however, negative net migration is driven by outmigration of nationals and not of foreigners. Lithuanians represented three quarters of both total inflows and outflows

Inflows of foreigners decreased by 44%, while outflows increased by 52%, leading to a significant negative net migration of foreigners (–3 900), in contrast to the period from 2004 to 2008 during which in- and outflows of foreigners were each of roughly similar magnitudes.

Since Lithuania joined the EU in 2004, the majority of emigration has been directed to the EU27, mainly to the United Kingdom, Ireland, Spain and Germany. Outflows to these countries represented 61% of the total declared emigration in 2009. It is worth noting that the flows to Belarus, the Russian Federation and Ukraine increased significantly in recent years, both in absolute and relative terms. They now represent 25% of the total in 2009, compared with 15% in 2005.

Inflows of foreigners are mainly from Belarus, Ukraine and the Russian Federation and to a lesser extent from China. Inflows of Belarusians which had almost five-fold between 2004 and 2008 fell drastically in 2009 to 440 persons (compared with 1 000 in 2008). In terms of stocks, Russian citizens still represented the largest community with 11 700 holders of a permanent or long-term permit in 2009, constituting nearly half of the foreigners with a stated nationality. The numbers of Belarusians and Ukrainians were 3 300 and 1 700, respectively. All three communities decreased in numbers compared with stocks registered in 2008.

Labour shortages as well as a simplification of the procedures for recruiting foreign workers had been contributing to an increase in labour immigration to Lithuania in 2007 and 2008. The number of work permits issued started to decrease in the second half of 2008 and in 2009, only 2 240 permits had been delivered, less than a third of the 2008 figure. Taken together, nationals from Belarus and Ukraine still accounted for more than half of the work permits delivered.

The Economic Migration Regulation Strategy, initiated in 2006, contained a number of measures to address domestic labour force shortages by encouraging the return of Lithuanian workers from abroad and by facilitating labour migration. Due to the economic downturn, most measures for 2009-12 were suspended or revised. The list of shortage occupations, which reached 60 occupations in 2008, was progressively reduced to only 6 by the second half of 2010.

Accession to the Schengen Area on 30 March 2008 did not result in the massive inflows of irregular migrants that had originally been feared. In 2009, a significant increase in illegal border crossings were registered (5 200 compared with 850 in 2008), but these concerned mainly Latvian citizens checked at the border without an identity card.

In October 2010, a bilateral agreement was signed with Belarus with the aim of promoting the development of social, economic and cultural ties between border regions residents of both countries. Some negotiations are still on-going with the Russian Federation to adopt a similar agreement.

Finally, a new citizenship law passed legislation in December 2010 will enter into force in April 2011. It allows for dual nationality under some conditions. Lithuanians who left the country before 11 March 1990 (Lithuania's independence), adopted children and children born abroad of Lithuanian parent(s) fit into the dual citizenship criteria. All children with dual nationality need to select one citizenship when reaching the age of 21.

For further information:

www.migracija.lt/index.php?-484440258
www.stat.gov.lt/lt/en

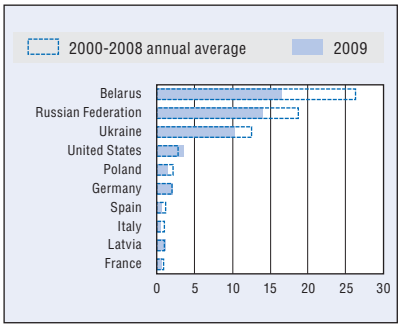
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LITHUANIA

Migration flows (foreigners)					Average		Level ('000)
National definition	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**2000-04**	**2005-09**	**2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	. .	0.6	0.9	0.5	. .	0.7	*1.7*
Outflows	. .	0.7	1.1	1.7	. .	1.0	*5.5*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	*211*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	–7.2	–6.5	–4.9	–6.2	–5.0	–5.7	*–21*
Natural increase	–1.4	–3.9	–2.6	–1.6	–2.7	–3.2	*–5*
Net migration	–5.8	–2.6	–2.3	–4.6	–2.3	–2.5	*–15*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	6.6	6.6	6.6	. .	6.6	*220*
Foreign population	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	. .	1.2	*37*

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	1.3	0.5	0.5	. .	0.9	*198*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	61.1	65.7	66.7	59.3	63.0	65.0
Foreign-born men	60.6	76.6	76.1	64.3	66.2	74.0
Native-born women	58.6	59.4	61.6	60.6	58.1	60.9
Foreign-born women	52.5	59.7	66.7	63.3	56.7	63.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	18.5	8.2	6.1	17.3	15.1	8.4
Foreign-born men	17.8	10.8	5.9	18.1	15.3	9.3
Native-born women	13.5	8.1	5.6	10.5	12.9	6.8
Foreign-born women	21.4	16.6	6.5	11.8	19.1	10.2

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.3	7.8	2.9	–14.7	6.9	2.3	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (level in thousands)	–4.7	2.6	–1.0	–6.9	–0.2	–0.4	*1 388*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.7	8.4	5.9	13.9	12.8	7.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441458

Luxembourg

Luxembourg is still experiencing population growth and in 2009 crossed the threshold of a half-million residents, 43% of whom are foreign nationals.

In 2009, 14 600 migrants entered Luxembourg. This represents a 13% decline as compared with 2008 entries, but it is still greater than the levels experienced prior to 2007. Portugal remained the leading country of origin, with more than a quarter of the entries. The breakdown of new arrivals by nationality has for that matter been particularly stable for several years.

The highlight of 2009 in Luxembourg was the entry into force on 1 January of the new law on Luxembourg citizenship, the main feature of which was to introduce dual citizenship. An immediate consequence of the law was a sharp increase in acquisitions of Luxembourg citizenship: from 1 200 acquisitions (options and naturalisations) in 2008 to over 4 000 naturalisations in 2009. Of these naturalisations, 31% involved Portuguese citizens and 20% citizens of countries of the former Yugoslavia.

In 2009, employment in Luxembourg rose at a slow pace as compared with previous years. The slowdown in dependent employment was observed in respect of both resident and cross-border employment. The latter was hit harder by the crisis. According to data from the general inspection of the social security (IGSS), the number of cross-border workers at the end of December 2009 was 145 400, down 0.4% from the month of December 2008. This drop in cross-border employment stems from a number of factors, such as a high proportion of cross-border workers in sectors affected by the crisis (industry, finance and business services, and especially temporary work, where cross-border workers account for roughly 80% of the workforce).

Luxembourg took in 504 new asylum-seekers in 2009. This figure represents an 8.9% increase over 2008, but it is still at a low level. More than a quarter of the asylum-seekers arriving in 2009 were originally from Kosovo, and 13% were Iraqi citizens.

Among the measures instituted to foster the integration of foreigners in Luxembourg was the Act of 18 December 2009 on access of European Union citizens to the civil service. By adopting this law, the parliament sought a general opening of the civil service while at the same time reserving jobs involving participation in the exercise of public authority for Luxembourg citizens, and it maintained the requirement for knowledge of the country's three official languages: Luxembourgish, French and German. To facilitate learning of the Luxembourgish language, the Act of 17 February 2009 introduced "language leave" – a special, additional period of leave to allow persons of any nationality to learn Luxembourgish or improve their knowledge of the language, in order to facilitate their integration.

In addition, a bill was presented which aims at establishing a legal framework to combat forced marriages or partnerships, or marriages or partnerships of convenience, and to empower marriage registrars to summon just one of the future spouses for an interview, in addition to the joint interview, if he or she has any doubts as to the legitimacy of a marriage.

The grand ducal regulation of 3 February 2009 on medical examinations for foreigners set forth the procedure and the content of medical examinations for European Union and non-EEA/Swiss citizens. Medical examinations are compulsory for the latter citizens applying for a residence permit.

For further information:

www.mae.lu
www.statistiques.public.lu
www.olai.public.lu
www.men.public.lu

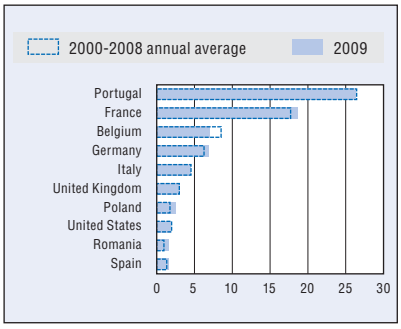
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LUXEMBOURG

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	24.7	29.8	34.7	29.7	25.8	31.3	*14.6*
Outflows	16.1	15.5	16.4	14.7	16.7	16.2	*7.3*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.0	2.4	1.1	*477*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.8	17.0	19.9	17.1	11.4	17.0	*9*
Natural increase	4.3	3.9	4.1	3.8	3.7	3.7	*2*
Net migration	8.2	13.1	15.8	13.3	7.6	13.2	*7*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	33.2	35.0	37.3	36.9	33.4	36.2	*182*
Foreign population	37.7	41.5	44.5	43.8	38.7	43.1	*216*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.9	0.4	0.8	*4 022*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.2	68.8	68.2	69.2	70.8	68.3
Foreign-born men	78.1	80.1	75.9	78.1	79.9	78.5
Native-born women	46.5	50.5	50.4	54.5	47.7	51.7
Foreign-born women	55.3	58.3	61.8	59.7	56.2	60.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	1.4	3.0	2.5	2.8	1.9	2.8
Foreign-born men	2.5	4.2	6.4	6.1	3.1	5.1
Native-born women	3.0	4.5	5.4	3.8	3.0	4.4
Foreign-born women	3.3	7.5	6.8	8.8	5.6	7.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	8.4	5.4	1.4	–3.7	4.2	3.0	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	7.0	3.8	–0.3	–5.4	2.9	1.3	*61 422*
Employment (level in thousands)	4.2	1.7	3.2	1.3	2.2	2.1	*220*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.6	4.7	4.4	5.7	3.2	4.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441477

Mexico

Mexico saw a significant increase in the number of permanent immigrants in 2009, with the level rising by almost 60% to reach close to 24 000. It is unknown what proportion of this is work-related and what is family-related. The United States, China, Guatemala, Colombia and Cuba are the top origin countries, each accounting for about 2 000 to 3 000 immigrants. Following declines in 2007 and 2008, the number of seasonal workers entering Mexico rose by one-third, to 31 000. Most are from Guatemala and Belize.

These movements are relatively small compared to the population of Mexico and in any event, are dwarfed by the emigration of Mexican nationals, mostly to the United States. Here, however, the recession and enhanced border control measures have led to a decline, with movements estimated to have fallen from over 900 000 in 2006 to about 370 000 in 2009. Most of the fall was recorded in labour migration, which went from almost 700 000 to 255 000, but still accounted for almost 70% of all out-migration in 2009. Emigration for family reasons fell by almost a half.

Attempts to cross the border with the United States also declined, as evidenced by the drop in apprehensions of Mexicans, which stood at 528 000 in 2009, almost 40% below their 2007 level. Removals or deportations of Mexicans, on the other hand, increased to 283 000, up 15% the previous year. All signals point to substantial reductions in cross-border movement between Mexico and the United States, with the evidence suggesting that the decline in outflows from Mexico being the main driver of the fall in net migration of Mexicans into the United States.

The economic crisis has had a substantial impact on remittance flows to Mexico, with a drop in transfers of USD 26 billion in 2006 to USD 21 billion in 2009, a decline of almost 20%. However, the depreciation of the Mexican peso (MXN) compensated in part for this development. By October 2010, however, remittances had fallen in peso terms by about 6% below their pre-recession peak.

Mexico has been carrying out regularisations on a modest scale almost annually since the year 2004. The requirements for the most recent one are that the candidates must have entered prior to January 2007, must have a legal job, be the spouse or common-law partner or blood relative of a Mexican or of a foreigner legally established in the country. From November 2008 to September 2010, more than 6 000 persons, most from Central America, had been regularised on this basis.

In April 2010, the new Manual for Immigration Criteria and Procedures ("*Manual de Criterios y Trámites Migratorios*") came into effect, with the intention of simplifying immigration procedures, applying information technologies to processing and improving the legal framework to reduce the discretionary behaviour of immigration authorities. The changes include the requirement of a personal appearance for a visa extension to give testimony under oath regarding their activity in Mexico, the introduction of immigration fees and greater restrictions on family migration of direct dependents. With respect to the legal situation of immigrants in Mexico, however, the most important recent change has been the decriminalisation of irregular migration in Mexico in 2008; it is now considered an administrative misdemeanour.

One of the most significant developments related to migration in Mexico in recent years concerns the movement of the powerful drug cartels into human trafficking. 72 migrants from Central and South America were killed in August 2010 some 160 kilometres from the United States border, after ostensibly refusing to be recruited into drug-smuggling. The kidnapping of and violence against immigrants in transit to the United States border has become relatively common, as some are held for ransom from relatives in the United States. Legal and enforcement measures have been strengthened to deal with the issue, but the problem remains.

Among legislative proposals before the Congress currently is a Migration Law to replace the General Law on Population and a Law on Refugees and Complementary Protection. Together, these two are to lay the basis for immigration policy for the Mexican State. The migration law establishes the conditions for entry and stay of persons in the national territory of the main categories of migration, as well as addressing the social, economic and cultural integration of immigrants in Mexico. The legislative proposal includes procedures for the regularisation of immigrants and for the protection of migrants within the national territory, especially unaccompanied minors and migrants who are in a situation of vulnerability.

The Law cites the government's obligations with respect to emigration, which include that of promoting international agreements to redirect emigration into legal channels and to dissuade Mexicans from emigrating through informal channels. It also refers to obligations to address the social impact of emigration on the communities of origin and on facilitating conditions for return migration.

Finally, in May 2010, Mexico announced that it would be admitting to Mexico persons who have a current valid visa to the United States, regardless of their nationality and provided that the purpose of their visit to Mexico was for tourism, transit or a business visit.

For further information:

www.inm.gob.mx/index.php/page/Estadisticas_Migratorias
www.inegi.org.mx/Sistemas/temasV2/Default.aspx?s=est&c=17484

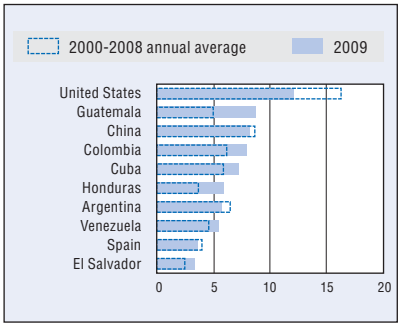
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

MEXICO

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	*23.9*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work				
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	15.1	23.9	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	5.1	. .	. .	6.0
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	45.5	23.3	30.7	33.5
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*680*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	13.4	8.9	8.3	8.0	11.4	8.5	*857*
Natural increase	19.8	14.5	13.5	13.2	17.1	13.8	*1 413*
Net migration	–6.4	–5.6	–5.2	–5.2	–5.7	–5.3	*–556*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	. .	0.7	*850*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	0.2	. .	. .	*260*

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	1.3	. .	. .	*3 489*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	6.6	3.3	1.5	–6.0	2.6	1.4	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.7	2.3	0.7	–6.8	1.3	0.6	*10 451*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.6	1.1	0.5	1.8	1.3	*43 375*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.6	3.6	4.0	5.5	3.0	4.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441496

Netherlands

In spite of the economic downturn, immigration rose slightly in 2009 to 146 400, the highest figure in a decade. 30% of these immigrants were Dutch nationals. At the same time, outflows decreased slightly for the second year in a row, reaching 85 400. Out of the emigrants, 60% were Dutch nationals. Overall net migration reached the highest figure since 2001, with a surplus of 34 500 after correction for unreported emigration.

In 2009, the main origin countries of new immigrants remained Poland (12 700) and Germany (8 700). The United Kingdom (4 400) replaced Bulgaria as the third most important sending country. Immigrants from the new EU-member countries which had joined the EU in 2004 and 2007 accounted for almost one quarter of the inflows (24 200). Altogether, EU-27 countries made up for more than half of the total inflows of foreign nationals (55 500).

Since 2007, Dutch migration statistics distinguish only for so-called "non-Western countries" (these are African, Asian and South American countries, including Turkey but excluding Indonesia and Japan) among migration motives. Among the roughly 37 800 immigrants from these countries in 2009, family migrants accounted for 17 700, a slight increase over 2008. In contrast, the number of labour migrants from these countries dropped from 7 000 to 5 000. Turkey and India were the two main origin countries of labour migrants, accounting each for 30% of that figure.

The Netherlands received 14 900 requests for asylum in 2009, a slight increase over 2008. In 2009, aapplicants mainly came from Iraq, Somalia, Afghanistan and China. Preliminary data for 2010 show a 12% decrease of asylum requests for the period of January to October, compared with the same period in 2009.

From 2008 to 2009, the number of foreigners who took up Dutch citizenship declined from 28 300 to about 23 000. In May 2009, the naturalisation law was amended with the introduction of three major changes. First, it is now possible to withdraw citizenship as a sanction to immigrants who have severely harmed Dutch interests. Second, the practice to immediately grant citizenship to children aged under seven who are recognised by a Dutch citizen was restored after it had been abandoned in 2003. Finally, the naturalisation ceremony now concludes with a "statement of allegiance" whereby the future citizen swears an oath to respect the values and rights implied by Dutch citizenship. In October 2010, a law came into effect that enables "latent Dutch" to acquire Dutch citizenship by option. This applies to children of Dutch mothers and non-Dutch fathers born before 1985, since they were not granted Dutch citizenship at birth.

Over the last two years, the regulation of family migration underwent several changes. As of 2011, a higher level of spoken Dutch and a written test is required for passing the Civic Integration Examination Abroad which prospective family migrants have to take in their home countries. Moreover, the possibility to oblige family migrants to participate in further education measures after their arrival in the Netherlands is currently taken into consideration. In order to harmonise the Dutch regulation of family migration with EU legislation, the Immigration and Naturalisation Department abandoned the legal differentiation between family reunification and family formation in July 2010. As a consequence, a common income requirement of 100% of the legal minimum wage was fixed for both categories. In addition, the minimum age for family migration was raised from 18 to 21.

The Dutch government is in the process of introducing a "Modern Migration Policy" that aims at simplifying the general permit system and at accelerating the admission procedure. Thus far, applicants have to follow a two-fold application process by submitting documents for an entry visa and for a residence permit. Under the new system, both procedures will be combined into one. In addition to that, the persons or institutions who recruit a foreign national will be given the status of independent sponsors who may request a residence permit on behalf of the actual applicant. Businesses and institutions can, upon passing a reliability test, become authorised sponsors and benefit from several privileges such as an exemption from the need to submit documents with the application. Possibilities to intervene against sponsors who do not fulfill their obligations will be enlarged. The coming into effect of the Modern Migration Policy was planned for January 2011, but was postponed until further notice in November 2010, due to a delay in the establishment of the computer system.

For further information:

www.ind.nl/EN/

www.cbs.nl/en-GB/default.htm

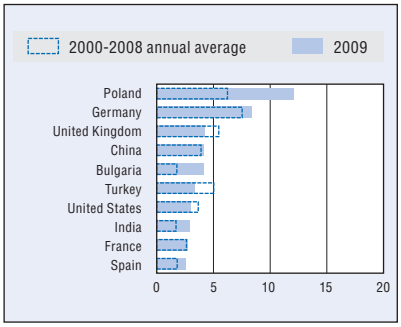
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NETHERLANDS

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.7	3.9	6.3	6.3	5.1	5.1	*104.4*
Outflows	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.1	1.3	1.8	*35.5*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	11.2	8.2	11.9	8.9
Family (incl. accompanying family)	20.5	20.4	21.8	22.2
Humanitarian	5.7	7.9	6.1	8.6
Free movements	56.4	55.5	60.2	60.3
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	93.7	92.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	10.9	9.0	10.0	10.2
Trainees	1.1	1.5	4.5	2.0
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	46.1	15.6	13.7	39.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.5	0.8	*14 905*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	7.7	1.8	4.9	5.4	5.5	3.3	*89*
Natural increase	4.2	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.8	3.0	*51*
Net migration	3.4	–1.7	1.6	2.1	1.4	–0.1	*34*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.1	10.6	10.9	11.1	10.5	10.8	*1 833*
Foreign population	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	*735*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	7.5	4.1	3.9	4.0	5.7	4.2	*29 754*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	84.0	81.5	83.8	82.9	83.6	82.7
Foreign-born men	69.9	69.5	74.9	72.8	70.2	71.3
Native-born women	65.6	68.6	72.6	73.0	67.3	70.9
Foreign-born women	48.8	52.4	57.3	57.1	51.5	54.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	1.8	3.6	2.4	3.2	2.3	3.0
Foreign-born men	5.4	10.8	6.4	8.8	6.8	8.8
Native-born women	3.0	4.4	2.7	3.4	3.1	3.7
Foreign-born women	7.6	10.0	6.7	7.4	7.4	8.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	2.0	1.9	–3.9	1.7	1.5	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.2	1.8	1.5	–4.4	1.1	1.2	*31 817*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.5	1.5	–1.1	0.7	1.0	*8 621*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.8	4.7	2.7	3.4	3.2	3.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441515

New Zealand

In total, net inflows in 2009/2010 equalled 16 500, an increase of one-third over the previous year. The rise in net migration was driven by more New Zealanders returning home and fewer leaving. In particular, some important changes were recorded with respect to flows to/from Australia and the United Kingdom, the two major destination countries of New Zealanders. The negative migration net balance with Australia was substantially reduced in parallel with the highest positive net migration on record with the United Kingdom. In contrast, fewer foreigners came in (56 100 compared with 63 400 in 2008/2009) and more left the country (25 400 compared with 23 300).

Permanent residence approvals remained stable in 2009/10 with nearly 46 000 persons approved. Since 2006/07, the planning level has remained unchanged at 45 000-50 000 approvals per year.

The two largest source countries (the United Kingdom and China) of permanent residents declined by 10% and 13%, to 7 800 and 5 900, respectively. South Africa, Philippines and India are the following three major source countries. While immigration of South Africans remained stable, immigrating Filippinos and Indians increased both in absolute and relative terms.

After an annual average growth of 14% over the last decade, the growth in the immigration of temporary workers slowed down in 2008/09 and decreased by 5% in 2009/2010, to 130 000. This is mainly driven by the large fall in the number of people admitted under the Essential Skills Policy, down 23% to 22 720. The Essential Skills Policy facilitates the entry of temporary workers to fill shortages where suitable New Zealand citizens or residents are not available for the work offered.

The admissions for seasonal work, subject to a labour market test, fell by 19% in 2009/2010. In contrast, non-labour market tested categories continued to increase – by 3% for the Working Holiday Workers and by 16% for the Study-to-work Policies. This later programme allows applicants who completed a course or qualification in New Zealand that would qualify for points under the skilled migration category to obtain a work visa or 12 or 24 months. Since 1 October 2010, applicants for the China Working Holiday Scheme (WHS) are now required to have their senior high school qualification and to prove their proficiency in English.

A new Immigration Act came into force in November 2010. It uses the single term "visa" for both the authorisation to travel to and the authorisation to stay in New Zealand. The terms "permit" and "exemption" are no longer used. Beyond the terminology changes, major changes have been introduced to the sponsorship regulation. The sponsor is now responsible for maintenance, accommodation and repatriation (or deportation) for the sponsored person. For temporary entry visas, this broader obligation is in place for the whole time of the sponsored person's stay in New Zealand. Furthermore, sponsors can now be governmental or non-governmental organisations, as well as individuals.

In late 2009, several amendments have been made to the student visa policy, with the aim of giving more flexibility to students who come for a short period of study (by delivering visas that allow to study multiple courses or that allow multiple short periods of stay over several years) as well as making it more difficult for students to change courses.

The Retirement Visa Policy was implemented in March 2010. This policy enables high-income people of retirement age to live in New Zealand, if they can make an economic investment in New Zealand.

The "Silver Fern" Policies, designed to bring young skilled people into New Zealand and to provide them with a pathway to residence, was implemented in April 2010. Under this policy, 300 "silver fern job-search visas" are available each year. When the policy was launched in April 2010, the available places for 2010/11 were filled within a half hour. When the successful applicants have found a skilled job which meets the requirements for skilled work under the skilled migration category, they receive a "silver fern practical experience visa", enabling them to work for up to 2 years in that job.

For further information:

www.immigration.govt.nz/

www.immigration.govt.nz/migrant/general/generalinformation/research/

www.dol.govt.nz/actreview/

www.immigration.govt.nz/migrant/general/generalinformation/immigrationact/

www.investmentnow.govt.nz/index.html

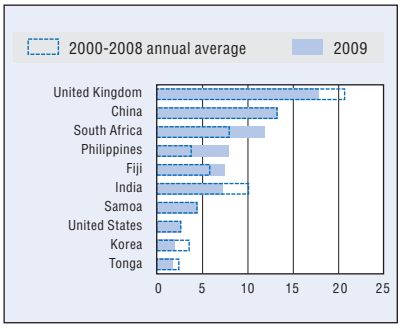
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NEW ZEALAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	9.8	13.1	11.0	10.1	11.1	11.4	*43.6*
Outflows	4.0	7.4	5.4	5.5	6.1	5.6	*23.6*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	12.8	11.6	24.7	24.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	30.4	29.3	58.8	61.1
Humanitarian	3.7	3.1	7.1	6.6
Free movements	4.8	3.6	9.4	7.7
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	51.7	47.2	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	70.0	73.8	73.4	70.9
Trainees	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.3
Working holiday makers	29.0	40.3	40.9	35.8
Seasonal workers	2.9	10.4	7.8	6.7
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	44.2	47.7	37.4	46.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	*336*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.6	11.4	9.1	12.7	13.2	11.0	*55*
Natural increase	7.7	7.5	8.2	7.9	7.2	7.8	*34*
Net migration	–2.9	1.7	0.9	4.9	4.3	2.5	*21*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	17.2	20.3	22.3	22.7	18.5	21.6	*981*
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*18 730*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.5	3.2	–1.1	0.8	3.7	1.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	1.8	2.1	–2.0	–0.4	2.3	0.5	*23 746*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.9	3.0	0.6	–1.1	2.8	1.4	*2 165*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.1	3.8	4.2	6.2	5.1	4.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441553

Norway

In 2009, the total inflow of immigrants to Norway reached 65 200, almost as high as the record level of 66 900 in 2008. Out of these, 87% were foreigners and 13% of Norwegian nationality. The decrease of the immigration flow in 2009 was mainly due to less immigration from Poland by 38%, to 10 450 immigrants in 2009. However, Poles still constitute the largest immigrant group, followed by Swedes. Overall, 58% of immigrants came from EU member states, and 31% from the new members in Central and Eastern Europe.

Due to the economic downturn, the demand for labour started to decrease in autumn 2008. About 16 500 persons from outside the Nordic countries immigrated to Norway with labour as the main reason for immigration, which represents 20% fewer than in the previous year. Two-thirds of these immigrants were from the new EEA-countries in Central and Eastern Europe, with about half of them from Poland. Since EEA-nationals no longer need to apply for a residence permit, but only have to register, the total inflow of labour migrants in 2009 is underestimated, and the actual share of labour migration was higher than 38%.

In consequence of the lower demand for labour, the number of work permits issued to skilled workers from countries outside of the European Economic Area dropped from 3 400 in 2008 to 2 600 in 2009. This decrease concerned mainly the sectors which suffered most from the economic downturn, such as retail and construction. In other sectors, such as the petroleum sector and shipbuilding, as well as health and social services, the number of permits issued continued to increase.

Among the 13 700 family migrants who entered in 2009, almost 4 000 came to establish a new family through marriage or partnership. Most family migrants came from Thailand, Pakistan, Turkey, the Philippines and Iraq and about half came to live with a person in Norway without immigrant background.

During 2009, the number of asylum applications increased to 17 200. This represented the second highest number ever recorded in Norway and the highest number of applicants per capita in the OECD. The main countries of origin were Afghanistan, Eritrea, Somalia, stateless (mostly Palestinians) and Iraq.

In 2010, there was a significant decrease in the number of asylum seekers, to about 10 000 applicants. This reduction might be linked with various restrictive measures that include a strong focus on return of persons whose asylum request was rejected. In 2009, the number of forced returns increased by almost 45% and reached 3 300. The number of voluntary assisted returns almost doubled to more than 1 000. During 2010, forced and assisted voluntary returns increased to a total of about 6 000. In addition, in July 2010, a system was introduced under which the amount of reintegration support offered depends on the time of application.

Almost 1 400 refugees arrived for resettlement in Norway in 2009, the highest number of resettled refugees since 2003. In 2009, Burmese refugees in Malaysia, Bhutanese refugees in Nepal, Afghan refugees in Iran, stateless Palestinians in the Middle East and Eritrean refugees in Sudan were favoured.

In January 2010 a new immigration act was enforced which tightened the requirements for obtaining family migration permits, in particular regarding subsistence requirements. At the same time, the right to family reunification has been strengthened for those applicants who were granted subsidiary protection under the previous act. According to the new Act, they are granted refugee status, and thus are exempted from income and subsistence requirements.

Every year in the period 2007-10, in connection with the presentation of the proposals for next year's fiscal budgets, the government presented a plan of action for integration and social inclusion of immigrants and their children. The attendance of children of immigrants in kindergarten has increased from 54% in 2005 to 71% in 2009. The participation in education or employment of Norwegian-born youth with immigrant parents in the age group 16-19 is almost the same as the majority population. In 2009, 96% of pupils with immigrant parents made a direct transition from lower to upper secondary education. More than 60% of the participants completing the introduction programme and Norwegian language instruction for newly arrived adult refugees in 2006 and 2007 were either employed or attending more education one year later.

For further information:

www.ssb.no/innvandring_en/

www.udi.no/

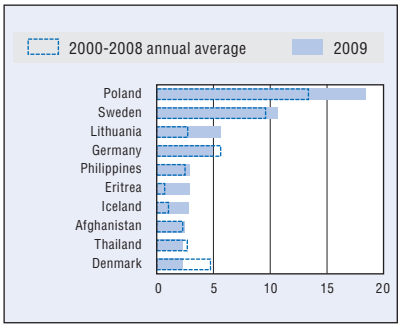
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NORWAY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	6.2	6.8	12.3	11.7	6.1	10.0	*56.7*
Outflows	3.3	2.7	3.2	3.8	3.1	3.0	*18.4*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	3.5	2.7	7.2	6.2
Family (incl. accompanying family)	12.0	12.3	24.6	28.5
Humanitarian	4.8	6.2	9.7	14.4
Free movements	28.6	22.0	58.5	50.9
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	48.9	43.1	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	4.3	5.9	5.8	5.2
Trainees	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Working holiday makers	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Seasonal workers	22.7	35.3	10.9	28.3
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.5
Other temporary workers	2.1	1.7	1.5	2.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.4	1.2	3.0	3.6	3.0	2.1	*17 226*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.6	7.4	13.0	12.2	5.6	10.7	*59*
Natural increase	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.3	3.0	3.8	*21*
Net migration	2.0	3.9	9.0	8.1	2.6	6.9	*39*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	6.8	8.2	10.3	10.9	7.3	9.5	*527*
Foreign population	4.1	4.8	6.4	6.9	4.3	5.8	*334*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	5.2	5.7	3.4	3.4	4.6	4.6	*11 442*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	82.3	78.8	80.5	79.0	80.4	79.4
Foreign-born men	74.6	67.0	77.3	71.8	73.4	72.2
Native-born women	74.6	72.9	75.8	75.1	74.2	74.3
Foreign-born women	63.5	59.8	70.6	66.4	63.5	65.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.4	4.0	2.4	2.9	3.8	2.9
Foreign-born men	6.8	12.5	6.6	10.2	8.5	8.9
Native-born women	3.2	3.9	2.2	2.2	3.6	2.7
Foreign-born women	5.3	8.5	4.3	6.6	6.8	6.2

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.3	2.7	0.8	–1.4	2.3	1.4	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	2.6	2.1	–0.6	–2.6	1.7	0.4	*39 138*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.4	0.6	3.3	–0.6	0.1	2.0	*2 508*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	3.4	4.6	2.6	3.2	4.0	3.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441534

Poland

Registered migration inflows to Poland increased by almost 15% in 2009, to around 17 400, while outflows decreased by 38%, to about 18 600. This resulted in a significant change in net migration, which remained negative but amounted to 1 200 persons, a reduction by more than ten times in absolute value compared with 2008 and by almost 30 times compared with 2006.

The drop in the outflow from Poland recorded by the Central Population Register reflects permanent emigration, that is, Polish citizens who deregister. Estimations by the Central Statistical Office of Poland suggest that the total number of Polish citizens who have been staying abroad for longer than three months declined by about 15% in 2009. The main destination countries for the outflows from Poland continue to be within the EU, especially the United Kingdom and Germany. The United Kingdom and Germany were also the two main origin countries of new permanent immigrants registered in Poland in 2009.

In 2009, the number new issuances of work permits, most of which are for temporary labour migration, rose by almost two-thirds, to 29 300. One-third of these concerned Ukrainians. China, Viet Nam, Belarus and Turkey followed as the other main countries of origin.

The number of persons seeking asylum in Poland increased by 24% in 2009 compared with 2008, and at close to 11 600, reached its highest level ever. In 2009, 94% of asylum seekers in Poland came from only two countries, the Russian Federation and Georgia. While the Russian Federation has traditionally been the main origin country of asylum seekers, the number of asylum seekers from Georgia rose from less than 100 in 2008 to more than 4 200 in 2009.

In 2010, the inter-ministerial Working Group on Migration Strategy adopted the "Polish migration policy – current state and prospects" which sets out recommendations for a new migration policy for Poland. The document is expected to form the basis for a New Foreigners Act. Among the main recommendations is the introduction of a migration policy according to labour market needs with a broader set of privileged categories (including migrant workers with needed skills, self-employed, students and researchers as well as immigrants of Polish descent), a clear pathway for regularisation for irregular migrants, as well as the implementation of a new strategy for integration focused at enhancing Polish language knowledge among immigrants. Other recommendations relate to the strengthening of the ties of Polish emigrants with Poland and at facilitating the re-insertion of return migrants. In addition, the document proposes the establishment of a single immigration office, by extending the competences of the current Foreigners' Office. The creation of a comprehensive system for monitoring migration is also envisaged.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Policy decided in 2010 to extend indefinitely a pilot programme, introduced in mid-2007, which simplified the rules for short-term employment of citizens of Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, the Russian Federation and Ukraine on the basis of declarations of Polish employers. The provisions give these foreigners the right to work for six months during a year without a work permit.

In November 2010, a bilateral Local Border Traffic Agreement between Poland and Belarus was ratified, and should enter into force in April 2011. Under this agreement, permits allowing for visa-free border crossing and maximum 60 days stay in the area can be issued to persons who are able to prove that they lived in the border region for no less than 3 years. The annual number of applications under a similar agreement with Ukraine, which entered into force in July 2009, has been around 50 000.

In January 2010, new provisions which aimed at facilitating the integration of foreign children into the Polish school system came into force. The amendments include a right to a year-long assistance during school classes for foreign pupils who have difficulties with the Polish language. The right of foreign students to free-of-charge education, which applied previously only to primary and lower secondary schools, has been extended to general secondary, technical secondary and basic vocational public schools.

A bill on repatriation was introduced at the Polish parliament in September 2010, following a petition procedure, and it is currently pending for examination. The aim of this *civil bill* is to facilitate the resettlement in Poland of foreigners of Polish origin who meet certain conditions.

For further information:

www.udsc.gov.pl/

www.stat.gov.pl

www.mpips.gov.pl

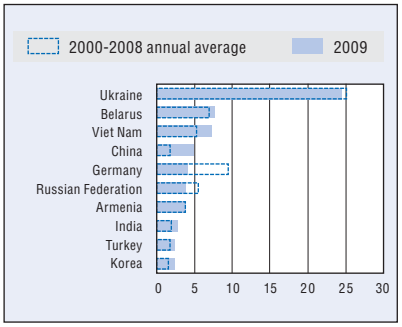
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

POLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.4	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.7	1.0	*41.3*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	*10 587*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	–0.2	–0.4	0.5	. .	–0.5	. .	. .
Natural increase	0.3	–0.1	0.9	. .	–0.1	. .	. .
Net migration	–0.5	–0.3	–0.4	. .	–0.4	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	. .	. .	0.2	0.1	. .	. .	*50*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	1.7	5.0	. .	. .	*2 503*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	59.0	66.4	66.2	. .	63.2
Foreign-born men	. .	35.9	51.4	53.8	. .	46.3
Native-born women	. .	47.0	52.4	52.8	. .	50.2
Foreign-born women	. .	24.0	35.7	39.4	. .	31.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	16.9	6.5	7.9	. .	10.7
Foreign-born men	. .	10.2	2.6	12.2	. .	8.5
Native-born women	. .	19.4	8.0	8.7	. .	12.4
Foreign-born women	. .	15.3	8.5	10.9	. .	10.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.3	3.6	5.1	1.7	3.2	4.7	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.3	3.7	5.1	1.6	3.3	4.7	*14 950*
Employment (level in thousands)	–1.5	2.3	3.7	0.4	–1.3	2.8	*15 868*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.1	17.7	7.1	8.2	18.6	11.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441572

Portugal

Exact data on migration flows for Portugal continue to be difficult to obtain, because available sources mix different situations (*e.g.* new entries and status changes) and are unable to register the full magnitude of some inflows, namely the one of EU nationals. Estimates based on new residence permits and long-term visas suggest that in spite of the difficult economic situation in Portugal, overall migration inflows were slightly higher in 2009 than in 2008 (34 000 compared with 32 000). The National Statistics Institute (INE) estimates of net migration was positive, albeit at a low level of about 15 000.

The number of long-term visas issued for citizens from non-EEA countries continued to decline in 2009, to less than 16 000, the lowest value since 2003. Study and family visas account for over one-third each, while work visas account for less than 20% – approximately 3 000, a value below the 3 800 indicative quota established by the government. Immigration from lusophone countries – in particular from Brazil and Cape Verde – re-gained importance. Most visas were issued to citizens from the lusophone countries of Africa (PALOP) (39%), Brazil (19%), non-EU Eastern Europe (14%) and China (8%).

Between 2008 and 2009, the number of new residence permits issued in Portugal declined from 72 800 to 61 400. This figure, which includes EU and non-EU foreigners, is not equivalent to the inflow because some of the later are people who changed their status or regularised their situation on a case-by-case procedure. Despite the decline observed from 2008 to 2009, Brazilians (39%) account for the majority of these residence permits, followed by Romanians (13%; in 2008 they represented around 7%), Cape Verdeans (8%), Ukrainians (4%) and Chinese (3%).

The total stock of foreign population reached 457 000 in 2009, from 443 000 in 2008. The largest group were Brazilians (who account for 26% of the total foreign population with a valid residence permit), followed by Ukrainians (12%) and Cape Verdeans (11%).

Portugal is among the countries which receive the lowest number of asylum applications in the OECD. In 2009, only 139 asylum applications were received, a further drop from the 161 applications received in 2008.

No major changes occurred in migration policies in Portugal in 2009, after comprehensive reforms in 2006 (Nationality Law), in 2007 (Foreigners Law) and in 2008 (Asylum Law).

Following the reform of the Portuguese Nationality Law in 2006, the number of naturalisations continued increasing and reached a new peak of 25 500 in 2009, more than seven times the 2006 level. The majority of the naturalisations originates from the PALOP (about 40%), in particular from Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau and Angola, and from Brazil (approximately 15%). These immigrant communities have been living on average longer in Portugal (and thus are more likely to satisfy the required six years of legal residence) and also automatically satisfy the Portuguese language requirement. Nevertheless, the weight of other groups, such as Moldavians (about 11%), Ukrainians (4%) and Indians (4%), is increasing.

An overall guidance target for non-EU labour migration was established after the elimination of sector-specific numerical limits in 2007. This quota was reduced from 8 500 in 2008 to 3 800 in 2009, but nevertheless it was not reached, since only 3 000 visas were requested on this basis. Following the new Migration Law which entered into force in 2007, irregular migrants can regularise their status on a case-by-case basis. The requirements are to have legally entered Portugal, to have a work contract and to pay Social Security contributions. By the end of 2009, more than 50 000 migrants had regularised their situation through this framework.

Integration of immigrants remained a policy priority in 2009, following the guidelines defined in the National Plan for the Integration of Immigrants established in 2007. Among other measures, the network of Local Centres for Immigrant Support was expanded in and a new "one stop shop for immigrants" was created in Faro in 2009. In the domain of Portuguese language tuition, the Programme "Portuguese for All (PPT)" involved more than 1 600 foreign trainees until May 2009. A diploma in the Portuguese language through this programme exempts foreigners from the Portuguese test required for obtaining Portuguese citizenship or a permanent residence permit.

For further information:

www.imigrante.pt

www.sef.pt

www.acidi.gov.pt

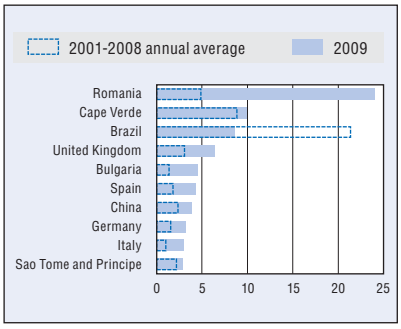
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

PORTUGAL

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.6	2.7	3.0	3.2	5.9	2.8	*33.8*
Outflows	0.0	0.0	. .	. .	0.0	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	23.4	18.3	35.5	30.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	26.1	19.9	39.6	33.3
Humanitarian	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
Free movements	14.8	18.0	22.5	30.0
Others	1.5	3.7	2.3	6.2
Total	65.9	59.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2005-09**
Thousands				
International students	4.1	5.0	. .	4.7
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	7.7	3.4	3.4	5.4

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*139*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	6.1	3.9	0.8	1.0	6.4	2.1	*11*
Natural increase	1.5	0.2	0.1	–0.5	0.8	0.0	*–5*
Net migration	4.6	3.6	0.8	1.4	5.7	2.0	*15*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level ('000) 2009**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	5.1	6.3	6.1	6.3	6.3	6.2	*673*
Foreign population	2.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	3.7	4.2	*457*

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Percentage of the foreign population	0.3	0.2	5.1	6.3	0.3	2.8	*28 888*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.2	73.1	73.4	70.8	75.7	72.9
Foreign-born men	75.5	78.1	80.5	74.8	78.1	77.9
Native-born women	60.2	61.2	62.0	61.2	61.0	61.5
Foreign-born women	65.1	67.3	68.0	65.6	65.8	67.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.1	7.0	6.8	9.0	4.2	7.3
Foreign-born men	6.0	8.3	7.8	13.2	6.8	9.0
Native-born women	4.9	9.1	9.1	10.5	6.1	9.6
Foreign-born women	6.9	10.4	11.2	13.0	8.2	11.6

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**2009**	**Average 2000-04**	**Average 2005-09**	**Level 2009**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	0.8	0.0	–2.5	1.4	0.4	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.4	0.3	–0.1	–2.6	0.8	0.2	*17 994*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.3	0.1	0.6	–2.7	0.9	–0.2	*5 025*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.0	7.7	7.6	9.5	5.2	8.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441591

Romania

The accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007 was accompanied by a significant increase in migration movements. Romania's migration pattern is mainly characterised by emigration. The number of Romanians working abroad in 2009 is estimated to be around 3 million persons. However, data on emigration of Romanian citizens or persons born in Romania is limited.

Only a small fraction of actual outflows is captured by officially registered emigration. The number of newly registered emigrants increased in 2009 by 17%, to 10 000. The main destination countries of officially registered emigration are Canada (20%), Germany (19%), and the United States (18%).

A better approximation of actual emigration is provided by the statistics of the main destination countries. For example, the Romanian population residing in Italy increased by around 90 000 (to a total of 887 800) in 2009, and the corresponding increase in Spain has been 33 000 (to a total of 751 700).

The National Agency for Employment mediates temporary labour emigration through bilateral employment agreements. In 2009, it has mediated 111 000 persons in 2009 based on bilateral employment agreements, while in the same period of 2008 the number of workers mediated was only 52 400. Virtually all of the employment contracts relate to Germany.

Remittances flows to Romania are the largest in the EU. Romanians abroad remitted more than EUR 3 billion in 2009, which is a decline of more than 40% compared with 2008. About two-thirds of remittance flows to Romania in recent years were from Italy and Spain, the two countries with the largest Romanian migrant populations.

According to the Romanian Office for Immigration, the immigrant population in Romania increased from 2008 to 2009 by 4%, to a total of 88 500. Most immigrants legally staying in Romania in June 2010 are non-EU citizens, mainly from Moldova (21%), Turkey (11%) and China (15%). The main immigrants from EU countries originate from Italy and Germany (7% and 6%, respectively).

In light of the economic downturn, the Romanian government tried to regulate immigration inflows by reducing the limits for work authorisations (to 8 000 in 2009 compared with 15 000 in 2008). Nevertheless, despite the reduction of work authorisations, actual admissions were well below that figure. According to the Romanian Office for Immigration, 4 200 work permits were issued in 2009, a decrease by over 60% compared with the previous year. The work permits were mainly granted for permanent workers (61%) and posted workers (34%). Most immigrant workers come from Turkey (28%) and China (28%).

In 2009, there were about 830 asylum applications submitted in Romania, a decrease of about one-fourth compared with 2008. Most of these applications were submitted from citizens of Moldova (15%), Pakistan (12%) and Afghanistan (9%). Preliminary data for 2010 suggest a slight increase in asylum applications.

The accession to the Schengen area represents a main strategic objective of Romania in the area of migration policy. Schengen standards include strengthening border controls with non-member states, provisions on a common policy on the temporary entry of persons (including the Schengen visa), the harmonisation of external border controls, and cross-border police and judicial co-operation. In this process, Romanian state institutions co-operated and took action for drafting coherent programs, for co-ordinating and monitoring activities related to the implementation and meeting of Schengen standards. In January 2011, Romania passed the last stage of technical procedures which Romania had to follow in order to access the Schengen area. However, Romania's admission to the Schengen system, originally foreseen for March 2011, has been postponed as no consensus on this issue has yet been reached by the present Schengen member countries.

Finally, in 2010, the government proposed new legislation which transposes a number of EU directives. The legislative procedure is still ongoing. If accepted, the new legislative framework would bring a number of significant changes in the administrative procedures related to the facilitation of labour migration, combating irregular migration, and the stay and residence of foreigners in Romania. Among other changes, it is foreseen to provide all foreigners in Romania with a personal identification number.

For further information:

www.insse.ro/cms/rw/pages/index.ro.do

www.mai.gov.ro/engleza/english.htm

http://ori.mai.gov.ro

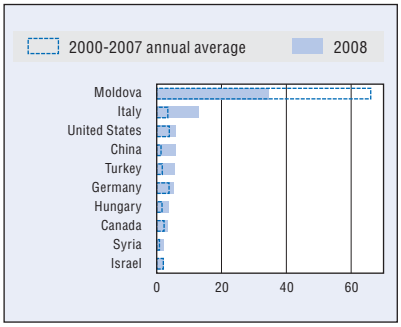
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ROMANIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	*8.6*
Outflows	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	*10.2*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	7.8	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	*835*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	–1.1	–2.2	–1.4	–1.7	–2.2	–1.9	*–36*
Natural increase	–0.9	–1.9	–1.5	–1.6	–2.0	–1.7	*–34*
Net migration	–0.2	–0.3	0.1	–0.1	–0.2	–0.1	*–2*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	*89*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	63.7	65.6	65.2	. .	64.8
Foreign-born men	. .	76.2	78.8	78.1	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	51.5	52.5	52.0	. .	52.3
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	43.5	61.3	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	8.1	7.0	8.0	. .	7.8
Foreign-born men	. .	4.0	5.1	7.9	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	6.8	5.0	6.2	. .	6.0
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	5.9	4.6	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.4	4.2	7.3	–7.1			
GDP/capita (level in USD)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Employment (level in thousands)	0.0	0.1	0.2	–1.3	–3.1	0.3	*9 244*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	7.3	7.2	5.8	6.9	7.6	6.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441610

Russian Federation

The Russian Federation has the second largest number of foreign-born persons residing on its territory, after the United States. Most in- and out-migration is with other countries of the former Soviet Union (FSU). According to the 2002 Census, the most recent data available on the immigrant population, there were 12 million foreign-born persons in the Russian Federation in that year, about 8.3% of the total population. Close to 90% were of Russian nationality and indeed, most were from the FSU, whose break-up transformed overnight many persons born in these republics into foreign-born persons. Some 3.5 million were from Ukraine and a further 2.5 million from Kazakhstan.

Migration inflows (many of Russian nationals) from the FSU have been considerable over the past twenty years, but have declined over the past decade. From an average of about 700 000 per year during the 1990s, they have fallen to an average of less than 200 000 per year since the year 2000. For 2009, they stood at about 280 000. Outflows over the same period to FSU countries averaged 265 000 per year for 1991-2000 and 39 000 for 2001-09. The migration balance with the rest of the world has been largely negative over the period, with few immigrants arriving and an average of 93 000 and 32 000 departures per year over the two respective decades.

Registration of foreigners at "place of residence" (that is, persons receiving a first-time residence permit of three years) stood at about 204 400 in 2008 and rose to 241 000 in 2009. Taking into account also the inflow of 68 000 nationals of Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan and Belarus (in total about 70 000 per year) who normally do not need a residence permit and can directly apply for Russian citizenship after arrival, the immigration rate in 2008-09 was about 22 persons per ten thousand population, placing the Russian Federation at the low end of immigration rates of foreigners for OECD countries. About 43 000 of those entering under the above residence permit (registration at "place of residence") were labour migrants.

In addition to the legal labour migration, there are estimated to be about 4-5 million irregular labour migrants (at the seasonal maximum), many of them temporary.

In 2007, a new law entered into force which considerably liberalised access to the Russian labour market for migrants from countries benefitting from the visa-free regime (that is, the countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States – CIS, except Turkmenistan) and simplified procedures for foreigners registering for a stay of less than a year. Formerly work permits could only be obtained if the worker was sponsored by an employer. Under the new law, a worker from a visa-free country can apply for the permit him/herself without any need for the employer to get prior approval. The new rules concerning registration allow foreigners to register using the address of an employer or other organisation rather than a dwelling and also to do so by mail (for persons staying less than 90 days). If a migrant provides evidence of legal employment, he/she can stay for up to one year.

Initial quotas (by occupation) for visa-free labour migration under the new regime were set very high (in total 6 million) to encourage irregular workers to regularise their status. Actual inflows, however, were about 1.2 million in 2007. Quotas were halved in 2008 and reduced further in 2009 to 2.0 million in response to the crisis. Inflows of migrant workers for the corresponding years were 1.3 and 1.1 million, respectively. CIS countries account for almost three quarters of these, China for over 10% and Viet Nam 4-5%. Uzbekistan (321 000 in 2009), Tajikistan (172 000) and Ukraine (102 000) were the CIS countries with the largest number of workers.

Migration legislation was amended in 2010 to establish two new groups of labour migrants: so-called "patent holders" (persons employed in private households) and highly qualified specialists. According to the previous legislation, persons working in private households had to apply for work permits in the same way as persons working for enterprises, but most worked illegally because the procedures were overly complex. Now, the worker can purchase a "patent" from the Federal Migration Service for EUR 25 and have the same amount paid monthly through a bank for renewal. Between July and December 2010, 150 000 patents had been issued and the number is continuing to increase.

Highly qualified specialists must earn at least RUB 2 million per year (EUR 50 000) and are granted with their dependents a residence permit valid for three years. About one thousand had been issued by November 2010, mostly from countries subject to visas.

For further information:

www.fms.gov.ru/useful/formvisa/index_eng.php

www.montreal.mid.ru/migration_01.html

www.fms.gov.ru/useful/migrate/index_eng.php

www.gks.ru/wps/wcm/connect/rosstat/rosstatsite.eng/figures/population/

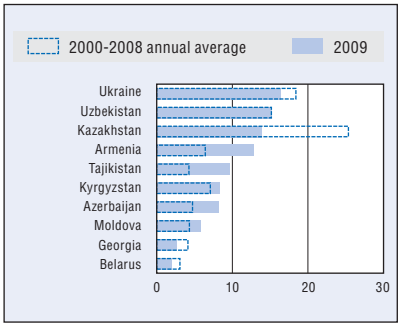
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.5	1.2	2.0	2.0	1.4	1.7	*279.9*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	22.5	42.7	8.4	14.3
Family (incl. accompanying family)	178.9	192.6	66.6	64.4
Humanitarian	3.0	5.5	1.1	1.8
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	64.1	58.3	23.9	19.5
Total	268.5	299.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	36.1	34.4	34.9
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	1 321.0	1 009.6	1 172.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*5 701*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	*394 137*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	10.0	6.4	5.2	–7.9	6.9	4.1	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	10.5	6.9	5.4	–7.8	7.4	4.4	*10 783*
Employment (level in thousands)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441629

Slovak Republic

In 2009, immigration to the Slovak Republic declined for the first time since its accession to the EU. According to national statistics, the inflow of foreign nationals in 2009 was 6 300, compared with 8 800 in 2008. The economic crisis marked a break in the positive labour market developments registered in the country since 2004 and contributed to interrupt the growing immigration trend.

Regarding outflows, different data sources show conflicting pictures. Recorded outflows continued to increase, from 1 700 in 2008 to about 2 000 in 2009, although these figures – based on administrative data – are only a small fraction of actual outflows from the Slovak Republic. In contrast, Labour Force Survey data on Slovaks working abroad indicate not only that there has been a decline in emigration, but that there has even been significant return migration. While at the end of 2008 there were about 170 000 Slovaks working abroad, by the second quarter of 2010 their number had decreased to about 130 000. The top two destination countries in 2008, the Czech Republic and the United Kingdom, both experienced a decline in the number of Slovak workers between the 2008 average and the second quarter of 2010, from 70 200 to 53 500, and from 20 200 to 10 500, respectively. In contrast, over the same period, the number of Slovak workers registered in Austria increased from 17 700 to 23 500, and by the first quarter of 2009 Austria had replaced the United Kingdom as the second main destination country for workers from the Slovak Republic.

Inflows have been traditionally dominated by nationals from neighbouring or at least nearby European countries. The main development in the national distribution of migrant inflows in 2009 was the decrease in the inflows from Romania, from more than 2 100 persons in 2008 to less than 600 persons in 2009.

The total number of registered immigrants increased from about 53 000 in 2008 to more than 58 000 in 2009. EEA nationals account for more than 80% of the population with permanent permits, while nationals of the countries outside the EEA account for almost all residents with a temporary permit.

The total population of registered foreign workers was about 14 000 at the end of 2009, an increase of 1 000 persons compared with the previous year. This increase was mainly attributable to the growth of the number of registered foreign workers from EEA countries (mainly Romania, the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary and Germany), which rose from 10 000 in 2008 to 11 300 in 2009, while the population of nationals from third countries holding a work permit decreased from 3 300 to 2 600, in the same period. Foreign workers account only for a small fraction of the labour force in the Slovak Republic (0.7% in 2009).

Illegal migration to the Slovak Republic, as well as asylum seeking, continued to decline. The number of asylum seekers fell from 900 in 2008 to 800 in 2009 and preliminary figures for 2010 suggest that this decline is ongoing. In 2009, the largest groups of applicants came from Pakistan, Georgia, Moldova, the Russian Federation, and India.

New amendments to the Act on the stay of foreigners introduce several changes in 2010, such as providing more flexibility for some categories of foreign workers and foreign students, notably in granting and extending their temporary stay in the Slovak Republic. Notably, some categories of foreign employees (such as employees of key investors or employees sent to the Slovak Republic by their foreign employer for a short period of time) can start their work activities immediately after legally entering the Slovak territory and without having to wait to get a temporary stay permit. Similarly, foreign students admitted for study in the Slovak Republic for a period longer than 90 days can also start with their studies without having to wait to get a temporary stay permit. Any student accepted for higher studies in the Slovak Republic can as of 2010 apply for temporary residence status. Before such option was only granted to the students participating in governmental or EU programmes. Students with temporary residence who are also entrepreneurs can, after completing their studies, continue to ask for re-classification of their temporary residence purpose (from studies to entrepreneurship) in the Slovak Republic and thus can continue their business activities without having to leave and re-enter the Slovak territory.

For further information:

www.minv.sk

www.employment.gov.sk

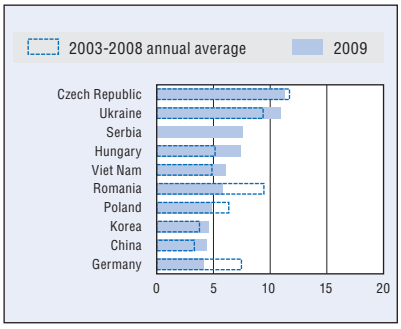
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.9	1.4	3.0	2.7	1.0	2.4	*14.4*
Outflows	. .	0.2	0.6	0.6	. .	0.4	*3.3*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.2	1.5	0.4	*822*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	0.7	0.8	2.2	2.4	–0.5	1.5	*13*
Natural increase	0.4	0.2	0.9	1.6	0.1	0.6	*9*
Net migration	0.3	0.6	1.3	0.8	0.3	0.9	*4*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.2	0.5	0.8	*63*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	1.3	0.4	. .	2.9	*262*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	64.6	69.9	67.5	. .	67.5
Foreign-born men	. .	67.1	75.4	72.4	. .	71.7
Native-born women	. .	51.0	54.6	52.8	. .	52.7
Foreign-born women	. .	37.7	60.3	50.6	. .	49.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	15.5	8.4	11.4	. .	11.5
Foreign-born men	. .	17.4	5.2	12.1	. .	10.4
Native-born women	. .	17.2	11.0	12.9	. .	13.7
Foreign-born women	. .	28.6	8.9	14.2	. .	15.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	1.4	6.7	5.8	–4.8	3.9	5.3	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	1.3	6.6	5.6	–5.0	3.9	5.2	*16 806*
Employment (level in thousands)	–1.4	2.2	3.2	–2.7	0.3	1.8	*2 366*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	18.8	16.2	9.5	12.1	18.5	12.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441648

Slovenia

At the beginning of 2010, out of Slovenia's total population of 2 million, about 82 300 were foreign citizens, representing 4% of the total population. The vast majority – more than 88% – of the foreign population is from the successor countries of the former Yugoslavia, with Bosnia and Herzegovina (47%), the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) (11%), Serbia (11%) and Croatia (9%) being the main origin countries of foreign nationals. Among the foreign population, 73% are men.

27 400 foreigners immigrated to Slovenia in 2009, roughly the same number as in 2008. The vast majority were citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina (47%). A further 13% were from Kosovo, 11% from Macedonia (FYROM) and 11% from Serbia. Most immigration is temporary labour migration, in particular for construction. The vast majority of the corresponding work permits which are issued to migrants are tied to a specific employer.

According to official data based on deregistration from registers, about 3 700 Slovene citizens emigrated from Slovenia in 2009, the majority to Germany (18%), Croatia (13%) and Austria (12%). This is a decline of about 22% vis-à-vis 2008. In particular, registered emigration to Germany has declined strongly. Return migration of Slovene citizens was about 2 900 in 2009, mainly from Germany (17%) and Croatia (16%).

It was expected that after Slovenia's 2004 accession to the EU, the number of migrant workers would steadily rise. As a consequence, in 2004, Slovenia adopted an overall quota for the annual issuance of new work permits for immigrants from outside of the European Economic Area. The quota has been set at a maximum of 5% of the active population.

Within this overall framework, annual numerical limits are fixed depending on the economic situation. In light of the economic downturn which hit Slovenia harder than most other OECD countries (a drop in GDP in 2009 by more than 8%), numerical limits were lowered from 32 000 in 2008 to 24 000 in 2009, and further reduced to 12 000 in 2010.

Also in response to the severe crisis, the government introduced in June 2009 a *Decree on restrictions and prohibition of employment and work of aliens* which aims at limiting labour migration from non-EEA countries by a number of measures. These include a ban on employment in seasonal work for all sectors except agriculture and forestry and a prohibition of issuing new permits for "representatives of micro and small companies and for representatives of branch offices" to foreigners from Kosovo. In addition, companies can no longer request work permits unless they have a declared vacancy. Finally, the decree limits employment of immigrants from certain countries and regions. The decree sets a regional distribution of the quotas, 95% of the annual numerical limits are reserved for nationals of one of the successor countries of the former Yugoslavia, with the exception of Kosovars. The remaining 5% are for citizens of Kosovo and all other non-EEA nationals.

In 2011, the eligibility to integration courses has been extended to all non-EEA migrants residing in Slovenia on the basis of a temporary residence permit issued for at least one year and to family members who get temporary residence based on family reunion provisions. The courses include Slovene language, history, culture and political system.

Slovenia's entry in the Schengen border regime in 2008 made the immigration of nationals from the other successor countries of the former Yugoslavia more difficult. However, since December 2009, visas to enter the Schengen area are no longer required for citizens of Serbia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) and Montenegro who are holders of new biometrical passports.

As a consequence of Slovenia's entry into Schengen, border controls have been reinforced which seems to have been associated with a decline in irregular migration. The police registered about 1 200 irregular border crossings in 2008, which was the lowest number since Slovenia's independence in 1991.

Slovenia has engaged in negotiations about bilateral agreements with some of the main countries of origin of migrants, particularly Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) that aim at facilitating labour migration from these countries. Until now, no such agreement has been signed. However, there are protocols in place that are based on mutual co-operation between employment agencies, such as a protocol on mutual co-operation between the Employment Service of Slovenia and the Labour and Employment Agency of Bosnia and Herzegovina which was signed in 2007.

For further information:

www.mnz.gov.si/en/
www.stat.si/eng/index.asp

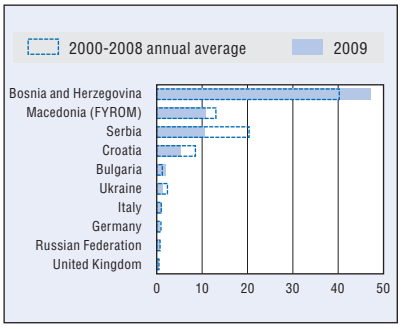
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SLOVENIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.6	6.6	13.8	13.4	3.6	11.3	*27.4*
Outflows	1.0	3.3	3.6	7.4	2.0	5.1	*15.1*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	4.6	0.8	0.1	0.1	1.4	0.3	*183*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	2.1	2.4	3.5	4.0	2.2	3.2	*82*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	66.7	70.2	72.6	71.0	68.1	71.5
Foreign-born men	66.7	72.7	74.0	70.9	68.9	72.6
Native-born women	58.2	61.3	64.4	64.1	58.9	62.9
Foreign-born women	61.3	61.6	62.1	61.0	61.8	61.6
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.6	6.2	4.0	5.9	5.9	5.0
Foreign-born men	10.0	6.2	4.7	7.5	7.5	5.6
Native-born women	7.1	7.1	4.8	5.8	6.5	6.2
Foreign-born women	7.9	7.8	6.0	7.2	8.9	7.5

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.4	4.5	3.7	–8.1	3.7	2.6	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.1	4.3	3.6	–9.0	3.5	2.1	*21 990*
Employment (level in thousands)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441667

Spain

The economic downturn, which has hit Spain particularly hard, led to a significant decline in migration inflows in 2009, from about 690 000 in 2008 to 470 000 in 2009. In parallel, there has also been an increase in migration outflows, although the changes here were more moderate – from about 230 000 to 320 000.

All major components of migration inflows decreased in 2009. The number of new residence visas issued decreased substantially in 2009 (160 000 compared to 290 000 in 2008). The number of foreign-born seasonal workers recruited in countries of origin also showed a pronounced decline (from 42 000 in 2008 to only 6 000 in 2009), although inflows under the anonymous *contingente* regime for recruitment in the country of origin have declined the most (from 41 000 in 2008 to only 900 in 2009 and less than 200 in 2010).

The number of irregular migrants arriving by boat and apprehended at Spanish borders continued to decrease from 13 000 in 2008 to about 7 000 in 2009 and less than 4 000 in 2010.

Asylum applications submitted in Spain in 2009 decreased by one-third with respect to the previous year (around 3 000 applications in total), in contrast to the increase observed in most other OECD countries.

The stock of foreigners with residence permits continued to grow in 2009, but started decreasing in the first three quarters of 2010, falling below 4.8 million by the end of September. However, this decrease was not uniform among immigrant groups: during the first three quarters of 2010, the number of EU nationals (*Regimen Comunitario*) increased (+130 000) while the number of non-EU nationals (*Regimen General*) decreased (–170 000).

The employment situation of immigrants in Spain has deteriorated sharply with the economic crisis. In 2009, 340 000 foreign-born individuals lost their jobs (out of the total 1.2 million job losses in Spain). The proportion of foreign born (almost 12%) that lost their jobs was much higher than that of native-born (about 5%). The nationalities most affected by job losses were Ecuadorians, followed by Romanians and Moroccans (both in absolute and in relative terms).

The total number of foreign born unemployed reached almost 1.1 million in 2009, representing almost one-quarter of the total number of the unemployed. The unemployment rate of the foreign-born reached almost 30% at the end of 2009, almost twice the figure for the native-born.

About 16 000 immigrants (of which 4 000 were family members of principal applicants) returned to their origin countries under the assisted return programme (*Programa de Retorno Voluntario de Trabajadores Extranjeros no Comunitarios*) between November 2008 and July 2010. The main nationalities were Ecuador, Columbia, Argentina and Peru. Under the separate "*Plan de Retorno Social*" for refugees, irregular migrants, failed asylum seekers, etc., managed by non-governmental organisations and the International Organisation for Migration, more than 4 000 returned in 2009.

A reform of the Law on Alien Affairs in December 2009 entitled foreign nationals with the rights of assembly, demonstration, association, union membership and strike and the right to free legal services. The new law also allows for the reunification of common-law couples and the issuance of a residence permit with the authorisation to work upon arrival for all reunified persons over the age of 16 (previously, a one year waiting period applied). In contrast, the right to family reunification of ascendants is now restricted to ascendants who are older than 65 and sponsored by an immigrant with a long-term residence permit.

A new law on asylum came into force in 2009 that transposes a number of EU directives. The new regulations provide immigrants with subsidiary protection status with the same rights as refugees and regulate family reunification of both categories. In addition, the new law includes persecution due to gender or sexual orientation as grounds for asylum and excludes EU citizens as potential beneficiaries of the right of asylum in Spain.

Further measures have been put in place to enhance border control. These include the introduction of biometric visas and increased police co-operation with neighbouring countries.

Voting rights are extended to non-EU foreign nationals in municipals elections via reciprocity agreements with the origin countries. The council of ministers approved several of such treaties in 2009. Thus far, nationals of Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, Chile, Paraguay, New Zealand, and Bolivia will be able to participate in the municipal elections in May 2011.

For further information:

http://extranjeros.mtas.es/

www.mtin.es/es/estadisticas/index.htm

www.ine.es/inebmenu/mnu_migrac.htm

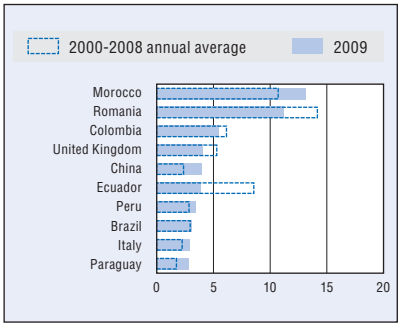
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SPAIN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	8.2	15.7	15.2	10.2	10.8	16.0	*469.3*
Outflows	. .	1.1	5.1	6.3	. .	3.9	*288.3*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	116.2	102.2	28.4	30.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	95.6	82.5	23.3	24.7
Humanitarian	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Free movements	193.3	144.9	47.2	43.4
Others	4.3	4.1	1.0	1.2
Total	409.6	334.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	29.9	41.8	44.5	37.7
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	7.0	46.2	1.7	15.1
Intra-company transfers	1.2	1.3	0.9	1.2
Other temporary workers	33.8	44.0	3.4	45.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*3 007*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	10.6	16.6	12.0	. .	14.4	. .	. .
Natural increase	0.9	1.8	2.9	. .	1.3	. .	. .
Net migration	8.9	15.0	10.1	. .	12.8	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	4.9	11.1	14.2	14.3	7.7	13.0	*6 567*
Foreign population	3.4	9.5	12.4	12.4	6.1	11.3	*5 709*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	0.9	1.0	1.5	. .	0.9	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	70.8	74.6	73.3	67.6	72.2	73.3
Foreign-born men	75.4	79.6	73.3	61.0	77.8	75.3
Native-born women	41.0	50.0	53.9	52.2	43.9	52.3
Foreign-born women	45.7	59.2	58.5	54.1	51.4	58.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	9.4	6.8	8.9	15.3	8.0	8.6
Foreign-born men	11.8	9.1	16.0	29.5	11.1	14.1
Native-born women	20.4	11.9	12.2	16.9	16.5	12.5
Foreign-born women	20.0	13.8	16.8	24.9	17.5	16.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.0	3.6	0.9	–3.7	3.6	1.7	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.2	1.9	–0.7	–4.4	2.2	0.2	*22 961*
Employment (level in thousands)	5.6	4.8	–0.5	–6.8	4.1	0.9	*18 888*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	10.8	9.2	11.3	18.0	10.7	11.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441230

Sweden

The trend of increasing immigration to Sweden continued in 2009 in spite of the economic downturn, with inflows reaching a new record high of 102 000. The largest component of the inflow was returning Swedish citizens, followed by citizens from Iraq, Somalia and Poland. In parallel, total emigration declined by 13% compared with the previous year, resulting in an overall net migration of almost 56 000 persons. Preliminary figures for 2010 on the basis of residence permits indicate a decline in immigration for that year.

On 15 December 2008, new rules came into force which greatly facilitated recruitment of labour from non-EEA countries. About 14 500 first-time work permits where granted in 2009 under the new framework, an increase of almost 50% compared with 2008. Almost 50% of the permits went to workers in agriculture, horticulture, forestry and fishing. The single most important origin country was Thailand, accounting for almost half of all labour migrants, followed by India and China.

Among the new rules for labour migration introduced in late 2008 was the provision that a refused asylum seeker may be granted a residence permit for work if he/she found a job for at least six months. By the end of 2009, there were about 1 300 applications for a work permit from former asylum seekers, of which about 450 were granted permits.

About 24 000 persons applied for asylum in Sweden in 2009, about the same number as in 2008. There has been a large decline in the number of asylum seekers from Iraq in recent years, from 18 600 in 2007 – half of the total number of asylum seekers in that year in Sweden – to 2 300 in 2009. Preliminary figures for 2010 suggest a significant increase in asylum seeking for that year, mainly driven by a large increase in asylum seeking of Serbians, who are now the single most important origin country.

Unaccompanied minors who have come to Sweden without a legal custodian are a growing concern for policy. In 2009, their number was 2 250, an increase of 49% compared with 2008. Three-quarters of the total were from Somalia and Afghanistan. Most unaccompanied minors are boys between the age of 15 and 17.

On 1 January 2010, the Swedish Alien Act was amended to fulfil the requirements of the EU's Asylum Qualification Directive and Asylum Procedure Directive. The changes imply that persons who are granted a residence permit as a refugee are now automatically granted refugee status. Previously, they had to apply separately for a declaration of refugee status.

Since May 2010, people who wish to apply for a Swedish residence permit may now submit their applications to a Swedish mission abroad in the country where they are asylum seekers.

The Swedish Migration Board has been developing a set of measures to shorten the handling times for asylum seekers. As a result, the average processing time of asylum application declined from 9 months in 2008 to 7 months by the end 2010.

A new maintenance rule came into force on 15 April 2010. It essentially implies that labour migrants from non-EEA countries who have had a permanent residence permit for less than four years must be able to support themselves and have adequate housing if they want their family to join them from abroad.

A new Act on the introduction of new arrivals entered into force on 1 December 2010. Key elements include an introduction benefit to create stronger incentives to work and to participate actively in introduction activities, greater diversity of service providers and measures aimed at a better utilisation of migrants' skills. The Public Employment Service has a central responsibility and a co-ordinating role for the integration of new arrivals. The target groups covered by the Act are refugees, others in need of protection and their family members.

A number of other initiatives have also been taken in the area of integration. Sweden introduced a new law in September 2010 that enables municipalities to pay a performance-based bonus to newly-arrived immigrants who complete their studies in "Swedish for Immigrants" with a passing grade within 12 months. A number of universities and colleges are assigned to arrange supplementary courses for non-EEA nationals with a foreign university degree in areas such as health care, law, teacher education, etc. A joint project by the National Agency for Higher Vocational Education and the Public Employment Service aims at validating foreign professional qualifications in numerous occupations. Efforts are made to match new arrivals with vocational mentors to improve the prospects of acquiring jobs that correspond to the individual's education and professional background. Initiatives are also taken to promote immigrant entrepreneurship through mentoring, counselling and microcredit.

For further information:

www.migrationsverket.se/info/start_en.html

www.sweden.gov.se/sb/d/8281

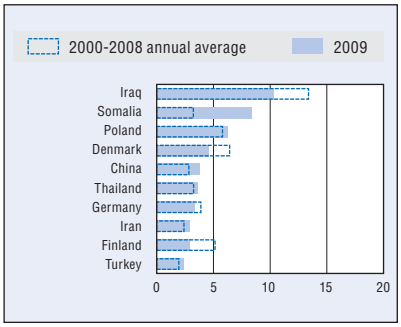
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWEDEN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.8	5.6	8.9	8.9	5.1	8.2	*82.4*
Outflows	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.0	1.6	2.0	*18.3*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	0.8	2.7	1.1	3.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	33.7	34.7	47.5	48.7
Humanitarian	11.2	11.1	15.7	15.6
Free movements	25.3	22.8	35.7	31.9
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	71.0	71.3	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	10.8	14.1	16.7	12.8
Trainees	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	0.5	3.7	7.3	2.8
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	4.8	13.6	10.9	8.7

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.8	1.9	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.8	*24 194*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	4.0	8.0	9.1	3.4	7.2	*85*
Natural increase	–0.3	1.0	2.0	2.4	0.2	1.7	*22*
Net migration	2.8	3.0	6.1	6.8	3.1	5.5	*63*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	11.3	12.5	13.9	14.4	11.8	13.4	*1 338*
Foreign population	5.3	5.1	6.0	6.4	5.2	5.7	*595*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	9.0	7.8	5.3	4.8	7.4	6.8	*28 562*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.8	76.2	77.9	75.6	76.5	77.0
Foreign-born men	59.6	63.7	69.9	66.7	63.9	66.8
Native-born women	73.2	72.6	74.5	72.8	74.0	73.5
Foreign-born women	54.7	58.4	58.7	58.0	58.0	58.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.1	7.0	5.1	7.5	5.1	6.1
Foreign-born men	13.5	15.1	11.5	16.2	12.5	13.6
Native-born women	4.3	6.9	5.5	6.9	4.4	6.2
Foreign-born women	11.2	13.7	12.9	14.5	10.3	13.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.5	3.2	–0.6	–5.3	3.0	1.0	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	4.3	2.7	–1.4	–6.1	2.6	0.3	*30 872*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.8	1.2	–2.0	0.7	0.9	*4 499*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.9	7.7	6.2	8.3	6.7	7.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441686

Switzerland

Following the peak in immigration flows prior to the economic downturn, national statistics recorded a decline in inflows from 157 000 in 2008 to 132 000 in 2009. The decline was particularly strong among nationals from the EU-15 who nevertheless continue to account for the vast majority (62%) of migration flows. This was mainly driven by a notable decline in immigration of Germans (from 46 000 to 34 000) who have been the main origin group in recent years, accounting for almost 30% of new arrivals.

Preliminary statistics for the first eight months of 2010 show that immigration in that year remained broadly at the 2009 level.

In February 2010, the Federal Council approved a number of measures aimed at limiting potential abuses in the framework of the freedom of movement with nationals from the EU/EEA. The measures include more control over the access to the welfare system for nationals from these countries thanks to a better exchange of data among authorities. Likewise, there will be a more stringent application of the conditions governing long-term admission; in particular regarding adequate housing and duration of the work contract. In addition, controls against wage and social dumping and against so-called "pseudo self-employment" have been reinforced. In light of these measures and the decline in immigration flows, the government decided in May 2010 not to invoke the safeguard clause to restrict immigration from the EU/EEA.

In 2009, the numbers of asylum seekers remained broadly at the 2008 level. A strong increase in asylum seekers from Nigeria, who are now the main origin group, compensated for significant declines in the numbers of asylum seekers from Eritrea and Somalia. Preliminary figures for 2010 indicate a slight decline in the number of requests in that year. Nigeria, Eritrea and Somalia remained the main origin countries, followed by asylum seekers from Serbia whose number increased significantly.

Readmission agreements were signed in 2010 with Kosovo, Kazakhstan, Moldavia and Benin. In November 2010, Nigeria and Switzerland concluded negotiations on a migration partnership which includes, among other issues, provisions on return assistance and readmission.

In November 2010, a popular initiative on the expulsion of foreign criminals has been adopted by a majority of the people and the cantons. It states that foreign nationals who have committed one of the criminal offenses stated in the text of the initiative should lose their right of residence and return to their country of origin. The initiative still has to be transformed into legislation.

A revision of the law on asylum is in preparation. The changes aim at making the asylum procedures quicker and more effective. Special attention is devoted to preventing abuses. In addition, if the law is adopted, the Federal Council will be entitled to define countries to which expulsion will generally be considered acceptable. It is also planned to establish a dispersal policy for temporarily admitted persons. Finally, the law envisages abolishing the current possibility to request asylum in Swiss embassies abroad.

Switzerland has a high proportion of international students in its universities. The labour market access of international graduates of Swiss universities was facilitated on 1 January 2011. Since then, the graduates can obtain a work permit if they have a job offer of preponderant scientific or economic interest. In addition, international graduates of Swiss universities can remain in Switzerland for up to six months after completion of their studies to seek and find work.

A comprehensive revision of the law on citizenship is in preparation. The planned new law aims at a harmonisation of the cantonal and local residence requirements and contains a number of procedural changes aimed at enhancing transparency and facilitating the administrative process. In addition, it is planned to reduce the current duration of residency requirements from currently twelve years – the longest in the OECD – to eight years.

Finally, in 2011, Switzerland will host the fourth Global Forum on Migration and Development.

For further information:

www.bfm.admin.ch/bfm/en/home.html

www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/themen/01/07.html

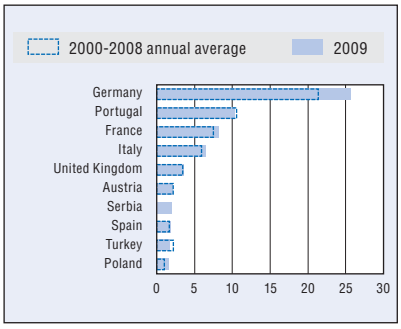
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWITZERLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	12.2	12.7	20.6	17.1	13.2	16.5	*132.4*
Outflows	7.8	6.7	7.1	7.1	6.9	7.1	*55.2*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	3.2	2.7	2.3	2.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	18.9	18.4	13.6	16.0
Humanitarian	6.3	5.4	4.6	4.7
Free movements	108.6	86.0	78.1	74.9
Others	2.1	2.3	1.5	2.0
Total	139.1	114.8	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	8.6	11.0	11.1	10.1
Trainees	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	101.6	91.6	86.5	99.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.5	1.4	2.2	2.1	2.7	1.7	*16 005*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.5	5.9	14.2	10.5	7.0	9.7	*81*
Natural increase	2.2	1.6	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.8	*16*
Net migration	2.8	4.8	12.8	8.5	5.3	8.3	*66*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	21.9	23.8	25.8	26.3	22.7	25.0	*2 038*
Foreign population	19.3	20.3	21.4	21.7	19.8	20.9	*1 680*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	2.1	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.3	2.7	*43 440*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	85.1	86.1	84.7	. .	85.6
Foreign-born men	. .	80.5	83.6	84.1	. .	82.6
Native-born women	. .	73.1	75.8	76.1	. .	74.6
Foreign-born women	. .	63.0	67.5	67.8	. .	65.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	2.7	2.1	2.9	. .	2.4
Foreign-born men	. .	7.8	5.0	6.2	. .	6.3
Native-born women	. .	3.7	2.7	3.4	. .	3.2
Foreign-born women	. .	9.7	7.7	7.8	. .	8.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.6	2.6	1.9	–1.9	1.5	2.0	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.0	2.0	0.7	–3.0	0.7	1.1	*33 473*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	0.7	1.8	0.6	0.5	1.5	*4 315*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.6	4.4	3.5	4.4	3.4	4.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441135

Turkey

Statistics on migration flows in Turkey are limited to certain categories. There is no direct and reliable data source on total flows in and out of the country.

Information on labour emigration flows through official, state-administered channels is provided by the Ministry for Labour and Social Security (MLSS). The number of contract workers sent abroad by the Turkish Employment Office increased by 3% from 2008 to 2009, to 59 500. The two main destinations of Turkish contract workers were the Middle East (32 500) and the Commonwealth of Independent States (17 300).

Information on labour migration inflows to Turkey is also provided by the MLSS. In 2009, there were 9 300 new permits, an increase of 32% over the previous year. There are no available statistics for inflows of students or family migration.

The population of legally resident foreigners fell by about 6% between 2008 and 2009, from 175 000 to 163 000. Of these, 11% were for employment and 17% for study, with most of the others ethnic Turks from nearby countries living with relatives in Turkey. The leading nationalities of resident foreigners were Azerbaijan (11%), the Russian Federation and Bulgaria (8% each) and Germany (6%). Among the 17 500 work-permit holders, the main nationalities were the Russian Federation (11%), Germany (7%) and the United States (6%). Among the 27 000 students, the main group was Azerbaijanis (13%).

The total number of irregular migrants who were apprehended fell from 68 300 in 2008 to 34 300 in 2009. Of those found in Turkey, about one-third were overstaying workers, and the rest had entered illegally. One factor reducing illegal stay may be the elimination of visa requirements for citizens of Syria, Iran, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia, Libya and Jordan. Citizens of many other countries, including Iraq, are able to obtain visas at the Turkish border. Readmission agreements with most of these countries are still under negotiation.

The inflow of asylum seekers decreased from 13 000 in 2008 to 7 800 in 2009, although statistics for the first six months of 2010 suggest a return to the 2008 level. In 2009, half of applicants came from Iraq and a quarter from Iran. Most asylum seekers were transiting Turkey on their way to Europe.

In the context of the economic crisis, remittances fell by around 35%, from USD 1.4 billion to USD 930 million, according to the Bank of Turkey. They now represent less than 0.1% of GDP.

Migration policy developments in Turkey are closely related to the negotiations and legislative requirements for admission to the European Union. Two framework laws on Asylum and Aliens were originally planned to be approved by 2012. The "Development and Implementation Office on Asylum and Migration Legislation and Administrative Capacity" which had opened in October 2008 as an agency of the Ministry of Interior, pushed the task force to bring the deadline forward, to 2009-10. However, negotiations with the European Union have slowed down, and no legislation has been presented to Parliament.

For further information

www.iskur.gov.tr

www.tuik.gov.tr

www.nvi.gov.tr/English,En_Html.htlm

www.csgb.gov.tr

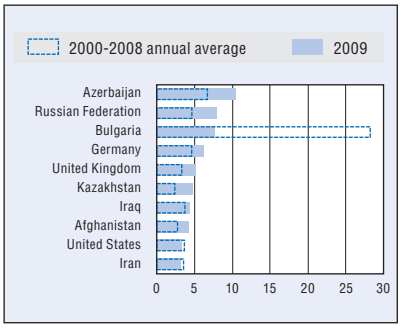
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

TURKEY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.5	*163.3*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	. .	. .	. .	. .
Family (incl. accompanying family)	. .	. .	. .	. .
Humanitarian	. .	. .	. .	. .
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	. .	. .	. .	. .
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seasonal workers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	*7 834*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	13.8	12.3	11.5	11.3	13.2	11.8	*809*
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Foreign population	0.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	. .	. .	67.7	64.6	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	68.0	61.9	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	24.1	24.2	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	31.5	26.4	. .	. .
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	. .	. .	9.6	12.7	. .	. .
Foreign-born men	. .	. .	8.4	14.7	. .	. .
Native-born women	. .	. .	9.6	12.8	. .	. .
Foreign-born women	. .	. .	8.9	16.6	. .	. .

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	6.8	8.4	0.7	–4.7	4.4	3.2	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	5.3	7.1	–0.5	–5.8	3.0	2.0	*10 985*
Employment (level in thousands)	–2.1	2.2	2.1	0.4	–0.3	1.6	*21 777*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.9	10.4	10.7	13.7	9.5	11.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441705

United Kingdom

Total inflows to the United Kingdom in 2009 were 528 000, a slight decrease with respect to 2008. As outflows from the United Kingdom decreased substantially (from 409 000 to 337 000), total net migration rose by almost 50%, to 191 000, which is nevertheless still lower than pre-crisis levels. Most of the change in net migration is explained by the increase in inflows and decrease in outflows of British citizens.

Net migration fell for all major origin countries, except the EU and the New Commonwealth countries (mainly India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nigeria). There was a higher net gain from EU-15 nationals than from the Central and Eastern European countries which joined the European Union in 2004 (EU-8), in particular due to the increase in inflows from EU-15 and the decrease in inflows from EU-8.

The number of persons granted settlement in the United Kingdom, excluding EEA and Swiss nationals, reached almost 195 000, an increase of 31% with respect to the previous year. This was mainly due to increases in labour and family migration. Around 200 000 immigrants were granted citizenship in 2009, an increase of almost 60% with respect to 2008, half of them on the grounds of residence.

The number of asylum applications received in 2009 decreased to 24 240. Provisional figures for the first three quarters of 2010 show further reductions in the number of asylum applications.

In Tier 1 (supply-driven non-EU skilled migration) of the Points-Based System (PBS), 118 000 visas were issued (of which two-thirds were main applicants and one-third dependants), almost one-third were of Indian nationality. The number of principal applicants in Tier 2 in 2009 was 53 000, well down from the number of pre-PBS work permits issued for 2008 (77 660). More than half of all primary applicants permits issued in Tier 2 were intra-corporate transferees.

The main policy developments stem from the change in government, following the general election in May 2010. Following a temporary cap put in place in June 2010, in November 2010, new rules were established which from April 2011 will limit to 21 700 the number of those coming into the United Kingdom under the skilled and highly-skilled routes. In essence, Tier 1 is basically closed (except for a numerical limit of 1 000 under the new "exceptional talent" route). Tier 2 will be limited to 20 700 permits and it will require graduate level education. In addition, only those applicants with the most points will qualify for one of the certificates of sponsorship available each month if the monthly limit of permits is oversubscribed. While intra-corporate transfers are exempt from the quota on non-EU applicants, the application thresholds on earnings were raised.

In addition, the government is setting out a proposal for a major reform of the student visa system, in order to reduce the number of students from outside the EEA who come to the United Kingdom, in particular those who have below university degree level. It is planned to tighten entrance criteria and to limit the possibility of migrants to work during their studies. In addition, those students finishing their degrees will not be allowed to extend their visa in order to look for a job in the United Kingdom. Furthermore, the Post-Study Work route in Tier 1, which allowed international graduates from universities in the United Kingdom to stay and look for work, is planned for closure.

For further information:

www.ukba.homeoffice.gov.uk

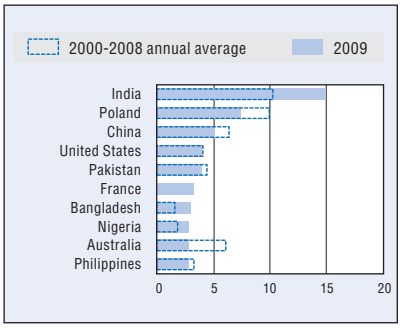
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

UNITED KINGDOM

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.4	6.8	7.4	7.1	5.3	7.3	*430.0*
Outflows	2.3	2.6	4.0	3.5	2.2	3.1	*211.0*

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2008	2009	2008	2009
Work	101.1	142.4	29.1	35.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	107.9	120.2	31.0	33.6
Humanitarian	2.8	3.1	0.8	0.8
Free movements	99.0	75.7	28.5	19.0
Others	36.7	42.9	10.6	10.8
Total	347.6	397.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	117.0	175.0	211.0	154.0
Trainees	. .	. .	. .	. .
Working holiday makers	56.6	34.5	5.1	35.9
Seasonal workers	15.7	16.6	21.0	17.3
Intra-company transfers	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other temporary workers	202.6	142.9	88.0	161.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.5	*30 675*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Natural increase	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Net migration	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	7.9	9.4	10.8	11.3	8.4	10.3	*6 899*
Foreign population	4.0	5.1	6.8	7.1	4.4	6.2	*4 348*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	3.5	5.3	3.1	4.7	4.3	4.4	*203 705*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	78.3	77.9	77.1	74.5	78.1	76.8
Foreign-born men	71.1	72.4	78.0	75.8	72.0	75.9
Native-born women	65.7	67.0	66.9	66.1	66.3	66.7
Foreign-born women	53.1	56.0	58.6	57.8	54.3	57.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.9	4.7	6.1	8.8	5.2	6.1
Foreign-born men	9.6	7.4	6.8	8.3	8.2	7.4
Native-born women	4.6	3.7	4.9	6.2	4.1	4.8
Foreign-born women	7.8	7.1	6.6	8.5	7.0	7.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	2.2	–0.1	–4.9	2.8	0.5	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.6	1.5	–0.7	–5.5	2.4	–0.1	*28 201*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.2	1.0	0.7	–1.6	1.0	0.3	*28 978*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	5.5	4.8	5.7	7.6	5.1	5.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441306

United States

Permanent immigration to the United States rose 2% in the US Fiscal Year 2009 (1 October 2008 through 30 September 2009), with more than 1.13 million people receiving lawful permanent residency status. The previous year had seen a 5% increase. Admissions under the employment-based preferences category, on the other hand, fell 13%, to 144 000. Almost half (45%) of the employment-based visas went to principal applicant, with the remainder for their family members. 92% of those granted permanent residence based on their employment were already in the United States on a temporary visa.

Humanitarian migration, comprising resettled ("quota") refugees and those receiving asylum inside the United States, has been increasing since FY2006. The number of quota refugees admitted to the United States rose 24% to 74 600, primarily from Iraq, Burma and Bhutan. 22 100 individuals were granted asylum status, of which the largest groups (27%) were Chinese.

The US Department of Labour certifies employer applications for both permanent and temporary foreign workers. Certification procedures, required for most applicants, vary according to visa type, but generally require that the employer announces the job or intent to hire and that the position meets certain wage conditions. The number of certifications for employment-based permanent visas fell from 85 000 in FY2007 to 30 000 in FY2009, suggesting a sharp decline in employer demand; certifications rose slightly to 32 600 in FY2010.

Temporary H-1B visas for employment are the usual pathway from a temporary visa category to permanent residence, and are subject to a cap of 85 000, although there are exemptions. The number of H-1B visas issued fell from 129 000 in FY2008 to 111 000 in FY2009. Demand for the visa has fallen; prior to the economic downturn, visas were taken the first day they were available. In contrast, it took five weeks to exhaust the FY2010 cap, and more than eight months for the FY2011 cap. Employer requests for certification for H-1B visas, required for most new visas and for changes of employer, fell from 692 000 in FY2008 to 495 000 in FY2010.

Temporary migration schemes for lower-skilled workers broadly remained at the pre-crisis levels. The number of employer requests for the uncapped seasonal agricultural worker programme (H-2A) approached 95 000, although visa issuances were only about 60 000, mostly for Mexican nationals. A stricter wage requirement and labour market test for H-2A employers were imposed in March 2010.

Temporary workers for other sectors (H-2B) are capped at 66 000. Certifications reached more than 250 000 in FY2007-2009, before falling to 154 000 in FY2009. The programme, traditionally oversubscribed, has fallen short of its cap in FY2009 and FY2010 – and likely for FY2011 – and visas were not used even for approved applications. The J-1 Summer Work-Travel Programme, under which young foreign students may work in the United States for several months, primarily in tourism, also shrank during the economic downturn, from 150 000 in 2007 and 2008 to less than 100 000 in 2009 and 2010.

The official estimate of undocumented immigrants fell, for the first time, to 10.8 million in 2009, from pre-crisis estimates of 11.8 million in 2007. Increased border and workplace enforcement, along with reduced employment opportunities during the downturn, contributed to reduce inflows. Border interceptions have been falling for a decade, and fell 36% from FY2008 to FY2010. On the other hand, there is little evidence of increased voluntary outflows. About 400 000 undocumented foreigners were forcibly removed from the United States in each FY 2009 and 2010.

The number of active foreign students and exchange visitors (on F and M visas) reached 848 000 in September 2010, according to the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS). Most (70%) are in higher education. The rise in the programme between 2008 and 2010 (+174 000) is partly due to the doubling of the number of Chinese participants, to 159 000.

While comprehensive immigration reform remains on the list of priorities for the current Administration, attempts to pass legislation in 2010 were unsuccessful. Comprehensive reform did not come to congressional debate, and the DREAM Act, a regularisation for undocumented college students and veterans who came to the United States as children, was not approved.

For further information:

www.dhs.gov/ximgtn/

www.foreignlaborcert.doleta.gov/

www.dol.gov/compliance/laws/comp-ina.htm

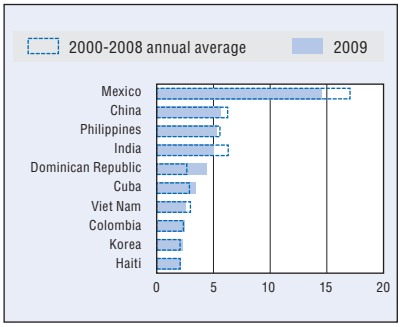
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

UNITED STATES

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.0	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.8	*1 130.8*
Outflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2008**	**2009**	**2008**	**2009**
Work	75.9	65.6	6.9	5.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	806.8	838.0	72.9	73.1
Humanitarian	166.4	177.4	15.0	15.7
Free movements	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	58.0	61.4	5.2	5.4
Total	1 107.1	1 130.2	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2008	2009	Average 2005-09
Thousands				
International students	237.9	340.7	331.2	296.4
Trainees	1.8	3.4	2.1	2.5
Working holiday makers	88.6	152.7	116.4	122.4
Seasonal workers	31.9	64.4	60.1	48.9
Intra-company transfers	65.5	84.1	64.7	74.3
Other temporary workers	266.1	290.1	209.8	260.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*37 683*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	10.6	9.3	8.9	8.5	9.6	9.2	*2 606*
Natural increase	5.7	5.7	5.9	5.7	5.7	6.0	*1 761*
Net migration	4.6	3.3	2.9	2.8	3.6	3.0	*845*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level ('000) 2009
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.5	12.3	13.0	12.7	11.4	12.7	*38 948*
Foreign population	6.3	7.3	7.3	6.9	6.8	7.3	*21 274*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Percentage of the foreign population	5.0	2.8	4.7	3.5	3.2	3.4	*743 715*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	77.2	73.3	73.0	68.1	74.9	72.4
Foreign-born men	82.0	81.7	80.9	77.3	80.9	81.1
Native-born women	68.4	65.3	65.6	63.5	66.9	65.2
Foreign-born women	57.7	56.4	59.1	57.7	57.4	58.1
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.5	6.3	6.0	11.3	6.1	7.0
Foreign-born men	4.5	5.1	6.0	10.0	5.7	6.0
Native-born women	4.2	5.2	4.8	7.4	5.0	5.3
Foreign-born women	5.5	5.2	5.6	8.6	6.6	5.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2008	2009	Average 2000-04	Average 2005-09	Level 2009
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.2	3.1	0.0	–2.7	2.6	1.0	
GDP/capita (level in USD)	3.0	2.1	–0.9	–3.5	1.6	0.1	*36 936*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.5	1.8	–0.5	–3.8	0.9	0.1	*139 881*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.0	5.1	5.8	9.3	5.2	5.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932441724

SOURCES AND NOTES OF THE COUNTRY TABLES OF PART IV

Annual averages have been calculated for most of the series presented. The averages cover the periods 1997-2002 and 2003-08. In some cases, depending on the availability of data, they may be calculated for shorter periods.

Migration flows of foreigners

OECD countries and the Russian Federation: sources and notes are available in the Statistical Annex (Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1.).

Bulgaria: Number of new permanent and long-term residence permits granted (*Source:* Ministry of the Interior); Lithuania: Arrivals and departures of residents (*Source:* Department of Statistics of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania); Romania: *Source:* Permanent residence changes (*Source:* Romanian Statistical Yearbook).

Long-term migration inflows of foreigners by type (standardised inflows)

The statistics are based largely on residence and work permit data and have been standardised, to the extent possible (*cf. www.oecd.org/migration/imo*).

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 (*www.unhcr.org/statistics*).

Components of population growth

OECD countries: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2010; Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania: Eurostat.

Total population

Foreign-born population

National sources and Secretariat estimates (*cf. www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn* for more information on methods of estimation). Sources and notes of national sources are provided in the Statistical Annex (Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4.).

Foreign population

National sources. Exact sources and notes for the OECD countries are given in the Statistical Annex (Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.).

Lithuania: Residents' Register Service (Ministry of the Interior); Romania: Ministry of the Interior.

Naturalisations

National sources. Exact sources and notes for the OECD countries are given in the Statistical Annex (Metadata related to Tables A.1.6. and B.1.6.). Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania: Ministry of the Interior.

Labour market outcomes

European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) ; Australia, Canada: Labour Force Surveys (annual averages); United States: Current Population Survey, March supplement.

Macroeconomic and labour market indicators

Real GDP and GDP per capita

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at the price levels and PPPs of 2000 (OECD).

Employment and unemployment

Employment Outlook, OECD, 2011.

STATISTICAL ANNEX

List of Tables

FOREIGN AND FOREIGN-BORN POPULATIONS

Inflows and outflows of foreign population 340
A.1.1. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries and the Russian Federation 341
A.1.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries 342
B.1.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality 343-359

Inflows of asylum seekers 364
A.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation 365
B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality 366-382

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born population 384
A.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 385
B.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth 386-400
A.1.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 403
B.1.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality 404-417

Acquisition of nationality 420
A.1.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation 421
B.1.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality 422-436

FOREIGN AND FOREIGN-BORN LABOUR FORCE

Inflows of foreign workers 438
A.2.1. Inflows of foreign workers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation 439

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force 442
A.2.2. Stocks of foreign-born labour force in OECD countries 443
A.2.3. Stocks of foreign labour force in OECD countries and the Russian Federation . . . 445

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex have been provided by national SOPEMI correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of member countries. Consequently, these data are not necessarily based on common definitions. Countries under review in this annex are OECD countries for which data are available, as well as the Russian Federation. 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.

The purpose of this annex is to describe the "immigrant" population (generally the foreign-born population). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population as well as the acquisition of nationality (series 1.1 to 1.6) and flows and stocks of the immigrant labour force (series 2.1 to 2.3). These data have not been standardised and are therefore not fully comparable across countries. In particular, the criteria for registering persons in population registers and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if the same type of source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of unauthorised migrants. Part of this population may be counted in censuses. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to identify and enumerate a far from negligible fraction of unauthorised immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible to better measure the volume of the foreign-born population at a given time, even if it is not always possible to determine the year these immigrants entered the country.

Each series in the annex is preceded by an explanatory note concerning the data presented. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each destination country), and finally the tables by nationality or country of birth, as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides the sources and notes for the data presented in the tables for each country.

General comments on tables

a) The tables provide annual series covering the period 2000-09 (2010 preliminary data on asylum applications are included in Table A.1.3).

b) The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country. In the other tables, nationalities or countries of birth are ranked by decreasing order of frequency for the last year available.

c) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign or foreign-born population and the sum for all countries indicated in the table. For some countries, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.

d) There are no tables by nationality or country of birth for the series on outflows of the foreign population (series A.1.2), inflows and stocks of workers (series A.2.1, A.2.2 and A.2.3.). They are available online (*www.oecd.org/migration/imo*). Data on flows by gender are also available online.

e) The rounding of data cells may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component cells.

f) The symbol ". ." used in the tables means that the data are not available.

General comments

Note on Israel:

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Notes on Cyprus:

1. Note by Turkey

   The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

2. Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission

   The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

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.

In population registers, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform about his departure to avoid losing rights related to the presence on the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries; in particular the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be registered ranges from three months to one year, which poses major problems of international comparisons. For example, in some countries, register data cover many temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants) and international students.

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called "settlement countries" (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been granted the right of permanent residence, and this right is often granted upon arrival. Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries. In the case of France, the permits covered are those valid for at least one year (excluding students). 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 included in the statistics or because they are not required to have a permit (such as migrants benefitting from freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: *i)* permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; *ii)* permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Data for the United Kingdom are based on a survey of passengers entering or exiting the country by plane, train or boat (International Passenger Survey). One of the aims of this survey is to estimate the number and characteristics of migrants. The survey is based on a random sample of approximately one out of every 500 passengers. The figures were revised significantly following the latest census in each of these two countries, which seems to indicate that these estimates do not constitute an "ideal" source either. Australia and New Zealand also conduct passenger surveys which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants' stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia										
Permanent	107.1	127.9	119.1	123.4	146.4	161.7	176.2	189.5	203.9	222.6
Temporary	224.0	245.1	240.5	244.7	261.6	289.4	321.6	368.5	420.0	474.8
Austria	66.0	74.8	86.1	93.3	104.2	98.0	82.9	91.7	94.8	91.8
Belgium	57.3	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4	77.4	83.4	93.4	106.0	102.7
Canada										
Permanent	227.5	250.6	229.0	221.3	235.8	262.2	251.6	236.8	247.2	252.2
Temporary	254.2	268.5	247.9	228.3	228.2	229.6	250.1	279.9	313.8	382.3
Chile	. .	. .	. .	29.8	32.1	38.1	48.5	79.4	68.4	57.1
Czech Republic	4.2	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8	58.6	66.1	102.5	77.8	40.0
Denmark	22.8	24.6	21.5	18.4	18.7	20.1	24.0	23.5	30.9	. .
Estonia	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.9	2.2
Finland	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5	12.7	13.9	17.5	19.9	18.1
France	91.9	106.9	124.2	136.4	141.6	135.9	135.1	128.9	136.0	126.2
Germany	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2	579.3	558.5	574.8	573.8	606.3
Hungary	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	22.2	25.6	23.6	22.6	35.5	25.6
Ireland	27.8	32.7	39.9	42.4	41.8	66.1	88.9	89.5	67.6	38.9
Israel	60.2	43.6	33.6	23.3	20.9	21.2	19.3	18.1	13.7	14.6
Italy	271.5	232.8	388.1	. .	319.3	206.8	181.5	252.4	286.2	. .
Japan	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0	372.3	325.6	336.6	344.5	297.1
Korea	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3	188.8	266.3	314.7	317.6	311.7	242.8
Luxembourg	10.8	11.1	11.0	12.6	12.2	13.8	13.7	15.8	16.8	14.6
Mexico	6.4	8.1	5.8	6.9	8.5	9.2	6.9	6.8	15.1	23.9
Netherlands	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1	63.4	67.7	80.3	103.4	104.4
New Zealand	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2	54.1	49.8	46.8	46.9	43.6
Norway	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9	31.4	37.4	53.5	58.8	56.7
Poland	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.9	38.5	34.2	40.6	41.8	41.3
Portugal	15.9	151.4	72.0	31.8	34.1	28.1	22.5	32.6	32.3	33.8
Russian Federation	359.3	193.5	184.6	129.1	119.2	177.2	186.4	287.0	281.6	279.9
Slovak Republic	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	7.9	7.7	11.3	14.8	16.5	14.4
Slovenia	5.3	6.8	7.7	8.0	8.6	13.3	18.3	27.5	28.1	27.4
Spain	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8	682.7	803.0	920.5	692.2	469.3
Sweden	42.2	43.8	47.3	47.1	46.7	50.6	78.9	82.6	82.0	82.4
Switzerland	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0	96.3	94.4	102.7	139.7	157.3	132.4
Turkey	162.3	154.9	151.8	147.2	148.0	169.7	191.0	174.9	175.0	163.3
United Kingdom	379.0	370.0	418.0	411.0	500.0	469.0	513.0	500.0	505.0	471.0
United States										
Permanent	841.0	1 058.9	1 059.4	703.5	957.9	1 122.4	1 266.3	1 052.4	1 107.1	1 130.8
Temporary	1 249.4	1 375.1	1 282.6	1 233.4	1 299.3	1 323.5	1 457.9	1 606.9	1 617.6	1 419.2
EU25 (countries listed above) + Norway, Switzerland	**2 230.8**	**2 490.3**	**2 713.4**	**2 216.6**	**2 867.1**	**2 774.3**	**2 961.9**	**3 306.7**	**3 164.6**	**2 499.6**
North America	**1 068.5**	**1 309.5**	**1 288.4**	**924.9**	**1 193.7**	**1 384.6**	**1 517.9**	**1 289.2**	**1 354.4**	**1 383.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.1.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442674

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia										
Permanent departures	23.4	24.1	24.9	29.9	31.6	33.6	35.2	35.2	37.8	39.8
Long-term departures	42.2	31.9	29.5	29.6	31.8	34.4	36.1	36.1	. .	. .
Austria	44.4	51.0	44.5	48.9	50.0	49.8	55.0	52.6	55.3	66.1
Belgium	35.6	31.4	31.0	33.9	37.7	38.5	39.4	38.5	. .	. .
Czech Republic	0.2	20.6	31.1	33.2	33.8	21.8	31.4	18.4	3.8	9.4
Denmark	14.0	14.8	14.9	15.8	15.8	16.3	17.3	17.9	19.7	. .
Estonia					0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.7
Finland	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3	4.2	2.6	2.7	3.1	4.5	4.0
Germany	562.8	497.0	505.6	499.1	547.0	483.6	483.8	475.8	563.1	578.8
Hungary	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.6	3.5	3.3	4.0	4.1	4.2	5.6
Ireland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.7	29.1	31.9	46.7
Japan	210.9	232.8	248.4	259.4	278.5	292.0	218.8	214.9	234.2	262.0
Korea	89.1	107.2	114.0	152.3	148.8	266.7	183.0	163.6	215.7	236.4
Luxembourg	7.0	7.6	8.3	6.9	7.5	7.2	7.7	8.6	8.0	7.3
Netherlands	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9	23.5	24.0	26.5	29.0	30.7	35.5
New Zealand	15.6	28.6	22.4	25.4	29.0	30.6	20.5	21.4	23.0	23.6
Norway	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3	13.9	12.6	12.5	13.3	15.2	18.4
Portugal	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	. .	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	3.6	5.0	1.1	1.5	2.0	3.3	3.3
Slovenia	2.0	3.4	4.6	4.0	6.0	6.5	11.0	11.8	7.3	15.1
Spain	. .	. .	6.9	10.0	41.9	48.7	120.3	199.0	232.0	288.3
Sweden	12.5	12.7	14.1	15.1	16.0	15.8	20.0	20.4	19.2	18.3
Switzerland	55.8	52.7	49.7	46.3	47.9	49.7	53.0	56.2	54.1	55.2
United Kingdom	136.7	117.3	141.3	144.1	126.2	154.1	173.4	158.0	243.0	211.0
EU25 (countries listed above) + Norway, Switzerland	**913.3**	**848.2**	**890.7**	**902.0**	**980.0**	**935.9**	**1 080.1**	**1 137.9**	**1 295.4**	**1 362.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.1.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442693

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	11.8	13.2	14.6	18.6	25.7	26.2	30.9	30.7	31.7	33.3
New Zealand	31.6	42.3	21.6	16.4	18.7	22.4	23.8	28.3	34.5	33.0
India	4.6	5.8	7.6	8.2	11.3	12.8	15.2	19.8	22.7	25.3
China	8.1	8.3	9.1	9.4	12.5	15.2	17.3	21.1	20.7	22.9
South Africa	6.2	6.8	7.2	5.9	7.1	5.7	4.8	5.4	6.9	11.3
Philippines	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	4.4	4.8	5.4	6.1	7.1	8.9
Malaysia	2.0	2.5	2.6	3.9	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.4
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.8	2.4	2.3	2.1	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8	5.3
Korea	0.8	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	5.0	5.2
Iraq	2.0	1.3	1.3	2.9	1.8	3.3	5.1	2.5	2.6	4.4
Viet Nam	1.7	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.0	3.3
Myanmar	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.8	2.6	3.2
United States	1.8	2.3	2.6	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.1
Indonesia	3.4	4.5	5.8	4.7	4.4	3.8	3.3	3.2	3.2	2.9
Thailand	0.8	0.9	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.5	2.7	2.7
Other countries	27.1	31.0	34.2	37.9	43.1	48.6	49.7	49.2	48.2	52.4
Total	**107.1**	**127.9**	**119.1**	**123.4**	**146.4**	**161.7**	**176.2**	**189.5**	**203.9**	**222.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Germany	7.5	10.2	9.2	10.9	13.2	14.7	15.9	17.9	19.2	17.6
Romania	1.9	2.4	4.8	5.7	5.5	5.1	4.5	9.3	9.3	9.3
Serbia and Montenegro	6.5	6.3	9.9	10.5	11.6	11.7	7.4	6.4	6.1	6.2
Hungary	2.4	3.0	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.6	4.5	5.2	5.8
Turkey	7.1	7.8	11.3	10.4	8.2	7.7	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.8
Slovak Republic	1.9	2.5	2.5	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.9	4.0
Poland	3.4	3.5	3.0	3.4	7.0	6.8	5.7	5.3	4.4	3.8
Bulgaria	0.7	0.9	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	2.2	2.5	2.6
Russian Federation	0.9	0.9	1.8	4.0	6.8	4.0	2.5	2.2	3.0	2.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.9	6.0	4.9	5.4	5.4	4.6	3.2	3.0	2.9	2.4
Italy	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0
Croatia	4.8	6.1	3.8	3.4	3.3	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.9
Iran	2.5	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.9
United States	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6
Afghanistan	0.8	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.4
Other countries	19.4	20.1	26.4	28.1	30.4	27.7	22.5	23.9	24.1	24.1
Total	**66.0**	**74.8**	**86.1**	**93.3**	**104.2**	**98.0**	**82.9**	**91.7**	**94.8**	**91.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
France	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	9.5	10.4	11.6	12.3	14.1	12.3
Poland	1.1	2.9	2.4	2.1	3.5	4.8	6.7	9.4	9.0	9.9
Morocco	5.7	7.1	8.5	8.4	8.0	7.1	7.5	7.8	8.2	9.1
Netherlands	7.2	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.8	10.1	11.5	11.4	11.7	8.8
Romania	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	2.3	3.1	5.5	6.8	6.1
Spain	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.8	3.6
Italy	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.7	3.6
Germany	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.4
Bulgaria	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	2.6	3.9	3.3
Turkey	2.8	3.0	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.1
Portugal	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	3.2	2.9
United States	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.7
United Kingdom	3.2	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.4	1.9
India	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	2.1	1.8
China	0.8	1.3	2.1	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3
Other countries	15.7	19.5	20.8	20.0	20.6	21.8	22.0	23.6	27.4	29.1
Total	**57.3**	**66.0**	**70.2**	**68.8**	**72.4**	**77.4**	**83.4**	**93.4**	**106.0**	**102.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CANADA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	36.8	40.4	33.3	36.3	36.4	42.3	33.1	27.0	29.3	29.0
Philippines	10.1	12.9	11.0	12.0	13.3	17.5	17.7	19.1	23.7	27.3
India	26.1	27.9	28.8	24.6	25.6	33.1	30.8	26.1	24.5	26.1
United States	5.8	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.5	9.3	10.9	10.5	11.2	9.7
United Kingdom	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.2	6.1	5.9	6.5	8.1	9.2	9.6
France	4.4	4.5	4.0	4.2	5.1	5.5	5.0	5.6	6.4	7.4
Pakistan	14.2	15.4	14.2	12.4	12.8	13.6	12.3	9.5	8.1	6.2
Iran	5.6	5.7	7.9	5.7	6.1	5.5	7.1	6.7	6.0	6.1
Korea	7.6	9.6	7.3	7.1	5.3	5.8	6.2	5.9	7.2	5.9
Morocco	2.6	4.0	4.1	3.2	3.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	3.9	5.2
Algeria	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.2	3.1	4.5	3.2	3.2	4.8
United Arab Emirates	3.1	4.5	4.4	3.3	4.4	4.1	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.6
Iraq	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.6	2.6	4.6
Sri Lanka	5.8	5.5	5.0	4.4	4.1	4.7	4.5	3.9	4.5	4.3
Colombia	2.2	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.4	6.0	5.8	4.8	5.0	4.2
Other countries	94.5	101.4	91.4	89.0	96.9	101.8	99.0	97.7	97.5	97.2
Total	**227.5**	**250.6**	**229.0**	**221.3**	**235.8**	**262.2**	**251.6**	**236.8**	**247.2**	**252.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CHILE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Peru	. .	. .	. .	12.9	15.6	20.0	28.6	53.2	39.0	27.6
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.1	1.7	2.4	3.3	4.4	5.3
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	4.9	4.3	4.1	3.5	3.0	3.7	3.9
Bolivia	. .	. .	. .	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	6.0	4.5	3.6
Ecuador	. .	. .	. .	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.2	3.1	3.1	2.7
United States	. .	. .	. .	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.2
China	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.3
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1
Spain	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Uruguay	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.7
Venezuela	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7
Paraguay	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7
Dominican Republic	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.6
France	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.2	4.9	4.9
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**29.8**	**32.1**	**38.1**	**48.5**	**79.4**	**68.4**	**57.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	1.1	2.8	10.7	15.5	16.3	23.9	30.2	39.6	18.7	8.1
Slovak Republic	1.0	2.4	13.0	23.7	15.0	10.1	6.8	13.9	7.6	5.6
Russian Federation	0.4	0.7	2.4	1.8	2.0	3.3	4.7	6.7	5.8	4.1
United States	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.8	1.7	2.2	2.5
Viet Nam	0.3	2.2	5.7	3.6	4.5	4.9	6.4	12.3	13.4	2.3
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.4	0.8	1.9	4.3	2.0
Moldova	0.0	0.2	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.7	2.4	3.4	3.3	1.3
Poland	0.1	0.4	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.9	2.3	1.2	0.9
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.7	0.8
China	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4	1.0	0.9	0.6
Bulgaria	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	0.6
Romania	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.6	0.5
Uzbekistan	. .	. .	. .	0.8	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.5	0.5
Belarus	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.4
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Other countries	0.8	1.5	5.9	5.2	4.7	7.1	7.6	14.4	15.5	9.5
Total	**4.2**	**11.3**	**43.6**	**57.4**	**50.8**	**58.6**	**66.1**	**102.5**	**77.8**	**40.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poland	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3	2.5	2.4	4.2	. .
Germany	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.9	1.8	2.9	. .
Ukraine	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.7	. .
Norway	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.3	. .
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.3	. .
Sweden	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.3	. .
Iceland	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	. .
China	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	1.0	. .
United Kingdom	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.9	. .
India	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	. .
United States	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	. .
Romania	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.7	. .
Lithuania	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	. .
Thailand	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	. .
Turkey	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	. .
Other countries	14.2	15.5	12.3	9.1	8.3	8.3	9.2	8.9	10.7	. .
Total	**22.8**	**24.6**	**21.5**	**18.4**	**18.7**	**20.1**	**24.0**	**23.5**	**30.9**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ESTONIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Latvia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Sweden	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.5	1.5	0.6
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**0.8**	**1.0**	**1.5**	**2.0**	**1.9**	**2.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Estonia	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.5	2.9	3.0	3.2
Russian Federation	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.5	3.0	2.3
Iraq	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.9
Somalia	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.8
Sweden	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8
China	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.8
Thailand	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6
India	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Turkey	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3
Poland	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.3
Viet Nam	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Ukraine	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	3.2	4.1	3.3	3.4	4.2	4.5	4.8	6.2	7.1	5.8
Total	**9.1**	**11.0**	**10.0**	**9.4**	**11.5**	**12.7**	**13.9**	**17.5**	**19.9**	**18.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Algeria	12.4	15.0	23.4	28.5	27.9	24.8	25.4	23.1	22.3	20.0
Morocco	17.4	19.1	21.8	22.6	22.2	20.0	19.2	17.9	19.2	15.5
Tunisia	5.6	6.6	7.8	9.4	8.9	8.0	8.2	7.8	7.9	7.5
Turkey	6.6	6.9	8.5	8.6	9.1	8.9	8.3	7.6	7.7	6.2
Mali	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.8	4.6	5.6
China	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	4.3	3.7	4.0	4.1
Cameroon	1.8	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.1	4.3	4.4	3.9	3.7	3.8
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.4	1.8	2.0	2.4	3.4
Côte d'Ivoire	1.8	2.2	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.3
Senegal	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6	3.1	3.2
Russian Federation	1.2	1.4	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.0	2.5	2.3	3.0	2.9
Sri Lanka	1.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.1	1.9	2.4	2.6
Romania	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.4	3.7	2.5
Haiti	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.3
United States	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.2
Other countries	31.8	37.1	39.4	40.7	43.6	44.0	43.7	43.1	44.1	41.0
Total	**91.9**	**106.9**	**124.2**	**136.4**	**141.6**	**135.9**	**135.1**	**128.9**	**136.0**	**126.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poland	74.3	79.0	81.6	88.2	125.0	147.7	151.7	140.0	119.9	112.0
Romania	24.2	20.1	24.0	23.8	23.5	23.3	23.4	42.9	48.2	57.3
Bulgaria	10.4	13.2	13.2	13.4	11.6	9.1	7.5	20.5	24.1	29.2
Turkey	50.0	54.7	58.1	49.8	42.6	36.0	29.6	26.7	26.7	27.2
Hungary	16.1	17.0	16.5	14.3	17.4	18.6	18.6	22.2	25.2	25.3
Italy	33.2	28.8	25.0	21.6	19.6	18.3	17.7	18.2	20.1	22.2
United States	16.5	16.0	15.5	14.7	15.3	15.2	16.3	17.5	17.5	17.7
Russian Federation	32.7	35.9	36.5	31.8	28.5	23.1	16.4	15.0	15.1	15.7
China	14.7	19.1	18.5	16.1	13.1	12.0	12.9	13.6	14.3	15.4
Iraq	12.6	17.7	13.0	6.5	3.3	3.3	3.4	5.0	8.9	13.1
France	15.3	13.5	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.6	13.8	13.0	12.9
India	6.5	8.9	9.4	9.2	9.1	8.4	8.9	9.4	11.4	12.0
Austria	11.9	11.6	10.2	9.2	9.0	8.6	9.8	10.6	9.5	10.0
Netherlands	7.0	8.4	9.9	9.1	9.1	10.1	11.0	11.1	11.2	9.4
Croatia	14.4	14.1	13.1	11.6	10.5	9.3	8.3	8.4	8.7	9.1
Other countries	309.1	327.1	301.2	270.3	252.0	224.0	209.2	200.1	200.1	217.9
Total	**648.8**	**685.3**	**658.3**	**601.8**	**602.2**	**579.3**	**558.5**	**574.8**	**573.8**	**606.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Romania	8.9	10.6	10.3	9.6	12.1	8.9	7.9	6.7	10.0	7.1
Germany	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.1	3.9	0.7	0.7	3.2	2.7
Ukraine	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.6	3.6	2.1	3.7	2.9	4.1	1.9
China	1.1	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.4	1.9	1.5	1.3
United States	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	1.2	1.3
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.1	1.2
Slovak Republic	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.7	1.3	1.2
Austria	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.7
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.5
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5
France	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.4
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.4
Japan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3
United Kingdom	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3
Other countries	4.5	3.7	2.9	3.6	4.3	4.9	6.6	7.6	6.3	5.4
Total	**20.2**	**20.3**	**18.0**	**19.4**	**22.2**	**25.6**	**23.6**	**22.6**	**35.5**	**25.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	8.4	9.0	7.4	9.1	7.4	8.9	9.9	5.9	7.0	4.4
United States	2.5	3.7	2.7	2.1	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.8	2.0	1.1
Other countries	16.9	20.0	29.8	31.2	32.1	55.1	77.3	80.8	58.6	33.4
Total	**27.8**	**32.7**	**39.9**	**42.4**	**41.8**	**66.1**	**88.9**	**89.5**	**67.6**	**38.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ISRAEL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Former USSR	50.8	33.6	18.5	12.4	10.1	9.4	7.5	6.5	5.6	6.8
United States	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.5
France	1.2	1.0	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.3	1.6	1.6
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7
Argentina	1.1	1.4	5.9	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Canada	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
South Africa	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3
Ethiopia	2.2	3.3	2.7	3.0	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	1.6	0.2
Brazil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Belgium	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mexico	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Hungary	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.0	1.0
Total	**60.2**	**43.6**	**33.6**	**23.3**	**20.9**	**21.2**	**19.3**	**18.1**	**13.7**	**14.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Morocco	24.7	17.8	26.1	. .	24.6	11.5	12.7	29.8	32.9	. .
Albania	31.2	27.9	39.1	. .	29.6	17.1	16.1	29.3	26.6	. .
Ukraine	4.1	5.1	8.1	. .	11.2	6.8	5.4	23.2	22.0	. .
China	15.4	8.8	15.4	. .	10.6	9.3	6.0	17.4	18.3	. .
Moldova	1.9	. .	. .	. .	5.1	5.2	5.4	22.2	17.4	. .
India	7.0	4.8	7.2	. .	5.7	4.2	4.8	11.0	15.0	. .
Bangladesh	6.6	. .	4.7	. .	3.5	2.5	2.9	9.8	11.0	. .
Philippines	12.2	4.6	10.4	. .	5.2	3.0	2.2	7.4	10.5	. .
Peru	4.7	. .	7.7	. .	4.4	2.7	2.8	6.1	8.8	. .
United States	7.2	7.3	11.2	. .	8.0	6.4	4.8	4.0	7.9	. .
Egypt	6.5	. .	8.6	. .	4.3	2.3	2.5	4.2	7.4	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	5.3	6.0	8.2	. .	6.3	3.4	3.9	5.7	6.7	. .
Sri Lanka	6.0	4.3	7.6	. .	3.0	2.4	2.3	6.8	6.5	. .
Pakistan	6.0	. .	5.2	. .	3.7	2.1	1.3	3.8	6.2	. .
Tunisia	6.8	6.5	8.0	. .	6.0	4.3	3.3	5.9	6.1	. .
Other countries	125.9	139.4	220.6	. .	188.2	123.9	105.1	65.9	83.0	. .
Total	**271.5**	**232.8**	**388.1**	**. .**	**319.3**	**206.8**	**181.5**	**252.4**	**286.2**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	75.3	86.4	88.6	92.2	90.3	105.8	112.5	125.3	134.2	121.2
Korea	24.3	24.7	22.9	21.9	22.8	22.7	24.7	28.1	30.0	27.0
United States	24.0	20.6	21.5	21.5	21.3	22.1	22.2	22.8	24.0	23.5
Philippines	74.2	84.9	87.2	93.4	96.2	63.5	28.3	25.3	21.0	15.8
Viet Nam	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.6	6.5	7.7	8.5	9.9	12.5	10.9
Thailand	6.6	6.8	5.9	6.6	7.1	9.0	8.7	9.0	10.5	9.9
Indonesia	9.9	10.6	9.7	11.1	10.7	12.9	11.4	10.1	10.1	7.5
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.5	4.9	5.5	5.4
United Kingdom	7.0	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.6	5.8	6.0	5.3
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.9	5.8	5.7	4.6
Russian Federation	6.4	6.3	6.6	7.7	7.1	6.2	5.0	4.2	4.5	4.5
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.7	4.9	4.8	4.5
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.8	4.2	4.5	3.9
Nepal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	2.2	3.6	3.6
Australia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.1
Other countries	114.3	99.4	89.6	106.4	103.7	116.1	74.1	70.4	63.9	46.3
Total	**345.8**	**351.2**	**343.8**	**373.9**	**372.0**	**372.3**	**325.6**	**336.6**	**344.5**	**297.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	66.6	70.6	60.0	57.7	72.6	119.3	163.4	183.8	164.3	121.4
United States	14.7	16.2	19.0	17.1	17.7	18.8	19.4	21.1	24.8	28.2
Viet Nam	7.6	. .	3.2	6.8	8.0	18.2	20.2	21.3	23.8	16.4
Philippines	13.4	7.8	8.1	10.2	10.2	16.7	17.9	12.3	9.2	8.9
Canada	. .	4.2	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.4	6.6	6.7
Japan	7.2	8.0	8.5	7.3	7.7	8.6	7.8	7.7	6.6	6.2
Thailand	8.0	6.7	6.8	7.2	9.7	13.7	15.8	10.6	8.6	6.0
Mongolia	4.8	4.9	. .	. .	5.1	8.3	9.8	8.8	8.2	5.4
Uzbekistan	5.5	3.8	3.9	7.0	. .	. .	. .	4.9	9.3	4.6
Indonesia	7.9	7.2	10.0	9.3	5.2	10.3	6.9	5.2	9.7	3.3
Russian Federation	7.5	8.0	9.5	10.8	6.6	6.2	5.2	. .	. .	3.1
Cambodia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	3.4	2.6
Nepal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	2.4	2.6
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	2.0
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	2.4	2.0
Other countries	42.1	35.2	36.4	39.6	40.4	40.6	42.4	29.8	30.4	23.5
Total	**185.4**	**172.5**	**170.9**	**178.3**	**188.8**	**266.3**	**314.7**	**317.6**	**311.7**	**242.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Portugal	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.4	4.5	3.8
France	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	2.7
Belgium	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0
Italy	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7
United Kingdom	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4
United States	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Romania	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Brazil	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Cape Verde	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Denmark	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.9	2.9	3.4	2.8	3.6	3.4	2.9
Total	**10.8**	**11.1**	**11.0**	**12.6**	**12.2**	**13.8**	**13.7**	**15.8**	**16.8**	**14.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	2.2	2.9
Guatemala	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	1.0	2.1
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	1.3	2.0
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	1.1	1.9
Cuba	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	1.0	1.7
Honduras	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.0	0.8	1.4
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.9	1.4
Venezuela	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.7	1.3
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.6	0.9
El Salvador	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.5	0.8
Peru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.7
Canada	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.6
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.5
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.3	0.5
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.3	0.4
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	3.4	4.8
Total	**6.4**	**8.1**	**5.8**	**6.9**	**8.5**	**9.2**	**6.9**	**6.8**	**15.1**	**23.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poland	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	4.5	5.7	6.8	9.2	13.3	12.7
Germany	4.9	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.3	5.9	7.2	7.5	9.0	8.7
United Kingdom	5.9	5.9	4.8	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.7	4.4
China	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.4	4.2	4.3
Bulgaria	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	4.9	5.2	4.3
Turkey	4.5	4.8	5.4	6.2	4.1	3.1	2.8	2.4	3.3	3.5
United States	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.1
India	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.0	2.5	3.5	3.1
France	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2	3.0	2.9
Spain	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.3	2.6
Italy	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.6	2.6
Portugal	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.4
Hungary	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.7	2.2
Romania	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	2.3	2.4	2.2
Belgium	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.0
Other countries	59.6	60.9	53.0	40.9	33.3	30.4	29.6	30.6	40.2	43.5
Total	**91.4**	**94.5**	**86.6**	**73.6**	**65.1**	**63.4**	**67.7**	**80.3**	**103.4**	**104.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	5.0	6.8	6.6	8.2	8.7	17.1	13.0	11.3	9.5	7.8
China	4.3	7.9	7.6	5.9	4.0	5.6	6.8	5.6	7.4	5.8
South Africa	3.5	4.8	3.3	2.4	2.4	4.5	3.6	4.0	4.7	5.2
Philippines	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.7	3.7	3.6	3.4
Fiji	2.2	3.6	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3
India	4.3	7.4	8.2	4.8	3.1	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.2	3.2
Samoa	2.5	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.0
United States	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.2
Korea	1.1	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.1	1.0	0.8	0.9
Tonga	0.9	0.8	0.7	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7
Sri Lanka	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6
Malaysia	1.0	2.1	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Japan	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5
Canada	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5
Other countries	9.1	11.9	9.7	8.6	7.6	8.8	8.3	7.6	7.5	7.4
Total	**37.6**	**54.4**	**47.5**	**43.0**	**36.2**	**54.1**	**49.8**	**46.8**	**46.9**	**43.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poland	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.6	3.3	7.4	14.2	14.4	10.5
Sweden	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.4	5.7	6.0
Lithuania	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	2.4	2.9	3.2
Germany	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.3	3.8	4.3	2.8
Philippines	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.6	1.8	1.7
Eritrea	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.7
Iceland	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.6
Afghanistan	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.4
Thailand	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3
Denmark	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3
Somalia	1.5	1.1	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.3
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3
Iraq	4.5	1.2	2.7	1.1	1.0	1.4	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2
Romania	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	1.1	1.1
Latvia	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.1
Other countries	11.9	12.7	14.3	13.4	14.1	14.2	14.7	18.5	19.8	19.3
Total	**27.8**	**25.4**	**30.8**	**26.8**	**27.9**	**31.4**	**37.4**	**53.5**	**58.8**	**56.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	3.4	4.8	6.9	8.4	10.2	9.8	9.6	9.4	10.3	10.1
Belarus	0.8	1.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.2
Viet Nam	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.8	2.8	3.0
China	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.2	2.0
Germany	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.2	6.1	4.6	6.7	2.9	1.7
Russian Federation	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.6
Armenia	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6
India	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1
Turkey	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0
Korea	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.0
United States	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
Japan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7
Nigeria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.7
Italy	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6
Other countries	5.8	8.1	11.3	9.7	11.6	10.5	8.5	11.4	12.1	11.5
Total	**15.9**	**21.5**	**30.2**	**30.3**	**36.9**	**38.5**	**34.2**	**40.6**	**41.8**	**41.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Romania	. .	7.8	3.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	5.3	8.1
Cape Verde	2.1	9.1	5.9	3.4	3.1	3.5	3.3	4.1	3.5	3.3
Brazil	1.7	26.6	14.7	6.7	14.4	9.5	6.1	5.0	3.5	2.9
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.8	3.9	2.7	2.2
Bulgaria	. .	1.8	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9	1.5
Spain	1.1	1.4	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	1.4	1.3	1.5
China	0.4	3.9	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.3	1.3
Germany	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	1.6	1.1	1.1
Italy	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.0	1.0	1.0
Sao Tome and Principe	0.6	2.6	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.0
Moldova	. .	10.1	4.0	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.7	0.9
Ukraine	. .	45.5	17.5	4.1	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.0	1.3	0.9
Guinea-Bissau	1.6	5.1	2.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.6	0.8
France	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.7	0.7
India	. .	2.9	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6
Other countries	5.8	32.1	15.6	8.5	5.8	5.6	3.9	6.6	5.4	6.0
Total	**15.9**	**151.4**	**72.0**	**31.8**	**34.1**	**28.1**	**22.5**	**32.6**	**32.3**	**33.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	74.7	36.5	36.8	23.4	17.7	30.8	32.7	51.5	49.1	45.9
Uzbekistan	40.8	24.9	25.0	21.5	14.9	30.4	37.1	52.8	43.5	42.5
Kazakhstan	124.9	65.2	55.7	29.6	40.2	51.9	38.6	40.3	40.0	38.8
Armenia	16.0	5.8	6.8	5.1	3.1	7.6	12.9	30.8	35.2	35.8
Tajikistan	11.0	6.7	6.0	5.3	3.3	4.7	6.5	17.3	20.7	27.0
Kyrgyzstan	15.5	10.7	13.1	6.9	9.5	15.6	15.7	24.7	24.0	23.3
Azerbaijan	14.9	5.6	5.6	4.3	2.6	4.6	8.9	21.0	23.3	22.9
Moldova	11.7	7.6	7.6	6.4	4.8	6.6	8.6	14.1	15.5	16.4
Georgia	20.2	9.7	7.1	5.5	4.9	5.5	6.8	10.6	8.8	7.5
Belarus	10.3	6.5	6.8	5.3	5.7	6.8	5.6	6.0	5.9	5.5
Turkmenistan	6.7	4.4	4.5	6.3	3.7	4.1	4.1	4.8	4.0	3.3
Germany	1.8	1.6	2.0	2.7	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.6
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9	0.7	1.0
Israel	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9
China	1.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.7	1.2	0.8
Other countries	8.2	6.4	5.5	4.6	3.9	4.1	4.1	6.2	5.6	5.8
Total	**359.3**	**193.5**	**184.6**	**129.1**	**119.2**	**177.2**	**186.4**	**287.0**	**281.6**	**279.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	0.6	1.6	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.6
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	1.3	1.1
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.1
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.3	0.9
Romania	. .	. .	. .	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.0	2.3	0.8
Poland	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.7
Korea	. .	. .	. .	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7
China	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6
Germany	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.6
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5
Italy	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Austria	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
United States	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	1.4	1.9	2.0	2.8	3.1	2.9	3.0
Total	**4.6**	**4.7**	**4.8**	**4.6**	**7.9**	**7.7**	**11.3**	**14.8**	**16.5**	**14.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVENIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.1	3.0	4.3	7.9	12.5	13.0	12.9
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.7	2.1	3.2	3.2	3.0
Serbia	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	2.4	3.3	4.4	6.4	4.4	2.9
Croatia	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.4
Bulgaria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.5	0.5
Ukraine	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4
Italy	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Germany	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Russian Federation	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
United Kingdom	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1
Austria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Poland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Romania	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1
France	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.5	1.2	1.2	1.5	3.6	5.1
Total	**5.3**	**6.8**	**7.7**	**8.0**	**8.6**	**13.3**	**18.3**	**27.5**	**28.1**	**27.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Morocco	38.3	39.5	40.2	41.2	73.4	82.5	78.5	85.0	93.6	61.8
Romania	17.5	23.3	48.3	55.0	103.6	108.3	131.5	197.6	71.5	52.4
Colombia	46.1	71.2	34.2	11.1	21.5	24.9	35.6	41.7	42.2	25.6
United Kingdom	10.9	16.0	25.3	31.8	48.4	44.7	42.5	38.2	25.0	19.2
China	4.8	5.2	5.7	7.5	20.3	18.4	16.9	20.4	27.2	18.6
Ecuador	91.1	82.6	89.0	72.8	17.2	15.2	21.4	30.2	37.8	18.2
Peru	6.0	7.1	8.0	13.5	17.7	19.9	21.7	27.4	31.1	16.3
Brazil	4.1	4.3	4.7	7.4	16.5	24.6	32.6	36.1	27.3	14.4
Italy	3.9	6.2	10.4	10.0	15.0	16.5	18.6	21.2	18.0	13.6
Paraguay	0.2	0.3	0.7	2.4	10.4	12.6	21.6	24.0	20.6	13.4
Dominican Republic	5.5	5.4	5.5	6.6	10.3	12.2	14.7	18.1	17.8	10.8
Pakistan	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	9.4	12.4	8.2	10.6	13.4	10.6
Germany	10.2	10.7	11.2	10.8	14.0	15.2	16.9	17.8	12.6	10.4
Portugal	3.0	3.1	3.5	4.8	9.9	13.3	20.7	27.2	16.9	9.7
Bulgaria	6.5	11.8	15.9	13.7	21.0	18.4	21.7	31.3	13.1	9.7
Other countries	81.1	105.5	138.8	139.2	237.4	243.4	299.9	293.7	224.3	164.5
Total	**330.9**	**394.0**	**443.1**	**429.5**	**645.8**	**682.7**	**803.0**	**920.5**	**692.2**	**469.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	6.6	6.5	7.4	5.4	2.8	2.9	10.9	15.2	12.1	8.5
Somalia	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.3	3.0	3.8	4.1	6.9
Poland	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0	2.5	3.4	6.3	7.5	7.0	5.2
Denmark	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	5.1	5.1	4.1	3.8
China	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.1
Thailand	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.0
Germany	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.9	3.6	3.4	2.8
Iran	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.1	2.0	1.4	1.8	2.4
Finland	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.4
Turkey	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.5	2.0
Norway	2.9	3.0	3.5	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.3	1.9
Romania	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	2.6	2.5	1.8
India	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.8
Pakistan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8
United Kingdom	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.6
Other countries	18.7	18.9	19.2	19.5	20.3	22.5	33.8	28.1	30.3	33.4
Total	**42.2**	**43.8**	**47.3**	**47.1**	**46.7**	**50.6**	**78.9**	**82.6**	**82.0**	**82.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Germany	12.5	14.6	15.5	14.9	18.1	20.4	24.8	41.1	46.4	33.9
Portugal	4.9	4.9	9.3	12.3	13.6	12.2	12.5	15.5	17.8	13.7
France	6.6	6.6	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.6	11.5	13.7	10.9
Italy	5.4	5.6	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.5	8.4	9.9	8.5
United Kingdom	3.7	3.9	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.4	5.1	5.6	4.8
Austria	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0	2.8	3.2	2.8
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.4	4.9	2.6
Spain	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.4	2.5
Turkey	2.8	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.1	2.0	0.9	2.1	2.2
Poland	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1	2.4	2.1
Netherlands	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.8	2.0	1.5
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.2	1.1
Hungary	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.1
Belgium	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.0
Romania	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0
Other countries	43.9	53.8	49.5	41.7	39.2	36.9	38.7	40.4	42.5	42.7
Total	**87.4**	**101.4**	**101.9**	**94.0**	**96.3**	**94.4**	**102.7**	**139.7**	**157.3**	**132.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Azerbaijan	10.6	10.0	9.9	9.5	10.5	10.5	12.3	9.6	15.9	17.1
Russian Federation	6.9	6.2	6.5	6.1	6.3	6.4	7.8	10.9	11.4	12.9
Bulgaria	61.7	58.7	54.9	48.2	44.9	53.7	51.7	16.5	26.2	12.4
Germany	5.3	5.4	5.9	6.3	7.1	8.4	9.8	9.9	9.9	10.2
United Kingdom	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	6.4	7.8	8.3	8.3	8.5
Kazakhstan	3.7	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.2	3.4	6.2	7.8
Iraq	5.5	5.5	4.3	4.5	4.6	6.1	7.0	8.5	8.9	7.1
Afghanistan	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.0	3.6	5.7	6.6	6.6	6.9
United States	6.4	5.5	5.8	5.8	5.6	6.1	6.6	6.0	6.0	5.4
Iran	6.1	6.6	5.7	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1	5.4	5.4	5.3
Ukraine	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.4	4.3	4.4	4.4	5.1
Greece	7.3	6.6	6.5	6.6	6.6	5.9	6.3	5.2	5.4	4.9
Kyrgyzstan	2.1	1.6	1.7	2.2	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.3	4.8
China	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.7	3.6	3.8	4.5
Turkmenistan	2.5	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.6	3.4	3.6	4.0
Other countries	34.0	33.0	35.6	36.2	35.2	41.9	52.9	70.1	49.6	46.3
Total	**162.3**	**154.9**	**151.8**	**147.2**	**148.0**	**169.7**	**191.0**	**174.9**	**175.0**	**163.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
India	17.2	16.0	21.0	30.0	51.0	47.0	57.0	55.0	48.0	64.0
Poland	0.5	1.9	. .	. .	16.0	49.0	60.0	88.0	55.0	32.0
China	18.6	18.5	29.0	31.0	32.0	22.0	23.0	21.0	18.0	22.0
United States	14.0	13.1	16.0	16.0	14.0	15.0	16.0	15.0	17.0	17.0
Pakistan	9.5	9.6	7.0	10.0	21.0	16.0	31.0	27.0	17.0	17.0
France	14.7	16.2	9.0	21.0	10.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.0
Bangladesh	3.1	4.5	3.0	5.0	6.0	10.0	10.0	6.0	6.0	13.0
Nigeria	5.6	2.0	2.0	5.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	11.0	12.0
Australia	23.8	33.5	20.0	21.0	27.0	20.0	26.0	18.0	14.0	12.0
Philippines	6.1	11.6	21.0	12.0	11.0	10.0	12.0	13.0	13.0	12.0
Ireland	1.6	0.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.0
Germany	11.4	16.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.0	15.0	18.0	11.0
Spain	3.9	2.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.0
Romania	0.0	0.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.0
Italy	7.6	1.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.0	8.0
Other countries	123.3	114.9	160.8	176.4	237.3	207.1	194.7	188.0	225.0	164.0
Total	**260.4**	**262.2**	**288.8**	**327.4**	**434.3**	**405.1**	**451.7**	**455.0**	**456.0**	**430.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mexico	173.5	205.6	218.8	115.6	175.4	161.4	173.8	148.6	190.0	164.9
China	45.6	56.3	61.1	40.6	55.5	70.0	87.3	76.7	80.3	64.2
Philippines	42.3	52.9	51.0	45.3	57.8	60.7	74.6	72.6	54.0	60.0
India	41.9	70.0	70.8	50.2	70.2	84.7	61.4	65.4	63.4	57.3
Dominican Republic	17.5	21.2	22.5	26.2	30.5	27.5	38.1	28.0	31.9	49.4
Cuba	19.0	27.5	28.2	9.3	20.5	36.3	45.6	29.1	49.5	39.0
Viet Nam	26.6	35.4	33.6	22.1	31.5	32.8	30.7	28.7	31.5	29.2
Colombia	14.4	16.6	18.8	14.7	18.8	25.6	43.2	33.2	30.2	27.8
Korea	15.7	20.5	20.7	12.4	19.8	26.6	24.4	22.4	26.7	25.9
Haiti	22.3	27.0	20.2	12.3	14.2	14.5	22.2	30.4	26.0	24.3
Jamaica	15.9	15.3	14.8	13.3	14.4	18.3	25.0	19.4	18.5	21.8
Pakistan	14.5	16.4	13.7	9.4	12.1	14.9	17.4	13.5	19.7	21.6
El Salvador	22.5	31.1	31.1	28.2	29.8	21.4	31.8	21.1	19.7	19.9
Iran	8.5	10.4	13.0	7.2	10.4	13.9	13.9	10.5	13.9	18.6
Peru	9.6	11.1	11.9	9.4	11.8	15.7	21.7	17.7	15.2	17.0
Other countries	351.2	441.6	429.2	287.4	385.1	498.1	555.2	435.2	436.8	490.0
Total	**841.0**	**1 058.9**	**1 059.4**	**703.5**	**957.9**	**1 122.4**	**1 266.3**	**1 052.4**	**1 107.1**	**1 130.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442845

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1.
Migration flows in selected OECD countries

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	*Permanent migrants:* Includes offshore migration (*Settler Arrivals*) and onshore migration (people granted permanent residence while in Australia on a temporary visa). Settler arrivals include holders of a permanent visa, a temporary (provisional) visa where there is a clear intention to settle, citizens of New-Zealand indicating an intention to settle and persons otherwise eligible to settle. *Temporary migrants:* Entries of temporary residents, excluding students. Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, *e.g.* top managers, executives, specialists and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers. *Permanent departures:* Residents 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).	Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
Austria	Foreigners holding a residence permit and actually staying in the country for at least 3 months.	Until 2001, data are from local population registers. Starting in 2002, they are from the central population register. The data for 2002-07 were revised to bring in line migration statistics with the results of the register-based test census of 2006.	Population Registers, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Asylum seekers were formerly grouped under the category "Refugees". From 1st January 2008 on, they are classified like other migrants. This may explain some of the increase for certain nationalities between 2007 and 2008.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI).
Canada	*Permanent migrants:* Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status. *Temporary migrants:* Inflows (first entries) 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 a work or student permit and who are not seeking protection.	Table B.1.1 presents the inflow of persons who have acquired permanent resident status only. Data on inflows of permanent residents include 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. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile	Temporary residence permits granted.		Register of permits of residence granted, *Chile Sistema B3000*, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Foreigners holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit or who were granted asylum in the given year.	In 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders.	Register of Foreigners, Population Information System of the Ministry of the Interior and Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	Foreigners who live legally in Denmark, are registred in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least one year. From 2006 on, Statistics Denmark started using a new calculation on the underlying demographic data. The data from 2006 on are therefore not comparable with earlier years. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits are excluded from the data.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1.
Migration flows in selected OECD countries *(cont.)*

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Estonia			Population Register and Police and Border Guard Board (PBG), Statistics Estonia.
Finland	Foreign holding a residence permit and willing to stay in the country at least one year.	Foreign persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	The "permanent" entries consist of the first statistical registration as a permanent migrant of people coming from abroad, regularised or who changed their status from a temporary migrant. Data include entries due to labour migration (employees, non employed holders of a "competence and talent" permit or a "scientific" permit), family migration (family reunification, members of families of French persons or refugees, families accompanying workers), refugees and other permit holders.		French Office for Immigration and Integration (OFII), Ministry of the Interior, Overseas Territories, Local Authorities and Immigration, French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons (OFPRA).
Germany	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one week.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. In 2008 and 2009, local authorities purged their registers of inactive records. As a result, higher emigration figures were reported for these two years.	Central Population Register, Federal Statistical Office.
Hungary	Foreigners holding a long-term residence permit (valid for at least one 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 persons whose permits have expired.	Register of holders of permanent residence cards, Office of Immigration and Nationality, Ministry of Administration and Justice; Central Statistical Office.
Ireland	Figures are derived from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) series. 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.		Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Data refer to permanent immigrants by last country of residence. Data for India include Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Data for Egypt include Sudan. Data for former Czechoslovakia include Slovak Republic and Czech Republic. Data for former Yugoslavia include Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Slovenia, Serbia and Croatia.	The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	Issues of residence permits, including short-term ones (excluding renewals) which are still valid at the end of the year. Excluding seasonal workers and EU nationals.	New entries were 155 264 in 2000. Other permits are first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for regularisation in 1998.	Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	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.
Korea	Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	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).
Mexico	Number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time ("inmigrante" FM2).		National Migration Institute (INM).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1.
Migration flows in selected OECD countries *(cont.)*

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Netherlands	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least four of the next six months. Outflows exclude administrative corrections, *i.e.* unreported emigration of foreigners.	Inflows exclude some asylum seekers (those staying in reception centres).	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
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).		Immigration Service, Department of Labour, and New Zealand Statistics.
Norway	Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Asylum seekers are registered as immigrants only after having settled in a Norwegian municipality following a positive outcome of their application. An asylum seeker whose application has been rejected will not be registered as an "immigrant", even if the application process has taken a long time and the return to the home country is delayed for a significant period.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-term" residence permits issued. Since 26 August 2006, nationals of European Union Member States and their family members are no longer issued residence permits in Poland. However, they still need to register their stay in Poland, provided that they are planning to stay in Poland for more than three months.	2007 data include registrations of nationals of European Union Member States for the period August 2006 to December 2007.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. 2001 to 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 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, inflows include residence permits and long term visas issued over the year. Since 2006 figures include long term visas for non-EU 25 citizens and new residence titles attributed to EU 25 citizens (who do not need a visa).		Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF), National Statistical Institute (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Russian Federation	*Inflows:* Temporary and permanent residence permits issued. *Outflows:* Holders of a temporary or a permanent residence permit.		Federal Migration Service, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Until 2002, foreigners newly granted long term and permanent residence permits. In accordance with the 2002 law, data include permanent, temporary, and tolerated residents.		Register of Foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Slovenia	*Inflows:* Prior to 2008, data on migration followed 1996 statistical definition of the population. From 2008 on, data on migration follow 2008 statistical definition of the population. *Outflows:* Data on emigration of foreigners are estimated on the basis of the number of foreigners and natural changes in Slovenia. Since 1999, the data on international migration of citizens also include temporary absence from Slovenia because of departure abroad for more than three months and arrivals after residing abroad temporarily.	Prior to 2008, the data on immigration of foreigners were from the Ministry of the Interior (initially from the Database on Foreigners and later from the Register of Foreigners), while data on emigrated foreigners were estimates prepared by the Statistical Office. From 2008 on, data on migration are from the Central Population Register based on the registration/deregistration of residence in Slovenia, registration of temporary departure from Slovenia and registration of return to Slovenia.	Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior, and Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.
Spain	Foreigners residing in a municipality. Data refer to country of origin and not to country of birth.	Residence Variation Statistics (RVS).	Local Register (*Padron municipal de habitantes*), National Statistical Institute (INE).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1.
Migration flows in selected OECD countries *(cont.)*

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Sweden	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	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. From 2006 on, the data refer to Serbia and not to Serbia and Montenegro.		Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	Residence permits issued for a duration of residence longer than one month.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of the Interior.
United Kingdom	*Inflows:* Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Data in Table A.1.1 are adjusted to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year and have recently been revised to take into account changes in weights. Data by nationality in Table B.1.1 on inflows are not adjusted. Statistics whose coefficient of variation exceeds 30% are not shown separately but grouped under "Other countries". *Outflows:* Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom.		International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	*Permanent migrants:* Issues of permanent residence permits. *Temporary migrants:* 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 persons already present in the United States who changed status. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security and Bureau of Consular Affairs, United States Department of State.

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 (*http://www.unhcr/org/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.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010*
Australia	13 065	12 366	5 863	4 295	3 201	3 204	3 515	3 980	4 771	6 206	8 250
Austria	18 284	30 135	39 354	32 359	24 634	22 461	13 349	11 921	12 841	15 821	11 020
Belgium	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 357	15 957	11 587	11 115	12 252	17 186	19 940
Canada	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 873	28 342	34 800	33 970	23 160
Chile	69	81	43	87	203	380	573	756	872	. .	. .
Czech Republic	8 788	18 094	8 484	11 396	5 459	4 160	3 016	1 878	1 711	1 355	460
Denmark	12 200	12 512	6 068	4 593	3 235	2 260	1 918	1 852	2 360	3 819	4 970
Estonia	3	12	9	14	14	11	7	14	14	36	30
Finland	3 170	1 651	3 443	3 221	3 861	3 574	2 331	1 434	4 016	5 910	4 020
France	38 747	54 291	58 971	59 768	58 545	49 733	30 748	29 387	35 404	42 118	47 790
Germany	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 607	28 914	21 029	19 164	22 085	27 649	41 330
Greece	3 083	5 499	5 664	8 178	4 469	9 050	12 267	25 113	19 884	15 928	10 270
Hungary	7 801	9 554	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 609	2 117	3 425	3 118	4 672	2 460
Iceland	24	52	117	80	76	88	39	42	77	35	50
Ireland	10 938	10 325	11 634	7 900	4 769	4 324	4 314	3 988	3 866	2 689	1 940
Israel	6 148	456	355	. .	922	909	1 348	5 382	7 738	809	. .
Italy	15 564	9 620	16 015	13 455	9 722	9 548	10 348	14 053	30 324	17 603	8 190
Japan	216	353	250	336	426	384	954	816	1 599	1 388	1 210
Korea	43	39	37	86	145	412	278	717	364	324	420
Luxembourg	621	687	1 043	1 549	1 577	802	523	426	463	477	750
Mexico	277	415	257	275	404	687	480	374	317	680	. .
Netherlands	43 895	32 579	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 347	14 465	7 102	13 399	14 905	13 330
New Zealand	1 551	1 601	997	841	580	348	276	245	254	336	330
Norway	10 842	14 782	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 402	5 320	6 528	14 431	17 226	10 060
Poland	4 589	4 529	5 170	6 909	8 079	6 860	4 430	7 205	7 203	10 587	6 540
Portugal	224	234	245	88	113	114	128	224	161	139	160
Russian Federation	1 467	1 684	876	737	910	960	1 170	3 369	5 418	5 701	. .
Slovak Republic	1 556	8 151	9 743	10 358	11 395	3 549	2 871	2 643	910	822	540
Slovenia	9 244	1 511	702	1 100	1 173	1 596	518	425	238	183	210
Spain	7 926	9 489	6 309	5 918	5 535	5 254	5 297	7 662	4 517	3 007	2 740
Sweden	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530	24 322	36 370	24 353	24 194	31 820
Switzerland	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 248	10 061	10 537	10 387	16 606	16 005	13 520
Turkey	5 685	5 041	3 795	3 952	3 908	3 921	4 553	7 646	12 981	7 834	9 230
United Kingdom	98 900	91 600	103 080	60 050	40 625	30 840	28 320	28 300	31 315	30 675	22 090
United States	40 867	59 432	58 439	43 338	44 972	39 240	41 101	40 449	39 362	38 080	41 005
EU25 (countries listed above) + Norway, Switzerland	**451 544**	**472 239**	**467 566**	**378 275**	**290 905**	**245 956**	**209 762**	**230 616**	**261 471**	**273 006**	**254 180**
North America	**75 119**	**103 470**	**97 937**	**75 275**	**70 722**	**60 026**	**63 974**	**68 791**	**74 162**	**72 050**	**64 165**
OECD	**553 741**	**596 113**	**577 217**	**463 502**	**371 492**	**316 315**	**285 752**	**319 365**	**364 606**	**362 668**	**337 835**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.3.
* Preliminary data.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442712

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

AUSTRALIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	1 215	1 176	1 083	800	822	966	1 033	1 207	1 232	1 192
Afghanistan	1 326	2 161	53	54	116	32	21	20	52	940
Sri Lanka	451	397	219	166	125	317	324	445	422	555
Zimbabwe	32	36	44	37	27	22	43	94	215	351
Iran	589	559	57	75	71	101	77	84	161	312
Iraq	2 165	1 784	148	142	66	80	188	216	199	298
Fiji	658	799	369	165	84	52	34	70	81	262
Pakistan	207	132	86	63	61	103	90	145	220	260
Malaysia	264	261	232	184	210	170	109	145	238	231
India	770	650	549	604	242	173	316	349	373	213
Indonesia	831	897	619	230	164	166	296	183	238	192
Egypt	99	59	50	61	72	65	48	41	96	134
Lebanon	168	191	108	90	57	56	65	75	91	115
Korea	172	256	337	221	109	78	94	79	136	96
Myanmar	114	73	28	16	22	29	29	53	98	76
Other countries	4 004	2 935	1 881	1 387	953	794	748	774	919	979
Total	**13 065**	**12 366**	**5 863**	**4 295**	**3 201**	**3 204**	**3 515**	**3 980**	**4 771**	**6 206**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

AUSTRIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Russian Federation	291	366	2 221	6 709	6 172	4 355	2 441	2 676	3 435	3 559
Afghanistan	4 205	12 955	6 651	2 357	757	923	699	761	1 382	2 237
Serbia	1 486	1 637	4 723	2 526	2 835	4 403	2 515	1 760	810	2 033
Georgia	34	597	1 921	1 525	1 731	954	564	400	511	975
Nigeria	390	1 047	1 432	1 849	1 828	880	421	394	535	837
Turkey	592	1 868	3 561	2 854	1 114	1 064	668	659	417	554
Armenia	165	1 235	2 038	1 098	414	516	350	405	360	440
India	2 441	1 802	3 366	2 822	1 839	1 530	479	385	355	427
Iraq	2 361	2 118	4 466	1 446	232	221	380	472	490	399
China	91	154	779	661	663	492	212	223	223	398
Somalia	187	326	221	191	45	89	183	467	411	344
Iran	2 559	734	760	979	343	306	274	248	250	340
Mongolia	23	43	143	140	511	640	541	297	175	301
Syria	161	137	134	153	131	77	88	166	140	279
Algeria	84	121	239	221	234	185	138	109	173	248
Other countries	3 215	4 987	6 703	6 828	5 785	5 826	3 396	2 499	3 174	2 450
Total	**18 285**	**30 127**	**39 358**	**32 359**	**24 634**	**22 461**	**13 349**	**11 921**	**12 841**	**15 821**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	4 921	1 932	1 523	1 280	1 294	1 203	778	1 219	1 050	2 053
Afghanistan	861	504	326	329	287	253	365	696	879	1 659
Russian Federation	3 604	2 424	1 156	1 680	1 361	1 438	1 582	1 436	1 620	1 605
Iraq	569	368	461	282	388	903	695	825	1 070	1 386
Armenia	1 331	571	340	316	477	706	381	339	461	1 099
Guinea	488	494	515	354	565	643	413	526	661	1 052
Iran	3 183	1 164	743	1 153	512	497	631	411	614	732
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 421	1 371	1 789	1 778	1 471	1 272	843	716	579	670
Syria	292	230	199	210	182	228	167	199	281	347
China	79	84	197	286	208	304	155	135	189	329
Georgia	1 227	481	313	302	211	256	232	156	222	327
Rwanda	866	617	487	450	427	565	370	321	273	308
Cameroon	417	324	435	625	506	530	335	279	367	302
Algeria	807	1 709	936	400	357	245	180	176	206	275
Slovak Republic	1 392	898	635	390	730	773	126	364	239	261
Other countries	21 233	11 378	8 750	7 105	6 381	6 141	4 334	3 316	3 541	4 781
Total	**42 691**	**24 549**	**18 805**	**16 940**	**15 357**	**15 957**	**11 587**	**11 114**	**12 252**	**17 186**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CANADA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mexico	1 310	1 669	2 397	2 560	2 918	3 541	4 948	7 028	8 069	9 296
Hungary	1 936	3 895	1 180	132	162	58	48	24	288	2 440
Colombia	1 063	1 831	2 718	2 131	3 664	1 487	1 361	2 632	3 132	2 299
Czech Republic	62	47	30	20	17	11	0	79	859	2 202
Haiti	354	237	256	195	175	378	759	3 741	4 936	1 597
China	1 855	2 413	2 862	1 848	1 982	1 821	1 645	1 456	1 711	1 592
Sri Lanka	2 822	3 001	1 801	1 270	1 141	934	907	808	1 008	824
Nigeria	800	790	828	637	589	591	685	759	766	760
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	96	178	459	402	322	418	375	355	498	651
El Salvador	269	561	305	190	194	180	244	289	587	528
Somalia	753	799	388	348	408	285	206	231	505	508
India	1 360	1 300	1 313	1 125	1 083	844	764	554	561	502
United States	98	92	213	317	240	228	389	949	969	468
Afghanistan	488	463	204	151	152	264	268	308	488	445
Pakistan	3 088	3 192	3 884	4 257	1 006	746	652	361	403	437
Other countries	17 898	23 570	20 660	16 354	11 697	9 000	9 617	8 291	10 020	9 421
Total	**34 252**	**44 038**	**39 498**	**31 937**	**25 750**	**20 786**	**22 868**	**27 865**	**34 800**	**33 970**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CHILE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Colombia	22	33	27	56	182	347	540	713	816	. .
Ecuador	0	0	0	0	1	4	14	4	19	. .
Haiti	0	2	0	0	1	1	3	9	17	. .
Peru	8	3	0	3	2	6	6	3	8	. .
Turkey	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	. .
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1	3	1	0	0	9	3	3	3	. .
Cuba	9	4	3	1	7	1	0	4	2	. .
Argentina	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	. .
Dominican Republic	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	. .
France	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	. .
Afghanistan	0	5	2	12	1	0	0	0	0	. .
Angola	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	. .
Azerbaijan	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	. .
Bangladesh	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	. .
Bolivia	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	. .
Other countries	27	27	10	15	5	12	7	17	0	. .
Total	**69**	**81**	**43**	**87**	**203**	**380**	**573**	**756**	**872**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	1 145	4 419	1 676	2 044	1 600	1 020	571	293	323	220
Kazakhstan	103	133	66	47	44	34	236	30	80	192
Mongolia	67	134	79	81	123	119	95	160	193	161
Turkey	90	58	31	11	31	33	66	213	253	69
Russian Federation	623	642	629	4 853	1 498	278	171	99	85	66
Viet Nam	586	1 525	891	566	385	217	124	100	109	65
Belarus	193	438	312	281	226	244	174	130	81	60
Syria	21	25	13	6	4	22	20	31	36	54
Nigeria	28	40	34	37	50	83	96	69	39	43
Georgia	103	1 290	678	319	201	54	43	45	39	33
Serbia	165	111	36	20	3	4	0	49	31	32
Kyrgyzstan	52	50	59	80	138	35	85	63	36	26
Democratic Republic of the Congo	18	7	8	5	0	0	20	26	14	24
Armenia	274	1 019	452	49	75	56	51	37	33	23
Myanmar	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	26	23
Other countries	5 320	8 202	3 519	2 997	1 081	1 961	1 264	531	333	264
Total	**8 788**	**18 094**	**8 483**	**11 396**	**5 459**	**4 160**	**3 016**	**1 879**	**1 711**	**1 355**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

DENMARK

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Afghanistan	3 732	3 749	1 186	664	285	173	122	138	418	1 049
Syria	55	62	31	56	56	46	55	71	105	380
Russian Federation	245	123	198	269	163	119	61	114	183	335
Iran	389	263	178	158	140	123	89	106	196	334
Iraq	2 605	2 099	1 045	442	217	264	507	695	543	305
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	90	118	271
Somalia	747	566	391	370	154	80	57	35	58	177
Sri Lanka	93	67	38	21	18	22	31	42	53	62
Nigeria	19	25	62	61	89	55	52	22	29	53
Pakistan	108	118	63	36	81	40	31	17	14	49
Algeria	22	19	97	62	50	45	15	16	38	46
Bosnia and Herzegovina	731	1 003	186	231	102	50	39	41	26	37
Eritrea	9	3	3	5	18	8	5	6	15	37
India	100	67	96	52	39	72	83	56	37	33
Morocco	12	2	20	18	17	14	14	7	19	31
Other countries	4 138	2 103	2 474	2 148	1 806	1 149	757	396	508	620
Total	**13 005**	**10 269**	**6 068**	**4 593**	**3 235**	**2 260**	**1 918**	**1 852**	**2 360**	**3 819**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ESTONIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Afghanistan	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
Georgia	0	1	0	4	1	0	0	0	2	6
Russian Federation	2	0	1	4	0	4	4	3	3	5
Syria	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Iraq	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	1	2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Mongolia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Armenia	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Nigeria	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Uganda	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
United States	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Japan	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Ukraine	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Azerbaijan	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Uzbekistan	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Other countries	1	0	7	1	8	4	2	11	6	2
Total	**3**	**12**	**9**	**14**	**14**	**11**	**7**	**14**	**14**	**36**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	62	103	115	150	123	289	225	327	1 253	1 183
Somalia	28	18	54	91	253	321	92	82	1 176	1 169
Bulgaria	13	0	287	287	238	570	463	13	82	722
Russian Federation	289	289	272	288	215	233	176	172	208	599
Afghanistan	31	25	27	51	166	237	97	96	249	445
Serbia	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	139	170	335
Iran	50	56	41	47	99	79	91	79	143	159
Turkey	76	94	197	185	140	97	41	73	65	140
Nigeria	12	8	28	77	92	73	64	41	76	130
Sri Lanka	22	28	9	14	11	15	32	18	36	100
Belarus	37	55	39	46	58	57	97	48	68	94
Democratic Republic of the Congo	27	23	53	38	48	37	38	36	31	56
Romania	29	36	596	109	132	56	20	9	18	54
Ghana	8	2	5	15	3	11	6	9	27	52
Algeria	18	38	38	38	31	33	25	24	27	48
Other countries	2 468	876	1 682	1 785	2 252	1 466	789	339	387	624
Total	**3 170**	**1 651**	**3 443**	**3 221**	**3 861**	**3 574**	**2 324**	**1 505**	**4 016**	**5 910**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

FRANCE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	2 053	1 591	1 629	2 704	3 812	3 997	3 047	3 068	3 140	5 245
Russian Federation	787	1 783	1 741	3 347	3 331	3 080	2 313	3 265	3 595	3 392
Sri Lanka	2 117	2 000	1 992	2 129	2 246	2 071	2 145	2 159	2 322	3 129
Armenia	405	544	963	1 106	1 292	1 642	1 684	1 929	2 075	3 112
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2 950	3 781	5 260	5 093	3 848	3 022	2 283	2 154	2 543	2 800
Turkey	3 735	5 347	6 582	7 192	4 741	3 867	2 758	2 234	2 198	2 047
Guinea	544	745	753	808	1 020	1 147	859	981	1 270	1 671
China	4 968	2 948	2 869	5 330	4 196	2 590	1 214	1 286	821	1 602
Haiti	1 886	2 713	1 904	1 488	3 133	5 060	1 844	677	930	1 458
Bangladesh	1 054	825	668	956	959	860	607	960	1 249	1 441
Mauritania	1 385	2 332	2 998	2 380	1 540	1 067	548	432	719	1 214
Algeria	1 818	2 933	2 865	2 794	4 209	2 018	1 127	967	978	1 118
Sudan	92	98	136	406	286	409	452	404	399	811
Azerbaijan	198	253	375	532	773	1 112	878	573	629	774
Congo	1 592	1 943	2 266	1 952	1 489	1 172	827	901	804	744
Other countries	14 191	17 455	18 086	21 551	21 670	16 619	8 162	7 397	11 732	11 560
Total	**39 775**	**47 291**	**51 087**	**59 768**	**58 545**	**49 733**	**30 748**	**29 387**	**35 404**	**42 118**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

GERMANY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	11 601	17 167	10 242	3 850	1 293	1 983	2 117	4 327	6 836	6 538
Afghanistan	5 380	5 837	2 772	1 473	918	711	531	338	657	3 375
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 996	1 608	1 981
Turkey	8 968	10 869	9 575	6 301	4 148	2 958	1 949	1 437	1 408	1 429
Iran	4 878	3 455	2 642	2 049	1 369	929	611	631	815	1 170
Viet Nam	2 332	3 721	2 340	2 096	1 668	1 222	990	987	1 042	1 115
Russian Federation	2 763	4 523	4 058	3 383	2 757	1 719	1 040	772	792	936
Syria	2 641	2 232	1 829	1 192	768	933	609	634	775	819
Nigeria	420	526	987	1 051	1 130	608	481	503	561	791
India	1 826	2 651	2 246	1 736	1 118	557	512	413	485	681
Azerbaijan	1 418	1 645	1 689	1 291	1 363	848	483	274	360	652
Georgia	801	1 220	1 531	1 139	802	493	240	181	232	560
Sri Lanka	1 170	622	434	278	217	220	170	375	468	531
Algeria	1 379	1 986	1 743	1 139	746	433	369	380	449	500
Pakistan	1 506	1 180	1 084	1 122	1 062	551	464	301	320	481
Other countries	31 481	30 653	27 955	22 463	16 254	14 749	10 463	5 615	5 277	6 090
Total	**78 564**	**88 287**	**71 127**	**50 563**	**35 613**	**28 914**	**21 029**	**19 164**	**22 085**	**27 649**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

GREECE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Pakistan	141	252	250	681	247	1 154	2 378	9 144	6 914	3 716
Georgia	1	0	8	48	323	1 897	428	1 559	2 241	2 170
Bangladesh	49	33	34	233	208	550	3 750	2 965	1 778	1 809
Afghanistan	446	1 459	1 238	561	382	458	1 087	1 556	2 287	1 510
Syria	7	15	13	19	44	57	143	1 311	808	965
Iraq	1 334	1 972	2 567	2 831	936	971	1 415	5 474	1 760	886
Nigeria	14	33	184	444	325	406	391	390	746	780
Albania	1	10	9	12	23	21	20	51	202	517
China	4	2	70	140	52	251	97	36	55	391
Senegal	0	0	5	3	1	7	66	219	386	336
Iran	135	212	411	608	228	203	528	354	312	303
Ethiopia	17	34	35	114	24	100	170	102	118	171
India	27	41	84	105	42	166	162	261	227	156
Morocco	7	148	10	4	8	11	7	9	18	156
Ghana	4	17	3	19	16	41	85	71	104	154
Other countries	896	1 271	743	2 356	1 610	2 757	1 540	1 611	1 928	1 908
Total	**3 083**	**5 499**	**5 664**	**8 178**	**4 469**	**9 050**	**12 267**	**25 113**	**19 884**	**15 928**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

HUNGARY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	692	214	97	112	180	243	384	723	1 593	2 320
Afghanistan	2 185	4 311	2 348	469	38	22	13	35	116	1 194
Georgia	27	29	91	205	288	114	175	131	165	116
Turkey	116	116	124	125	125	65	43	56	70	114
Iran	55	144	160	170	46	25	20	14	10	87
Somalia	152	298	213	113	18	7	42	99	185	75
Viet Nam	65	53	182	49	105	319	406	862	42	73
Nigeria	94	111	125	74	73	89	109	86	56	66
Iraq	889	1 014	2 008	348	36	18	68	136	125	57
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	7	118	19	5	8	16	17	32	44	50
China	198	124	83	67	64	165	276	417	55	45
Pakistan	220	157	40	53	54	40	18	15	246	41
Moldova	30	25	12	15	54	20	42	45	23	35
Sri Lanka	249	54	8	0	0	1	0	10	12	28
Russian Federation	52	40	43	105	41	37	63	51	21	27
Other countries	2 770	2 746	859	491	470	428	441	712	355	344
Total	**7 801**	**9 554**	**6 412**	**2 401**	**1 600**	**1 609**	**2 117**	**3 424**	**3 118**	**4 672**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

IRELAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nigeria	3 405	3 461	4 050	3 110	1 776	1 278	1 038	1 028	1 009	569
Pakistan	46	127	120	62	55	68	167	185	237	257
China	16	25	85	168	152	96	139	259	180	194
Democratic Republic of the Congo	358	281	270	256	140	138	109	149	173	102
Zimbabwe	25	102	357	88	69	51	77	87	114	91
Georgia	55	97	103	133	130	151	171	174	181	88
Moldova	387	549	536	244	100	100	110	133	141	86
Somalia	138	70	77	183	198	367	161	144	141	84
Ghana	106	148	293	180	64	67	88	82	104	82
Iraq	89	48	148	129	38	55	215	285	203	76
Algeria	296	174	106	68	66	32	49	47	65	71
Afghanistan	7	27	7	24	106	142	88	78	79	68
Sudan	39	26	50	70	145	203	308	157	126	61
South Africa	143	203	183	114	45	33	38	39	75	54
Cameroon	76	144	187	125	62	57	78	44	67	50
Other countries	5 752	4 841	5 059	2 946	1 619	1 487	1 479	1 094	971	756
Total	**10 938**	**10 323**	**11 631**	**7 900**	**4 765**	**4 325**	**4 315**	**3 985**	**3 866**	**2 689**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ISRAEL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Georgia	1	0	1	. .	2	3	4	39	238	240
Nigeria	0	6	14	. .	100	160	448	567	418	198
Ghana	1	3	2	. .	34	25	74	192	233	113
Philippines	0	0	0	. .	5	6	10	40	27	73
Colombia	2	17	3	. .	28	23	31	67	92	40
Turkey	0	1	4	. .	32	66	126	178	142	28
Côte d'Ivoire	0	3	50	. .	74	43	91	751	507	20
Ethiopia	80	201	140	. .	316	56	13	45	495	16
India	0	0	7	. .	2	4	5	0	5	14
Guinea	0	1	1	. .	7	181	151	23	24	10
Burkina Faso	0	0	0	. .	0	0	2	4	16	7
Sri Lanka	0	0	0	. .	18	12	7	8	8	7
Nepal	0	0	0	. .	6	0	8	7	3	6
Mali	0	0	0	. .	3	0	10	4	12	6
Niger	0	0	0	. .	0	0	1	3	19	4
Other countries	6 064	224	133	. .	295	330	367	3 454	5 499	27
Total	**6 148**	**456**	**355**	**. .**	**922**	**909**	**1 348**	**5 382**	**7 738**	**809**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ITALY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nigeria	57	388	594	722	930	536	830	1 336	5 673	3 991
Somalia	69	145	601	1 743	186	117	99	757	4 864	1 604
Pakistan	92	113	1 256	787	267	411	203	176	1 143	1 362
Bangladesh	88	174	374	297	342	407	283	315	1 684	1 338
Ghana	8	15	33	505	62	407	530	673	1 815	991
Eritrea	33	276	927	1 230	831	1 313	2 151	2 260	2 934	890
Afghanistan	524	299	137	70	84	76	177	663	1 732	711
Côte d'Ivoire	6	14	93	348	183	586	508	982	1 653	643
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 113	282	620
Turkey	4 062	1 690	730	466	323	168	175	394	501	541
Iraq	6 082	1 985	1 944	493	166	118	87	189	758	417
Gambia	15	10	0	0	37	25	49	142	413	307
Burkina Faso	0	1	0	0	3	15	32	192	646	256
Guinea	3	5	0	0	5	20	70	217	465	242
Tunisia	26	25	0	0	7	53	48	14	278	222
Other countries	4 499	4 480	9 326	6 794	6 296	5 296	5 106	4 634	5 483	3 468
Total	**15 564**	**9 620**	**16 015**	**13 455**	**9 722**	**9 548**	**10 348**	**14 057**	**30 324**	**17 603**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

JAPAN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Myanmar	23	23	38	111	138	212	626	500	979	568
Sri Lanka	6	3	9	4	9	7	27	43	90	234
Turkey	40	123	52	77	131	40	149	76	156	94
Pakistan	74	47	26	12	12	10	12	27	37	92
India	0	9	9	12	7	0	2	2	17	59
Bangladesh	3	10	12	6	33	29	15	14	33	51
Uganda	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	4	16	46
Iran	17	20	19	25	18	16	27	19	38	40
Nepal	0	0	0	1	3	5	11	4	20	29
China	3	10	22	22	16	16	13	17	18	18
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	0	5	0	0	4	10	14	18
Nigeria	0	0	12	2	2	2	10	6	10	17
Ethiopia	6	1	2	2	2	3	14	29	51	15
Cameroon	0	0	15	8	11	1	5	12	29	11
Philippines	0	0	0	6	2	5	0	1	4	10
Other countries	44	107	34	42	41	37	37	52	87	86
Total	**216**	**353**	**250**	**336**	**426**	**384**	**954**	**816**	**1 599**	**1 388**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Pakistan	1	6	2	9	0	1	5	4	47	95
Bangladesh	. .	1	11	6	1	9	8	23	30	41
Myanmar	21	. .	. .	21	46	50	12	23	33	32
Sri Lanka	0	0	0	0	0	8	27	67	71	26
China	. .	3	11	10	64	145	28	29	30	19
Nigeria	0	0	0	0	0	26	16	100	27	16
Uganda	. .	. .	. .	1	9	46	20	50	21	15
Iran	1	4	. .	9	1	8	5	3	7	11
Cameroon	. .	3	1	0	0	4	2	2	5	10
Afghanistan	. .	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	8
Democratic Republic of the Congo	16	6	1	2	5	15	14	10	11	7
Russian Federation	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	1	5
Ghana	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	68	29	4
Côte d'Ivoire	. .	1	. .	2	1	45	11	8	6	4
South Africa	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	9	3	4
Other countries	4	13	10	25	17	49	125	317	43	27
Total	**43**	**39**	**37**	**86**	**145**	**412**	**278**	**717**	**364**	**324**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

LUXEMBOURG

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	269	206	495	541	361	219	193	225	219	149
Iraq	3	8	34	14	9	8	16	14	29	37
Bosnia and Herzegovina	52	87	77	59	35	36	17	24	31	35
Albania	79	34	54	66	48	33	20	16	14	26
Russian Federation	25	66	68	60	66	54	43	13	13	26
Iran	12	0	13	31	59	41	31	16	18	24
Belarus	6	0	8	55	40	16	5	8	6	15
Afghanistan	14	9	0	2	6	3	8	3	4	13
Eritrea	0	0	0	0	1	2	6	0	11	11
Algeria	9	16	30	81	69	39	8	11	4	11
Azerbaijan	0	5	1	2	3	1	1	0	0	11
Cameroon	2	0	7	16	24	0	3	7	8	9
Somalia	0	10	4	10	18	27	7	1	10	8
Nigeria	1	0	6	1	3	45	14	7	5	6
Guinea	2	0	11	26	53	28	9	8	2	6
Other countries	154	245	235	586	783	250	142	73	89	90
Total	**628**	**686**	**1 043**	**1 550**	**1 578**	**802**	**523**	**426**	**463**	**477**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

MEXICO

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Honduras	0	4	7	37	67	51	39	31	55	184
El Salvador	1	4	3	5	46	31	31	45	51	119
Haiti	0	1	1	8	11	20	17	41	61	65
Colombia	20	58	65	38	40	40	52	57	41	62
Cuba	24	24	50	14	26	80	65	27	7	42
Guatemala	22	35	10	62	23	29	20	15	18	39
India	0	32	6	1	10	27	5	2	3	37
Nicaragua	6	6	2	3	11	14	4	7	9	29
China	0	34	5	3	0	9	6	0	1	20
Sri Lanka	22	28	5	0	13	16	8	0	3	11
Peru	5	5	3	3	4	4	1	2	1	8
Nigeria	2	1	10	6	0	2	1	13	1	8
Iran	21	9	0	1	0	1	1	4	0	7
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1	0	4	6	1	5	0	2	2	5
United States	3	2	0	3	1	1	1	2	1	4
Other countries	150	172	86	85	151	357	229	126	63	40
Total	**277**	**415**	**257**	**275**	**404**	**687**	**480**	**374**	**317**	**680**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Somalia	2 110	1 098	533	451	792	1 315	1 462	1 874	3 842	5 889
Iraq	2 773	1 329	1 020	3 473	1 043	1 620	2 766	2 004	5 027	1 991
Afghanistan	5 055	3 614	1 067	492	688	902	932	143	395	1 281
Iran	2 543	1 519	663	555	450	557	921	187	322	502
Eritrea	260	213	152	123	148	204	175	153	236	475
Georgia	291	298	216	116	73	213	156	66	64	412
Armenia	812	529	417	203	247	197	280	97	208	349
China	1 406	706	534	298	285	356	318	243	563	304
Mongolia	267	254	239	127	66	118	110	96	103	237
Guinea	1 394	1 467	475	199	116	105	116	102	154	235
Sri Lanka	975	676	294	95	76	93	147	104	216	193
Russian Federation	1 021	918	426	245	206	285	254	81	95	151
Nigeria	282	401	550	414	223	155	243	179	97	151
Sierra Leone	2 023	2 405	1 615	314	138	189	203	130	129	121
Azerbaijan	1 163	634	326	265	253	287	384	35	58	120
Other countries	21 520	16 518	10 140	6 032	4 978	5 751	5 998	1 608	1 890	2 494
Total	**43 895**	**32 579**	**18 667**	**13 402**	**9 782**	**12 347**	**14 465**	**7 102**	**13 399**	**14 905**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NEW ZEALAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Fiji	. .	44	22	19	2	12	10	10	7	45
Sri Lanka	. .	97	52	23	29	6	30	25	25	30
Iraq	. .	69	31	39	12	22	35	30	33	25
Iran	. .	129	101	135	88	47	29	27	28	24
India	. .	80	75	77	81	17	18	7	14	24
Czech Republic	. .	39	2	10	29	28	12	4	10	23
China	. .	68	25	56	49	19	30	26	24	20
Pakistan	. .	22	21	7	9	8	11	8	3	18
Slovak Republic	. .	2	0	2	0	5	1	3	3	13
South Africa	. .	13	8	10	8	3	2	2	3	9
Syria	. .	4	5	7	16	11	1	1	2	8
Zimbabwe	. .	98	85	73	20	8	5	8	8	8
Brazil	. .	0	2	6	6	6	0	1	. .	8
Bangladesh	. .	32	19	29	22	23	16	18	9	7
Malaysia	. .	29	20	41	13	8	0	7	8	6
Other countries	. .	875	529	307	195	125	76	68	77	68
Total	**1 551**	**1 601**	**997**	**841**	**579**	**348**	**276**	**245**	**254**	**336**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NORWAY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Afghanistan	326	603	786	2 050	1 059	466	224	234	1 363	3 871
Eritrea	51	132	269	201	110	177	316	789	1 799	2 667
Somalia	910	1 080	1 534	1 623	958	667	632	187	1 293	1 901
Iraq	766	1 056	1 624	971	412	671	1 002	1 227	3 137	1 214
Russian Federation	471	1 318	1 719	1 923	937	545	548	863	1 078	867
Ethiopia	96	173	325	293	148	100	143	241	354	706
Nigeria	14	27	139	241	205	94	54	108	436	582
Iran	327	412	450	621	394	279	218	222	720	574
Serbia	4 188	928	2 460	2 216	859	468	369	585	675	406
Syria	60	57	80	97	71	79	49	49	115	278
Sudan	31	47	94	67	33	45	36	37	118	251
Sri Lanka	165	164	87	65	58	58	106	238	342	212
Algeria	72	346	468	191	103	45	37	27	100	161
Uzbekistan	4	105	206	95	51	42	52	38	148	145
Pakistan	220	186	216	95	48	33	26	43	38	139
Other countries	3 141	8 148	7 023	5 210	2 499	1 633	1 508	1 640	2 715	3 252
Total	**10 842**	**14 782**	**17 480**	**15 959**	**7 945**	**5 402**	**5 320**	**6 528**	**14 431**	**17 226**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

POLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Russian Federation	1 153	1 490	3 048	5 581	7 182	6 244	4 018	6 668	6 647	5 726
Georgia	71	92	39	30	47	47	31	12	54	4 213
Armenia	823	635	223	104	18	27	15	22	33	147
Viet Nam	161	197	48	25	16	23	27	40	57	67
Belarus	61	74	67	58	53	82	55	62	33	37
Ukraine	69	144	102	85	72	84	43	26	25	36
Nigeria	9	26	7	15	10	10	11	18	19	23
Iraq	30	108	137	75	6	15	16	22	66	21
Pakistan	30	31	55	151	211	69	46	25	15	19
Uzbekistan	12	7	8	7	3	4	3	6	22	19
China	26	28	35	15	19	9	1	18	20	16
India	13	43	196	235	150	36	13	35	15	16
Mongolia	188	240	156	27	3	4	5	10	12	15
Afghanistan	299	415	595	251	57	6	11	9	4	14
Nepal	1	0	1	0	4	2	4	10	6	14
Other countries	1 643	976	436	262	229	198	131	222	175	204
Total	**4 589**	**4 506**	**5 153**	**6 921**	**8 080**	**6 860**	**4 430**	**7 205**	**7 203**	**10 587**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

PORTUGAL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Eritrea	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	5	21
Guinea	8	4	2	1	0	1	6	14	8	18
Mauritania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16
Colombia	2	6	3	5	8	27	6	86	26	15
Nigeria	16	3	3	2	1	1	6	2	8	9
Sri Lanka	6	6	8	0	1	0	0	6	26	8
Democratic Republic of the Congo	12	10	6	3	2	7	16	11	20	5
Guinea-Bissau	3	1	4	1	5	6	5	1	4	5
Ukraine	0	0	3	5	6	1	1	0	1	5
Iran	3	4	2	0	0	0	1	2	1	4
Angola	13	45	46	10	8	9	6	5	3	4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	16	10	3
Cameroon	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	3
Sierra Leone	52	39	34	3	2	3	4	3	1	3
Georgia	1	0	2	6	2	5	1	0	4	2
Other countries	106	111	132	52	71	54	72	76	44	18
Total	**223**	**232**	**245**	**88**	**113**	**114**	**128**	**224**	**161**	**139**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Georgia	30	40	23	46	24	27	138	586	2 684	3 580
Afghanistan	1 088	1 300	618	500	638	674	827	2 211	2 047	1 577
Uzbekistan	33	34	34	38	72	102	37	63	90	136
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	11	26	59
Iraq	59	73	35	13	18	20	13	36	61	37
Tajikistan	12	22	18	12	23	3	7	43	48	29
Turkmenistan	1	9	6	18	14	7	16	27	36	27
Pakistan	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	13	8	14
Eritrea	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	7	7	13
Sudan	0	5	6	0	0	3	4	18	10	13
Iran	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	12
Democratic Republic of the Congo	3	11	7	4	10	7	2	34	23	11
Kazakhstan	79	19	19	25	13	4	5	2	10	10
Ukraine	4	6	0	4	6	4	10	20	19	10
Somalia	11	4	5	4	2	4	0	0	9	9
Other countries	147	161	105	73	90	100	100	298	335	164
Total	**1 467**	**1 684**	**876**	**737**	**910**	**960**	**1 170**	**3 369**	**5 418**	**5 701**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Pakistan	161	176	168	307	799	196	182	648	109	168
Georgia	0	27	58	582	989	258	209	134	119	98
Moldova	1	16	266	587	826	309	385	208	113	73
Russian Federation	14	84	618	2 653	2 413	1 037	463	307	100	72
India	380	1 111	1 611	1 653	2 969	561	727	619	88	57
Viet Nam	0	38	220	61	155	100	63	58	41	56
Afghanistan	624	4 315	1 669	627	393	109	41	67	72	51
China	0	33	1 764	1 080	1 271	280	164	96	44	39
Armenia	15	29	102	758	144	17	14	28	22	21
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7	15	20
Sri Lanka	87	98	96	49	58	8	10	20	13	18
Bangladesh	46	429	1 032	558	544	277	183	108	36	15
Iraq	115	990	1 245	475	116	35	206	131	42	13
Somalia	3	129	199	114	12	16	3	9	0	13
Ukraine	5	8	47	73	64	45	32	36	32	13
Other countries	105	668	605	781	638	301	189	167	64	95
Total	**1 556**	**8 151**	**9 700**	**10 358**	**11 391**	**3 549**	**2 871**	**2 643**	**910**	**822**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SLOVENIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Bosnia and Herzegovina	48	22	29	48	123	303	44	22	13	41
Serbia	397	205	121	181	413	640	243	234	69	39
Turkey	1 119	379	73	192	188	231	62	38	72	12
Afghanistan	247	66	7	2	5	6	2	12	10	11
Croatia	8	3	0	5	3	3	0	3	3	11
Nigeria	3	1	7	2	1	2	1	4	7	9
Iran	5 924	272	61	88	7	4	3	2	11	9
Pakistan	72	12	25	28	16	28	6	11	4	6
Sri Lanka	17	0	1	0	12	8	0	0	1	6
Albania	0	0	4	15	199	146	32	21	7	6
Russian Federation	34	5	23	15	15	11	7	9	3	5
Cameroon	5	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	3
Iraq	447	214	133	190	28	15	6	4	0	3
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	10	90	32	67	76	72	26	20	9	3
Ghana	14	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Other countries	899	240	185	267	86	126	86	43	28	16
Total	**9 244**	**1 511**	**702**	**1 100**	**1 173**	**1 596**	**518**	**425**	**238**	**183**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SPAIN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nigeria	843	1 350	1 440	1 688	1 029	726	632	680	808	458
Côte d'Ivoire	13	11	45	241	110	162	236	335	500	304
Colombia	1 361	2 532	1 105	577	760	1 655	2 239	2 497	752	255
Algeria	326	231	350	682	991	406	230	247	152	181
Guinea	23	30	46	171	228	173	23	91	98	130
Democratic Republic of the Congo	90	118	175	274	203	170	102	141	105	114
Cameroon	16	10	24	178	72	99	83	57	71	111
Somalia	78	38	41	128	13	24	10	154	195	104
Cuba	801	2 371	1 179	125	79	78	59	83	119	84
Morocco	36	23	41	30	20	55	281	263	121	73
Pakistan	73	32	20	20	25	7	23	23	52	57
Russian Federation	394	350	172	153	84	138	110	88	66	55
Gambia	2	4	9	48	108	67	34	64	44	52
Sudan	22	31	39	21	36	83	94	90	123	46
Iran	79	30	18	21	34	23	20	27	64	45
Other countries	3 769	2 328	1 605	1 561	1 743	1 388	1 121	2 822	1 247	938
Total	**7 926**	**9 489**	**6 309**	**5 918**	**5 535**	**5 254**	**5 297**	**7 662**	**4 517**	**3 007**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWEDEN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Somalia	260	525	1 107	3 069	905	422	1 066	3 349	3 361	5 874
Iraq	3 499	6 206	5 446	2 700	1 456	2 330	8 951	18 559	6 083	2 297
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 500	1 989	1 806
Afghanistan	374	593	527	811	903	435	594	609	784	1 694
Iran	739	780	762	787	660	582	494	485	799	1 144
Russian Federation	590	841	1 496	1 361	1 288	1 057	755	788	933	1 058
Eritrea	127	151	266	641	395	425	608	878	857	1 000
Mongolia	38	259	376	342	346	326	461	519	791	753
Syria	335	441	541	666	411	392	433	440	551	587
Azerbaijan	60	158	778	1 032	1 041	431	247	230	390	487
Libya	26	114	456	435	419	451	318	420	646	367
Georgia	59	166	439	537	403	183	134	143	211	359
Belarus	231	327	722	901	519	372	432	365	361	347
Nigeria	28	58	164	452	429	154	104	136	176	321
Uzbekistan	36	344	640	403	258	349	446	416	741	298
Other countries	9 901	12 552	19 296	17 211	13 728	9 621	9 279	6 536	5 680	5 802
Total	**16 303**	**23 515**	**33 016**	**31 348**	**23 161**	**17 530**	**24 322**	**36 373**	**24 353**	**24 194**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nigeria	226	289	1 062	480	418	219	209	310	988	1 786
Eritrea	82	68	203	235	180	159	1 201	1 662	2 849	1 724
Sri Lanka	898	684	459	340	251	233	328	618	1 262	1 415
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	953	1 301	1 269
Iraq	908	1 201	1 182	1 444	631	468	816	935	1 440	935
Somalia	470	369	387	471	592	485	273	395	2 014	753
Afghanistan	433	530	237	218	207	238	233	307	405	751
Georgia	179	273	687	756	731	397	287	199	481	638
Turkey	1 431	1 960	1 940	1 652	1 154	723	693	621	519	559
Russian Federation	254	456	507	534	505	375	426	195	208	452
Syria	156	148	221	175	127	116	161	290	388	400
China	64	161	394	228	70	87	475	251	272	365
Guinea	455	679	751	652	412	211	74	102	239	301
Algeria	477	828	1 020	836	480	186	161	132	236	300
Mongolia	180	176	261	295	119	68	223	114	162	295
Other countries	11 398	12 811	16 814	12 490	8 371	6 096	4 977	3 303	3 842	4 062
Total	**17 611**	**20 633**	**26 125**	**20 806**	**14 248**	**10 061**	**10 537**	**10 387**	**16 606**	**16 005**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	1 641	982	974	342	964	1 047	722	3 470	6 904	3 763
Iran	3 860	3 385	2 505	3 092	2 029	1 716	2 297	1 685	2 116	1 981
Afghanistan	81	431	47	77	341	364	261	705	2 642	1 009
Somalia	11	25	23	183	308	473	680	1 125	647	295
Myanmar	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	2	20	112
Sudan	7	7	2	64	28	76	113	76	156	92
Eritrea	0	3	11	20	18	18	57	45	76	66
Syria	3	10	14	7	16	10	7	21	20	46
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	4	24	7	10	12	28	76	71	41
Uzbekistan	13	24	38	24	28	24	24	42	35	38
Pakistan	1	5	9	0	6	2	3	12	9	36
Guinea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4	24	11	29
Sri Lanka	1	23	30	6	4	10	61	50	42	29
Ethiopia	12	7	5	48	18	32	58	54	17	23
Tajikistan	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	22
Other countries	54	134	112	81	135	137	237	259	215	252
Total	**5 685**	**5 041**	**3 795**	**3 952**	**3 908**	**3 921**	**4 553**	**7 646**	**12 981**	**7 834**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED KINGDOM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Zimbabwe	1 010	2 140	8 695	4 020	2 520	1 390	2 145	2 300	4 475	7 610
Afghanistan	5 555	8 920	8 065	2 590	1 605	1 775	2 660	2 815	3 725	3 540
Iran	5 610	3 420	3 370	3 495	3 990	3 505	2 685	2 510	2 595	2 145
Pakistan	3 165	2 860	3 780	3 145	3 030	2 290	1 850	1 765	2 075	2 100
China	4 015	2 400	3 725	3 495	2 410	1 775	2 030	2 185	1 615	1 585
Sri Lanka	6 395	5 510	3 485	810	400	480	620	1 250	1 865	1 445
Eritrea	505	620	1 315	1 070	1 265	1 900	2 735	1 905	2 335	1 410
Somalia	5 020	6 420	9 425	7 195	3 295	2 105	2 175	1 960	1 575	1 105
Iraq	7 475	6 680	15 635	4 290	1 880	1 595	1 315	2 075	2 040	995
Nigeria	835	810	1 220	1 110	1 210	1 230	990	905	1 070	910
India	2 120	1 850	1 975	2 410	1 485	1 000	715	600	775	715
Bangladesh	795	510	825	820	550	465	495	590	510	495
Viet Nam	180	400	880	1 175	790	400	95	185	235	470
Gambia	50	65	130	100	110	110	135	135	210	400
Algeria	1 635	1 140	1 300	730	610	310	260	295	385	265
Other countries	35 935	27 265	39 285	23 585	15 470	10 485	7 430	6 405	5 830	5 485
Total	**80 300**	**71 010**	**103 110**	**60 040**	**40 620**	**30 815**	**28 335**	**27 880**	**31 315**	**30 675**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED STATES

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	5 541	8 008	10 237	4 906	5 627	7 623	9 362	8 781	9 825	10 725
El Salvador	1 736	1 264	640	376	1 423	1 755	2 393	3 455	2 789	2 366
Mexico	3 669	8 747	8 775	3 955	1 763	1 581	1 673	2 551	2 713	2 295
Guatemala	890	1 131	1 193	2 236	1 569	1 411	1 515	2 388	1 853	1 740
Haiti	4 257	4 938	3 643	3 316	5 107	5 299	5 135	3 079	2 078	1 649
Ethiopia	1 445	1 467	1 287	890	1 118	807	1 168	1 124	1 168	1 249
Nepal	28	53	172	314	321	415	494	532	680	1 068
Honduras	43	58	59	50	603	781	986	1 096	893	850
Russian Federation	856	844	837	761	783	669	638	615	677	806
India	1 289	1 894	1 708	1 241	866	620	602	576	734	751
Colombia	2 631	7 144	7 950	4 661	3 215	2 064	1 810	1 399	910	650
Eritrea	253	220	246	196	213	224	282	329	420	559
Iraq	330	584	534	298	268	360	511	748	809	543
Pakistan	338	410	567	513	859	551	512	433	491	491
Cameroon	528	560	1 307	1 626	1 293	710	610	555	619	456
Other countries	17 033	22 110	19 249	17 999	19 944	14 370	13 410	12 788	12 703	11 485
Total	**40 867**	**59 432**	**58 404**	**43 338**	**44 972**	**39 240**	**41 101**	**40 449**	**39 362**	**37 683**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442864

Metadata related to Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Population Data Unit *http://www.unhcr.org/statistics*.
General comments:
All data are based on annual submissions.
Prior to 2003, data for the United Kingdom refer to the number of cases, and not persons. All figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of 5.
Data for the United States for 2004-09 are a combination of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS) affirmative asylum applications, and of the Executive Office for Immigration Review (EOIR) defensive asylum applications, if the person is under threat of removal. USCIS = 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 Former 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

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined in different countries. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, *i.e.* Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may include persons born abroad who retained the nationality of their country of origin but also second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. Both the nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives to naturalise play a role in determining the extent to which native-born persons may or may not be foreign nationals.

Sources for and problems in measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries which have a population register and in those which use residence permit data, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, with some countries using census or labour force survey data to estimate the stock of the immigrant population. In studying stocks and flows, the same problems are encountered whether population register or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of purging the files regularly to remove the records of persons who have left the country.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. The OECD produces estimates of stocks for some countries.

Some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data since sample sizes can be small. Both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, because they can be missed in the census or because they do not live in private households (labour force surveys may not cover those living in collective dwellings such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources may cover a portion of the unauthorised population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia	4 412.2	4 482.3	4 585.0	4 694.4	4 796.8	4 927.2	5 090.4	5 295.4	5 545.2	5 816.6
% of total population	23.0	23.1	23.3	23.6	23.8	24.2	24.6	25.1	25.8	26.5
Austria	843.0	1 112.1	1 137.4	1 141.2	1 154.8	1 195.2	1 215.7	1 246.3	1 277.1	1 292.9
% of total population	10.4	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.1	14.5	14.7	15.0	15.3	15.5
Belgium	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	1 220.1	1 268.9	1 319.3	1 380.3	. .	. .
% of total population	10.3	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.7	12.1	12.5	13.0	. .	. .
Canada	*5 327.0*	5 448.5	*5 600.7*	*5 735.9*	*5 872.3*	*6 026.9*	6 187.0	*6 331.7*	*6 471.9*	*6 617.6*
% of total population	*17.4*	17.6	*17.9*	*18.1*	*18.4*	*18.7*	19.0	*19.2*	*19.4*	*19.6*
Chile	. .	. .	184.5	223.0	235.5	247.4	258.8	290.9	317.1	352.3
% of total population	. .	. .	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.1
Czech Republic	*434.0*	448.5	*471.9*	*482.2*	*499.0*	*523.4*	*566.3*	*636.1*	*680.2*	*675.9*
% of total population	*4.2*	4.4	*4.6*	*4.7*	*4.9*	*5.1*	*5.5*	*6.2*	*6.5*	*6.4*
Denmark	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4	350.4	360.9	378.7	401.8	414.4
% of total population	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.5
Estonia	252.7	249.5	245.3	242.5	239.3	235.5	228.6	226.5	224.3	221.9
% of total population	18.4	18.3	18.0	17.9	17.7	17.5	17.0	16.9	16.7	16.6
Finland	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4	176.6	187.9	202.5	218.6	233.2
% of total population	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.4
France	*5 982.8*	*6 112.8*	*6 260.6*	*6 421.2*	*6 587.6*	*6 748.9*	6 910.1	7 017.2	*7 131.1*	*7 234.8*
% of total population	*10.1*	*10.3*	*10.5*	*10.6*	*10.8*	*11.0*	11.2	11.3	*11.4*	*11.6*
Germany	10 256.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	10 399.0	10 431.0	10 534.0	10 623.0	10 601.0
% of total population	12.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.9	12.9
Greece	. .	1 122.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	10.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Hungary	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0	331.5	344.6	381.8	394.2	407.3
% of total population	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.1
Ireland	*328.7*	*356.0*	390.0	*426.5*	*461.8*	*520.8*	601.7	*682.0*	*739.2*	*766.8*
% of total population	*8.7*	*9.2*	9.9	*10.7*	*11.4*	*12.6*	14.2	*15.7*	*16.7*	*17.2*
Israel	1 957.8	1 978.1	1 983.2	1 974.8	1 960.8	1 947.6	1 930.0	1 916.2	1 899.4	1 877.7
% of total population	32.2	31.8	31.3	30.6	29.8	29.1	28.3	27.6	26.9	26.2
Italy	. .	2 240.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	3.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Luxembourg	*145.0*	144.8	*147.0*	*152.0*	*155.9*	*161.6*	*166.6*	*172.6*	*180.3*	*182.2*
% of total population	*33.2*	32.8	*32.9*	*33.8*	*34.3*	*35.0*	*35.5*	*36.2*	*37.3*	*36.9*
Mexico	492.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	584.5	610.1	699.3	733.7	850.1
% of total population	0.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Netherlands	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1	1 734.7	1 732.4	1 751.0	1 793.7	1 832.5
% of total population	10.1	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.1
New Zealand	*663.0*	698.6	*737.1*	*770.5*	*796.7*	*840.6*	879.5	*915.0*	*950.0*	*981.3*
% of total population	*17.2*	18.0	*18.7*	*19.1*	*19.5*	*20.3*	21.0	*21.6*	*22.3*	*22.7*
Norway	305.0	315.1	333.9	347.3	361.1	380.4	405.1	445.4	488.8	526.8
% of total population	6.8	7.0	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.7	9.5	10.3	10.9
Poland	. .	. .	776.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	2.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Portugal	*522.6*	651.5	*699.1*	*705.0*	*714.0*	*661.0*	*651.6*	*648.0*	*648.3*	*672.6*
% of total population	*5.1*	6.3	*6.7*	*6.8*	*6.8*	*6.3*	*6.2*	*6.1*	*6.1*	*6.3*
Russian Federation	. .	11 976.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	8.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	. .	119.1	. .	. .	207.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	2.2	. .	. .	3.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Spain	1 969.3	2 594.1	3 302.4	3 693.8	4 391.5	4 837.6	5 250.0	6 044.5	6 466.3	6 566.6
% of total population	4.9	6.4	8.0	8.8	10.3	11.1	11.9	13.5	14.2	14.3
Sweden	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3	1 125.8	1 175.2	1 227.8	1 281.6	1 338.0
% of total population	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.5	12.9	13.4	13.9	14.4
Switzerland	1 570.8	*1 613.8*	*1 658.7*	*1 697.8*	*1 737.7*	*1 772.8*	*1 811.2*	*1 882.6*	*1 974.2*	*2 037.5*
% of total population	*21.9*	*22.3*	*22.8*	*23.1*	*23.5*	*23.8*	*24.2*	*24.9*	*25.8*	*26.3*
Turkey	1 278.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	2.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	*4 666.0*	4 865.0	*5 000.0*	*5 143.0*	*5 338.0*	*5 557.0*	5 757.0	6 192.0	6 633.0	6 899.0
% of total population	*7.9*	8.2	*8.4*	*8.6*	*8.9*	*9.4*	9.6	10.3	11.0	11.3
United States	31 107.9	*32 517.7*	*35 091.6*	*36 199.2*	*37 048.3*	*37 629.7*	*37 972.6*	*39 422.0*	*39 353.4*	38 517.2
% of total population	11.0	*11.4*	*12.2*	*12.5*	*12.6*	*12.7*	*12.7*	*13.1*	*12.9*	12.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.
For details on estimation methods, please refer to *http://www.oecd.org/migration/foreignborn*.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442731

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	1 132.6	1 126.9	1 120.0	1 118.5	1 120.8	1 125.7	1 141.0	1 157.9	1 175.4	1 188.3	570.5	578.8	584.3
New Zealand	369.1	394.1	407.4	414.9	419.9	430.0	445.1	469.0	499.9	529.2	228.4	243.0	257.6
China	148.0	157.0	174.2	192.2	210.6	233.8	259.2	285.8	321.0	351.0	154.9	174.1	190.0
India	95.7	103.6	114.5	126.4	140.6	157.9	180.1	216.1	264.5	308.5	92.0	109.2	126.7
Italy	242.7	238.5	236.5	234.2	231.9	229.7	227.3	224.2	220.5	219.3	107.8	106.3	105.8
Viet Nam	169.6	169.5	172.4	176.3	178.8	181.5	185.5	190.3	197.3	203.9	99.9	104.0	107.8
Philippines	110.1	112.2	116.3	121.3	126.6	132.7	140.0	148.9	160.2	168.5	94.5	100.7	105.6
South Africa	80.7	87.0	95.4	101.8	108.9	114.7	120.3	127.9	138.0	149.0	64.3	69.2	74.6
Malaysia	85.3	87.2	90.0	94.0	98.7	102.6	107.1	112.9	119.9	129.6	60.7	64.3	69.5
Germany	118.1	117.5	118.7	120.0	121.3	122.6	124.4	125.6	126.2	128.8	65.1	65.5	66.9
Greece	134.5	132.5	132.7	133.0	133.1	133.3	133.4	131.9	130.1	128.6	66.2	65.6	65.0
Korea	38.8	41.8	44.6	47.7	50.8	55.1	60.3	69.5	79.1	94.7	37.4	42.4	49.5
Netherlands	92.0	91.2	91.2	91.2	91.1	91.2	91.5	91.0	90.3	89.9	44.2	44.0	43.8
Lebanon	79.1	80.0	81.2	83.0	84.0	85.3	86.5	88.1	89.3	89.9	41.8	42.2	42.5
Hong Kong, China	76.7	75.2	76.8	78.8	79.9	81.5	83.2	84.1	85.2	88.5	43.1	43.8	45.6
Other countries	1 439.2	1 468.3	1 513.2	1 561.1	1 599.9	1 649.6	1 705.4	1 772.1	1 848.4	1 949.0	897.3	935.3	986.4
Total	**4 412.2**	**4 482.3**	**4 585.0**	**4 694.4**	**4 796.8**	**4 927.2**	**5 090.4**	**5 295.4**	**5 545.2**	**5 816.6**	**2 668.0**	**2 788.1**	**2 921.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Germany	126.0	140.1	142.7	148.1	155.5	163.0	169.8	178.4	187.0	192.5	99.1	102.9	105.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	165.7	170.0	175.2	181.5	187.7	188.5	188.2	188.3	187.9	96.2	96.4	96.7
Turkey	110.1	126.8	135.2	142.7	147.9	152.5	154.1	155.9	157.8	159.0	72.1	73.4	74.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	115.4	119.8	122.7	125.8	128.8	131.2	132.1	132.9	133.6	133.5	65.3	65.9	66.0
Romania	31.2	39.1	42.0	44.7	46.6	47.8	48.2	53.4	57.6	60.5	29.9	32.2	33.9
Poland	42.3	41.3	42.0	43.1	47.8	51.8	54.2	56.0	56.9	56.8	30.0	30.7	30.9
Czech Republic	. .	56.7	55.4	54.6	54.2	52.9	51.5	50.2	48.9	47.3	31.1	30.4	29.5
Hungary	18.0	30.7	31.2	31.6	32.5	33.2	33.9	35.3	36.9	38.3	19.3	20.2	21.1
Croatia	54.7	33.2	34.0	34.5	35.0	35.2	35.1	35.0	34.8	34.4	18.4	18.4	18.3
Russian Federation	. .	7.8	9.1	12.1	18.0	21.2	22.8	24.2	26.0	26.6	13.5	14.6	15.1
Italy	23.2	25.9	25.6	25.8	25.9	25.7	25.5	25.5	25.6	25.6	12.9	12.8	12.7
Slovak Republic	. .	12.8	13.9	14.9	16.8	18.3	19.3	20.5	22.5	23.4	12.8	14.6	15.2
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	13.0	14.3	15.4	16.4	17.3	17.6	18.1	18.6	18.9	8.1	8.4	8.6
Slovenia	15.9	16.8	16.6	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.0	15.8	15.7	15.4	9.0	8.9	8.7
China	. .	7.6	9.5	11.1	12.2	12.9	13.1	13.4	13.7	13.9	7.3	7.5	7.7
Other countries	306.2	274.4	273.2	245.3	219.2	228.2	233.9	243.6	253.4	258.9	123.6	128.8	132.0
Total	**843.0**	**1 112.1**	**1 137.4**	**1 141.2**	**1 154.8**	**1 195.2**	**1 215.7**	**1 246.3**	**1 277.1**	**1 292.9**	**648.7**	**666.1**	**675.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
France	150.3	151.9	152.5	153.0	154.2	156.2	159.3	164.6	. .	. .	92.2	. .	. .
Morocco	107.3	118.8	126.5	134.2	141.3	147.9	155.1	162.6	. .	. .	76.7	. .	. .
Italy	135.2	132.2	130.5	128.7	126.7	125.1	123.6	122.2	. .	. .	59.3	. .	. .
Netherlands	92.3	97.8	101.3	104.4	107.7	111.6	115.8	120.4	. .	. .	60.8	. .	. .
Turkey	66.5	71.6	78.6	78.6	81.0	83.8	86.4	89.0	. .	. .	43.2	. .	. .
Germany	83.7	83.4	80.1	83.3	83.5	83.6	83.6	83.8	. .	. .	46.4	. .	. .
Democratic Republic of the Congo	46.8	50.8	52.7	53.8	66.8	68.5	70.5	72.4	. .	. .	38.2	. .	. .
Poland	18.4	20.4	21.9	23.0	25.2	29.0	33.7	40.5	. .	. .	22.6	. .	. .
Spain	37.3	37.0	36.6	36.2	35.7	35.5	35.4	35.5	. .	. .	19.4	. .	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	21.5	20.9	23.2	25.8	27.6	29.8	31.8	34.2	. .	. .	16.8	. .	. .
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	14.6	17.6	25.1	29.8	30.8	. .	. .	18.9	. .	. .
Portugal	21.2	21.3	21.7	22.3	22.8	23.3	24.0	25.0	. .	. .	12.4	. .	. .
United Kingdom	26.1	26.1	25.9	25.6	25.3	24.9	24.2	24.1	. .	. .	11.7	. .	. .
Romania	6.2	7.7	8.7	9.5	10.6	12.6	15.3	20.4	. .	. .	10.6	. .	. .
Myanmar	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	246.0	272.3	291.6	292.2	293.9	312.0	330.7	355.0	. .	. .	184.3	. .	. .
Total	**1 058.8**	**1 112.2**	**1 151.8**	**1 185.5**	**1 220.1**	**1 268.9**	**1 319.3**	**1 380.3**	**. .**	**. .**	**713.6**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2006	2008	2009
United Kingdom	. .	606.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	579.6	. .	. .	. .	305.8	. .	. .
China	. .	332.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	466.9	. .	. .	. .	253.0	. .	. .
India	. .	314.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	443.7	. .	. .	. .	222.5	. .	. .
Philippines	. .	232.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	303.2	. .	. .	. .	178.5	. .	. .
Italy	. .	315.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	296.9	. .	. .	. .	144.4	. .	. .
United States	. .	237.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	250.5	. .	. .	. .	142.2	. .	. .
Hong Kong, China	. .	235.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	215.4	. .	. .	. .	112.2	. .	. .
Germany	. .	174.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	171.4	. .	. .	. .	89.7	. .	. .
Poland	. .	180.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	170.5	. .	. .	. .	91.6	. .	. .
Viet Nam	. .	148.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	160.2	. .	. .	. .	83.7	. .	. .
Portugal	. .	153.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	150.4	. .	. .	. .	76.2	. .	. .
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	133.3	. .	. .	. .	64.4	. .	. .
Jamaica	. .	120.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	123.4	. .	. .	. .	71.4	. .	. .
Netherlands	. .	117.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	112.0	. .	. .	. .	54.7	. .	. .
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	105.7	. .	. .	. .	52.6	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	2 279.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 503.9	. .	. .	. .	1 280.0	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**5 448.5**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**6 187.0**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**3 222.8**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CHILE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Peru	. .	. .	37.9	49.1	53.7	58.4	66.1	83.4	107.6	130.9	. .	. .	74.3
Argentina	. .	. .	48.2	50.0	51.9	53.8	57.7	59.7	59.2	60.6	. .	. .	30.1
Bolivia	. .	. .	10.9	12.4	13.0	13.5	14.7	20.2	22.2	24.1	. .	. .	13.0
Ecuador	. .	. .	9.4	9.9	10.9	11.8	13.3	14.7	17.5	19.1	. .	. .	10.5
Colombia	. .	. .	4.1	4.5	5.5	6.6	7.7	9.2	10.9	12.9	. .	. .	7.6
Spain	. .	. .	9.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.0	. .	. .	5.2
United States	. .	. .	7.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.7	. .	. .	4.4
Brazil	. .	. .	6.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.6	. .	. .	5.3
Germany	. .	. .	5.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.5	. .	. .	3.3
China	. .	. .	1.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.6	. .	. .	2.2
Austria	. .	. .	0.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bulgaria	. .	. .	0.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Uruguay	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Switzerland	. .	. .	1.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Portugal	. .	. .	0.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	39.1	97.1	100.5	103.3	99.3	103.8	99.8	63.2	. .	. .	30.5
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**184.5**	**223.0**	**235.5**	**247.4**	**258.8**	**290.9**	**317.1**	**352.3**	**. .**	**. .**	**186.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	29.7	30.4	30.8	30.9	30.9	31.0	31.1	31.4	31.8	32.3	14.9	15.2	15.4
Germany	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.5	22.6	23.0	23.9	25.8	27.8	28.2	13.4	14.3	14.5
Poland	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.3	12.4	14.7	18.5	24.4	25.4	9.6	11.8	12.8
Iraq	15.1	18.0	19.7	20.7	20.8	20.7	20.7	21.2	21.3	21.3	9.5	9.5	9.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.2	17.9	17.7	17.6	18.0	18.0	17.9	9.0	9.0	8.9
Norway	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.9	14.0	14.1	14.2	14.3	14.5	14.7	9.2	9.4	9.5
Sweden	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.7	12.9	13.2	13.2	8.0	8.2	8.3
Iran	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.9	12.1	4.9	4.9	5.0
Lebanon	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	5.5	5.5	5.5
United Kingdom	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.8	11.8	4.0	4.1	4.2
Pakistan	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.5	10.6	10.8	11.2	4.9	5.0	5.2
Former Yugoslavia	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.5	11.2	11.0	5.7	5.6	5.5
Somalia	11.8	12.2	12.3	11.8	11.2	10.7	10.4	10.4	10.2	10.1	4.9	4.8	4.8
Afghanistan	4.3	7.2	8.4	9.0	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.7	10.0	4.5	4.5	4.6
Viet Nam	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.9	8.9	4.6	4.6	4.7
Other countries	105.7	111.4	117.1	121.8	127.3	133.4	140.5	150.4	164.1	174.2	80.3	87.2	93.4
Total	**308.7**	**321.8**	**331.5**	**337.8**	**343.4**	**350.4**	**360.9**	**378.7**	**401.8**	**414.4**	**192.7**	**203.7**	**211.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Former USSR	32.9	34.8	36.3	37.3	38.5	40.2	41.9	43.8	45.8	47.3	27.7	28.9	29.8
Sweden	28.0	28.3	28.6	28.9	29.2	29.5	29.8	30.2	30.6	31.0	14.6	14.8	14.9
Estonia	7.8	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.2	12.6	14.5	16.7	19.2	21.8	8.9	10.0	11.4
Russian Federation	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.7	7.3	3.3	3.8	4.1
Somalia	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3	5.8	6.4	7.1	2.7	3.0	3.4
China	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.6	5.3	6.0	6.6	3.1	3.5	3.8
Iraq	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.3	6.2	2.1	2.2	2.5
Thailand	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.1	4.8	5.4	6.1	3.7	4.2	4.8
Former Yugoslavia	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.8	6.1	2.4	2.6	2.7
Germany	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.3	5.6	5.8	2.2	2.3	2.4
Turkey	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.9	1.0	1.1	1.3
United Kingdom	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.4	1.1	1.2	1.2
Viet Nam	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.3	2.0	2.1	2.3
Iran	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9	1.5	1.6	1.7
United States	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.9	1.6	1.7	1.7
Other countries	33.1	36.1	37.9	40.3	42.7	46.3	50.1	55.5	61.7	66.6	23.5	25.7	27.8
Total	**136.2**	**145.1**	**152.1**	**158.9**	**166.4**	**176.6**	**187.9**	**202.5**	**218.6**	**233.2**	**101.6**	**108.7**	**115.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Algeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 356.6	1 359.3	. .	. .	673.6	. .	. .
Morocco	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	846.9	859.0	. .	. .	415.7	. .	. .
Portugal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	592.0	598.0	. .	. .	293.9	. .	. .
Tunisia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	365.8	368.5	. .	. .	168.7	. .	. .
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	372.3	364.4	. .	. .	189.0	. .	. .
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	307.0	300.0	. .	. .	168.7	. .	. .
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	237.4	243.4	. .	. .	113.3	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	225.6	224.6	. .	. .	129.4	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	148.8	158.0	. .	. .	79.8	. .	. .
Belgium	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	139.0	140.5	. .	. .	78.2	. .	. .
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	119.6	119.8	. .	. .	65.0	. .	. .
Madagascar	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	108.5	110.7	. .	. .	63.8	. .	. .
Senegal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	103.3	106.1	. .	. .	48.7	. .	. .
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	101.6	101.7	. .	. .	65.0	. .	. .
Switzerland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	85.6	87.4	. .	. .	48.0	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 800.0	1 875.9	. .	. .	989.4	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**6 910.1**	**7 017.2**	**. .**	**. .**	**3 590.2**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 489.0	. .	. .	718.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 103.0	. .	. .	610.0
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	992.0	. .	. .	543.0
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	628.0	. .	. .	325.0
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	434.0	. .	. .	165.0
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	386.0	. .	. .	211.0
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	249.0	. .	. .	135.0
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	228.0	. .	. .	130.0
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	227.0	. .	. .	102.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	209.0	. .	. .	107.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	176.0	. .	. .	91.0
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4 480.0	. .	. .	2 255.0
Total	**10 256.1**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**10 399.0**	**10 431.0**	**10 534.0**	**10 623.0**	**10 601.0**	**. .**	**. .**	**5 392.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Albania	. .	403.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Germany	. .	101.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Turkey	. .	76.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Russian Federation	. .	72.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Georgia	. .	71.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bulgaria	. .	38.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Egypt	. .	32.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Romania	. .	26.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kazakhstan	. .	24.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United States	. .	23.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Cyprus	. .	22.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Australia	. .	20.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ukraine	. .	16.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Poland	. .	15.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	13.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	162.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**1 122.9**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Romania	144.2	145.2	146.5	148.5	152.7	155.4	170.4	196.1	202.2	198.2	102.6	104.6	101.8
Former Yugoslavia	35.1	33.4	30.3	30.7	29.9	29.6	28.6	28.5	28.0	33.7	14.5	14.1	16.8
Germany	14.4	15.3	15.9	16.3	18.8	21.9	24.5	27.4	28.7	31.3	14.5	14.8	15.9
Former USSR	31.5	30.4	31.0	31.4	32.2	31.9	27.4	28.5	30.1	31.2	18.8	19.7	20.5
Former Czechoslovakia	36.0	34.6	33.3	33.4	31.4	32.6	30.4	29.6	28.5	28.5	18.7	18.1	18.1
Austria	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.2	6.9	7.3	7.9	3.2	3.3	3.5
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.9	4.9	4.6	6.5	3.0	2.8	3.9
China	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.4	5.6	2.4	2.6	2.7
United States	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.1	2.2	2.4
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.2	3.8	4.3	4.8	1.5	1.7	1.9
France	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.6	3.9	4.1	1.7	1.7	1.9
Poland	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.8	3.9	2.4	2.4	2.5
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.6	1.1	1.2	1.3
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.1	3.0	3.2	3.3	1.7	1.8	1.8
Netherlands	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.6	0.8	0.9	1.0
Other countries	19.8	27.4	31.2	32.4	37.0	40.9	27.4	31.5	34.1	37.1	13.8	14.8	16.0
Total	**294.6**	**300.1**	**302.8**	**307.8**	**319.0**	**331.5**	**344.6**	**381.8**	**394.2**	**407.3**	**202.7**	**206.7**	**212.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2006	2008	2009
United Kingdom	. .	. .	242.2	. .	. .	. .	266.1	. .	. .	. .	134.9	. .	. .
Poland	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .	. .	62.5	. .	. .	. .	22.8	. .	. .
United States	. .	. .	21.0	. .	. .	. .	24.6	. .	. .	. .	13.3	. .	. .
Lithuania	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .	. .	24.6	. .	. .	. .	10.8	. .	. .
Nigeria	. .	. .	8.9	. .	. .	. .	16.3	. .	. .	. .	8.9	. .	. .
Latvia	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .	. .	13.9	. .	. .	. .	6.4	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	8.5	. .	. .	. .	11.5	. .	. .	. .	6.3	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .	. .	11.0	. .	. .	. .	5.2	. .	. .
Philippines	. .	. .	3.9	. .	. .	. .	9.4	. .	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	3.3	. .	. .	. .	9.2	. .	. .	. .	4.4	. .	. .
France	. .	. .	6.7	. .	. .	. .	9.1	. .	. .	. .	4.6	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .	8.5	. .	. .	. .	3.9	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.1	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .
South Africa	. .	. .	6.1	. .	. .	. .	7.6	. .	. .	. .	3.8	. .	. .
Australia	. .	. .	5.9	. .	. .	. .	6.5	. .	. .	. .	3.3	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	65.7	. .	. .	. .	112.7	. .	. .	. .	52.3	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**390.0**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**601.7**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**289.2**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

ISRAEL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Former USSR	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	938.0	705.1	696.8	688.5	658.1	. .	. .	. .
Morocco	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	156.5	154.2	151.9	149.5	155.7	. .	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	108.7	99.2	95.8	92.4	91.7	. .	. .	. .
Ethiopia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	71.1	63.6	66.2	70.6	68.9	. .	. .	. .
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	69.1	67.2	65.7	64.1	64.1	. .	. .	. .
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	62.5	57.9	54.2	50.7	54.4	. .	. .	. .
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.1	48.4	47.8	47.1	50.0	. .	. .	. .
Algeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	40.1	39.7	39.3	38.8	43.7	. .	. .	. .
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	34.3	35.5	37.6	39.2	39.8	. .	. .	. .
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	38.5	35.7	35.2	34.8	35.7	. .	. .	. .
Yemen	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	32.3	31.3	30.3	29.4	29.3	. .	. .	. .
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	27.9	27.0	26.4	25.7	26.2	. .	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	29.4	27.1	26.4	25.7	25.2	. .	. .	. .
Former Czechoslovakia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	24.1	22.1	21.1	20.2	20.8	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.1	19.6	20.3	20.8	20.3	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	245.9	496.4	501.2	501.9	493.8	. .	. .	. .
Total	**1 957.8**	**1 978.1**	**1 983.2**	**1 974.8**	**1 960.8**	**1 947.6**	**1 930.0**	**1 916.2**	**1 899.4**	**1 877.7**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2001	2008	2009
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**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2008	2009
United States	343.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	170.0	. .	. .
Guatemala	24.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	12.5	. .	. .
Spain	21.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.7	. .	. .
Cuba	6.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.5	. .	. .
Argentina	6.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.2	. .	. .
Colombia	6.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.4	. .	. .
Canada	5.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .
France	5.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	. .	. .
Germany	5.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.5	. .	. .
El Salvador	5.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .
Italy	3.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	. .	. .
Chile	3.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	. .	. .
Peru	3.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .
Honduras	3.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .
Japan	2.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	. .	. .
Other countries	43.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.3	. .	. .
Total	**492.6**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**584.5**	**610.1**	**699.3**	**733.7**	**850.1**	**243.3**	**362.9**	**422.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	181.9	186.2	190.5	194.6	195.9	196.0	195.4	194.8	195.7	196.7	94.3	94.6	. .
Suriname	186.5	188.0	189.0	189.7	190.1	189.2	187.8	187.0	186.7	186.8	102.5	102.5	. .
Morocco	155.8	159.8	163.4	166.6	168.5	168.6	168.0	167.2	166.9	167.4	78.6	78.8	. .
Indonesia	165.8	163.9	161.4	158.8	156.0	152.8	149.7	146.7	143.7	140.7	81.2	79.7	. .
Germany	123.1	122.1	120.6	119.0	117.7	116.9	116.4	117.0	119.2	120.5	69.0	70.1	. .
Poland	17.4	18.6	20.1	21.2	25.0	30.0	35.3	42.1	51.1	58.1	24.9	29.3	. .
Former Yugoslavia	53.9	55.9	56.2	55.5	54.5	53.7	53.0	52.8	52.7	52.8	27.0	27.0	. .
Belgium	46.0	46.5	46.8	47.1	47.1	47.1	47.4	47.9	48.6	49.2	27.1	27.3	. .
United Kingdom	45.7	47.9	48.5	48.3	47.5	46.6	45.8	45.8	46.7	47.1	20.4	20.8	. .
China	22.7	25.8	28.7	31.5	33.5	34.8	35.5	37.1	40.0	42.5	21.8	23.1	. .
Former USSR	21.6	27.1	30.8	32.8	34.5	35.3	36.0	37.4	39.4	41.9	23.9	25.2	. .
Iraq	33.7	36.0	35.8	36.0	35.9	35.3	34.8	35.7	38.7	40.9	14.8	15.6	. .
Afghanistan	24.3	28.5	31.0	32.1	32.4	32.0	31.3	31.0	30.7	31.1	14.2	14.1	. .
Iran	21.5	23.2	24.2	24.2	24.1	23.8	23.8	24.2	24.8	25.4	10.8	11.1	. .
United States	21.4	22.1	22.5	22.6	22.6	22.8	23.0	23.3	24.0	24.3	11.8	12.2	. .
Other countries	494.3	523.2	544.7	551.9	550.9	549.9	549.3	561.2	584.8	607.1	138.2	144.3	. .
Total	**1 615.4**	**1 674.6**	**1 714.2**	**1 731.8**	**1 736.1**	**1 734.7**	**1 732.4**	**1 751.0**	**1 793.7**	**1 832.5**	**760.5**	**775.5**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2006	2008	2009
United Kingdom	. .	218.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	245.1	. .	. .	. .	125.3	. .	. .
China	. .	38.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	78.1	. .	. .	. .	40.8	. .	. .
Australia	. .	56.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	62.7	. .	. .	. .	33.4	. .	. .
Samoa	. .	47.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	50.6	. .	. .	. .	26.4	. .	. .
India	. .	20.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	43.3	. .	. .	. .	20.7	. .	. .
South Africa	. .	26.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	41.7	. .	. .	. .	21.2	. .	. .
Fiji	. .	25.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	37.7	. .	. .	. .	19.5	. .	. .
Korea	. .	17.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	28.8	. .	. .	. .	15.3	. .	. .
Netherlands	. .	22.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	22.1	. .	. .	. .	10.4	. .	. .
Tonga	. .	18.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.5	. .	. .	. .	10.3	. .	. .
United States	. .	13.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	18.3	. .	. .	. .	9.1	. .	. .
Philippines	. .	10.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.3	. .	. .	. .	9.7	. .	. .
Cook Islands	. .	15.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.7	. .	. .	. .	7.7	. .	. .
Malaysia	. .	11.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.5	. .	. .	. .	7.7	. .	. .
Chinese Taipei	. .	12.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.8	. .	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	144.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	175.2	. .	. .	. .	89.3	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**698.6**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**879.5**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**452.6**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Poland	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.0	8.3	11.2	18.0	30.8	42.7	49.5	9.9	13.6	16.9
Sweden	33.3	33.0	33.0	33.1	33.1	33.9	35.0	36.8	39.4	41.8	18.7	19.8	20.9
Germany	11.8	12.2	12.9	13.5	14.1	15.2	16.7	19.7	23.0	24.9	9.3	10.7	11.6
Denmark	22.0	22.1	22.3	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.3	22.5	22.6	22.7	11.1	11.1	11.1
Iraq	11.3	12.3	14.7	14.9	15.4	16.7	17.4	18.2	19.4	20.6	7.7	8.2	8.8
Somalia	7.8	8.6	10.7	12.1	12.8	13.5	14.5	16.0	16.9	18.0	7.4	7.9	8.4
Pakistan	13.6	14.1	14.6	14.9	15.2	15.6	15.9	16.2	16.7	17.2	7.8	8.1	8.3
United Kingdom	14.2	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.6	16.2	16.9	6.5	6.7	6.9
United States	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.6	14.8	15.2	15.7	16.0	7.9	8.1	8.3
Russian Federation	3.9	4.7	6.0	7.5	8.9	10.1	10.9	12.2	13.1	13.8	8.0	8.5	9.1
Philippines	6.0	6.4	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.9	12.3	13.5	8.3	9.5	10.4
Thailand	4.1	4.6	5.5	6.3	7.3	8.3	9.3	10.5	11.8	13.1	8.5	9.6	10.6
Iran	9.3	10.1	10.7	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.6	13.1	5.5	5.6	5.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11.7	11.8	13.5	13.2	12.6	12.6	13.2	13.0	12.9	13.0	6.6	6.6	6.6
Viet Nam	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.9	12.1	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.9	13.0	6.6	6.8	6.9
Other countries	124.2	128.9	135.8	143.0	150.3	158.9	168.0	182.8	200.6	219.9	91.1	99.0	107.7
Total	**305.0**	**315.1**	**333.9**	**347.3**	**361.1**	**380.4**	**405.1**	**445.4**	**488.8**	**526.8**	**220.9**	**239.7**	**258.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

POLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2002	2008	2009
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**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2001	2008	2009
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**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	. .	. .	3 560.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	2 585.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Belarus	. .	. .	935.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Uzbekistan	. .	. .	918.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Azerbaijan	. .	. .	846.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Georgia	. .	. .	629.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Armenia	. .	. .	481.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kyrgyzstan	. .	. .	463.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Tajikistan	. .	. .	383.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Moldova	. .	. .	277.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Turkmenistan	. .	. .	175.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	150.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Latvia	. .	. .	102.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Lithuania	. .	. .	86.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Estonia	. .	. .	67.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	316.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**11 976.8**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2004	2008	2009
Czech Republic	. .	71.5	. .	. .	107.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	56.0	. .	. .
Hungary	. .	17.2	. .	. .	22.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.4	. .	. .
Ukraine	. .	7.1	. .	. .	13.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.2	. .	. .
Poland	. .	3.4	. .	. .	7.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.7	. .	. .
Russian Federation	. .	1.6	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.5	. .	. .
Germany	. .	0.6	. .	. .	4.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.7	. .	. .
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	0.1	. .	. .	4.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .
Romania	. .	3.0	. .	. .	4.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .
Austria	. .	0.7	. .	. .	3.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .
United States	. .	0.7	. .	. .	3.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .
France	. .	1.3	. .	. .	3.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.7	. .	. .
Viet Nam	. .	0.6	. .	. .	2.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	. .	. .
Bulgaria	. .	1.0	. .	. .	1.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	10.0	. .	. .	19.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.6	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**119.1**	**. .**	**. .**	**207.6**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**103.9**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Romania	33.0	68.6	137.8	206.4	312.1	397.3	511.0	706.2	762.2	784.0	326.1	355.5	370.9
Morocco	299.9	370.7	438.2	474.5	557.2	606.0	621.3	683.1	737.8	754.1	253.5	282.4	297.7
Ecuador	140.6	259.8	387.6	470.1	487.2	456.6	434.7	458.4	479.1	480.2	235.7	246.3	247.8
United Kingdom	120.0	140.6	173.6	187.5	238.2	283.7	322.0	358.3	379.3	389.5	177.7	188.6	193.7
Colombia	99.9	205.3	259.4	264.5	288.2	287.0	291.7	330.4	358.8	367.7	186.6	202.6	208.8
Argentina	84.9	118.9	191.7	226.5	260.4	271.4	273.0	290.3	295.4	289.6	139.9	142.8	140.6
Germany	158.0	173.0	189.4	176.9	193.1	208.9	222.1	237.9	246.7	250.5	119.3	124.1	126.2
France	162.5	170.6	180.2	178.1	188.7	199.4	208.8	220.2	227.1	229.2	113.5	116.9	117.9
Bolivia	8.4	15.5	30.6	54.4	99.5	140.7	200.7	240.9	229.4	211.5	135.0	129.8	121.6
Peru	47.3	59.0	72.9	88.8	108.0	123.5	137.0	162.4	188.2	196.6	85.8	98.5	104.0
Bulgaria	12.4	30.2	53.4	70.4	93.0	100.8	120.2	150.7	160.0	163.3	68.2	73.2	75.4
Venezuela	62.3	71.6	83.5	100.3	116.2	124.9	130.6	144.6	152.4	153.9	76.9	81.3	82.4
China	27.6	37.5	51.1	62.3	87.0	104.8	108.3	127.0	146.3	152.9	62.3	72.7	77.0
Portugal	62.6	67.3	71.8	71.1	80.8	93.8	111.6	136.2	148.2	148.6	53.3	58.1	58.8
Brazil	31.9	39.5	48.0	55.0	73.1	93.4	113.4	142.1	153.7	145.7	83.4	91.2	88.7
Other countries	617.6	765.9	933.2	1 007.1	1 208.9	1 345.6	1 443.8	1 655.7	1 801.7	1 849.5	775.2	845.3	877.9
Total	**1 969.3**	**2 594.1**	**3 302.4**	**3 693.8**	**4 391.5**	**4 837.6**	**5 250.0**	**6 044.5**	**6 466.3**	**6 566.6**	**2 892.4**	**3 109.3**	**3 189.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Finland	195.4	193.5	191.5	189.3	186.6	183.7	180.9	178.2	175.1	172.2	105.3	103.8	102.4
Iraq	49.4	55.7	62.8	67.6	70.1	72.6	82.8	97.5	109.4	117.9	42.7	48.9	53.7
Former Yugoslavia	72.0	73.3	74.4	75.1	74.6	74.0	73.7	72.9	72.3	71.6	35.8	35.5	35.3
Poland	40.1	40.5	41.1	41.6	43.5	46.2	51.7	58.2	63.8	67.5	34.7	37.2	39.0
Iran	51.1	51.8	52.7	53.2	54.0	54.5	55.7	56.5	57.7	59.9	26.6	27.2	28.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	51.5	52.2	52.9	53.9	54.5	54.8	55.5	55.7	56.0	56.1	28.2	28.4	28.4
Germany	38.2	38.9	39.4	40.2	40.8	41.6	43.0	45.0	46.9	47.8	24.1	25.0	25.4
Denmark	38.2	38.9	39.9	40.9	41.7	42.6	44.4	45.9	46.2	46.0	21.4	21.4	21.3
Norway	42.5	43.4	44.5	45.1	45.0	44.8	44.7	44.6	44.3	43.8	25.2	24.9	24.6
Turkey	31.9	32.5	33.1	34.1	35.0	35.9	37.1	38.2	39.2	40.8	17.7	18.1	18.7
Somalia	13.1	13.5	14.0	14.8	15.3	16.0	18.3	21.6	25.2	31.7	10.6	12.5	15.9
Thailand	10.4	11.2	12.4	14.3	16.3	18.3	20.5	22.9	25.9	28.7	17.8	20.2	22.4
Chile	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.8	28.0	28.0	28.1	28.3	14.0	14.0	14.1
Lebanon	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.8	21.1	21.4	22.7	23.0	23.3	23.7	10.3	10.4	10.6
China	8.2	9.0	9.8	10.9	11.9	13.3	14.5	16.0	18.3	21.2	10.3	11.6	13.1
Other countries	315.1	326.4	337.1	348.6	362.3	378.4	401.5	423.5	450.0	480.6	210.1	222.4	236.2
Total	**1 003.8**	**1 028.0**	**1 053.5**	**1 078.1**	**1 100.3**	**1 125.8**	**1 175.2**	**1 227.8**	**1 281.6**	**1 338.0**	**634.7**	**661.5**	**689.5**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2008	2009
Italy	234.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	106.7	. .	. .
Germany	182.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	107.1	. .	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	158.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	74.5	. .	. .
Portugal	101.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	47.9	. .	. .
France	98.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	56.8	. .	. .
Spain	61.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	30.4	. .	. .
Turkey	58.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	27.0	. .	. .
Austria	54.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	36.0	. .	. .
Bosnia and Herzegovina	46.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.4	. .	. .
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	41.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.0	. .	. .
United Kingdom	25.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.0	. .	. .
Croatia	24.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.0	. .	. .
Sri Lanka	22.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.5	. .	. .
United States	21.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.4	. .	. .
Netherlands	16.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.7	. .	. .
Other countries	423.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	230.6	. .	. .
Total	**1 570.8**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**815.9**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2008	2009
Bulgaria	480.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	252.5	. .	. .
Germany	273.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	140.6	. .	. .
Greece	59.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	32.3	. .	. .
Netherlands	21.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.1	. .	. .
Russian Federation	19.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	12.1	. .	. .
United Kingdom	18.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.1	. .	. .
France	16.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.2	. .	. .
Austria	14.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.2	. .	. .
United States	13.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.1	. .	. .
Iran	13.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.9	. .	. .
Cyprus	10.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .
Switzerland	10.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.4	. .	. .
Other countries	326.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	167.6	. .	. .
Total	**1 278.7**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**663.6**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	570.0	553.0	601.0	661.0	269.0	294.0	331.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	229.0	423.0	495.0	540.0	189.0	226.0	265.0
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	274.0	357.0	422.0	427.0	174.0	209.0	200.0
Ireland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	417.0	410.0	420.0	401.0	225.0	242.0	220.0
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	269.0	253.0	273.0	296.0	143.0	151.0	189.0
South Africa	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	198.0	194.0	204.0	220.0	100.0	108.0	108.0
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	221.0	202.0	193.0	199.0	100.0	91.0	89.0
Nigeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	117.0	147.0	137.0	166.0	74.0	72.0	93.0
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	169.0	162.0	173.0	160.0	81.0	96.0	88.0
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	111.0	134.0	129.0	144.0	79.0	72.0	80.0
Kenya	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	138.0	135.0	140.0	134.0	69.0	64.0	73.0
Philippines	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	95.0	107.0	101.0	134.0	69.0	63.0	88.0
Jamaica	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	135.0	173.0	142.0	130.0	100.0	81.0	73.0
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	111.0	106.0	101.0	126.0	58.0	53.0	69.0
Australia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	116.0	123.0	139.0	123.0	61.0	71.0	56.0
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 587.0	2 713.0	2 963.0	3 038.0	1 413.0	1 519.0	1 546.0
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**5 757.0**	**6 192.0**	**6 633.0**	**6 899.0**	**3 204.0**	**3 412.0**	**3 568.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Table B.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Mexico	8 072.3	8 494.0	9 900.4	10 237.2	10 739.7	11 053.0	11 132.1	11 811.7	11 845.3	11 869.5	5 201.4	5 273.4	5 336.3
India	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4	1 183.6	1 296.7	1 438.3	1 478.5	1 730.0	1 631.9	1 832.0	813.5	787.5	872.8
Philippines	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1	1 457.5	1 449.0	1 621.3	1 677.7	1 737.5	1 830.5	1 725.2	1 023.1	1 090.3	1 009.6
China	898.0	968.2	986.9	1 167.6	1 463.0	1 398.0	1 460.3	1 634.2	1 605.6	1 459.6	909.1	850.3	814.3
El Salvador	787.7	840.9	882.8	1 025.3	958.4	1 130.1	1 095.6	999.0	956.6	1 101.2	495.5	458.3	525.9
Cuba	957.3	859.6	935.7	1 005.2	1 075.0	965.9	994.8	992.8	997.0	1 066.3	496.7	504.9	571.4
Korea	801.8	889.2	811.2	916.2	854.1	770.6	1 002.6	959.7	955.2	1 041.7	532.0	559.4	597.0
Viet Nam	872.7	768.2	831.5	946.7	985.7	1 037.7	942.6	1 062.9	1 059.2	990.9	522.1	559.7	509.4
Germany	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8	1 091.5	1 093.0	1 036.1	1 088.1	1 010.1	984.5	882.4	582.9	528.7	508.9
Dominican Republic	699.2	640.1	668.6	725.9	641.4	713.5	827.2	871.8	875.8	796.4	484.8	490.3	464.5
United Kingdom	758.2	715.3	745.1	700.7	730.9	724.6	665.7	719.5	704.1	752.1	396.6	373.3	415.2
Canada	879.3	957.4	921.2	852.6	831.9	833.2	840.4	854.9	849.7	748.9	517.4	473.7	390.9
Guatemala	328.7	315.6	408.1	448.5	526.7	556.6	567.3	695.0	724.0	704.9	250.1	279.3	297.5
Jamaica	422.5	488.4	537.8	671.1	660.0	615.3	588.8	554.0	639.5	599.1	338.8	349.1	354.3
Colombia	440.1	528.5	552.2	491.7	453.9	499.7	641.5	685.1	598.5	545.9	378.6	340.1	318.5
Other countries	10 099.9	10 702.5	11 320.6	11 698.9	11 876.2	11 953.7	12 019.3	12 642.5	13 366.9	12 831.6	6 457.4	6 850.6	6 564.8
Total	**29 489.0**	**30 658.1**	**33 474.4**	**34 620.3**	**35 635.5**	**36 347.6**	**37 022.5**	**38 960.8**	**39 624.2**	**38 947.6**	**19 399.9**	**19 768.9**	**19 551.5**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442883

Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4.
Stocks of foreign-born population

Legend: ® Observed figures.
ε Estimates made by means of the component method (CM) or the paramteric method (PM).

Data in italic in Table A.1.4 are estimated. No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.1.4).

For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to *www.oecd.org/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	® Stock of foreign-born residents recorded in the population register. Break in time series in 2002. Revised data for 2002-07 to bring in line population statistics with the results of register based test census of 2006. *Reference date:* 31 December (since 2002).	Population Register, Statistics Austria. Prior to 2002: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	® Stock of foreign-born recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers are recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, Directorate General Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI).
Canada	® 2001 and 2006: Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents). Immigrants are persons who are, or have ever been, landed immigrants in Canada. A landed immigrant is a person who has been granted the right to live in Canada permanently by immigration authorities. Some immigrants have resided in Canada for a number of years and have changed status, while others are recent arrivals. ε PM for other years.	Statistics Canada.
Chile	® 2002 Census. ® Register of permits of residence granted for other years.	Register of permits of residence granted, Chile Sistema B3000, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	® 2001 Census. ε CM for other years.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	® Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad to parents who 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 recorded in the population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	® 2006 and 2007 Censuses. Includes immigrants who were born French abroad. ε PM for other years.	Permanent censuses, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	® 2000 and 2005 to 2009: Microcensus.	Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	® 2001 Census. Usual foreign-born resident population	Hellenic Statistical Authority.
Hungary	® Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of holders of permanent residence cards, Office of Immigration and Nationality, Ministry of Administration and Justice.
Ireland	® 2002 and 2006 Census. Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. ε PM for other years.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	The data refer to permanent immigrants, that is, to persons who entered the country to take up permanent residence under the Law of Return or the Law of Entrance. Before 2006, the detail by country of origin includes Jews and Others and excludes Arabs whereas from 2006 on, it includes Jews only. The statistics provided for Israel do not include Arabs born outside of Israel who, according to Israeli Authorities, represent a small share of both immigrant entries and of the immigrant population. Data for Algeria include Tunisia. Data for Bulgaria include Greece. Data for former Czechoslovakia include Slovak Republic, Czech Republic, and Hungary. Data for Germany include Austria. Data for India include Pakistan. Data for Syria include Lebanon. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	® 2001 Census.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Luxembourg	® 2001 Census. ε CM for other years.	Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	® 2000 Census. ® From 2005 on, estimation of the total number of foreign-born from the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE).	National Migration Institute (INM) and National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4.
Stocks of foreign-born population *(cont.)*

Legend: ® Observed figures.
ε Estimates made by means of the component method (CM) or the paramteric method (PM).

Data in italic in Table A.1.4 are estimated. No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.1.4).

For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to *www.oecd.org/migration/foreignborn*.

Country	Comments	Source
Netherlands	® Population register. *Reference date:* 1 January of the following year.	Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	® 2001 and 2006 Census. ε PM for other years.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	® Reference date: 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	® 2002 Census. Excluding foreign temporary residents who, at the time of the census, had been staying at a given address in Poland for less than 12 months. Country of birth in accordance with political (administrative) boundaries at the time of the census.	Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	® 2001 Census. ε CM for other years.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Russian Federation	® 2002 Census.	Federal Migration Service, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	® 2001 Census. Population who had permanent resident status at the date of the Census. ® 2004 Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	® Stock of foreign-born recorded in the population register.	Population Register, National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	® *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	® 2000 Census. ε CM for other years.	Federal Statistical Office.
Turkey	® 2000 Census.	Turkish Statistical Institute.
United Kingdom	® 2001 Census. ® 2006 to 2009 Labour Force Survey. Foreign-born residents. ε PM for other years. Figures are rounded.	Office for National Statistics.
United States	® 2000 Population Census (Table A.1.4). ε 2001 to 2008, OECD estimates based on the Current Population Survey trends (Table A.1.4). ® 2009 American Community Survey (Table A.1.4). ® 2000 to 2009 Current Population Survey (Table B.1.4).	Census Bureau, Department of Commerce.

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Austria	701.8	728.8	745.2	752.7	772.9	795.2	802.7	832.3	867.8	892.2
% of total population	8.7	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.5	9.7	9.7	10.0	10.4	10.7
Belgium	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	900.5	932.2	971.4	1 013.3	1 057.7
% of total population	8.4	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	9.5	9.8
Czech Republic	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3	278.3	321.5	392.3	437.6	432.5
% of total population	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	4.2	4.1
Denmark	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	270.1	278.1	298.5	320.2	329.9
% of total population	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.8	6.0
Estonia	287.1	273.8	269.5	266.5	262.6	255.1	243.8	232.2	223.6	219.2
% of total population	20.9	20.0	19.8	19.7	19.4	18.9	18.1	17.3	16.7	16.4
Finland	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	113.9	121.7	132.7	143.3	155.7
% of total population	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.9
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 541.8	3 696.9	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.7	6.0	. .	. .
Germany	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8	6 717.1	6 755.8	6 751.0	6 744.9	6 727.6	6 694.8
% of total population	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2
Greece	304.6	355.8	436.8	472.8	533.4	553.1	570.6	643.1	733.6	839.7
% of total population	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.7	6.5	7.4
Hungary	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	154.4	166.0	174.7	184.4	197.8
% of total population	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0
Ireland	. .	. .	219.3	. .	. .	. .	413.2	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .	. .	9.7	. .	. .	. .
Italy	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 549.4	1 990.2	2 402.2	2 670.5	2 938.9	3 432.7	3 891.3	4 235.1
% of total population	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.5	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.8	6.6	7.1
Japan	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7	2 011.6	2 083.2	2 151.4	2 215.9	2 184.7
% of total population	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Korea	210.2	229.6	271.7	460.3	491.4	510.5	660.6	800.3	895.5	920.9
% of total population	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.9
Luxembourg	164.7	166.7	170.7	177.8	183.7	191.3	198.3	205.9	215.5	216.3
% of total population	37.7	37.8	38.3	39.5	40.4	41.5	42.3	43.2	44.5	43.8
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	260.5
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2
Netherlands	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	691.4	681.9	688.4	719.5	735.2
% of total population	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.4
Norway	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	222.3	238.3	266.3	303.0	333.9
% of total population	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.7	6.4	6.9
Poland	. .	. .	49.2	. .	. .	. .	54.9	57.5	60.4	49.6
% of total population	. .	. .	0.1	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Portugal	207.6	360.8	423.8	444.6	469.1	432.0	437.1	446.3	443.1	457.3
% of total population	2.0	3.5	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.3
Russian Federation	. .	. .	1 025.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	0.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3	25.6	32.1	40.9	52.5	62.9
% of total population	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2
Slovenia	42.3	45.3	44.7	45.3	44.3	49.0	53.6	68.6	70.7	82.3
% of total population	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.4	3.5	4.1

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Spain	1 370.7	1 977.9	2 664.2	3 034.3	3 730.6	4 144.2	4 519.6	5 268.8	5 648.7	5 708.9
% of total population	3.4	4.9	6.4	7.2	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.7	12.4	12.4
Sweden	472.4	471.3	469.8	452.8	457.8	457.5	485.9	518.2	555.4	595.1
% of total population	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4
Switzerland	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0	1 511.9	1 523.6	1 571.0	1 638.9	1 680.2
% of total population	19.3	19.6	19.9	20.0	20.2	20.3	20.4	20.8	21.4	21.7
Turkey	271.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	0.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0	3 035.0	3 392.0	3 824.0	4 186.0	4 348.0
% of total population	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.1
United States	17 757.7	18 533.7	20 490.6	20 634.1	21 115.7	21 707.1	21 775.4	22 741.1	22 213.9	21 274.3
% of total population	6.3	6.5	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.5	7.3	6.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.5.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442750

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Germany	. .	75.3	78.2	83.6	91.2	100.4	109.2	119.8	130.7	138.2	60.3	65.5	69.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	140.9	141.8	137.6	136.8	137.9	135.8	132.6	134.9	134.2	62.6	63.7	63.8
Turkey	127.3	127.1	127.2	123.0	116.5	113.1	108.2	109.2	110.7	112.2	51.5	52.6	53.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	95.5	96.1	94.2	90.9	88.3	86.2	85.0	84.6	84.3	38.7	38.5	38.3
Croatia	. .	57.3	58.5	58.5	58.6	58.1	56.8	56.4	56.3	56.3	26.5	26.5	26.6
Poland	. .	21.4	21.8	22.2	26.6	30.6	33.3	35.5	36.9	37.4	16.8	17.9	18.4
Romania	. .	17.8	19.5	20.5	21.3	21.9	21.9	27.6	32.3	36.0	15.7	18.2	20.2
Hungary	. .	13.1	13.7	14.2	15.1	16.3	17.4	19.3	21.5	23.5	10.0	11.1	12.3
Russian Federation	. .	3.7	4.9	8.0	14.2	17.2	18.8	20.0	21.8	22.3	10.7	11.8	12.2
Slovak Republic	. .	7.5	8.5	9.5	11.3	13.0	14.2	15.7	18.1	19.3	9.6	11.6	12.4
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	13.2	14.4	15.3	16.0	16.3	16.3	16.5	17.0	17.3	7.4	7.7	7.9
Italy	. .	10.7	10.9	11.3	11.7	12.2	12.7	13.4	14.3	15.1	5.6	6.0	6.3
Bulgaria	. .	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.3	6.5	6.4	7.6	9.0	9.9	4.4	5.1	5.5
China	. .	5.1	6.5	7.6	8.3	8.8	8.9	9.3	9.7	9.9	5.0	5.2	5.4
Czech Republic	. .	6.2	6.6	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.3	9.1	9.2	5.2	5.6	5.8
Other countries	574.5	130.8	132.9	136.0	142.2	148.5	150.7	158.9	163.9	170.2	77.9	80.8	84.3
Total	**701.8**	**730.3**	**746.8**	**754.2**	**774.4**	**796.7**	**804.8**	**835.2**	**870.7**	**895.1**	**407.8**	**427.8**	**442.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Italy	195.6	190.8	187.0	183.0	179.0	175.5	171.9	169.0	. .	. .	77.1	. .	. .
France	109.3	111.1	113.0	114.9	117.3	120.6	125.1	130.6	. .	. .	67.8	. .	. .
Netherlands	88.8	92.6	96.6	100.7	105.0	110.5	117.0	123.5	. .	. .	57.0	. .	. .
Morocco	106.8	90.6	83.6	81.8	81.3	80.6	80.6	79.9	. .	. .	39.5	. .	. .
Spain	43.4	45.0	44.5	43.8	43.2	42.9	42.8	42.7	. .	. .	21.4	. .	. .
Turkey	56.2	45.9	42.6	41.3	39.9	39.7	39.4	39.5	. .	. .	19.9	. .	. .
Germany	34.6	34.7	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.0	37.6	38.4	. .	. .	19.2	. .	. .
Poland	6.9	8.9	10.4	11.6	14.0	18.0	23.2	30.4	. .	. .	14.9	. .	. .
Portugal	25.6	25.8	26.0	26.8	27.4	28.0	28.7	29.8	. .	. .	14.5	. .	. .
United Kingdom	26.6	26.4	26.2	26.2	26.0	25.7	25.1	25.1	. .	. .	11.2	. .	. .
Romania	2.4	3.3	4.0	4.6	5.6	7.5	10.2	15.3	. .	. .	7.6	. .	. .
Greece	18.0	17.6	17.3	17.1	16.6	16.3	15.7	15.2	. .	. .	7.4	. .	. .
Democratic Republic of the Congo	11.3	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.2	13.5	14.2	15.0	. .	. .	7.7	. .	. .
United States	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.1	11.2	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .
Algeria	7.7	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.8	8.1	. .	. .	3.4	. .	. .
Other countries	116.7	122.2	131.2	140.2	147.3	166.0	181.7	197.8	. .	. .	102.2	. .	. .
Total	**861.7**	**846.7**	**850.1**	**860.3**	**870.9**	**900.5**	**932.2**	**971.4**	**1 013.3**	**1 057.7**	**476.6**	**497.2**	**520.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	50.2	51.8	59.1	62.3	78.3	87.8	102.6	126.7	131.9	131.9	50.4	53.9	55.0
Slovak Republic	44.3	53.2	61.1	64.9	47.4	49.4	58.4	67.9	76.0	73.4	27.6	31.3	31.9
Viet Nam	23.6	23.9	27.1	29.0	34.2	36.8	40.8	51.1	60.3	61.1	21.1	23.7	24.6
Russian Federation	13.0	12.4	12.8	12.6	14.7	16.3	18.6	23.3	27.1	30.3	12.3	14.5	16.4
Poland	17.1	16.5	16.0	15.8	16.3	17.8	18.9	20.6	21.7	19.3	9.4	9.8	9.7
Germany	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.8	7.2	10.1	15.7	17.5	13.8	3.0	3.4	2.9
Moldova	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.3	4.1	4.7	6.2	8.0	10.6	10.0	2.8	3.7	3.7
Bulgaria	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.9	6.4	1.8	2.1	2.3
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.0	8.6	5.7	3.6	4.9	3.4
United States	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.5	5.3	5.6	1.7	2.0	2.3
China	3.6	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.4	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.2	5.4	2.2	2.3	2.4
United Kingdom	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.2	3.5	3.8	4.5	4.4	0.8	1.0	1.0
Romania	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.1	1.2	1.3	1.5
Belarus	2.6	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.7	3.9	4.0	2.1	2.2	2.6
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.0	3.4	3.9	1.6	1.8	2.2
Other countries	28.5	28.4	29.9	29.4	34.7	38.3	43.3	44.9	52.1	53.1	13.7	15.6	17.0
Total	**201.0**	**210.8**	**231.6**	**240.4**	**254.3**	**278.3**	**321.5**	**392.3**	**437.6**	**432.5**	**155.3**	**173.6**	**179.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	35.2	33.4	31.9	30.3	30.0	29.5	28.8	28.8	28.9	29.0	14.1	14.2	14.2
Poland	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.2	7.4	9.7	13.8	19.9	21.1	6.4	8.8	9.9
Germany	12.7	12.9	13.0	13.3	13.6	14.2	15.4	18.0	20.4	21.1	8.4	9.6	10.0
Iraq	13.8	16.5	18.0	19.4	19.2	18.7	18.1	18.3	17.6	16.7	8.6	8.3	7.9
Norway	13.0	13.2	13.4	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.2	14.4	14.8	15.0	8.5	8.8	9.0
United Kingdom	12.6	12.8	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.9	13.2	13.7	14.2	14.3	4.7	4.9	4.9
Sweden	10.8	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.2	11.6	12.1	12.7	12.8	7.0	7.4	7.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	17.8	17.2	14.0	12.7	12.2	12.1	11.8	11.5	5.8	5.7	5.6
Afghanistan	4.2	7.1	8.2	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.4	9.1	4.5	4.5	4.3
Iceland	5.9	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.3	8.5	8.9	4.2	4.4	4.5
Somalia	14.4	14.6	13.3	13.1	11.3	9.8	9.0	8.8	8.5	8.3	4.3	4.1	4.0
Thailand	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.3	7.7	5.6	6.0	6.4
Former Yugoslavia	35.0	34.8	10.8	10.7	9.8	9.4	8.7	8.6	8.1	7.7	4.2	4.0	3.8
China	2.7	3.2	3.9	5.2	5.9	6.2	6.1	6.6	7.2	7.4	3.5	3.9	4.1
Pakistan	7.1	7.2	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.1	3.5	3.6	3.7
Other countries	81.2	83.7	87.2	90.2	90.9	94.6	100.8	112.1	124.1	132.3	57.1	62.7	67.5
Total	**258.6**	**266.7**	**265.4**	**271.2**	**267.6**	**270.1**	**278.1**	**298.5**	**320.2**	**329.9**	**150.7**	**160.9**	**167.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Russian Federation	20.6	22.7	24.3	25.0	24.6	24.6	25.3	26.2	26.9	28.2	15.7	15.9	16.6
Estonia	10.8	11.7	12.4	13.4	14.0	15.5	17.6	20.0	22.6	25.5	10.8	12.0	13.4
Sweden	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	8.5	3.6	3.6	3.6
Somalia	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.9	4.9	5.6	2.3	2.4	2.7
China	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.6	5.2	2.1	2.4	2.7
Thailand	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.5	3.0	3.4	3.9
Iraq	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.2	4.0	1.3	1.3	1.5
Turkey	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.8	0.9	1.0	1.1
Germany	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.3	3.5	3.6	1.3	1.4	1.4
United Kingdom	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.3	0.6	0.6	0.6
India	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.2	0.9	1.0	1.2
Serbia and Montenegro	1.2	1.9	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.6	2.7	1.4	1.2	1.2
Viet Nam	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	1.0	1.2	1.3
Iran	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	1.1	1.1	1.1
United States	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	0.9	0.9	0.9
Other countries	27.6	29.6	30.5	30.1	30.1	32.6	35.8	40.9	46.0	50.2	17.2	19.0	20.8
Total	**91.1**	**98.6**	**103.7**	**107.0**	**108.3**	**113.9**	**121.7**	**132.7**	**143.3**	**155.7**	**64.2**	**68.2**	**74.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Portugal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	490.6	491.0	. .	. .	228.9	. .	. .
Algeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	481.0	475.3	. .	. .	214.0	. .	. .
Morocco	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	460.4	452.0	. .	. .	210.9	. .	. .
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	223.6	223.4	. .	. .	104.7	. .	. .
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	177.4	175.2	. .	. .	77.3	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	136.5	146.6	. .	. .	72.0	. .	. .
Tunisia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	145.9	144.2	. .	. .	58.2	. .	. .
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	133.8	131.0	. .	. .	67.4	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	92.4	93.4	. .	. .	50.4	. .	. .
Belgium	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	81.3	84.4	. .	. .	43.6	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	66.2	72.1	. .	. .	38.7	. .	. .
Haiti	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	40.4	62.0	. .	. .	33.2	. .	. .
Mali	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	56.7	59.5	. .	. .	22.5	. .	. .
Senegal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.5	50.5	. .	. .	22.0	. .	. .
Congo	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	44.3	46.1	. .	. .	23.5	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	861.7	990.2	. .	. .	528.2	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**3 541.8**	**3 696.9**	**. .**	**. .**	**1 795.6**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	1 998.5	1 947.9	1 912.2	1 877.7	1 764.3	1 764.0	1 738.8	1 713.6	1 688.4	1 658.1	808.9	799.4	787.6
Italy	619.1	616.3	609.8	601.3	548.2	540.8	534.7	528.3	523.2	517.5	217.1	215.0	212.8
Poland	301.4	310.4	317.6	326.9	292.1	326.6	361.7	384.8	393.8	398.5	197.2	203.9	208.0
Greece	365.4	362.7	359.4	354.6	316.0	309.8	303.8	294.9	287.2	278.1	134.6	131.2	127.1
Croatia	216.8	223.8	231.0	236.6	229.2	228.9	227.5	225.3	223.1	221.2	114.9	114.3	113.8
Russian Federation	115.9	136.1	155.6	173.5	178.6	185.9	187.5	187.8	188.3	189.3	113.4	114.5	116.1
Austria	187.7	189.0	189.3	189.5	174.0	174.8	175.7	175.9	175.4	174.5	82.8	82.9	82.6
Serbia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.8	91.5	136.2	164.9	44.3	66.0	80.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	156.3	159.0	163.8	167.1	156.0	156.9	157.1	158.2	156.8	154.6	76.5	76.0	75.2
Netherlands	110.8	112.4	115.2	118.7	114.1	118.6	123.5	128.2	133.0	134.9	57.9	59.8	60.6
Ukraine	89.3	103.5	116.0	126.0	128.1	130.7	129.0	127.0	126.2	125.6	77.6	77.4	77.4
Serbia and Montenegro	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	125.8	297.0	282.1	236.5	177.3	122.9	113.2	84.9	58.5
Portugal	133.7	132.6	131.4	130.6	116.7	115.6	115.0	114.6	114.5	113.3	52.2	52.2	51.5
France	110.2	111.3	112.4	113.0	100.5	102.2	104.1	106.5	108.1	107.3	57.1	57.6	57.0
Romania	90.1	88.1	88.7	89.1	73.4	73.0	73.4	84.6	94.3	105.0	48.1	52.2	57.2
Other countries	2 801.6	2 825.5	2 833.2	2 830.3	2 400.2	2 230.9	2 203.6	2 187.3	2 201.9	2 229.2	1 086.8	1 097.1	1 115.2
Total	**7 296.8**	**7 318.6**	**7 335.6**	**7 334.8**	**6 717.1**	**6 755.8**	**6 751.0**	**6 744.9**	**6 727.6**	**6 694.8**	**3 282.4**	**3 284.3**	**3 281.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Albania	185.7	209.5	262.1	294.7	325.6	341.0	347.4	384.6	413.9	501.7	172.1	190.1	232.1
Bulgaria	8.1	12.6	18.6	17.3	25.3	27.9	29.5	30.7	40.2	54.5	20.2	25.5	33.7
Georgia	4.4	10.2	12.0	9.5	14.1	16.9	15.1	23.8	33.6	33.9	14.1	20.2	22.3
Romania	5.2	7.2	13.8	14.6	16.2	18.9	18.9	25.7	29.5	33.8	13.0	16.2	19.4
Pakistan	3.7	2.9	4.8	6.2	4.2	5.5	6.7	13.9	18.0	23.0	1.2	1.3	1.8
Russian Federation	15.6	19.9	22.0	17.8	16.8	17.6	18.9	21.6	16.7	19.5	14.9	12.2	14.8
Ukraine	2.5	6.4	11.3	10.2	13.1	12.2	12.2	14.1	11.9	13.7	9.6	8.2	9.9
Bangladesh	0.8	0.9	1.5	1.0	1.8	3.2	2.1	2.6	14.1	12.5	0.0	1.4	1.8
Syria	2.1	3.9	5.2	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.6	6.0	9.2	12.4	0.5	1.7	3.0
Armenia	2.9	5.1	4.0	4.7	7.3	6.1	7.1	5.0	9.1	12.3	2.3	4.1	5.9
Cyprus	6.8	5.2	7.7	8.1	12.2	11.0	10.6	11.2	14.2	11.8	5.2	7.4	5.4
Poland	11.2	13.5	14.1	15.9	17.0	16.1	16.6	21.4	18.9	11.2	11.5	9.2	6.7
Egypt	2.7	4.3	6.1	11.2	6.3	2.6	3.6	5.2	12.6	10.3	1.2	3.2	2.0
Iraq	3.1	4.6	4.2	5.7	4.3	5.5	5.4	1.5	3.9	7.8	0.0	0.9	2.9
India	1.6	2.1	1.9	1.7	2.3	1.6	0.7	3.3	5.0	7.7	0.9	2.1	2.0
Other countries	48.1	47.6	47.5	48.1	62.9	62.6	72.2	72.4	82.7	73.6	43.4	46.0	42.0
Total	**304.6**	**355.8**	**436.8**	**472.8**	**533.4**	**553.1**	**570.6**	**643.1**	**733.6**	**839.7**	**310.3**	**349.8**	**405.5**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Romania	41.6	45.0	47.3	55.7	67.5	66.2	67.0	65.8	66.4	72.7	32.6	32.6	33.7
Germany	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.4	6.9	10.5	15.0	14.4	16.7	18.7	7.4	8.4	8.9
Ukraine	8.9	9.8	9.9	13.1	13.9	15.3	15.9	17.3	17.6	17.2	8.7	8.8	8.7
China	5.8	6.8	6.4	6.8	6.9	8.6	9.0	10.2	10.7	11.2	4.6	4.8	5.1
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.4	6.9	10.2	2.9	3.1	4.8
Slovak Republic	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.2	3.6	4.3	4.9	6.1	6.4	2.9	3.5	3.8
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	4.1	. .	3.7	4.2	3.5	3.3	5.7	1.5	1.4	2.6
Austria	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.5	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.7	0.9	1.0	1.4
Russian Federation	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.3	1.7	1.8	2.1
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	2.3	2.4	3.1	1.0	1.1	1.4
Viet Nam	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.1	1.4	1.6	1.5
Former USSR	5.6	5.1	5.7	4.0	5.1	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.6	3.0	1.9	1.8	2.1
Poland	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.5	1.6	1.7	1.5
United Kingdom	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.4	0.7	0.8	0.8
France	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	2.2	1.9	0.6	0.9	0.8
Other countries	31.1	31.2	29.9	27.3	32.0	31.0	31.5	32.4	35.0	32.7	14.3	15.3	14.1
Total	**110.0**	**116.4**	**115.9**	**130.1**	**142.2**	**154.4**	**166.0**	**174.7**	**184.4**	**197.8**	**84.8**	**88.5**	**93.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2006	2008	2009
United Kingdom	. .	. .	101.3	. .	. .	. .	110.6	. .	. .	. .	55.5	. .	. .
Poland	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .	. .	62.7	. .	. .	. .	22.8	. .	. .
Lithuania	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .	. .	24.4	. .	. .	. .	10.8	. .	. .
Nigeria	. .	. .	8.7	. .	. .	. .	16.0	. .	. .	. .	8.8	. .	. .
Latvia	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .	. .	13.2	. .	. .	. .	6.1	. .	. .
United States	. .	. .	11.1	. .	. .	. .	12.3	. .	. .	. .	6.8	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .	11.0	. .	. .	. .	5.0	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	7.0	. .	. .	. .	10.1	. .	. .	. .	5.5	. .	. .
Philippines	. .	. .	3.7	. .	. .	. .	9.3	. .	. .	. .	5.5	. .	. .
France	. .	. .	6.2	. .	. .	. .	8.9	. .	. .	. .	4.5	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	2.5	. .	. .	. .	8.3	. .	. .	. .	4.0	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.0	. .	. .	. .	2.8	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	4.9	. .	. .	. .	7.6	. .	. .	. .	3.5	. .	. .
Italy	. .	. .	3.7	. .	. .	. .	6.1	. .	. .	. .	2.6	. .	. .
Spain	. .	. .	4.3	. .	. .	. .	6.0	. .	. .	. .	3.6	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	54.1	. .	. .	. .	98.8	. .	. .	. .	45.4	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**219.3**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**413.2**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**193.1**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Romania	70.0	83.0	95.0	177.8	248.8	297.6	342.2	625.3	796.5	887.8	331.1	423.2	478.3
Albania	146.3	159.3	216.6	270.4	316.7	348.8	375.9	401.9	441.4	466.7	179.8	199.6	213.6
Morocco	162.3	167.9	215.4	253.4	294.9	319.5	343.2	365.9	403.6	431.5	149.4	169.9	186.3
China	60.1	62.1	69.6	86.7	111.7	127.8	144.9	156.5	170.3	188.4	74.1	81.4	90.8
Ukraine	9.1	12.6	12.7	58.0	93.4	107.1	120.1	132.7	154.0	174.1	106.8	123.0	138.3
Philippines	65.1	67.7	64.9	72.4	82.6	89.7	101.3	105.7	113.7	123.6	61.8	66.1	71.6
India	30.0	32.5	35.5	44.8	54.3	61.8	69.5	77.4	91.9	105.9	31.1	37.5	43.0
Poland	30.4	32.9	30.0	40.3	50.8	60.8	72.5	90.2	99.4	105.6	63.4	69.6	74.6
Moldova	3.3	5.7	7.0	24.6	38.0	47.6	55.8	68.6	89.4	105.6	45.6	59.4	69.4
Tunisia	46.0	53.4	59.5	68.6	78.2	83.6	88.9	93.6	100.1	103.7	32.8	35.9	37.5
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	22.5	24.7	34.0	51.2	58.5	63.2	74.2	78.1	89.1	92.8	33.1	38.3	40.4
Peru	30.1	31.7	34.2	43.0	53.4	59.3	66.5	70.8	77.6	87.7	42.9	46.7	52.7
Ecuador	11.2	12.3	15.3	33.5	53.2	62.0	68.9	73.2	80.1	85.9	44.1	47.5	50.5
Egypt	32.4	31.8	33.7	40.6	52.9	58.9	65.7	69.6	74.6	82.1	20.5	22.6	25.2
Sri Lanka	33.8	38.8	34.2	39.2	45.6	50.5	56.7	61.1	68.7	75.3	27.0	30.6	33.4
Other countries	627.2	631.9	591.6	685.6	769.1	832.2	892.6	962.0	1 041.0	1 118.3	487.5	526.3	565.9
Total	**1 379.7**	**1 448.4**	**1 549.4**	**1 990.2**	**2 402.2**	**2 670.5**	**2 938.9**	**3 432.7**	**3 891.3**	**4 235.1**	**1 730.8**	**1 977.7**	**2 171.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
China	335.6	381.2	424.3	462.4	487.6	519.6	560.7	606.9	655.4	680.5	351.1	377.7	395.0
Korea	635.3	632.4	625.4	613.8	607.4	598.7	598.2	593.5	589.2	578.5	320.5	319.0	314.2
Brazil	254.4	266.0	268.3	274.7	286.6	302.1	313.0	317.0	312.6	267.5	143.8	142.4	122.2
Philippines	144.9	156.7	169.4	185.2	199.4	187.3	193.5	202.6	210.6	211.7	158.1	163.3	164.5
Peru	46.2	50.1	51.8	53.6	55.8	57.7	58.7	59.7	59.7	57.5	28.0	28.1	27.1
United States	44.9	46.2	48.0	47.8	48.8	49.4	51.3	51.9	52.7	52.1	17.9	18.0	17.7
Thailand	29.3	31.7	33.7	34.8	36.3	37.7	39.6	41.4	42.6	42.7	30.2	31.0	31.5
Viet Nam	16.9	19.1	21.1	23.9	26.0	28.9	32.5	36.9	41.1	41.0	16.5	17.9	18.6
Indonesia	19.3	20.8	21.7	22.9	23.9	25.1	24.9	25.6	27.3	25.5	7.8	8.1	8.6
India	10.1	11.7	13.3	14.2	15.5	17.0	18.9	20.6	22.3	22.9	6.1	6.7	6.9
United Kingdom	16.5	17.5	18.5	18.2	18.1	17.5	17.8	17.3	17.0	16.6	5.0	4.8	4.6
Nepal	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.8	9.4	12.3	15.3	2.7	3.5	4.5
Bangladesh	7.2	7.9	8.7	9.7	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.3	11.4	11.2	2.5	2.7	2.8
Canada	10.1	11.0	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.0	11.9	11.5	11.0	10.7	3.7	3.4	3.2
Pakistan	7.5	7.9	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	9.3	9.9	10.3	1.4	1.7	1.9
Other countries	108.4	118.2	127.5	133.3	137.0	138.8	133.9	136.7	140.8	140.9	54.9	56.6	56.7
Total	**1 686.4**	**1 778.5**	**1 851.8**	**1 915.0**	**1 973.7**	**2 011.6**	**2 083.2**	**2 151.4**	**2 215.9**	**2 184.7**	**1 150.1**	**1 184.9**	**1 179.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
China	59.0	73.6	84.5	185.5	208.8	217.0	311.8	421.5	487.1	489.1	213.5	247.4	249.7
Viet Nam	15.6	16.0	16.9	23.3	26.1	35.5	52.2	67.2	79.8	86.2	28.1	34.8	38.4
United States	22.8	22.0	37.6	40.0	39.0	41.8	46.0	51.1	56.2	63.1	23.3	11.5	12.5
Philippines	16.0	16.4	17.3	27.6	27.9	30.7	40.3	42.9	39.4	38.4	14.2	15.0	15.4
Thailand	3.2	3.6	4.8	20.0	21.9	21.4	30.2	31.7	30.1	28.7	6.4	6.5	6.6
Indonesia	16.7	15.6	17.1	28.3	26.1	22.6	23.7	23.7	27.4	25.9	2.7	2.7	2.5
Chinese Taipei	23.0	22.8	22.7	22.6	22.3	22.2	22.1	22.1	27.0	21.7	10.3	10.1	6.6
Mongolia	. .	. .	1.4	9.2	11.0	13.7	19.2	20.5	21.2	21.0	7.0	7.7	8.3
Japan	14.0	14.7	15.4	16.2	16.6	17.5	18.0	18.4	18.6	18.6	12.6	12.7	13.0
Uzbekistan	3.7	4.0	4.1	10.7	11.5	10.8	11.6	10.9	15.0	15.9	2.4	3.5	3.9
Canada	3.3	4.0	7.0	8.0	8.8	10.0	11.3	13.0	14.2	15.6	5.8	2.9	3.0
Sri Lanka	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.9	5.5	8.5	11.1	12.1	14.3	14.4	0.7	0.6	0.6
Cambodia	. .	. .	0.0	0.7	1.3	2.0	3.3	4.6	7.0	8.8	2.3	3.3	4.1
Pakistan	3.2	3.3	3.7	7.1	9.2	8.7	8.9	8.0	7.9	7.8	0.3	0.4	0.4
Nepal	2.0	2.1	2.3	4.2	5.3	4.9	5.0	4.6	5.9	7.4	0.7	0.9	1.1
Other countries	25.2	29.0	34.1	52.0	50.2	43.4	45.9	47.8	44.4	58.2	14.6	13.7	119.1
Total	**210.2**	**229.6**	**271.7**	**460.3**	**491.4**	**510.5**	**660.6**	**800.3**	**895.5**	**920.9**	**344.9**	**373.9**	**485.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Portugal	58.5	59.8	61.4	64.9	67.8	70.8	73.7	76.6	80.0	79.8	. .	. .	. .
France	20.1	20.9	21.6	22.2	23.1	24.1	25.2	26.6	28.5	29.7	. .	. .	. .
Italy	20.3	19.1	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.4	18.2	. .	. .	. .
Belgium	15.1	15.4	15.9	16.2	16.3	16.5	16.5	16.5	16.7	16.8	. .	. .	. .
Germany	10.6	10.1	10.2	10.5	10.8	10.9	11.3	11.6	12.0	12.1	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	5.5	. .	. .	. .
Netherlands	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	. .	. .	. .
Spain	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	. .	. .	. .
Poland	. .	. .	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.5	. .	. .	. .
Denmark	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	. .	. .	. .
Sweden	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.8	. .	. .	. .
Greece	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	. .	. .	. .
Ireland	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	. .	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.3	. .	. .	. .
Finland	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	21.9	24.1	24.1	26.2	27.6	29.4	31.1	33.3	35.2	35.6	. .	. .	. .
Total	**164.7**	**166.7**	**170.7**	**177.8**	**183.7**	**191.3**	**198.3**	**205.9**	**215.5**	**216.3**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	60.2	. .	. .	. .
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	18.2	. .	. .	. .
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.1	. .	. .	. .
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.6	. .	. .	. .
Canada	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.7	. .	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.2	. .	. .	. .
Cuba	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.2	. .	. .	. .
Venezuela	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.0	. .	. .	. .
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.2	. .	. .	. .
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.7	. .	. .	. .
Guatemala	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.1	. .	. .	. .
Peru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.5	. .	. .	. .
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.3	. .	. .	. .
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.4	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	61.2	. .	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**260.5**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Turkey	100.8	100.3	100.3	101.8	100.6	98.9	96.8	93.7	92.7	90.8	47.8	47.1	45.7
Germany	54.8	55.6	56.1	56.5	57.1	58.5	60.2	62.4	65.9	68.4	33.2	35.4	37.0
Morocco	111.4	104.3	97.8	94.4	91.6	86.2	80.5	74.9	70.8	66.6	37.1	35.2	33.1
Poland	5.9	6.3	6.9	7.4	11.0	15.2	19.6	26.2	35.5	43.1	13.8	18.2	22.4
United Kingdom	41.4	43.6	44.1	43.7	42.5	41.5	40.3	40.2	41.1	41.4	16.1	16.5	16.6
Belgium	25.9	26.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	26.6	26.9	. .	14.4	14.5
Italy	18.2	18.6	18.7	18.5	18.4	18.5	18.6	19.0	20.3	21.1	6.9	7.4	7.7
China	8.0	9.4	11.2	13.3	14.7	15.0	15.3	16.2	18.1	19.8	8.8	9.6	10.3
Spain	17.2	17.4	17.5	17.4	17.1	16.9	16.5	16.5	17.3	18.1	8.4	8.8	9.2
France	13.3	14.1	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.7	14.7	15.1	16.4	17.2	7.7	8.3	8.8
Portugal	9.8	10.6	11.3	11.8	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.9	14.2	15.4	5.9	6.4	6.9
United States	14.8	15.2	15.4	15.1	14.8	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.9	14.6	7.3	7.5	7.3
Bulgaria	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	6.4	10.2	12.3	3.5	5.2	6.2
Indonesia	9.3	10.1	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.4	11.4	11.6	11.6	7.7	7.8	7.9
India	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.3	5.4	6.4	8.0	8.7	2.4	3.0	3.4
Other countries	232.8	254.3	290.6	291.2	287.9	281.3	273.5	272.4	255.9	259.2	142.1	132.1	133.0
Total	**667.8**	**690.4**	**700.0**	**702.2**	**699.4**	**691.4**	**681.9**	**688.4**	**719.5**	**735.2**	**348.8**	**362.8**	**370.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Poland	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.7	3.9	6.8	13.6	26.8	39.2	46.7	7.1	11.1	14.7
Sweden	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.4	25.8	26.6	27.9	29.9	32.8	35.8	14.6	15.9	17.3
Germany	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.6	10.6	12.2	15.3	18.9	20.8	6.9	8.4	9.3
Denmark	19.4	19.7	20.0	20.0	20.1	20.2	20.3	20.5	20.6	20.7	9.6	9.6	9.6
United Kingdom	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.0	11.2	11.2	11.6	12.0	12.6	13.3	4.5	4.6	4.8
Iraq	9.9	10.8	13.0	13.4	13.7	13.1	12.1	10.7	11.0	10.9	4.6	4.6	4.7
Somalia	6.2	6.6	8.4	9.9	10.5	10.6	10.8	10.6	10.9	10.8	4.8	5.1	5.1
Russian Federation	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.2	7.4	8.2	8.8	9.7	10.4	10.6	6.1	6.4	6.6
Lithuania	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.9	3.0	5.1	7.6	10.4	2.2	3.1	4.3
Thailand	2.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.9	8.6	5.9	6.7	7.3
United States	8.0	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.9	8.3	8.5	4.1	4.3	4.4
Afghanistan	1.0	1.8	3.0	4.3	5.1	5.9	6.5	6.5	6.6	7.2	2.8	2.7	2.8
Netherlands	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.8	6.4	6.8	2.6	2.9	3.0
Philippines	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.1	6.8	4.0	5.0	5.6
Finland	6.0	6.1	6.4	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.1	3.4	3.6	3.6
Other countries	76.7	73.9	76.3	77.2	79.1	80.1	82.6	87.7	97.8	109.8	44.5	48.8	54.1
Total	**184.3**	**185.9**	**197.7**	**204.7**	**213.3**	**222.3**	**238.3**	**266.3**	**303.0**	**333.9**	**127.6**	**142.6**	**157.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	. .	. .	9.9	. .	. .	. .	5.2	6.1	7.2	10.2	4.2	4.9	. .
Germany	. .	. .	3.7	. .	. .	. .	11.4	11.8	12.2	4.4	6.1	6.3	. .
Russian Federation	. .	. .	4.3	. .	. .	. .	3.3	3.4	3.5	4.2	2.4	2.4	. .
Belarus	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .	. .	1.5	1.8	2.2	3.2	1.3	1.5	. .
Viet Nam	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .	. .	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.9	0.8	0.8	. .
Armenia	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .	. .	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.4	0.3	0.4	. .
Sweden	. .	. .	0.5	. .	. .	. .	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.3	1.7	1.7	. .
Bulgaria	. .	. .	1.1	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.3	. .
United States	. .	. .	1.3	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.5	. .
Former USSR	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.8	. .
Austria	. .	. .	0.3	. .	. .	. .	2.6	2.7	2.8	1.0	1.6	1.6	. .
Greece	. .	. .	0.5	. .	. .	. .	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.4	0.4	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	1.0	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.2	0.2	. .
France	. .	. .	1.0	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	. .
Czech Republic	. .	. .	0.8	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	18.2	. .	. .	. .	19.4	19.6	20.1	14.8	9.6	9.8	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**49.2**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**54.9**	**57.5**	**60.4**	**49.6**	**30.7**	**32.3**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Brazil	22.2	48.7	61.6	66.3	78.6	70.4	74.0	69.8	107.3	116.6	34.5	57.5	64.2
Ukraine	. .	45.7	63.0	66.4	67.0	44.9	42.8	40.1	52.6	52.4	15.2	22.4	22.8
Cape Verde	47.1	57.3	62.1	63.6	65.6	69.6	68.2	65.0	51.8	49.4	28.9	26.7	25.6
Romania	0.4	8.4	11.3	12.0	12.5	11.1	12.0	19.4	27.4	32.5	8.1	11.6	13.9
Angola	20.4	28.4	32.7	34.4	35.4	34.6	33.7	32.9	27.8	26.8	15.1	13.9	13.4
Guinea-Bissau	15.9	21.3	23.8	24.8	25.6	25.2	24.6	24.5	25.1	23.7	8.2	9.5	9.0
Moldova	. .	10.1	13.1	13.7	14.8	15.5	16.0	15.0	21.4	20.8	5.4	9.0	9.0
United Kingdom	14.1	15.0	15.9	16.9	18.0	19.0	19.8	23.6	15.4	16.4	11.1	7.5	8.0
China	3.3	7.3	8.5	9.1	9.7	9.4	10.6	10.8	13.4	14.4	4.6	6.2	6.8
Sao Tome and Principe	5.4	8.3	9.6	10.1	10.9	11.9	11.4	11.0	12.0	11.8	5.6	6.4	6.3
Germany	10.4	11.1	11.9	12.5	13.1	13.6	13.9	15.5	8.2	8.6	7.2	4.0	4.2
Spain	12.2	13.6	14.6	15.3	15.9	16.4	16.6	18.0	7.2	8.1	9.1	3.5	3.9
Bulgaria	0.4	2.2	3.5	4.0	3.9	3.3	3.6	5.1	6.5	7.2	2.2	2.8	3.2
Russian Federation	0.5	6.5	8.0	7.8	8.2	5.4	5.7	5.4	6.3	6.3	2.7	3.5	3.5
India	1.3	4.3	5.0	5.2	5.3	4.0	4.2	4.4	5.6	5.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Other countries	54.0	72.6	79.1	82.4	84.7	78.1	80.3	85.9	55.3	56.5	36.6	23.9	24.7
Total	**207.6**	**360.8**	**423.8**	**444.6**	**469.1**	**432.0**	**437.1**	**446.3**	**443.1**	**457.3**	**195.6**	**209.7**	**219.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	. .	. .	230.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Azerbaijan	. .	. .	154.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Armenia	. .	. .	136.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Uzbekistan	. .	. .	70.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	69.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Tajikistan	. .	. .	64.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Georgia	. .	. .	52.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Moldova	. .	. .	51.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Belarus	. .	. .	40.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
China	. .	. .	30.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kyrgyzstan	. .	. .	28.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Viet Nam	. .	. .	22.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Afghanistan	. .	. .	8.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Turkmenistan	. .	. .	6.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	5.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	52.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**1 025.4**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Czech Republic	6.3	5.9	5.4	4.9	3.6	4.4	5.1	6.0	6.9	8.3	2.4	2.9	3.5
Ukraine	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.9	4.0	3.7	3.9	3.7	4.7	5.9	2.0	2.3	2.9
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.7	3.0	5.0	5.4	0.8	1.3	1.5
Poland	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.6	4.0	4.4	5.4	2.0	2.1	2.5
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	2.1	2.7	3.6	4.6	0.9	1.1	1.4
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	2.3	2.9	3.8	4.0	0.6	0.8	0.9
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	2.9	3.3	0.6	1.1	1.3
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.8	1.1	1.4	2.5	2.3	0.6	0.8	0.9
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.1	0.3	0.4	0.4
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.0	0.8	0.9	1.1
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7	0.6	0.7	0.8
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.7	0.4	0.6	0.6
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.6	0.3	0.4	0.5
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.4	1.5	0.3	0.3	0.4
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.5	0.1	0.1	0.2
Other countries	15.8	16.5	17.0	17.0	12.1	5.3	6.9	7.5	8.7	11.5	2.4	2.8	3.6
Total	**28.8**	**29.4**	**29.5**	**29.2**	**22.3**	**25.6**	**32.1**	**40.9**	**52.5**	**62.9**	**15.2**	**18.5**	**22.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVENIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Bosnia and Herzegovina	21.4	22.8	22.0	21.8	21.3	21.9	24.4	32.5	33.1	39.0	5.5	6.0	7.4
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	4.1	4.3	3.9	4.1	4.1	5.1	5.9	7.4	7.8	9.1	2.3	2.5	3.0
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.8	11.0	8.8	3.3	2.9	2.3
Croatia	6.8	7.2	7.2	7.0	6.8	7.0	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.8	2.3	2.4	2.6
Ukraine	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8
Bulgaria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.2
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.4
Italy	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.3
Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.2
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4
Austria	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	. .	. .	0.2
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	. .	. .	0.1
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	8.0	8.6	9.2	9.8	9.7	12.0	13.3	3.5	6.9	11.6	1.7	2.5	3.7
Total	**42.3**	**45.3**	**44.7**	**45.3**	**44.3**	**49.0**	**53.6**	**68.6**	**70.7**	**82.3**	**17.1**	**18.6**	**22.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Romania	31.6	67.3	137.3	208.0	317.4	407.2	527.0	731.8	798.9	829.7	338.4	373.2	392.7
Morocco	233.4	307.5	379.0	420.6	511.3	563.0	582.9	652.7	718.1	746.8	239.5	274.2	295.7
Ecuador	139.0	259.5	390.3	475.7	497.8	461.3	427.1	427.7	421.4	395.1	217.4	213.4	199.5
United Kingdom	107.3	128.1	161.5	174.8	227.2	274.7	315.0	353.0	375.7	387.2	173.5	185.2	191.0
Colombia	87.2	191.0	244.7	248.9	271.2	265.1	261.5	284.6	296.7	289.3	158.1	164.0	160.0
Bolivia	6.6	13.5	28.4	52.3	97.9	139.8	200.5	242.5	230.7	210.6	135.7	130.2	120.8
Germany	99.2	113.8	130.2	117.3	133.6	150.5	164.4	181.2	191.0	195.6	89.6	94.9	97.5
Italy	34.7	46.2	65.4	77.1	95.4	115.8	135.1	157.8	175.3	184.0	64.8	72.5	76.7
Bulgaria	12.0	29.7	52.8	69.9	93.0	101.6	122.1	154.0	164.7	169.2	69.8	75.5	78.2
China	27.6	37.7	51.2	62.5	87.7	104.7	106.7	125.9	147.5	156.6	56.4	67.4	72.5
Portugal	47.1	52.1	56.7	55.8	66.2	80.6	100.6	127.2	140.9	142.3	46.3	51.7	52.8
Peru	35.0	44.8	55.9	68.6	85.0	95.9	103.7	121.9	139.2	139.3	61.7	69.7	70.6
Argentina	32.4	56.7	109.4	130.9	153.0	150.3	141.2	147.4	142.3	130.6	73.4	71.2	65.9
France	51.6	59.8	69.9	66.9	77.8	90.0	100.4	112.6	120.5	123.7	55.9	59.9	61.5
Brazil	17.1	23.7	31.3	37.4	54.1	72.4	90.2	116.5	126.2	116.6	69.6	76.2	72.8
Other countries	408.8	546.6	700.0	767.8	961.9	1 071.2	1 141.3	1 332.0	1 459.7	1 492.5	615.9	677.1	701.7
Total	**1 370.7**	**1 977.9**	**2 664.2**	**3 034.3**	**3 730.6**	**4 144.2**	**4 519.6**	**5 268.8**	**5 648.7**	**5 708.9**	**2 466.1**	**2 656.0**	**2 709.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Finland	98.6	97.5	96.3	93.5	90.3	87.1	83.5	80.4	77.1	74.1	46.1	44.4	42.7
Iraq	33.1	36.2	40.1	41.5	39.8	31.9	30.3	40.0	48.6	55.1	17.0	21.3	24.9
Denmark	25.6	26.6	28.1	29.7	31.2	32.9	35.8	38.4	39.7	40.3	16.1	16.5	16.8
Poland	16.7	15.5	13.9	13.4	14.7	17.2	22.4	28.9	34.7	38.6	15.2	17.7	19.4
Norway	32.0	33.3	34.7	35.5	35.6	35.4	35.5	35.6	35.5	35.2	18.0	18.0	17.8
Germany	16.4	17.3	18.1	19.1	19.9	21.0	22.5	24.7	26.6	27.5	11.7	12.6	13.2
Somalia	11.5	9.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.6	11.6	14.7	18.3	24.7	7.2	9.1	12.4
United Kingdom	13.1	13.8	14.2	14.4	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.7	16.5	17.3	4.8	4.9	5.2
Thailand	5.8	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.8	11.2	12.5	13.9	15.5	17.1	11.2	12.6	13.8
Iran	14.3	13.5	12.9	12.5	12.4	11.5	10.5	10.2	10.6	11.8	5.0	5.1	5.7
China	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.7	6.2	6.7	6.9	7.7	9.4	11.8	4.1	5.1	6.3
Turkey	15.8	13.9	12.6	12.4	12.3	11.7	10.2	10.0	10.2	10.8	4.4	4.4	4.5
United States	10.0	10.0	9.6	9.4	9.3	9.2	8.4	8.3	8.5	8.9	3.6	3.8	3.9
Afghanistan	3.8	4.6	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.9	7.7	7.9	8.2	8.6	3.5	3.6	3.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	22.8	19.7	17.0	15.5	14.8	13.7	12.1	10.5	9.1	8.5	5.2	4.5	4.2
Other countries	148.5	148.7	146.3	127.1	131.3	136.9	161.0	171.4	186.8	204.8	80.9	87.1	94.4
Total	**472.4**	**471.3**	**469.8**	**452.8**	**457.8**	**457.5**	**485.9**	**518.2**	**555.4**	**595.1**	**254.0**	**270.8**	**289.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Italy	321.6	314.0	308.3	303.8	300.2	296.4	291.7	289.6	290.0	289.1	122.3	122.2	121.9
Germany	110.7	116.6	125.0	133.6	144.9	157.6	172.6	201.9	233.4	250.5	89.4	102.5	110.6
Portugal	140.2	135.5	141.1	149.8	159.7	167.3	173.5	182.3	196.2	205.3	83.1	89.0	92.9
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	190.8	187.4	180.0	148.9	89.8	86.5	71.4
France	61.1	61.5	63.2	65.0	67.0	69.0	71.5	77.4	85.6	90.6	35.8	39.3	41.4
Turkey	79.5	79.5	78.8	77.7	76.6	75.4	73.9	72.6	71.7	71.0	33.5	33.1	32.8
Spain	83.8	81.0	78.9	76.8	74.3	71.4	68.2	65.1	64.4	64.1	29.4	29.1	29.0
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	55.9	58.4	59.8	60.5	60.8	60.7	60.1	60.0	59.7	59.8	28.6	28.5	28.6
Austria	29.6	29.9	31.1	31.6	32.5	32.8	32.9	34.0	35.5	36.5	15.5	16.2	16.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	44.3	45.7	46.0	45.4	44.8	43.2	41.3	39.3	37.5	35.8	19.1	18.2	17.3
Croatia	43.6	43.9	43.4	42.7	41.8	40.6	39.1	37.8	36.1	34.9	19.0	18.1	17.6
United Kingdom	20.8	22.2	22.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	26.0	28.7	31.9	34.1	12.1	13.4	14.5
Netherlands	14.4	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.4	15.8	16.1	17.0	18.1	18.5	7.8	8.2	8.4
Belgium	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.0	9.5	10.0	10.4	. .	4.7	4.8
Poland	4.0	4.3	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.3	6.0	7.3	8.9	10.2	4.4	5.2	5.8
Other countries	367.3	404.0	421.5	432.5	439.6	442.8	250.8	261.1	280.0	320.5	147.3	152.9	173.5
Total	**1 384.4**	**1 419.1**	**1 447.3**	**1 471.0**	**1 495.0**	**1 511.9**	**1 523.6**	**1 571.0**	**1 638.9**	**1 680.2**	**737.0**	**766.9**	**787.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2008	2009
Germany	86.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	43.4	. .	. .
Bulgaria	36.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	18.6	. .	. .
Russian Federation	13.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.9	. .	. .
United Kingdom	11.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .
Azerbaijan	9.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.4	. .	. .
Netherlands	9.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.3	. .	. .
Iran	8.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.2	. .	. .
United States	7.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.1	. .	. .
Austria	6.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .
Greece	6.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .
Iraq	5.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .
France	4.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.1	. .	. .
Sweden	3.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	. .	. .
Uzbekistan	3.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .
Afghanistan	3.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2	. .	. .
Other countries	56.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	26.6	. .	. .
Total	**271.3**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**131.5**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Table B.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	*Of which:* Women		
											2007	2008	2009
Poland	. .	34.0	24.0	34.0	48.0	110.0	209.0	406.0	498.0	549.0	181.0	232.0	270.0
Ireland	404.0	436.0	403.0	367.0	368.0	369.0	335.0	341.0	359.0	344.0	183.0	202.0	183.0
India	153.0	132.0	145.0	154.0	171.0	190.0	258.0	258.0	294.0	293.0	120.0	138.0	139.0
Pakistan	94.0	82.0	97.0	83.0	86.0	95.0	78.0	133.0	178.0	177.0	64.0	89.0	83.0
France	85.0	82.0	92.0	102.0	95.0	100.0	110.0	122.0	123.0	148.0	69.0	67.0	79.0
Germany	64.0	59.0	68.0	70.0	96.0	100.0	91.0	88.0	91.0	121.0	52.0	58.0	75.0
South Africa	. .	68.0	64.0	95.0	92.0	100.0	105.0	90.0	94.0	113.0	47.0	45.0	60.0
United States	114.0	148.0	100.0	120.0	133.0	106.0	132.0	109.0	117.0	112.0	57.0	68.0	63.0
Italy	95.0	102.0	98.0	91.0	121.0	88.0	76.0	95.0	96.0	107.0	46.0	39.0	47.0
Nigeria	. .	45.0	42.0	33.0	43.0	62.0	61.0	89.0	81.0	106.0	39.0	42.0	56.0
Portugal	29.0	58.0	85.0	88.0	83.0	85.0	81.0	87.0	95.0	96.0	46.0	50.0	48.0
Philippines	20.0	27.0	32.0	54.0	52.0	51.0	71.0	76.0	64.0	93.0	44.0	36.0	56.0
Australia	75.0	67.0	75.0	73.0	80.0	79.0	88.0	100.0	101.0	84.0	47.0	49.0	39.0
Zimbabwe	. .	20.0	35.0	51.0	73.0	68.0	77.0	71.0	61.0	78.0	40.0	36.0	39.0
Bangladesh	55.0	70.0	61.0	48.0	69.0	64.0	74.0	68.0	66.0	77.0	32.0	31.0	35.0
Other countries	1 154.0	1 157.0	1 163.0	1 279.0	1 247.0	1 368.0	1 546.0	1 691.0	1 868.0	1 850.0	874.0	960.0	932.0
Total	**2 342.0**	**2 587.0**	**2 584.0**	**2 742.0**	**2 857.0**	**3 035.0**	**3 392.0**	**3 824.0**	**4 186.0**	**4 348.0**	**1 941.0**	**2 142.0**	**2 204.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442902

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.
Stocks of foreign population

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. *Reference date:* 31 December. Prior to 2002: annual average.	Population Register, Statistics Austria. Prior to 2002: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. From 1st January 2008 on, asylum seekers are included. This results in some artificial increase for some nationalities between 2007 and 2008. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information.
Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons), long-term visas (over 90 days), a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable) or a temporary residence permit (EU citizens). *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 the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date:* 30 September.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Including trainees, students and illegal migrants who accept to be interviewed. Excluding seasonal and cross-border workers.	Censuses, 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 register of foreigners. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Foreigners, including undocumented ones. *Reference date:* 4th trimester.	Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of holders of permanent residence cards, Office of Immigration and Nationality, Ministry of Administration and Justice.
Ireland	2002 and 2006 Censuses. Refer to persons aged 15 and over.	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
Italy	Until 2003, data refer to holders of residence permits. Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1998 and 2002 programmes. In 2000, figures include 116 253 regularised persons. Data for "Former Yugoslavia" refer to persons entering with a Yugoslav passport (with no other specification). Since 2004, data refer to resident foreigners (those who are registered with municipal registry offices). *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior and National Statistical Institute (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in the register of Foreigners. *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 programme introduced in that year.	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).
Mexico	Number of foreigners who hold a valid permit for permanent residence (immigrants, FM2) or temporary residence (non immigrants, FM3).	National Migration Institute (INM).
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:* 1 January of the following year.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. It excludes visitors (less than six months) and cross-border workers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.
Stocks of foreign population *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Poland	Permanent residents. 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. From 2006 on, data are from the Central Population Register.	2002 Census, Central Statistical Office and Central Population Register.
Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 include Stay Permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme as well as foreigners who received Long Term Permits (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year. Data for 2005 and 2006 include 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 renewed every year). Work Visas issued after 2004 include 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. Data for women do not include the holders of long-term visas.	Ministry of the Interior, National Statistical Institute (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Russian Federation	2002 Census.	Federal Migration Service, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Holders of a permanent or long term residence permit.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia		Population register, Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.
Spain	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register.	National Statistical Institute (INE)
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. *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. From 2006 on, the data refer to Serbia instead of Serbia and Montenegro. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	2000 Census.	Population Census, Turkish Statistical Institute.
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 in 2004 as a result of a new weighting procedure. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.
United States	Foreigners born abroad.	Current Population Survey, March Supplement, Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce.

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 country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the population of nationals. On the other hand, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births among foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as growth in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant impact. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen and becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc. as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country.

Table A.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Numbers and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia	71 923	81 191	83 484	82 859	90 763	99 237	111 569	147 085	92 212	99 221
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Austria	24 205	31 618	35 931	44 613	41 513	34 774	25 701	13 979	10 217	7 933
% of foreign population	3.5	4.5	4.9	6.0	5.5	4.5	3.2	1.7	1.2	0.9
Belgium	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754	31 512	31 860	36 063	37 710	32 767
% of foreign population	6.9	7.3	5.5	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.2
Canada	214 568	167 353	141 591	155 117	193 620	198 691	260 755	199 844	176 525	156 304
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Chile	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	812
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Czech Republic	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020	2 626	2 346	1 877	1 837	1 621
% of foreign population	3.6	3.1	2.1	1.5	2.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4
Denmark	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976	10 197	7 961	3 648	5 772	6 537
% of foreign population	7.3	4.6	6.5	2.5	5.5	3.8	2.9	1.3	1.9	2.0
Estonia	3 425	3 090	4 091	3 706	6 523	7 072	4 753	4 228	2 124	1 670
% of foreign population	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.4	2.4	2.7	1.9	1.7	0.9	0.7
Finland	2 977	2 720	3 049	4 526	6 880	5 683	4 433	4 824	6 682	3 413
% of foreign population	3.4	3.0	3.1	4.4	6.4	5.2	3.9	4.0	5.0	2.4
France	150 026	127 548	128 092	144 640	168 826	154 827	147 868	131 738	137 452	135 842
% of foreign population	4.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.7	3.7	. .
Germany	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153	117 241	124 566	113 030	94 470	96 122
% of foreign population	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.4
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10 806	16 922	17 019
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	2.6	2.3
Hungary	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432	9 870	6 172	8 442	8 104	5 782
% of foreign population	4.9	7.8	2.9	4.5	4.2	6.9	4.0	5.1	4.6	3.1
Ireland	1 143	2 443	2 817	3 993	3 784	4 079	5 763	6 656	4 350	4 594
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	1.8	. .	. .	. .	1.6	. .	. .
Italy	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934	19 266	35 766	38 466	39 484	40 084
% of foreign population	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0
Japan	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336	15 251	14 108	14 680	13 218	14 785
% of foreign population	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7
Korea	. .	1 680	3 883	7 734	9 262	16 974	8 125	10 319	15 258	. .
% of foreign population	. .	0.8	1.7	2.8	2.0	3.5	1.6	1.6	1.9	. .
Luxembourg	684	496	754	785	841	954	1 128	1 236	1 215	4 022
% of foreign population	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.9
Mexico	3 944	3 090	4 737	4 317	6 429	5 610	4 175	5 470	4 471	3 489
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Netherlands	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799	26 173	28 488	29 089	30 653	28 229	29 754
% of foreign population	7.7	7.0	6.6	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.1	4.1
New Zealand	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142	24 341	29 017	29 867	23 772	18 730
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Norway	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154	12 655	11 955	14 877	10 312	11 442
% of foreign population	5.3	5.9	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.9	5.4	6.2	3.9	3.8
Poland	975	766	1 186	1 634	1 937	2 866	989	1 528	1 054	2 503
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	3.3	. .	. .	. .	2.8	1.8	4.1

Table A.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Numbers and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Portugal	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346	939	3 627	6 020	22 408	28 888
% of foreign population	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.4	5.0	6.5
Russian Federation	. .	359	272	32	330	505	366	368	361	394
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	3 492	4 016	1 393	1 125	1 478	680	262
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	11.8	13.8	6.3	4.4	4.6	1.7	0.5
Spain	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556	38 335	42 829	62 339	71 810	84 170	. .
% of foreign population	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.6	. .
Sweden	42 495	35 458	36 978	32 351	26 130	35 531	46 995	32 473	29 330	28 562
% of foreign population	8.8	7.5	7.8	6.9	5.8	7.8	10.3	6.7	5.7	5.1
Switzerland	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685	38 437	46 711	43 889	44 365	43 440
% of foreign population	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.7
Turkey	. .	. .	23 725	21 086	8 238	6 901	5 072	. .	. .	. .
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	82 210	90 295	120 125	130 535	148 275	161 700	154 020	164 635	129 310	203 705
% of foreign population	3.7	3.9	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.1	4.9	3.4	4.9
United States	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1 046 539	743 715
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
EU25 (countries listed above) + Norway and Switzerland	**698 637**	**672 535**	**679 838**	**670 062**	**711 164**	**715 867**	**750 414**	**727 322**	**697 151**	**688 943**
North America	**1 103 356**	**775 558**	**715 299**	**618 321**	**730 771**	**802 971**	**963 344**	**860 321**	**1 223 064**	**900 019**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.6.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRALIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	14 314	14 073	16 473	14 971	19 980	21 750	23 274	30 452	20 209	19 216
India	2 475	2 356	2 781	3 391	4 068	6 408	9 363	12 864	7 756	12 789
China	5 437	4 936	5 105	5 996	6 164	6 846	8 425	11 357	6 696	8 369
South Africa	2 687	3 467	3 970	4 503	5 238	5 189	5 316	7 077	4 290	4 571
Philippines	2 256	2 688	2 855	3 009	3 470	3 677	4 142	5 179	3 264	3 974
New Zealand	7 727	15 627	16 112	14 578	10 858	8 710	7 096	7 795	5 129	3 760
Sri Lanka	1 791	1 506	1 316	1 436	1 743	1 750	2 536	3 812	2 324	2 598
Bangladesh	345	350	306	348	447	663	950	1 207	1 212	2 529
Hong Kong, China	1 998	1 813	1 528	1 227	1 407	1 595	1 755	2 176	1 521	1 853
Malaysia	1 163	1 303	1 573	1 672	1 971	2 008	2 158	3 350	2 033	1 799
Iraq	1 960	2 034	1 714	1 518	1 385	2 503	1 866	3 129	3 359	1 750
Viet Nam	2 839	2 095	1 902	1 749	2 285	2 147	2 171	2 893	1 581	1 669
Korea	700	985	743	826	1 088	1 291	1 876	2 946	1 560	1 562
Afghanistan	644	908	705	476	591	953	1 472	3 759	2 253	1 553
United States	984	1 160	1 298	1 307	1 578	1 675	1 951	2 347	1 575	1 524
Other countries	24 603	25 890	25 103	25 852	28 490	32 072	37 218	46 742	27 450	29 705
Total	**71 923**	**81 191**	**83 484**	**82 859**	**90 763**	**99 237**	**111 569**	**147 085**	**92 212**	**99 221**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRIA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	534	4 213	2 582	1 991
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 761	3 856	5 913	8 268	8 657	7 026	4 596	3 329	2 207	1 457
Turkey	6 720	10 046	12 623	13 665	13 004	9 545	7 542	2 076	1 664	1 242
Croatia	1 642	1 986	2 537	2 588	2 212	2 276	2 494	1 349	824	440
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	241	471	574	786	803	991	716	414	377	281
Romania	2 682	2 813	1 774	2 096	1 373	1 128	981	455	382	246
Germany	102	106	85	106	135	135	122	113	67	174
Poland	545	606	930	768	768	443	236	172	129	138
Russian Federation	168	166	161	83	194	235	228	128	127	135
Egypt	657	807	599	615	616	506	382	100	121	124
Afghanistan	70	44	69	135	322	454	261	43	106	108
Iran	481	451	328	272	411	432	253	88	99	103
India	486	638	656	525	562	421	159	137	122	90
Ukraine	49	71	104	146	230	182	145	81	70	80
China	553	727	715	591	545	323	182	57	67	76
Other countries	7 163	8 943	8 943	14 050	11 813	10 779	6 915	1 255	1 314	1 293
Total	**24 320**	**31 731**	**36 011**	**44 694**	**41 645**	**34 876**	**25 746**	**14 010**	**10 258**	**7 978**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Morocco	21 917	24 018	15 832	10 565	8 704	7 977	7 753	8 722	8 427	6 919
Turkey	17 282	14 401	7 805	5 186	4 467	3 602	3 204	3 039	3 182	2 763
Italy	3 650	3 451	2 341	2 646	2 271	2 086	2 360	2 017	1 762	1 700
Russian Federation	. .	265	301	153	244	297	487	1 533	2 599	1 647
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2 993	2 991	2 809	1 785	2 566	1 917	1 567	1 793	1 795	1 555
Former Yugoslavia	2 187	2 487	2 678	675	800	562	724	591	753	977
France	948	1 025	856	698	780	772	820	836	838	792
Algeria	1 071	1 281	926	826	826	739	658	687	744	739
Poland	551	677	630	460	465	470	550	586	619	640
Pakistan	75	474	404	270	298	306	348	666	559	628
Netherlands	492	601	646	522	665	672	692	668	683	608
India	345	558	463	296	271	294	329	365	423	458
Rwanda	. .	794	1 012	557	571	700	635	924	723	416
Ghana	. .	297	319	270	313	281	315	388	357	416
Cameroon	. .	. .	. .	214	266	242	250	317	463	401
Other countries	10 571	9 662	9 395	8 586	11 247	10 595	11 168	12 931	13 783	12 108
Total	**62 082**	**62 982**	**46 417**	**33 709**	**34 754**	**31 512**	**31 860**	**36 063**	**37 710**	**32 767**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

CANADA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
India	18 681	14 029	12 623	13 934	21 826	22 059	33 967	25 789	20 827	17 396
China	22 775	17 406	16 321	20 021	25 138	25 771	34 474	24 345	21 025	16 008
Philippines	14 024	9 485	7 622	8 225	9 022	11 035	15 566	12 196	11 666	11 068
Pakistan	8 073	8 610	7 292	6 494	10 676	12 429	17 121	11 623	9 430	7 838
Romania	4 546	3 376	2 672	3 105	3 294	4 470	5 884	4 682	4 374	4 417
United Kingdom	3 772	2 964	2 698	4 366	7 452	6 743	6 492	5 170	4 657	4 310
Colombia	451	554	724	953	1 510	2 084	3 136	3 782	4 671	4 286
Korea	3 721	3 106	3 464	4 350	5 909	5 425	7 558	5 860	5 248	3 835
Iran	6 495	6 322	5 712	5 135	4 616	4 984	8 087	5 336	4 988	3 828
United States	3 784	2 943	2 812	3 859	5 288	5 058	5 117	4 267	4 133	3 734
Morocco	996	924	922	1 347	1 190	2 338	3 871	2 728	2 225	3 371
Sri Lanka	6 603	4 376	3 500	3 261	5 151	4 579	5 650	4 703	3 691	3 186
Algeria	1 834	1 756	1 557	1 687	1 500	2 146	3 329	2 552	2 150	3 159
Russian Federation	3 113	3 417	3 379	3 438	3 796	4 077	4 621	3 677	3 324	2 714
France	1 672	1 523	1 308	2 052	1 683	2 296	2 649	2 152	1 853	2 641
Other countries	114 028	86 562	68 985	72 890	85 569	83 197	103 233	80 982	72 263	64 513
Total	**214 568**	**167 353**	**141 591**	**155 117**	**193 620**	**198 691**	**260 755**	**199 844**	**176 525**	**156 304**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

CHILE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Peru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	170
Bolivia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	114
Cuba	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	107
Ecuador	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	72
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	61
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	60
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	46
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	20
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	17
Venezuela	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	14
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	131
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**812**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	373	173	251	419	446	239	425	424	398	520
Slovak Republic	5 377	3 593	2 109	989	1 741	1 259	786	625	521	431
Former Czechoslovakia	1 899	1 607	1 273	1 154	1 784	190	205	225	229	173
Poland	8	163	304	170	298	167	86	50	53	58
Russian Federation	71	87	65	7	86	134	107	102	84	58
Viet Nam	101	76	29	46	47	62	43	40	42	44
Romania	58	140	109	116	101	143	131	36	83	35
Moldova	. .	2	4	4	1	11	9	33	21	23
Kazakhstan	17	25	43	156	89	43	129	18	121	21
Belarus	13	19	13	14	21	35	27	39	27	20
Serbia and Montenegro	12	35	16	14	42	26	31	28	25	17
Armenia	8	11	8	18	23	32	61	28	19	16
Afghanistan	0	4	7	6	1	1	6	5	16	14
Bulgaria	105	132	95	54	62	48	48	14	11	12
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	18	28	18	21	19	13	13	3	9	11
Other countries	275	226	188	222	259	223	239	207	178	168
Total	**8 335**	**6 321**	**4 532**	**3 410**	**5 020**	**2 626**	**2 346**	**1 877**	**1 837**	**1 621**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

DENMARK

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	2 210	871	1 161	153	1 015	961	1 113	515	1 166	1 201
Afghanistan	276	215	301	40	367	282	260	178	359	790
Turkey	2 787	3 130	2 418	2 158	732	878	1 125	527	581	511
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	519	224	270	265
Somalia	1 189	1 074	2 263	324	2 022	1 709	923	317	527	264
Former Yugoslavia	917	355	784	239	835	324	594	165	196	228
Pakistan	545	297	573	94	332	305	172	93	191	214
China	228	195	289	203	339	382	281	162	181	199
Iran	1 105	437	519	120	505	317	203	89	207	155
Viet Nam	647	318	508	280	318	232	213	129	78	144
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	84	54	63	123
Ethiopia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	58	32	71	116
Morocco	485	213	313	69	244	147	114	40	119	104
Thailand	214	124	172	62	180	114	95	61	79	96
Germany	240	129	174	82	178	144	99	42	44	84
Other countries	7 968	4 544	7 825	2 759	7 909	4 402	2 108	1 020	1 640	2 043
Total	**18 811**	**11 902**	**17 300**	**6 583**	**14 976**	**10 197**	**7 961**	**3 648**	**5 772**	**6 537**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Russian Federation	666	533	418	1 682	2 313	2 094	1 399	1 665	2 211	1 026
Somalia	346	222	204	209	165	414	445	464	595	290
Iraq	185	224	217	165	447	346	405	443	379	207
Afghanistan	2	0	23	3	14	48	101	102	279	186
Iran	102	58	68	124	225	233	213	218	329	180
Estonia	353	295	319	468	690	291	176	182	262	166
Serbia and Montenegro	4	14	41	32	338	346	248	232	324	154
Sweden	44	57	61	94	149	198	178	163	274	126
Turkey	85	82	112	141	171	128	110	102	195	94
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4	8	34	58	129	129	81	82	84	56
Ukraine	32	8	28	66	130	65	46	45	62	53
China	92	106	136	126	95	60	57	68	84	53
Sudan	2	2	9	2	2	4	2	4	11	49
Viet Nam	155	164	205	133	209	82	64	79	78	42
Former Yugoslavia	67	72	232	152	111	92	72	46	69	30
Other countries	838	875	942	1 071	1 692	1 153	836	929	1 446	701
Total	**2 977**	**2 720**	**3 049**	**4 526**	**6 880**	**5 683**	**4 433**	**4 824**	**6 682**	**3 413**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

FRANCE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Morocco	37 795	34 922	33 967	36 875	. .	37 848	. .	. .	28 699	26 097
Algeria	17 627	15 498	15 711	20 245	. .	25 435	. .	. .	20 256	20 659
Tunisia	12 763	10 251	9 956	11 412	. .	12 012	. .	. .	9 471	9 268
Turkey	12 137	10 755	10 468	10 492	. .	13 618	. .	. .	10 202	9 171
Portugal	11 201	9 182	8 844	9 576	. .	8 888	. .	. .	7 778	6 415
Russian Federation	779	730	831	951	. .	1 132	. .	. .	3 530	4 157
Senegal	1 595	1 463	1 858	2 185	. .	2 345	. .	. .	3 038	3 364
Congo	1 083	1 100	1 475	1 769	. .	2 390	. .	. .	2 933	3 269
Serbia and Montenegro	2 358	1 880	1 902	2 129	. .	2 737	. .	. .	3 375	3 219
Haiti	1 920	1 571	2 082	2 734	. .	2 744	. .	. .	2 922	2 981
Mali	631	581	774	947	. .	1 365	. .	. .	2 237	2 704
Côte d'Ivoire	1 409	1 194	1 495	1 869	. .	1 987	. .	. .	2 197	2 565
Cameroon	1 556	1 381	1 770	2 196	. .	2 081	. .	. .	2 014	2 411
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 765	1 401	1 572	2 012	. .	2 631	. .	. .	2 402	2 294
Sri Lanka	1 819	1 345	1 377	1 748	. .	2 011	. .	. .	1 544	1 551
Other countries	43 588	34 294	34 010	37 500	. .	35 603	. .	. .	34 854	35 717
Total	**150 026**	**127 548**	**128 092**	**144 640**	**168 826**	**154 827**	**147 868**	**131 738**	**137 452**	**135 842**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

GERMANY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Turkey	82 861	76 573	64 631	56 244	44 465	32 661	33 388	28 861	24 449	24 647
Iraq	984	1 264	1 721	2 999	3 564	4 136	3 693	4 102	4 229	5 136
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 979	9 066	6 267	4 174
Poland	1 604	1 774	2 646	2 990	7 499	6 896	6 907	5 479	4 245	3 841
Afghanistan	4 773	5 111	4 750	4 948	4 077	3 133	3 063	2 831	2 512	3 549
Iran	14 410	12 020	13 026	9 440	6 362	4 482	3 662	3 121	2 734	3 184
Morocco	5 008	4 425	3 800	4 118	3 820	3 684	3 546	3 489	3 130	3 042
Russian Federation	4 583	4 972	3 734	2 764	4 381	5 055	4 679	4 069	2 439	2 477
Romania	2 008	2 026	1 974	1 394	1 309	1 789	1 379	3 502	2 137	2 357
Ukraine	2 978	3 295	3 656	3 889	3 844	3 363	4 536	4 454	1 953	2 345
Lebanon	5 673	4 486	3 300	2 651	2 265	1 969	2 030	1 754	1 675	1 759
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4 002	3 791	2 357	1 770	2 103	1 907	1 862	1 797	1 878	1 733
Israel	1 101	1 364	1 739	2 844	3 164	2 871	4 313	2 405	1 971	1 681
Viet Nam	4 489	3 014	1 482	1 423	1 371	1 278	1 382	1 078	1 048	1 513
Kazakhstan	2 152	2 148	2 027	3 010	1 443	2 975	3 207	2 180	1 602	1 439
Other countries	50 062	51 835	43 704	40 247	37 486	41 042	43 940	34 842	32 201	33 245
Total	**186 688**	**178 098**	**154 547**	**140 731**	**127 153**	**117 241**	**124 566**	**113 030**	**94 470**	**96 122**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

GREECE

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Albania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5 688	9 996	14 271
Georgia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	489	1 285	550
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	475	834	410
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	223	212	175
Australia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	105	164	138
Armenia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	80	165	137
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	68	167	129
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	105	175	127
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	39	85	105
Cyprus	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	109	68	87
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	83	79	63
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	105	89	62
Canada	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	44	49	49
Egypt	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	62	50	45
Israel	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	82	81	40
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 049	3 423	631
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**10 806**	**16 922**	**17 019**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

HUNGARY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Romania	4 231	5 644	2 238	3 415	3 605	6 890	4 303	6 052	5 535	3 800
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	949	357	757	758	667
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	828	541	834	857	557
Belarus	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	194	99	136	167	127
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	162	111	7	156	115
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	161	206	116	106	97
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	142	14	60	75	60
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	53	40	53	95	38
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	25	22	28	33	34
Estonia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	148	118	110	41	31
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	50	148	26	34	28
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	16	15	31	29	20
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10	7	11	6	18
Mongolia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11	14	10	4	14
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	26	10	10	14	12
Other countries	3 307	2 946	1 131	1 846	1 827	205	167	201	194	164
Total	**7 538**	**8 590**	**3 369**	**5 261**	**5 432**	**9 870**	**6 172**	**8 442**	**8 104**	**5 782**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

IRELAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nigeria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	155	189	142	319	454
Philippines	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	43	70	37	84	410
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	144	126	119	166	339
South Africa	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	257	363	219	205	318
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	81	109	86	160	246
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	213	239	189	196	201
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	890	1 518	1 841	875	156
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	31	25	34	97	153
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8	20	25	41	146
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	57	85	45	102	131
Sudan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	40	39	40	80	123
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	92	81	46	74	117
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	55	67	46	89	111
Democratic Republic of the Congo	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0	0	0	57	82
Belarus	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11	14	7	38	72
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 002	2 818	3 780	1 767	1 535
Total	**1 143**	**2 443**	**2 817**	**3 993**	**3 784**	**4 079**	**5 763**	**6 656**	**4 350**	**4 594**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

ITALY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Albania	521	687	703	830	882	. .	2 330	2 605	. .	6 101
Morocco	573	579	624	1 132	1 046	. .	3 295	3 850	. .	5 917
Romania	665	855	968	977	847	. .	2 775	3 509	. .	2 032
Argentina	240	316	411	541	515	. .	2 569	2 410	. .	1 556
Tunisia	208	215	175	271	258	. .	371	920	. .	1 256
Brazil	512	619	604	726	579	. .	1 751	1 928	. .	1 226
Peru	228	263	305	383	253	. .	. .	883	. .	1 147
Egypt	266	235	195	264	283	. .	217	704	. .	926
Ukraine	111	129	167	224	209	. .	. .	1 389	. .	. .
Cuba	377	512	542	646	539	. .	1 535	1 355	. .	. .
Russian Federation	347	384	439	463	436	. .	1 181	1 279	. .	. .
Poland	448	475	519	677	619	. .	1 320	1 255	. .	. .
Venezuela	121	121	215	252	255	. .	. .	1 011	. .	. .
Dominican Republic	377	354	393	409	317	. .	. .	939	. .	. .
Switzerland	724	533	514	546	506	. .	. .	911	. .	. .
Other countries	3 845	4 105	3 911	5 065	4 390	. .	18 422	13 518	. .	19 923
Total	**9 563**	**10 382**	**10 685**	**13 406**	**11 934**	**19 266**	**35 766**	**38 466**	**39 484**	**40 084**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

JAPAN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Korea	9 842	10 295	9 188	11 778	11 031	9 689	8 531	8 546	7 412	7 637
China	5 245	4 377	4 442	4 722	4 122	4 427	4 347	4 740	4 322	5 392
Other countries	725	619	709	1 133	1 183	1 135	1 230	1 394	1 484	1 756
Total	**15 812**	**15 291**	**14 339**	**17 633**	**16 336**	**15 251**	**14 108**	**14 680**	**13 218**	**14 785**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
China	. .	1 391	3 344	6 146	7 443	14 881	7 156	8 178	12 545	. .
Viet Nam	. .	8	30	81	147	362	243	461	1 147	. .
Philippines	. .	21	112	928	1 074	786	317	335	579	. .
Mongolia	. .	1	10	43	36	109	32	82	134	. .
Uzbekistan	. .	5	6	21	34	79	38	60	80	. .
Thailand	. .	7	12	41	53	69	39	57	73	. .
Pakistan	. .	9	13	63	58	66	18	34	27	. .
Other countries	.	238	356	411	417	622	282	1 112	673	. .
Total	**. .**	**1 680**	**3 883**	**7 734**	**9 262**	**16 974**	**8 125**	**10 319**	**15 258**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

LUXEMBOURG

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Portugal	150	106	147	158	188	252	338	352	293	1 242
Italy	157	105	119	120	111	97	161	138	109	362
Germany	50	45	47	50	62	79	74	95	76	322
France	52	33	65	57	44	51	74	75	76	277
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	5	6	8	22	29	46	72	76	270
Serbia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	249
Belgium	72	39	87	73	83	101	87	97	77	224
Montenegro	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	138
Cape Verde	27	20	48	50	41	33	45	46	49	77
United Kingdom	1	0	1	2	3	1	8	5	0	62
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	3	4	6	10	12	10	7	17	10	51
Spain	10	4	6	11	8	9	7	17	10	48
United States	1	0	0	0	2	2	0	2	3	47
Russian Federation	5	4	5	2	5	8	13	10	10	40
Serbia and Montenegro	1	0	0	0	0	2	55	67	81	38
Other countries	154	131	217	244	260	280	213	243	311	575
Total	**684**	**496**	**754**	**785**	**841**	**954**	**1 128**	**1 236**	**1 215**	**4 022**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

MEXICO

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Colombia	. .	. .	434	. .	901	813	689	892	690	390
Cuba	. .	. .	549	. .	661	666	429	660	459	307
United States	. .	. .	94	. .	215	286	334	287	246	266
Argentina	. .	. .	142	. .	328	372	400	450	400	265
Spain	. .	. .	140	. .	218	301	239	286	251	227
Guatemala	. .	. .	1 650	. .	1 624	247	114	185	141	209
China	. .	. .	211	. .	310	324	188	294	324	196
Peru	. .	. .	226	. .	320	191	215	292	213	166
El Salvador	. .	. .	208	. .	243	235	137	159	118	163
Venezuela	. .	. .	39	. .	107	197	185	316	309	159
Honduras	. .	. .	77	. .	118	156	59	123	98	131
France	. .	. .	62	. .	105	93	105	71	77	82
Italy	. .	. .	57	. .	93	99	89	94	108	76
Chile	. .	. .	29	. .	77	86	58	90	69	72
Nicaragua	. .	. .	74	. .	99	87	53	80	61	57
Other countries	. .	. .	745	. .	1 010	1 457	881	1 191	907	723
Total	**3 944**	**3 090**	**4 737**	**4 317**	**6 429**	**5 610**	**4 175**	**5 470**	**4 471**	**3 489**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Morocco	13 471	12 721	12 033	7 126	5 873	7 086	6 896	6 409	5 034	5 508
Turkey	4 708	5 513	5 391	3 726	4 026	3 493	3 407	4 073	3 147	4 167
Suriname	2 008	2 025	1 957	1 242	1 421	2 031	1 636	1 285	1 006	1 142
Iraq	2 403	2 315	2 367	832	489	333	331	501	866	674
Afghanistan	945	803	1 118	982	801	550	562	662	584	596
China	1 002	1 111	908	722	739	1 291	799	638	539	559
Ghana	348	360	357	157	74	199	296	314	283	411
Russian Federation	422	335	347	207	242	521	466	413	436	400
Germany	508	573	608	445	297	349	447	461	353	387
Thailand	277	355	289	171	161	160	171	195	220	383
Egypt	443	528	437	190	97	238	245	304	255	337
Ukraine	203	197	168	140	134	334	257	279	262	323
Philippines	300	348	263	159	129	198	209	226	209	308
Brazil	231	290	249	137	131	159	189	173	201	307
Indonesia	456	416	380	291	203	293	248	302	262	306
Other countries	22 243	18 777	18 449	12 272	11 356	11 253	12 930	14 418	14 572	13 946
Total	**49 968**	**46 667**	**45 321**	**28 799**	**26 173**	**28 488**	**29 089**	**30 653**	**28 229**	**29 754**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

NEW ZEALAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	3 670	3 019	2 187	2 266	2 377	2 423	2 890	3 638	3 562	3 150
India	1 847	1 376	1 350	1 255	2 127	2 905	4 330	5 177	3 429	2 303
South Africa	2 010	2 028	1 973	1 992	2 407	2 425	2 799	3 131	2 458	1 850
Samoa	1 702	1 590	1 307	1 189	1 065	1 153	1 363	1 445	1 433	1 605
Fiji	1 253	1 273	1 139	1 047	1 452	1 543	1 689	1 722	1 931	1 581
China	3 752	2 579	1 896	2 032	2 849	3 323	3 888	3 077	1 909	1 208
Philippines	949	829	652	555	702	844	1 123	1 166	718	708
Korea	1 982	1 053	685	642	1 099	1 523	1 638	1 448	884	606
Malaysia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	329	451	422	480
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	812	907	672	390
United States	363	281	335	348	335	268	346	424	413	352
Tonga	365	408	271	207	198	167	191	259	278	324
Sri Lanka	774	738	568	472	511	436	435	480	393	305
Chinese Taipei	1 970	1 619	1 069	546	355	414	428	373	330	256
Cambodia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	388	300	257	188
Other countries	8 972	6 742	6 037	5 745	6 665	6 917	6 368	5 869	4 683	3 424
Total	**29 609**	**23 535**	**19 469**	**18 296**	**22 142**	**24 341**	**29 017**	**29 867**	**23 772**	**18 730**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

NORWAY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Somalia	332	676	546	392	526	1 250	1 281	2 196	1 315	1 737
Iraq	524	331	497	403	619	2 141	2 142	2 577	1 072	1 267
Afghanistan	19	36	17	21	23	75	194	674	877	857
Iran	481	361	324	228	508	832	535	740	495	785
Russian Federation	222	192	308	280	365	548	458	436	515	622
Thailand	142	302	257	193	234	299	263	427	247	483
Pakistan	1 077	409	829	497	568	694	590	544	773	469
Philippines	157	261	299	265	249	322	246	421	233	445
Sri Lanka	454	477	461	281	235	264	242	362	246	276
Ethiopia	59	79	63	55	83	116	140	313	341	216
India	188	235	230	196	207	223	187	235	141	185
Sweden	246	249	216	211	221	276	376	241	211	184
Bosnia and Herzegovina	875	2 999	1 229	1 965	827	707	519	355	219	167
Viet Nam	738	594	292	210	222	216	216	178	248	161
China	156	113	135	84	82	109	123	175	92	157
Other countries	3 847	3 524	3 338	2 586	3 185	4 583	4 443	5 003	3 287	3 431
Total	**9 517**	**10 838**	**9 041**	**7 867**	**8 154**	**12 655**	**11 955**	**14 877**	**10 312**	**11 442**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

POLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	46	62	214	431	538	759	417	662	369	877
Belarus	25	31	54	108	129	316	101	126	152	357
Russian Federation	23	14	22	52	145	257	129	114	64	162
Armenia	11	6	13	8	6	18	27	30	16	79
Viet Nam	7	13	17	11	11	36	29	47	12	64
Germany	101	47	49	60	62	156	1	39	37	47
United States	26	11	9	32	41	59	8	23	27	47
Kazakhstan	54	43	53	68	38	62	10	10	18	41
Egypt	. .	. .	5	1	2	18	6	13	0	37
Turkey	4	15	1	5	11	19	36	11	1	35
Canada	44	23	22	46	36	73	7	17	24	35
India	3	6	3	7	9	23	11	19	3	35
Nigeria	21	4	12	8	11	16	7	17	2	35
Sweden	10	13	30	107	81	90	8	26	48	34
Algeria	11	11	17	6	12	47	4	7	9	30
Other countries	589	467	665	684	805	917	188	367	272	588
Total	**975**	**766**	**1 186**	**1 634**	**1 937**	**2 866**	**989**	**1 528**	**1 054**	**2 503**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

PORTUGAL

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Brazil	175	283	345	345	307	162	491	415	4 080	5 820
Cape Verde	69	228	271	370	274	132	1 047	2 189	6 013	5 021
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	3	6	. .	2 230	3 043
Angola	42	65	82	144	63	38	336	738	2 075	3 003
Guinea-Bissau	27	55	73	38	95	36	873	1 602	2 754	1 927
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	2	12	. .	484	1 858
Sao Tome and Principe	7	20	34	58	22	7	134	448	1 391	1 468
India	10	6	9	11	3	6	25	32	417	790
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	9	6	21	31	259	673
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	4	21	32	74	453
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	4	5	20	. .	209	452
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	31	316	413
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	236
Georgia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	123
China	7	2	6	5	1	2	15	36	93	120
Other countries	384	423	549	776	562	536	626	466	2 013	3 488
Total	**721**	**1 082**	**1 369**	**1 747**	**1 346**	**939**	**3 627**	**6 020**	**22 408**	**28 888**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ukraine	. .	72 449	53 396	7 623	50 593	94 133	66 502	55 424	58 500	62 025
Armenia	. .	19 267	14 573	1 722	23 139	39 330	34 860	39 328	45 253	54 828
Kazakhstan	. .	133 341	101 756	8 678	106 613	123 286	68 087	64 831	58 736	50 628
Uzbekistan	. .	33 373	29 665	2 266	29 676	73 315	67 021	53 109	43 982	49 784
Kyrgyzstan	. .	21 217	17 324	1 717	27 449	38 422	33 166	61 239	51 210	48 720
Tajikistan	. .	8 748	7 944	869	10 749	16 148	12 198	16 444	21 891	39 214
Azerbaijan	. .	19 629	13 663	2 010	24 555	35 720	22 045	24 885	29 643	34 627
Moldova	. .	9 038	6 740	366	7 283	13 727	12 809	13 876	15 782	20 429
Georgia	. .	20 748	12 297	1 459	20 695	25 225	14 008	12 156	11 110	9 876
Belarus	. .	8 356	6 399	563	10 179	12 943	7 919	6 572	7 099	6 062
Turkmenistan	. .	4 776	3 551	398	5 358	7 713	5 577	4 737	4 444	4 026
Latvia	. .	1 869	1 184	196	954	1 062	756	516	466	469
Lithuania	. .	1 032	609	56	488	722	496	460	539	430
Estonia	. .	1 065	767	101	589	686	346	255	224	195
Turkey	. .	170	102	27	50	44	51	60	105	129
Other countries	. .	4 117	2 493	3 477	12 049	22 042	20 647	13 807	12 379	12 695
Total	**. .**	**359 195**	**272 463**	**31 528**	**330 419**	**504 518**	**366 488**	**367 699**	**361 363**	**394 137**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	39
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	597	775	167	121	158	93	39
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	251	549	450	377	704	203	35
Romania	. .	. .	. .	450	442	220	147	100	31	10
United States	. .	. .	. .	97	136	64	113	110	93	9
Germany	. .	. .	. .	19	30	10	13	16	16	8
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	405	619	40	40	62	37	7
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	438	506	183	42	112	53	7
Iran	. .	. .	. .	15	20	8	2	. .	1	5
Armenia	. .	. .	. .	44	39	3	3	5	4	4
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	65	96	37	35	42	31	4
China	. .	. .	. .	484	200	6	5	4	6	3
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	5	9	7	9	6	15	3
Syria	. .	. .	. .	10	15	. .	1	1	. .	2
Switzerland	. .	. .	. .	12	9	2	8	3	1	2
Other countries	. .	. .	. .	600	571	196	209	155	96	85
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**3 492**	**4 016**	**1 393**	**1 125**	**1 478**	**680**	**262**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

SPAIN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ecuador	292	510	1 173	1 951	6 370	10 031	19 477	21 371	25 536	. .
Colombia	302	848	1 267	1 801	4 194	7 334	12 720	13 852	15 409	. .
Morocco	1 921	2 822	3 111	6 831	8 036	5 555	5 690	7 864	8 615	. .
Peru	1 488	2 322	3 117	2 933	3 958	3 645	4 713	6 490	8 206	. .
Argentina	661	791	997	1 009	1 746	2 293	3 536	4 810	5 188	. .
Dominican Republic	1 755	2 126	2 876	2 648	2 834	2 322	2 805	2 800	3 496	. .
Cuba	893	1 191	2 088	1 602	1 889	2 506	2 703	2 466	2 870	. .
Venezuela	197	326	439	529	703	752	908	1 324	1 581	. .
Philippines	365	554	831	670	800	680	762	872	782	. .
Uruguay	177	239	219	235	327	408	624	839	1 201	. .
Chile	594	359	353	350	484	620	844	838	1 141	. .
Brazil	273	411	477	500	683	695	782	779	1 049	. .
Bolivia	66	89	104	129	218	289	648	709	1 103	. .
Mexico	. .	263	352	344	451	437	567	593	763	. .
Gambia	. .	102	145	294	424	306	311	442	425	. .
Other countries	3 015	3 790	4 261	4 730	5 218	4 956	5 249	5 761	6 805	. .
Total	**11 999**	**16 743**	**21 810**	**26 556**	**38 335**	**42 829**	**62 339**	**71 810**	**84 170**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWEDEN

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Iraq	4 181	4 043	4 160	4 678	5 298	11 544	12 895	5 950	4 224	3 180
Finland	1 389	1 512	1 561	2 816	2 703	2 588	2 975	2 757	2 535	2 432
Thailand	525	454	606	443	500	585	876	1 007	1 261	1 314
Turkey	1 398	2 796	2 127	1 375	1 269	1 702	2 921	1 456	1 125	1 200
Afghanistan	395	329	285	278	361	623	1 062	777	812	1 180
Bosnia and Herzegovina	12 591	4 241	4 064	3 090	1 469	1 788	2 627	2 081	1 764	1 146
Iran	2 798	2 031	1 737	1 350	1 296	1 889	2 796	1 459	1 113	1 110
Somalia	2 843	2 802	1 789	1 121	840	688	931	655	787	885
Russian Federation	410	621	626	642	535	886	1 510	919	759	865
Poland	264	1 906	2 604	1 325	990	793	1 000	762	686	824
Germany	154	198	243	209	244	294	457	386	606	700
Syria	693	588	1 063	1 218	1 117	1 208	1 314	596	512	500
Chile	687	727	689	548	464	543	754	687	593	488
Denmark	310	271	316	310	335	329	431	388	404	409
China	434	460	563	675	654	920	1 141	742	515	403
Other countries	13 423	12 479	14 545	12 273	8 055	9 151	13 305	11 851	11 634	11 926
Total	**42 495**	**35 458**	**36 978**	**32 351**	**26 130**	**35 531**	**46 995**	**32 473**	**29 330**	**28 562**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11 721	10 441	10 252	8 453
Italy	6 652	5 386	6 633	5 085	4 196	4 032	4 502	4 629	4 921	4 804
Germany	646	586	817	670	639	773	1 144	1 361	3 022	4 035
Turkey	3 127	3 116	4 128	4 216	3 565	3 467	3 457	3 044	2 866	2 593
Bosnia and Herzegovina	999	1 128	1 865	2 268	2 371	2 790	3 149	3 008	2 855	2 408
Portugal	765	779	920	1 165	1 199	1 505	2 383	2 201	1 761	2 336
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	857	1 022	1 639	1 802	1 981	2 171	2 596	2 210	2 287	1 831
Croatia	970	1 045	1 638	1 565	1 616	1 681	1 837	1 660	2 046	1 599
France	1 360	1 307	1 367	1 215	1 181	1 021	1 260	1 218	1 110	1 314
Spain	851	699	691	800	823	975	1 283	1 246	1 096	1 245
United Kingdom	339	310	350	306	289	287	323	353	319	365
Netherlands	74	90	90	155	254	178	210	234	189	229
Austria	240	233	227	194	150	167	174	166	193	205
Belgium	83	53	118	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	153	173
Poland	304	159	200	160	177	163	185	195	152	158
Other countries	11 433	11 673	15 832	15 823	17 244	19 227	12 487	11 923	11 143	11 692
Total	**28 700**	**27 586**	**36 515**	**35 424**	**35 685**	**38 437**	**46 711**	**43 889**	**44 365**	**43 440**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Bulgaria	. .	. .	13 178	12 423	3 528	3 299	1 769	. .	. .	. .
Azerbaijan	. .	. .	2 667	1 908	1 541	780	563	. .	. .	. .
Russian Federation	. .	. .	1 264	1 033	700	346	287	. .	. .	. .
Afghanistan	. .	. .	27	56	233	312	245	. .	. .	. .
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	379	450	398	272	195	. .	. .	. .
Syria	. .	. .	212	201	135	124	175	. .	. .	. .
Iraq	. .	. .	136	103	153	146	143	. .	. .	. .
Iran	. .	. .	121	112	178	156	137	. .	. .	. .
Greece	. .	. .	48	37	119	104	107	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	19	12	26	61	93	. .	. .	. .
Kyrgyzstan	. .	. .	147	146	140	129	88	. .	. .	. .
Uzbekistan	. .	. .	175	150	109	76	87	. .	. .	. .
Ukraine	. .	. .	618	598	87	58	85	. .	. .	. .
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	. .	85	84	72	82	80	. .	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	886	455	52	84	76	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	. .	. .	3 763	3 318	767	872	942	. .	. .	. .
Total	**. .**	**. .**	**23 725**	**21 086**	**8 238**	**6 901**	**5 072**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Table B.1.6. **Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality**

UNITED STATES

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mexico	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840	77 089	83 979	122 258	231 815	111 630
India	42 198	34 311	33 774	29 790	37 975	35 962	47 542	46 871	65 971	52 889
Philippines	46 563	35 431	30 487	29 081	31 448	36 673	40 500	38 830	58 792	38 934
China	54 534	34 423	32 018	24 014	27 309	31 708	35 387	33 134	40 017	37 130
Viet Nam	55 934	41 596	36 835	25 995	27 480	32 926	29 917	27 921	39 584	31 168
Cuba	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236	11 227	21 481	15 394	39 871	24 891
Dominican Republic	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464	20 831	22 165	20 645	35 251	20 778
El Salvador	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602	12 174	13 430	17 157	35 796	18 927
Korea	23 858	18 053	17 307	15 968	17 184	19 223	17 668	17 628	22 759	17 576
Colombia	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819	11 396	15 698	12 089	22 926	16 593
Jamaica	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271	13 674	18 953	12 314	21 324	15 098
Haiti	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215	9 740	15 979	11 552	21 229	13 290
Pakistan	8 726	8 375	8 658	7 431	8 744	9 699	10 411	9 147	11 813	12 528
Iran	19 251	13 881	11 796	10 807	11 781	11 031	11 363	10 557	11 813	12 069
Poland	16 405	11 661	12 823	9 140	10 335	9 801	10 230	9 320	14 237	10 604
Other countries	315 691	231 916	242 396	199 336	234 448	261 126	307 886	255 660	373 341	309 610
Total	**888 788**	**608 205**	**573 708**	**463 204**	**537 151**	**604 280**	**702 589**	**660 477**	**1 046 539**	**743 715**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442921

Metadata related to Tables A.1.6. and B.1.6.
Acquisitions of nationality

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
Austria	Data refer to persons living in Autria at the time of acquisition.	Statistics Austria and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
Belgium		Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI) and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time if allowed by the country of previous nationality.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile	Source: Residence permits (*Sistema B3000*).	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	Acquisition of nationality by declaration or by naturalisation.	Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Estonia		Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	Data by former nationality for naturalisations by "anticipated delaration" is unknown for the years 2004, 2006 and 2007.	Ministry of the Interior, Overseas Territories, Local Authorities and Immigration and Ministry of Justice.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Data refer to all possible types of citizenship acquisition: naturalisation, declaration (for Greek descents), adoption by a Greek, etc.	Ministry of the Interior.
Hungary	Including grants of nationality to ethnic Hungarians mainly from Former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	From 2005 on, figures include naturalisations and Post Nuptial Citizenship (PNC) figures.	International Migration and Asylum, Eurostat.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Korea		Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SRE).
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	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	From 2002 on, data include naturalisations by marriage and acknowledgment of persons of Polish descent, in addition to naturalisation by ordinary procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	From 2008 on, data correspond to favourable responses from SEF to applications for nationality presented by foreigners. Until 2007, data exclude acquisitions of nationality due to marriage or adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE) and Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF).
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	From 2006 on, the data refer to Serbia instead of Serbia/Montenegro.	Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey		Ministry of Interior, General Directorate of Population and Citizenship Affairs.
United Kingdom	The increase in 2009 is partly due to the processing of a backlog of applications filed prior to 2009.	Home Office.
United States	Data by country of birth refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security.

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 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 OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia										
Permanent settlers	32.3	35.7	36.0	38.5	51.5	53.1	59.4	60.8	65.4	69.5
Temporary workers	39.2	36.9	33.5	36.8	39.5	48.6	71.2	87.3	110.6	101.3
Austria	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1	24.5	23.2	22.6	29.6	36.7	58.4
Belgium	7.5	7.0	6.7	4.6	4.3	6.3	12.5	23.0	25.0	13.1
Canada	116.6	119.7	110.9	103.2	112.6	122.7	139.1	164.9	192.5	178.5
Chile	. .	. .	. .	16.3	17.6	21.2	29.1	32.6	32.4	35.4
Denmark	3.6	5.1	4.8	2.3	4.3	7.4	13.6	17.2	7.6	6.8
Finland	10.4	14.1	13.3	13.8	15.2	18.7	21.0	23.0	25.0	22.5
France										
Permanent workers	6.9	9.8	8.5	7.4	7.6	9.4	10.9	17.6	23.8	22.5
Temporary workers	7.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.0	10.4	10.7	9.9	9.9	5.5
Germany	333.8	373.8	374.0	372.2	380.3	. .	30.1	29.2	30.7	26.2
Hungary	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4	79.2	72.6	71.1	55.2	42.5	28.2
Ireland	18.0	36.4	40.3	47.6	34.1	27.1	24.9	23.6	13.6	8.0
Israel	. .	78.2	33.2	31.1	47.9	29.4	32.7	36.5	30.3	26.6
Italy	58.0	92.4	139.1	. .	. .	75.3	69.0	150.1	145.1	. .
Japan	129.9	142.0	145.1	155.8	158.9	125.4	81.4	77.9	72.1	53.5
Luxembourg	26.5	25.8	22.4	22.6	22.9	24.8	28.0	31.0	31.1	20.0
Netherlands	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0	44.1	46.1	74.1	50.0	15.6	13.7
New Zealand										
Permanent settlers	7.8	13.3	13.4	9.2	7.7	14.5	12.9	12.4	12.6	12.5
Temporary workers	35.2	48.3	59.6	64.5	77.2	88.1	106.0	121.5	136.6	134.4
Norway	14.8	17.8	23.5	25.2	33.0	28.3	40.5	54.8	52.5	23.2
Poland	17.8	17.0	22.8	18.8	12.4	10.3	10.8	12.2	18.0	29.3
Portugal	7.8	136.0	55.3	16.4	19.3	13.1	13.8			
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 189.0	1 343.6	1 052.3
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.3	4.7	4.2	. .	15.2	9.9
Spain	172.6	154.9	97.6	73.1	155.0	643.3	101.8	102.5	. .	. .
Sweden	15.6	12.6	10.0	10.2	8.5	5.8	11.5	9.6	11.0	14.6
Switzerland	34.0	41.9	40.1	35.4	40.0	40.3	46.4	74.3	76.7	65.0
United Kingdom	64.6	85.1	88.6	85.8	89.5	86.2	96.7	88.0	77.7	52.7
United States										
Permanent settlers	106.6	178.7	173.8	81.7	155.3	246.9	159.1	162.2	166.5	144.0
Temporary workers	355.1	413.6	357.9	352.1	396.7	388.3	444.4	503.9	449.9	348.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932442788

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Australia	*Permanent workers:* Offshore permanent migrant arrivals (Settler Arrivals) from the Migration Program's Skill Stream. The following visa categories are covered: Employer Sponsored, Business Skills, Distinguished Talent, Skilled Independent, State/Territory Nominated Independent, and Regional Sponsored. *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 Citizenship.
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. Citizens from the European Economic Area (EEA) are excluded.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrant employees. Citizens of European Union (EU) Member states are not included.	Ministry of Employment and Labour.
Canada	Temporary residents are persons who entered Canada mainly to work and have been issued a work permit (with or without other types of permits). Data refer to the number of individuals entering Canada on a temporary basis for each year of observation (reference year) as initial entries or re-entries, not the number of documents issued. Initial entry represents the number of temporary residents identified as entering Canada for the first time. Re-entry represents the number of temporary residents who have a new permit issued abroad or at a port of entry during the observed calendar year. Foreign workers exclude temporary residents who have been issued a work permit but who entered Canada mainly for reasons other than work. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile	Residence permits (*Sistema B3000*) attributed to workers. There are twelve categories of permits.	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included. From 2003 on, data only cover the following categories: Wage earners, Work permits to persons from the new EU member states and Specialists included in the jobcard scheme. Persons granted a residence permit on the 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 abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates. The number of EU citizens is an estimate based on registrations of EU citizens. They are approximate, because not all EU citizens register themselves or give the reason for their stay. Nordic citizens are excluded.	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Finnish Immigration Service.
France	*Permanent employees:* "Permanent employees" are foreign workers subject to control by the OFII. Until June 2008, the data include nationals from the eight States that entered the EU in 2004. Most nationals from Bulgaria and Romania are still subject to control by the OFII, and therefore are still included in the data. 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 cannot exceed 9 months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.	French Office for Immigration and Integration (OFII).
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 Social Affairs and Labour.
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). These figures exclude, in the main, inflows of workers who are nationals of EEA countries.	Ministry of Labour, Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment.
Israel	Record of entries of work permit holders. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners, excluding the self-employed.	Ministry of Labour and National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Exclude temporary visitors and re-entries but include renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** *(cont.)*

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Luxembourg	Foreign workers affiliated for the first time with the Luxembourg Social Security for a paid occupation.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Holders of a temporary work permit only (regulated since 1995 under the Dutch Foreign nationals labour act, WAV). Since 1 May 2007, people from the ten new EU countries and from the European Economic Area are not required to have a work permit.	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 work permits granted on the grounds of an offer of employment. This includes permanent, long-term and short-term work permits.	Directorate of Immigration.
Poland	Data refer to work permits granted.	Ministry of Economy, Labour, and Social Policy.
Portugal	Persons who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared that they have a job or are seeking a job. 2001 to 2004 data also include stay permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme and work visas issued yearly. Data for 2005 and 2006 include foreigners who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared they have a job or are seeking a job as well as foreigners who received a work visa.	National Statistical Office (INE), Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Russian Federation	Work permits issued.	Federal Migration Service, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Work permits issued (including renewals). EEA workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family.
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). Data also include holders of a settlement permit returning to Switzerland after a short stay abroad. Issues of annual permits to persons holding a seasonal one are not included.	Federal Office of Migration.
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 year (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 year (October to September of the given year).	US Department of Homeland Security and Bureau of Consular Affairs, United States Department of State.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force

The international comparison of "immigrant" workers is confronted with the same difficulties already mentioned earlier regarding the measurement of the overall stock of immigrants as well as with the use of different concepts of employment and unemployment.

For European countries, the main difficulty consists in covering EU nationals, who have free labour market access in EU member countries. In some countries they are issued nominal work permits, which makes it possible to cover them. 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 the Central Register for Foreign Nationals following the signature of free movement agreements with the European Union. Under these agreements, employees who are holders of "EU/EFTA" permits can change their job or profession (professional mobility) as they wish. This change is not registered in the Central Register for Foreign Nationals, the usual source for statistics on the stock of foreign workers.

A difficulty concerns holders of "permanent" residence permits allowing access to the labour market: they are not systematically covered, since the proportion of those who are actually working is not always known.

Another one concerns the inclusion of the unemployed and the self-employed. 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 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 or average over the four quarters of the year.

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 growth of the stock of foreign workers can be subject to bias.

Table A.2.2. **Stocks of foreign-born labour force in OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Australia	. .	2 360.2	2 397.1	2 450.6	2 502.0	2 584.0	2 663.1	2 778.9	2 914.9	3 061.7
% of total labour force	. .	24.5	24.6	24.7	24.9	25.0	25.2	25.8	26.5	26.9
Austria	474.2	514.9	507.3	557.3	584.6	624.6	662.0	695.4	682.8	686.7
% of total labour force	12.4	13.5	13.3	14.3	15.3	15.6	16.2	16.8	16.3	16.3
Belgium	454.6	456.7	489.1	499.3	512.1	535.9	569.8	498.6	473.8	656.7
% of total labour force	10.4	10.7	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.7	12.3	10.6	10.0	13.8
Canada	. .	3 150.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 634.8	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	. .	19.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.2	. .	. .	. .
Denmark	. .	. .	. .	154.4	161.0	167.1	175.3	188.1	202.7	204.7
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	5.4	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.6	6.8	6.9
Estonia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	92.2
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.8
Finland	. .	. .	. .	81.3	87.6	96.0	102.1	112.8	124.2	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.2	4.6	. .
France				2 855.8	3 052.9	3 025.6	3 146.6	3 308.6	3 332.8	3 266.8
% of total labour force				10.7	11.3	11.1	11.4	11.9	11.8	11.6
Greece	266.6	290.3	338.2	349.4	402.7	421.7	400.2	426.6	477.7	575.9
% of total labour force	5.9	6.5	7.4	7.5	8.5	8.9	8.3	8.8	9.8	11.8
Hungary	66.8	55.2	54.8	77.0	85.2	78.9	73.8	73.7	89.8	94.0
% of total labour force	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.3
Ireland	135.8	153.3	170.8	185.9	187.6	232.4	287.3	339.6	443.2	404.0
% of total labour force	7.9	8.7	9.5	10.1	9.9	11.8	13.9	15.8	20.3	19.0
Israel	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	943.4	931.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 907.2	2 094.6	2 245.0	2 546.5	2 787.2
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.9	8.6	9.2	10.3	11.3
Luxembourg	75.5	79.0	79.8	84.1	89.1	89.8	91.3	98.3	98.7	111.0
% of total labour force	41.0	42.0	41.4	43.5	45.0	44.4	44.6	46.6	46.4	48.6
Mexico	118.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	138.1	150.9	160.3	160.9	185.5
% of total labour force	0.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Netherlands	895.3	867.9	932.0	906.0	929.1	968.1	931.4	949.4	989.4	996.5
% of total labour force	11.2	10.7	11.3	10.9	11.2	11.6	11.0	11.1	11.4	11.5
New Zealand	. .	372.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	498.8	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	. .	19.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.8	. .	. .	. .
Norway	138.1	139.9	153.3	163.2	166.4	173.5	186.9	817.0	215.3	239.8
% of total labour force	6.0	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.1	7.4	7.8	8.4	8.5	9.5
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	58.8	55.9	50.9	43.2	51.7	49.7
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Portugal	276.9	302.2	321.3	349.2	379.3	405.5	417.1	444.0	497.5	495.0
% of total labour force	5.6	6.1	6.3	6.8	7.4	7.8	7.9	8.4	9.4	9.4
Slovenia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	88.9
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.7
Spain	804.4	1 085.5	1 448.4	1 832.6	2 240.7	2 782.0	3 229.6	3 719.8	4 132.6	4 229.2
% of total labour force	4.5	6.1	7.8	9.5	11.2	13.4	15.1	16.9	18.2	18.5
Sweden	445.5	448.7	442.5	452.8	461.4	497.8	521.6	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	10.1	10.0	9.9	10.1	10.3	10.8	11.2	. .	. .	. .
Switzerland	1 007.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	26.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 081.0	3 340.0	3 678.0	3 698.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.0	11.8	12.6	12.9
United States	18 028.5	18 994.1	20 917.6	21 563.6	21 985.2	22 421.6	23 342.9	24 777.8	25 085.5	24 814.6
% of total labour force	12.9	13.4	14.6	14.8	15.1	15.2	15.6	16.3	16.4	16.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.
Source: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

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Metadata related to Table A.2.2. **Stocks of foreign-born labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* Average from July to August.	Labour Force Survey, Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Austria	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Belgium	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	Population Censuses, Statistics Canada.
Denmark	Data are from population registers. Labour force aged 16 to 64. *Reference date:* 1 January of the following year.	Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs.
Estonia	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Finland		Statistics Finland.
France	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Greece	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Hungary	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Ireland	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Israel	The figures are the sum of permanent workers as estimated by the Labour Force Survey and the temporary workers as counted by the double card system (which may overestimate the number of overstayers). The Labour Force Survey does not cover temporary residents who have been living in Israel less than a year and persons who are not living in registered dwellings. The country of birth of foreign temporary workers is considered to be the same as their country of citizenship. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Central Bureau of Statistics. The Labour Force Survey data on foreign-born Arabs only include those born in other countries.
Italy	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Luxembourg	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Mexico	For 2000: foreign-born labour force aged 16 and over, 2000 Census. From 2005 on: data estimated only for the total of foreign born aged 16 and over from the National Occupation and Employment Survey (ENOE).	National Migration Institute (INM) and National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
Netherlands	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
New Zealand	Labour force aged 15 and over.	2001 and 2006 Censuses, Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Poland	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Portugal	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Slovenia	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Spain	EU Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
Sweden	Annual average data are from the labour force survey until 2004. Since 2005 the figures are based on register data (RAMS) as of that year statistics broken down by nationality are no longer available in the labour force survey. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Census 2000.	Federal Statistical Office.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. Figures are rounded.	Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics.
United States	Labour force aged 15 and over (including those born abroad with US citizenship at birth). *Reference date:* March.	Current Population Survey, March Supplement, Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce.

Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign labour force in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands and percentages

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Austria	345.6	359.9	370.6	388.6	402.7	418.5	432.9	452.1	472.4	479.4
% of total labour force	10.6	11.0	11.2	11.8	12.2	12.4	12.7	13.1	13.4	13.6
Belgium	387.9	392.5	393.9	396.0	427.8	439.7	449.8	458.9	468.8	497.7
% of total labour force	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	9.1	9.2	9.2	9.5	9.5	10.1
Czech Republic	103.6	103.7	101.2	105.7	108.0	151.7	185.1	240.2	284.6	230.7
% of total labour force	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.9	3.6	4.6	5.4	4.1
Denmark	100.6	101.9	101.5	106.9	109.3	115.0	126.6	141.0	145.1	. .
% of total labour force	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.9	. .
Estonia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	129.2
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	18.7
Finland	41.4	45.4	46.3	47.6	50.0	55.0	58.4	64.8	72.3	. .
% of total labour force	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.7	
France	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8	1 526.8	1 467.0	1 391.5	1 407.3	1 485.5	1 560.5	1 539.5
% of total labour force	6.0	6.2	6.1	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8
Germany	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0	3 703.0	3 701.0	3 823.0	3 528.0	3 874.0	3 893.0	3 289.0
% of total labour force	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.1	9.3	8.5	9.4	9.4	9.4
Greece	169.1	204.8	258.9	274.5	309.6	324.6	328.8	369.4	426.2	489.7
% of total labour force	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.8	6.4	6.7	6.7	7.5	7.9	
Hungary	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	66.1	62.9	64.6	59.5	56.4	62.4
% of total labour force	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	. .
Ireland	63.9	84.2	101.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	3.7	4.7	5.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Israel	72.6	82.2	83.5	65.3	55.5	59.1	63.1	66.0	73.3	79.3
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Italy	837.9	841.0	829.8	1 479.4	1 412.7	1 301.6	1 475.7	1 638.3	1 913.0	2 137.0
% of total labour force	3.9	3.9	3.8	6.1	5.8	5.3	6.0	6.6	7.6	8.6
Japan	154.7	168.8	179.6	185.6	192.1	180.5	178.8	193.8	211.5	212.8
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	. .
Korea	122.5	128.5	137.3	415.0	297.8	198.5	317.1	499.2	538.0	555.2
% of total labour force	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.8	1.3	0.8	1.3	2.1	2.2	. .
Luxembourg	152.7	169.3	175.1	180.4	187.5	196.2	207.1	221.5	232.8	231.4
% of total labour force	58.0	60.9	61.2	61.9	62.9	64.0	64.9	66.6	66.7	. .
Netherlands	300.1	302.6	295.9	317.2	299.4	287.5	283.8	314.4	335.7	326.0
% of total labour force	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.7
Norway	111.2	133.7	138.4	140.7	149.0	159.3	180.4	213.1	241.0	250.0
% of total labour force	4.9	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.4	8.6	9.6	. .
Portugal	99.8	236.6	288.3	300.8	315.8	271.4	. .	. .	. .	178.4
% of total labour force	2.0	4.4	5.3	5.5	5.5	4.9	. .	. .	. .	3.2
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 717.1	2 425.9	2 223.6
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Slovak Republic	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.2	6.5	. .	14.9	15.9
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	. .	0.6	0.6
Spain	454.6	607.1	831.7	982.4	1 076.7	1 688.6	1 824.0	1 981.1	1 882.2	1 811.9
% of total labour force	2.5	3.4	4.5	5.1	5.4	8.1	8.5	9.0	8.2	10.3
Sweden	222.0	227.0	218.0	221.0	216.0	176.6	177.0	. .	. .	. .
% of total labour force	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.2	4.3	. .	. .	. .
Switzerland	717.3	738.8	829.4	814.5	817.4	830.1	849.9	876.0	927.2	973.9
% of total labour force	20.1	21.1	20.9	20.6	20.6	20.9	21.0	21.3	21.8	22.8
United Kingdom	1 107.0	1 229.0	1 251.0	1 322.0	1 445.0	1 504.0	1 773.0	2 035.0	2 283.0	2 293.0
% of total labour force	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.3	7.2	7.8	8.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.
Source: Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602.*

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Metadata related to Table A.2.3.
Stocks of foreign labour force

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Annual average. Salaried employment only (from Social Security data) until 2005. Including unemployed people from 2006 on.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection.
Belgium	Including unemployed and self-employed.	National Institute of self employed's social insurances, National Office for Employment, National Bank of Belgium and Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI).
Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers until 2003. Since 2004 foreigners registered at labour offices (*i.e.* employees from 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. Labour force aged 16 to 64. *Reference date:* 1 January of the following year.	Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Data are from the Labour Force Survey. Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* March.	Eurostat.
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 become continuous from 2003 on. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years. *Reference date:* Annual average (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.	Hellenic Statistical Authority.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits. *Reference date:* 31 December.	National Office for Employment and Social Affairs (FSZH).
Ireland	Labour Force Survey.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Temporary work permits in the given year. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.	Ministry of the Interior.
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). Since 2005, the data are from the labour force survey. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years. EU citizens do not need a work permit.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act. Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese nationals, 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	Foreigners working in Luxembourg, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. *Reference date:* 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Labour Force Survey. Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* March.	Eurostat.
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the unemployed and self-employed in 2000. *Reference date:* second quarter of each year (except in 2000: fourth quarter).	Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed) – after 1998, this figure is estimated. Data include foreign workers who benefited from the 2001 regularisation programme. From 2001 to 2005, data also include Stay Permit and Work Visa Holders. Statistical information on the stock of workers holding residence permits is missing for 2006 and 2007. In 2008, the data come from the employees tables from the Ministry of labour and Social Solidarity. They do not include independent workers and professionals, therefore they are not comparable with previous series. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior, National Statistical Office (INE), Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity.

Metadata related to Table A.2.3.
Stocks of foreign labour force *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Russian Federation	Number of holders of a work permit.	Federal Migration Service, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit and EEA workers (who do not need a work permit but 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 until 1999. 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 14 January 2004).	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Until 2004, annual average data are from the labour force survey. Since 2005 the figures are based on register data (RAMS) as of that year statistics broken down by nationality are no longer available in the Labour Force Survey. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Until 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 Labour Force Survey. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Federal Office of Migration.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. There is a break in the series in 2004, as a result of a new weighting procedure. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Home Office.

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Employment

Migration Policy Developments

Part II. Migrant Entrepreneurship in OECD Countries

Part III. International Migration to Israel and its Impact

Part IV. Country Notes

Statistical Annex

Further reading

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