International Migration Outlook 2014



Special Focus: Mobilising Migrants' Skills for Economic Success

OECD

International Migration Outlook 2014



BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

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Please cite this publication as:
OECD (2014), *International Migration Outlook 2014*, OECD Publishing.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/migr_outlook-2014-en

ISBN 978-92-64-21118-6 (print)
ISBN 978-92-64-22352-3 (PDF)

Annual: International Migration Outlook
ISSN 1995-3968 (print)
ISSN 1999-124X (online)

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Foreword

This publication constitutes the thirty-eighth report of the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration. The report is divided into four chapters plus a Statistical annex. It is a special edition prepared for the OECD High-Level Policy Forum on Migration, held in Paris, December 2014. This forum aimed at discussing and analysing challenges in managing migration and fostering integration of immigrants and their children in the context of current and future skills needs of OECD and key partner countries. The overarching theme was on "Mobilising migrants' skills for economic success".

Chapter 1 provides a broad overview of recent trends in international migration flows. Chapters 2 and 3 are devoted to special topics. Chapter 2 takes stock of the broad issues involved in the labour market integration of immigrants and their offspring from a human capital perspective, as well as of the policies at hand to free their full skills potential through the identification and utilisation, the activation, and the development of their skills. It builds on the extensive work of the OECD on integration issues, together with new evidence. Chapter 3 provides a systematic and comparative overview of labour migration management; identifying key elements which can help policy makers match concrete measures to overarching objectives. It discusses how the landscape for labour migration policy is changing, due to both structural factors and the breakdown of traditional categories, posing new challenges for policy makers.

Chapter 4 presents succinct country-specific notes and statistics on developments in international migration movements and policies in OECD countries in recent years. Finally, the Statistical annex includes a broad selection of recent and historical statistics on immigrant flows, the foreign and foreign-born populations and naturalisations.

This year's edition of the OECD International Migration Outlook *is the joint work of staff of the International Migration Division in the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs. Chapters 1 and 4 are a collective work of the staff of the International Migration Division with contributions from John Salt (University College London, the United Kingdom) and Martina Lubyova (Slovak Academy of Sciences, the Slovak Republic) for Chapter 4. Chapter 2 was prepared by Thomas Liebig and Thomas Huddleston (Consultant to the OECD). Chapter 3 was prepared by Jonathan Chaloff and Sankar Ramasamy. Jean-Christophe Dumont edited the report. Research assistance and statistical work were carried out by Véronique Gindrey and Philippe Hervé. Editorial assistance was provided by Sylviane Yvron. Finally, thanks go to Ken Kincaid for his editing work on Chapters 2 and 3.*

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Editorial: Migration policy in a time of uncertainty

Migration has become a constant factor in the economic and social landscape. Most OECD countries are net immigration countries, and the share of immigrants has been rising in almost all of them. There are now more than 115 million immigrants in OECD countries, about 10% of the population. A further 5% of the native-born population has at least one immigrant parent. Migration flows are close to four million annually.

Just as constant as migration are concerns about whether immigrants and their children will integrate in the labour market. These concerns have only grown since the crisis, which hit immigrants disproportionately hard. Migrants account for more than one in five of additional unemployed in the OECD since 2007, and in many countries they have a harder time in getting back into work. One reason is that, compared to natives there are fewer immigrants who are outside the labour market. Indeed, in a number of OECD countries, migrants, notably those with less than upper secondary education, are more likely to be employed than their native counterparts.

Migration is in constant evolution. The context in which migration happens, as well as migration flows themselves, is always evolving. Temporary labour migration and free movement, notably in Europe, have experienced wide swings before and during the crisis. Free movement for example decreased by more than 35 % between 2007 and 2010. Since then, it has strongly rebounded, although these flows have shifted from southern Europe to Germany.

Another change is in where migrants come from. China continues to top the list of origin countries, but flows from other countries have ebbed and flowed: Migration from Eastern Europe rose and then fell, while migration from Latin America has been in a more consistent decline.

There has been a change, too, in the sort of people who are migrating. Today's migrants are better educated than their predecessors. The number of foreign-born who are highly-educated has grown by 70% over the past decade to exceed 31 million in the OECD area. Over that period, highly educated immigrants accounted for 45% of the increase in the foreign born population. Despite this boost to the supply of skills, educated migrants don't always have a success story to tell. They fare worse on skill tests than native-born with the same education, largely, but not entirely, because of a language handicap. They also have a higher rate of unemployment than their native peers. And their over-qualification rate is 50% higher than that of natives.

Policy needs to keep up. Migration and integration policy need to keep pace with these changes, some of which have been visible for a long time and so cannot have come as a shock to policymakers. In the face of more qualified immigrants, for example, countries such as Germany and Denmark have invested in processes to assess and recognise foreign

qualifications. Growing backlogs of qualified candidates led Canada and other countries to fast-track skilled migrants with a job offer in hand. A shortage of young people to fill low-skill jobs led Korea to rethink its temporary labour migration system.

Yet, compared to even five years ago, we are now seeing more disorienting shifts in migration, which complicate the task of matching policy to changing circumstances. The policy objectives for migration have also shifted, as has the perception of the role of migration. Today's policy debate places greater emphasis on social cohesion and less on urgent recruitment needs. Greater importance has been given to the ability to adapt to new circumstances and build in more flexibility. Public opinion clamours for more information about today's migrants, wanting more reassurance that integration measures are on track and that labour migration management is well suited to foster economic growth.

This report puts the spotlight on important challenges facing policy makers:

- First, there is the challenge of **reconciling short-term and long-term policy considerations**. Short political cycles and hostile public opinion can work against longer-term planning. For example, integration programmes may involve an upfront investment, yet may raise migrants' employment performance only in the long term. Similarly, permanent migration has an effect on long-term demographic developments but also has to respond to rapidly changing economic circumstances.
- Second, there is the challenge of **reconciling conflicting objectives**. The need to protect local workers must be balanced against requests from employers to recruit quickly from the broadest possible pool of candidates. The need to be attractive in a competitive global market for talent must be weighed against the need to ensure the integrity of admission processes and to protect the local labour force. Efficiency must be balanced against procedural safeguards. The objective of filling short-term demand with temporary migrants may also conflict with the need to offer integration opportunities to migrants with long-term plans. In the realm of integration policy, the need to target immigrants with specific and appropriate measures must be balanced against the need to ensure fair and equal treatment, avoid stigmatising vulnerable categories, and mainstream services and policies.
- Third, there is the challenge of **dealing with uncertainties**. Geopolitical events affect international migration flows as well as public attitudes toward migration. Even though geopolitical shocks mostly provoke refugee and asylum seeker flows, labour migration policy is not decided in a sealed compartment. The needs of business are also not easy to predict: Short-term labour needs may turn out to be protracted, making a temporary labour force ill-suited to meeting them. At the same time, structural changes may affect long-standing industries, undermining the need for permanent labour migrants. Another area of uncertainty is the behaviour of migrants themselves: Migrants are more mobile than natives and more likely to move on when circumstances change, although it is impossible to predict how many will do so. It is also impossible to predict how many natives will leave if the economy turns sour: Since, the crisis struck, a number of OECD countries have had to react to unexpectedly large outflows of both migrants and natives. Finally, migration is increasingly multipolar. More and more countries compete for global talents, and competition may come not just from other OECD countries, but from non-OECD developing and emerging economies as well.

The most efficient way to respond to these challenges and uncertainties is to adopt **a dynamic migration management system as well as an adaptable and flexible integration framework**. This, in itself, is a challenge. First of all, building consensus among stakeholders on changes in migration and integration policies has proven arduous in many countries. Secondly, migrants are rational agents who quickly adapt their behaviour to policy changes, amplifying or possibly neutralising the intended effects. Lastly, policymakers are expected to justify and explain their policy choices to a sometimes unforgiving public. It may be tempting to use blunt and direct – if not inflexible – policy measures, since these are easier to communicate. Dynamic systems, on the other hand, require informing and communicating with the public about results, and about changes and adaptations. Sweden is one example of a country that has changed its integration and labour migration frameworks several times in recent years in response to changing circumstances and evidence from practice.

There are three main lessons in addressing these challenges:

- Migrants need to be seen as a resource rather than a problem and integration policies as an investment to make the best use of their skills.
- Even labour migration management systems that work today may not work tomorrow. The costs, short- and long-term, of standing still in the face of rapidly changing economic, demographic and geopolitical environments can be high.
- Although underdeveloped in many countries, evaluation and feedback in both integration and labour migration management are crucial to building public confidence on migration.

There are many ways for migrants to contribute to economic growth. Getting migration right is not about the volumes of admission, or the size of public expenditures, or about finding a magic formula so that "everyone wins", but about transparently prioritising objectives and using well-designed tools to achieve them.

This report, prepared for the **OECD High-Level Policy Forum on Migration** in December 2014, brings together some of the lessons for dealing with these challenges, and identifies a number of good practices. The OECD last held a High Level Policy Forum in 2009 and, since then, not only have circumstances changed but so has our knowledge and understanding of migration and integration policy.



Stefano Scarpetta,
OECD Director for Employment,
Labour and Social Affairs

Executive summary

Main trends

Permanent migration flows to the OECD have begun to rebound, according to preliminary data for 2013. Compared with 2012, they grew slightly by 1.1% to reach around 4 million new permanent immigrants. This modest increase is the consequence of conflicting evolutions in several major immigration countries. Migration to Germany recorded a double-digit increase, its fourth consecutive annual rise. By contrast, several major immigration countries saw declines, notably the United States, Italy, Portugal and Spain. Net migration is still well below pre-crisis levels, but it remains positive in most OECD countries. Notable exceptions are Mexico, Iceland, and Ireland.

The rebound in permanent migration is driven mainly by a rise in free-movement migration, which rose by 10% in 2012. Across OECD countries, most of this free-movement migration is accounted for by people moving between EU states. In 2012, and for the first time ever, such movements within Europe matched legal permanent migration from outside Europe. Germany was the most important destination, receiving almost a third of free-movement migrants.

Overall, however, family migration continues to account for the bulk of migration flows in OECD countries, even though it has been declining since 2008. In 2012, it dropped by 1.7% on the previous year, mainly due to falls in Spain, Italy, the United States, the United Kingdom and Belgium. Labour migration has also declined continuously since the economic downturn, falling 12% in 2012. The fall was particularly notable in the European Economic Area, where labour migration decreased by almost 40% between 2007 and 2012. As a result, for the first time in 2012, legal permanent migration from third countries to Europe was slightly lower than legal permanent migration to the United States.

Like permanent migration, temporary migration flows remain below their peak of 2.5 million in 2007. In 2012, they stood at 1.9 million, about a quarter below the figure for 2007.

The conflict in Syria contributed to push asylum claims up by 20% in 2013 to 560 000 applications. Claims to Germany rose for the sixth year in a row, making it the world's largest recipient with 110 000 claims. It was followed by the United States, France, Sweden and Turkey. As a proportion of its population, Sweden received the most asylum seekers and refugees.

International students continue to attract significant policy attention in many OECD countries. Worldwide, 4.5 million students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship in 2012, with 75% of them studying in OECD countries. That share is largely unchanged on recent years. The number of international students in OECD countries continues to grow but the rise was only 3% in 2012, well down on average annual growth rates of 8% in 2000-05 and 6% in 2005-11.

Investing in the labour market integration of immigrants

First- and second-generation immigrants are playing a growing role in the workforce. In countries settled through immigration, such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States, as well as in Western Europe, immigrants are well established. Elsewhere, in Southern Europe for example, they are a relatively recent but growing presence in the education system and the labour market.

The integration of immigrants and their families has been a prime policy objective in many OECD countries for at least the past 15 years. Perhaps the most important challenge is unleashing immigrants' full skills potential. A number of policy approaches can help make this happen:

- Make information on foreign qualifications more widely available and improve their recognition.
- Ensure immigrants have access to active labour market programmes and that they benefit from them.
- Put immigrants more directly in contact with employers.
- Provide immigrants' children with high-quality early childhood education and care.
- Provide language training adapted to immigrants' skills.

Developing smart labour migration management systems

Even though unemployment remains high in OECD countries, migration still has role to play in meeting labour market needs and in driving economic growth. While this role varies enormously across countries, there is a shared aspiration to create the conditions for "better" labour migration, especially against a backdrop of close public scrutiny.

Labour migration policy can be used to achieve different and sometimes competing goals. These may include satisfying short-term labour needs and contributing to long-term demographic and labour force development. There may also be wider economic development objectives in areas like investment and trade, innovation and productivity and development co-operation. There are inherent trade-offs in balancing these objectives, and policy actors in different areas should co-ordinate to ensure coherent approaches.

A very wide range of tools can be used to ensure that labour migration meets its policy objectives. These can range from numerical limits on migration to "points-based" selection of would-be immigrants, and much more. Flexibility is important in applying these tools to ensure a dynamic and reactive management system. A range of policy approaches can help labour migration play a better role in meeting current and future skills needs:

- Develop a clear labour migration framework.
- Assemble a policy toolbox with a range of instruments for different objectives.
- Improve management of admission criteria and adopt a dynamic approach to migration management.
- Modernise service infrastructure.

Key figures

- Preliminary data suggests permanent migration flows to the OECD rose by about 1% in 2013 compared to 2012, following a 0.8% drop in 2012 compared to the previous year.
- Labour migration has declined continuously since the economic downturn and fell by about 12% in 2012. By contrast, free-movement migration rose 10%.
- Asylum seeking increased by 20% in 2013 compared to 2012.
- Worldwide, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship more than doubled since 2000 to reach 4.5 million in 2012, with 75% enrolled in OECD countries.
- With a little over half a million emigrants, China accounted for almost 10% of all flows to OECD countries in 2012, followed by Romania (5.6%) and Poland (5.4%).
- There are more than 115 million immigrants in the OECD, about 10% of the total population.
- In 2012, about 12.5% of all 15 year-olds had two foreign-born parents – 50% more than a decade earlier. Their integration, particularly those with parents with low levels of education, is a growing concern.
- The crisis hit immigrants disproportionately hard: of the additional 15 million unemployed in the OECD since 2007, about 1 in 5 is foreign-born.
- Despite the crisis most immigrants are in work. On average, a higher proportion of low-educated immigrants (54.1%) are in work than their native-born peers (52.6%).
- By contrast, tertiary educated immigrants are less likely to be in work than their native-born counterparts (77% versus 84%). And when employed, they are 50% more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs.

Chapter 1

Recent developments in international migration trends

This chapter provides an overview of recent developments in international migration movements in OECD countries. It begins with a description, based on preliminary data and estimates, of permanent migration flows in 2013, before going on to a more detailed analysis of trends from the start of the financial crisis to 2012. This is followed by an analysis of the changes in the composition of these flows by main category of migration in which particular attention is paid to labour migration – including employment-related free movement. Permanent migration for family or humanitarian motives is then analysed. Temporary migration follows with brief highlights on seasonal and intra-company transfers as well as tracing the continuing growth of asylum seekers especially in the wake of the Syrian conflict since 2011, before turning on to the international mobility of students, a policy focus of many OECD countries. The chapter concludes with a look at the key countries of origin from which migrants leave for OECD countries and the changing trends in net migration as international migration movements have responded to the crisis and its aftermath.

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.

Key findings

- Preliminary data suggest that permanent migration flows to the OECD have begun to rebound in 2013 – rising by approximately 1% compared with 2012. This rebound has partially been driven by the large increase recorded in the number of migrants to Germany. These increased migration flows to Germany were, to some extent, offset by declining flows to the United States – which remains the largest receiving OECD country – and to Italy and Spain – where tough economic conditions continued to prevail.
- The full data for 2012 showed a modest fall in permanent migration flows, of 0.8% compared to the previous year. This slowdown reflects the slow pace of the global economic recovery, as well as the economic climate in Europe. An interesting trend in Europe is the declining levels of migration from countries outside of the European Union (EU) area. Even then, migration from third countries to the EU has been substantial, with an average of 1.2 million per year over the period 2007-12, more than the equivalent for the United States.
- Labour migration has declined continuously since 2007/08 and fell across the OECD by about 12% in 2012. Within the EU, the fall has been more substantial still and a large drop-off in the numbers of migrants arriving in Spain and Italy have contributed to a fall of almost 40% between 2007 and 2012. However, this has to be nuanced as, in the context of free-circulation areas, at least half of free-movement migration flows are estimated to be employment-related.
- The rebound, observed since 2010, in free-movement migration continued in 2012 with a 10% increase in 2012 compared to 2011. Much of this increase has been driven by the large increase in the number of migrants to Germany – which has now become the single most important destination for free-mobility migrants. For several EU/EFTA countries free-movement migration accounts for a sizeable portion of their permanent inflows – reaching three-quarters of total inflows in Switzerland and Austria.
- Flows of humanitarian migrants have declined by about 6% in 2012. This has mostly resulted from decreased flows to the United States, to Canada and to the Netherlands. Settlement countries[1] receive the majority of resettled refugees – hosting 68% of such flows into the OECD – while the rest are mostly settled in Northern European OECD countries. In contrast, European OECD countries host approximately three-quarters of those migrants arriving through the asylum channel where the settlement countries host only 16%.
- Temporary migration flows, which had been rising until 2007 when they reached a high of 2.5 million, have since fallen. In 2012, temporary migration flows fell by 4.4% and stood at approximately 75% of their 2007 peak. Since 2007, Working Holiday Schemes (WHSs) and intra-corporate transfers (ICTs) have increased while migration flows of seasonal workers have fallen by almost three-quarters, as Germany, and other European countries, no longer require a permit for temporary workers from the last countries that joined the EU.

- Flows of migrants seeking asylum increased by 20% in 2013. This was primarily due to the conflict in Syria, and indeed Syria continues to be the major origin country of asylum seekers. On a per capita basis, Sweden is the country receiving the largest number of both asylum seekers and refugees.
- Worldwide, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has more than doubled since 2000, reaching 4.5 million in 2012, with 75% enrolled in an OECD country. However, the pace of this growth has slowed, and the number of foreign students enrolling in OECD countries increased by only 3% in 2012 compared to 8% per annum during 2000-05 and 6% in 2005-11. More than half of all international students arrive from Asia, with China representing 22%, followed by India. Outside Asia, the major countries of origin are Germany and France.
- With over half a million emigrants in 2012, China maintained its position as the country sending the largest number of migrants to OECD countries – contributing almost 10% of all flows to the OECD. Romania (5.6%) and Poland (5.4%) also contributed substantially to migration flows to the OECD. Indeed, relative to their population, these two countries have much higher expatriation rates to OECD countries than China.
- Overall net migration continues to be positive among OECD countries. However, the effects of the global slowdown have been reflected in these flows. Average net migration has almost halved, from 4.4 persons per thousand population in 2005-08 to 2.6 persons per thousand in 2009-12.

Recent trends in international migration

Preliminary data for 2013 suggest that permanent migration flows to the OECD have begun to rebound, growing by 1.1% since 2012 (Table 1.1).[2] This modest increase is the consequence of counter-balancing changes in several major immigration countries. Preliminary estimations indicate another double-digit growth in the number of migrants to Germany. This fourth consecutive annual increase is driven largely by inflows from Central and Eastern Europe and, to some extent, Southern Europe and takes Germany well above 400 000 immigrants in 2013. After the United States, Germany is now the OECD's second most important destination country, up from eighth position in 2009. Permanent migration flows to the United States, in contrast, were 4% lower in 2013 than in 2012. And, while the United States remains by far the OECD's largest receiving country, for the first time in ten years, it has received less than 1 million permanent migrants. Reflecting the ongoing economic situation, migration flows to Italy and Spain appear to have declined rather markedly. These countries, which were second or third largest immigration countries in the OECD from 2007 to 2011, now hold seventh and eighth positions, even though flows to these countries, at around 200 000 persons annually, remain substantial.

Outside of these countries, the United Kingdom saw inflows stabilise at just below 300 000 persons. Permanent migration flows rose by 3% in Australia, by 4% in New Zealand and a small increase was also recorded in Canada. Switzerland, whose annual immigration flows represented 1.7% of the population in 2013 – the highest among OECD countries for which data are available – showed an annual growth in the numbers of arriving migrants of over 8%, mainly driven by free movement migration. Inflows to Sweden also increased again and reached a new high, primarily due to the increase in humanitarian flows. This is likely to continue into 2014, as preliminary data show that the number of refugees – notably from Syria – continues to rise, while other migration categories remain stable.

Table 1.1. **Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD countries, 2007-13**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Variation (%)		
								2013/12	2012/11	2012/07
Standardised statistics										
United States	1 052 400	1 107 100	1 130 200	1 041 900	1 061 400	1 031 000	989 900	-4	-3	-2
Germany	232 900	228 300	201 500	222 500	290 800	399 900	..	..	38	72
United Kingdom	343 300	317 300	359 200	394 800	322 600	286 100	291 000	2	-11	-17
France	213 700	222 400	221 400	233 700	240 700	258 900	..	..	8	21
Italy	571 900	490 400	390 300	355 700	317 300	258 400	..	..	-19	-55
Canada	236 800	247 200	252 200	280 700	248 700	257 900	258 600	0	4	9
Australia	191 900	205 900	221 000	208 500	219 500	245 100	253 500	3	12	28
Spain	691 900	409 600	334 100	300 000	291 000	209 800	..	..	-28	-70
Switzerland	122 200	139 100	114 800	115 000	124 300	125 600	136 200	8	1	3
Netherlands	80 600	90 600	89 500	95 600	105 600 |	96 800	105 500	9	-8	20
Sweden	74 400	71 000	71 500	65 600	71 800	81 700	86 700	6	14	10
Austria	47 100	49 500	45 700	45 900	58 400 |	67 100	65 000	-3	15	42
Japan	108 500	97 700	65 500	55 700	59 100	66 800	63 600	-5	13	-38
Norway	43 900	49 300	48 900	56 800	61 600	59 900	..	..	-3	36
Belgium	50 300	51 200	64 500	61 500	61 800	58 900	..	..	-5	17
Korea	44 200	39 000	36 700	51 100	56 900	55 500	66 700	20	-2	26
Denmark	30 300	45 600	38 400	42 400	41 300	43 800	52 400	20	6	45
New Zealand	51 700	51 200	47 500	48 500	44 500	42 700	44 400	4	-4	-17
Ireland	120 400	89 700	50 700	23 900	33 700	32 100	40 200	25	-5	-73
Portugal	42 800	71 000	57 300	43 800	36 900	30 700	27 000	-12	-17	-28
Czech Republic	98 800	71 800	39 000	30 500	22 600	30 300	..	..	34	-69
Finland	17 500	19 900	18 100	18 200	20 400	23 300	..	..	14	33
Mexico	6 800	15 100	23 900	26 400	21 700	21 000 |	54 400	159	-3	209
Total number of persons										
All countries	**4 474 200**	**4 180 300**	**3 921 700**	**3 818 700**	**3 812 600**	**3 782 900**	***3 824 000***	***1.1***	**-1**	**-15**
Settlement countries	1 532 800	1 611 400	1 650 900	1 579 600	1 574 100	1 576 700	1 546 400	-2	0	3
EU included above	2 615 900	2 228 300	1 981 200	1 934 100	1 914 900	1 877 800	..	..	-2	-28
EU free movements	1 215 700	899 900	734 900	739 300	831 600	929 600	..	..	12	-24
Annual % change										
All countries	**..**	**-7**	**-6**	**-3**	**-0.2**	**-0.8**	***1.1***	**..**	**..**	**..**
Settlement countries	..	5	2	-4	-0.3	0.2	-1.9	..	..	..
EU included above	..	-15	-11	-2	-1.0	-1.9	..	..	..	..
EU free movements	..	-26	-18	1	12	12	..	..	..	..
National statistics (unstandardised)										
Chile	79 400	68 400	57 100	63 900	76 300	100 100	132 100	32	31	26
Poland	40 600	41 800	41 300	41 100	41 300	47 100	..	..	14	16
Hungary	22 600	35 500	25 600	23 900	22 500	20 300	..	..	-10	-10
Luxembourg	15 800	16 800	14 600	15 800	19 100	19 400	20 000	3	2	23
Greece	46 300	42 900	46 500	33 400	23 200	17 700	..	..	-24	-62
Slovenia	30 500	43 800	24 100	11 200	18 000	17 300	..	..	-4	-43
Israel	18 100	13 700	14 600	16 600	16 900	16 600	16 900	2	-2	-8
Slovak Republic	14 800	16 500	14 400	12 700	8 200 |	2 900	..	..	..	..
Iceland	9 300	7 500	3 400	3 000	2 800	2 800	3 900	39	0	-70
Estonia	2 000	1 900	2 200	1 200	1 700	1 100	1 600	45	-35	-45
Turkey	..	..	..	29 900	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total (except Slovenia, Turkey)	**279 400**	**288 800**	**243 800**	**222 800**	**230 000**	**245 300**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**
% change	**12**	**3**	**-16**	**-9**	**3**	**7**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**

Note: 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. The total for all countries in 2013 (3 824 000) results of a partial estimation. A vertical bar represents a break in the series.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Evolution of immigration since the financial crisis

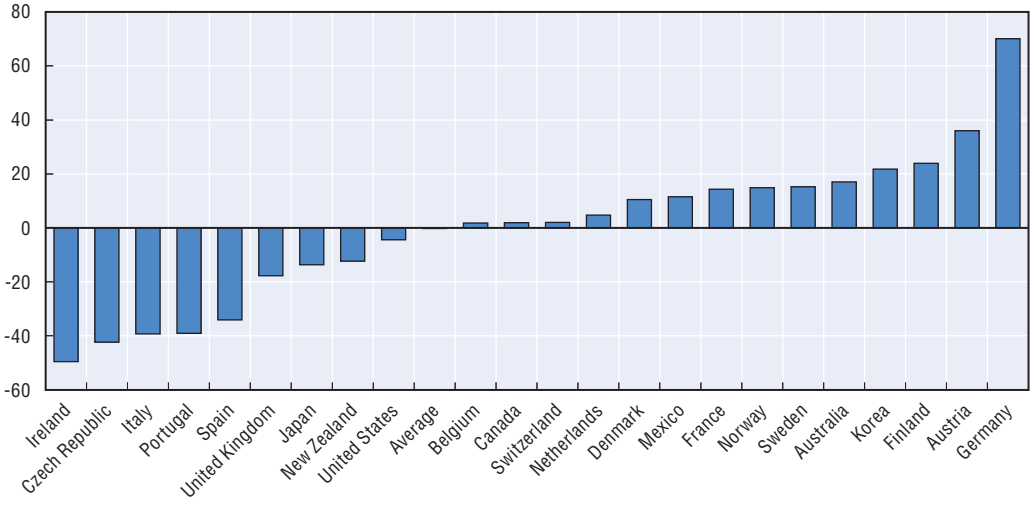
While data for 2013 are not yet fully available for all OECD countries, a complete picture is available for 2012, when flows of international migrants saw a modest fall of 0.8% compared with 2011. After reaching a low in 2009 following the financial crisis, permanent immigration has slowly recovered, though flows are still below the 2007 level of 4.5 million. The high number of migrants in 2007 reflects the pre-crisis situation, but also the first effects of the EU enlargement to Romania and Bulgaria. The numbers were temporarily inflated by large additional numbers of migrants from these two countries recorded in some countries, most notably in Italy. The modest fall in overall flows during 2012 reflected the slow pace of the economic recovery as well as the situation in some EU countries and continuing caution shown by employers in hiring overseas workers.

In Europe in 2012, flows from "third countries" (countries outside the EU area) dropped to about 950 000, from a high of 1.4 million in 2007. And, for the first time in 2012, intra-EU migration in Europe recorded flows equal to those from third countries. Migration from third countries to Europe is now slightly lower than legal migration to the United States. In settlement countries, the effects of the financial crisis on permanent migration flows are more modest and flows since 2007 have been relatively stable, except in Australia where migration increased more or less continuously during the past five years.

When comparing the inflows in 2012 with the previous five years (Figure 1.1), one observes that a number of countries such as Germany, Austria, Finland and Korea, have experienced significant growth in migration flows they receive. The declining flows to some countries such as Spain, Italy and the United Kingdom, that have traditionally been large recipients of international migrants, has driven down the number of international migrants arriving in the OECD as a whole.

Figure 1.1. **Change in permanent flows between 2007-11 average and 2012**

Percentages



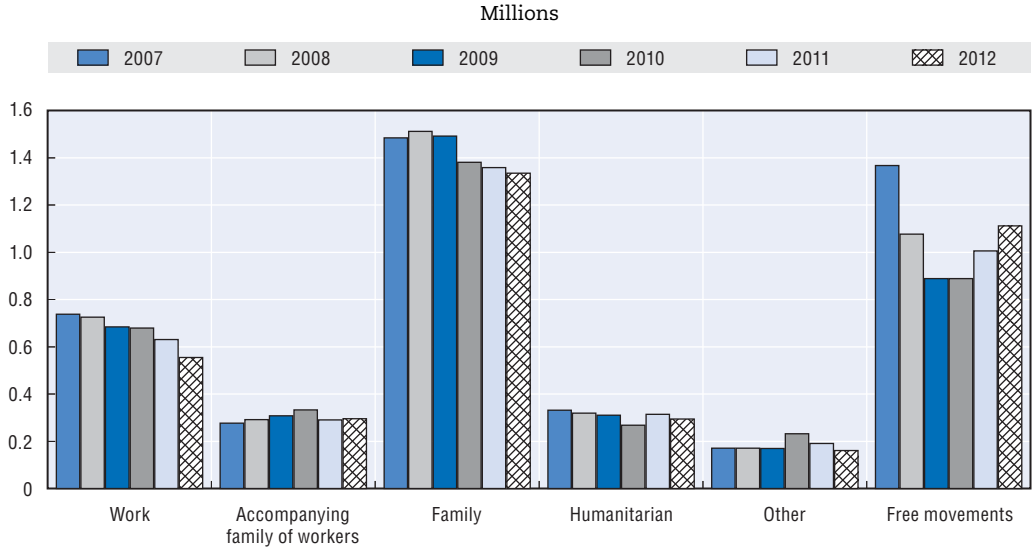
Note: The average refers to the countries presented.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Trends in the composition of migration flows

Family migration continues to account for the bulk of overall migration flows, despite an ongoing downward trend in this category since 2008 (Figure 1.2). In 2012, family migration dropped marginally (-1.7%) from 2011, mainly due to decreases in Spain, Italy, the United States and the United Kingdom. Family motives continue to account for the vast majority of migrant inflows into the United States, and are also the main category in France.

Figure 1.2. **Permanent immigration in OECD countries by category of entry, standardised statistics, 2007-12**



Note: Excludes the Czech Republic and the countries for which standardised data are not available (see Table 1.1).
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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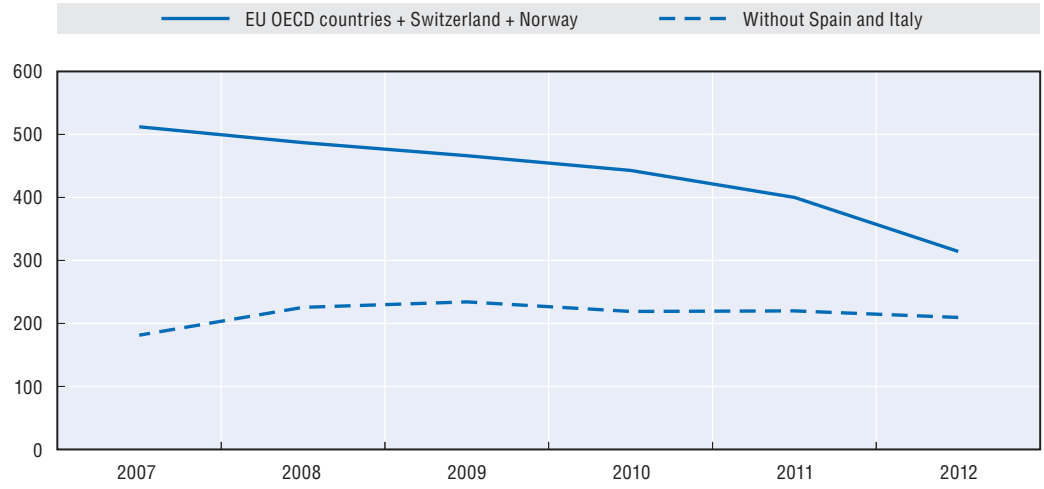
Labour migration has declined continuously since the economic downturn and fell by 12% in 2012. The fall in labour migration has been considerable, especially among European OECD countries, where it has fallen by almost 40% between 2007 and 2012 (Figure 1.3). This fall is largely driven by reduced inflows to Spain and Italy where economic conditions remain unfavourable. However, even excluding these two large receiving countries, the remaining European OECD countries have nonetheless observed a 10% decrease since 2009. Several countries experienced an increase in the number of labour migrants they received in 2012 including Australia and Canada where labour migrant inflows increased by 6%, as well as Japan which showed a sharp increase of 21%.

On average, there was little change in the number of family members accompanying workers. Interestingly, despite the reduced inflows of labour migration, family migrants accompanying workers represent the only group whose numbers stand at a level higher than they were in 2007.

The overall fall in labour migration, however, does not tell the full story of migration for employment, as substantial work-related migration occurs within the framework of free movement, as is the case in the EU. Over the past decade, several European OECD countries, such as the United Kingdom and the southern European countries, received a large number of migrant workers from third countries. However, when employment-related free movement flows are taken into consideration, the magnitude of migration for employment reasons is also

Figure 1.3. **Labour migration to Europe**

Thousands



Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157309

significant in a number of other European countries that receive little non-EU/EFTA labour migration (see Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3). This is the case in Austria, Germany, Ireland, Belgium and Denmark but also, and especially in the non-EU countries of Switzerland and Norway. In the traditional settlement countries of Canada, Australia and New Zealand, about 25% of inflows of permanent migrants are primary applicants under the economic, skill or employment channels.[3]

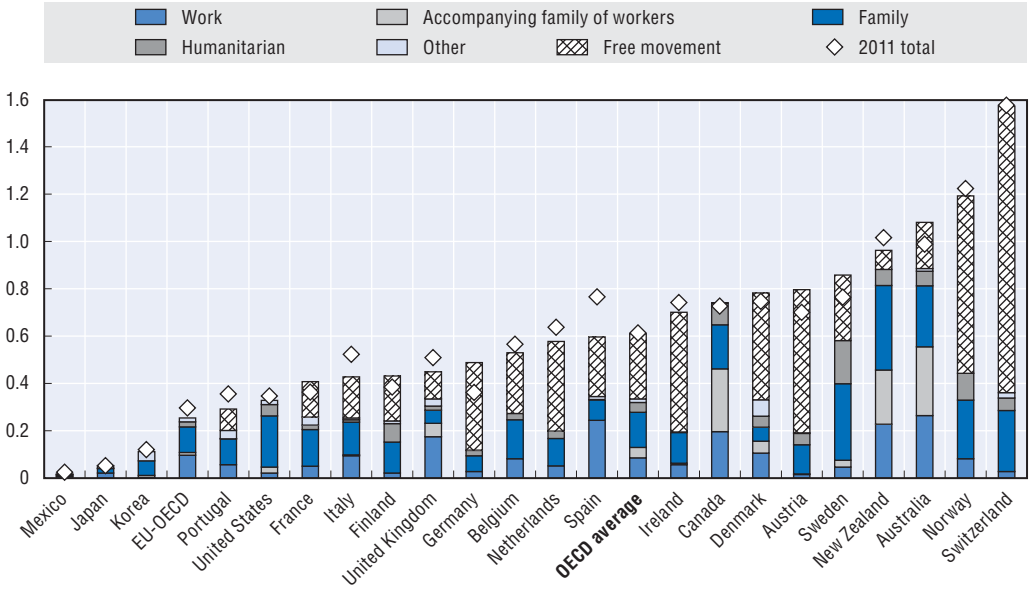
Mobility within the EU/EFTA zone greatly increased following the EU enlargements of 2004 and 2007. Furthermore, the expansion of the EU has added to labour markets' adjustment capacity and recent estimates suggest that as much as a quarter of the asymmetric labour market shock – that is occurring at different times and with different intensities across countries – may have been absorbed by migration within a year (Jauer et al., 2014).

The key driver of current inflows is the rebound, observed since 2010, in free-movement migration, with an increase of 12% in 2012. Much of this is driven by Germany, which has risen to become the single most important destination for free-mobility migrants. Within the EU/EFTA, Germany alone receives almost a third of all free-movement flows, followed by Spain and Italy. For several EU/EFTA countries, such as Switzerland, Austria, Germany, Ireland, and the Netherlands, free movement accounts for the vast majority, over two-thirds, of permanent inflows. Elsewhere, free movement of citizens between Australia and New Zealand under the Trans-Tasman Travel Agreement, sees Australia receiving more migrants than New Zealand.

Looking at migration flows relative to the total population, in 2012, OECD countries received on average about six permanent migrants for every thousand persons in the population (Figure 1.4). For some large countries such as Mexico and Japan, this figure remains low at less than one migrant per thousand, while for many countries in Europe as well, as in the settlement countries it is above the average. Switzerland, a large recipient of free movement flows, stands apart with almost 16 migrant entries per thousand population, followed by Norway.

Figure 1.4. **Permanent immigration by category of entry or of status change into selected OECD countries, 2012**

Percentage of the total population



Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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The EU/OECD (based on the countries for which data are available), taken as a whole – i.e. excluding intra-EU movements – received 2.5 permanent migrants per thousand population, while in the United States, this ratio stood at 3.2.

In 2012, humanitarian migration flows declined by 6% in the OECD area. This decrease was largely driven by decreases seen in the United States, Canada and the Netherlands. In contrast, Sweden witnessed its third consecutive rise in humanitarian migration absorbing 1 800 humanitarian migrants per million inhabitants. Norway and Canada also admitted a large number of humanitarian migrants, absorbing 1 150, and 920, humanitarian migrants per million inhabitants respectively – this is well above the OECD average of 455.[4] Humanitarian migrants in settlement countries are largely made up of resettled refugees. Indeed, settlement countries account for 68% of such flows into the OECD, with the remainder mostly going to Northern European OECD countries. However, when it comes to those migrants who obtained humanitarian status through the asylum channel, European OECD countries account for around three-quarters of the total, and the settlement countries account only for 16%.[5]

Temporary labour migration

Temporary labour migration is a much larger phenomenon than permanent labour migration and tends to reflect the prevailing economic conditions and short-term changes in demand for labour and skills. Flows, which had been rising through the 2000s, reached a high of 2.5 million in 2007 and have fallen since then. In 2012, such flows stood at just 75% of their 2007 peak; they fell by 4.4% in 2012 (Table 1.2).[6] The sharp decline in the number of seasonal workers is mainly due to the end of the registration of seasonal workers from the new EU member states in the temporary labour migration statistics.

Table 1.2. **Temporary-type labour migration, by category, 2007-12**

		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2012/11	2012/07	2012/07
		Thousands						Change (%)		Index = 100 in 2007
Intra-company transfers	OECD total	110	117	106	124	130	126	-3	15	115
	United States	85	84	65	75	71	62	-12	-26	74
	United Kingdom	..	..	13	18	21	23	8	72	172
	Canada	9	10	10	14	13	14	..	47	147
	Australia	..	7	6	4	8	10	23	46	146
	Germany	5	6	4	6	7	7	2	33	133
Seasonal workers	OECD total	571	577	520	505	356	203	-43	-64	36
	United States	51	64	60	56	55	65	18	29	129
	Canada	23	28	23	24	25	25	4	13	113
	Mexico	28	23	31	29	28	23	-16	-16	84
	Finland	14	12	13	12	12	14	17	..	100
	Belgium	17	20	5	6	6	10	60	-39	61
Trainees	OECD total	164	146	114	108	114	117	2	-29	71
	Japan	102	102	80	78	82	86	4	-16	84
	Korea	14	14	11	12	13	12	-8	-14	86
	Germany	5	5	5	5	5	4	-17	-15	85
	Australia	6	5	5	4	3	4	10	-40	60
	United States	3	3	2	2	2	3	39	-5	95
Working holiday makers	OECD total	397	431	423	419	414	435	5	10	110
	Australia	135	154	188	176	185	215	16	59	159
	United States	148	153	116	118	98	80	-18	-46	54
	Canada	32	41	45	50	55	59	8	82	182
	New Zealand	36	40	41	45	45	51	13	43	143
	United Kingdom	39	35	25	21	21	20	-5	-50	50
Other temporary workers	OECD total	1 285	1 234	928	913	945	992	5	-23	77
Total		**2 526**	**2 505**	**2 091**	**2 069**	**1 958**	**1 873**	**-4**	**-26**	**74**

Note: The table includes all the countries for which standardised data are available (see Table 1.1) except the Czech Republic.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157785

The situation in 2012 compared with previous years shows some shifts across entry categories as well as within countries. The Working Holiday Schemes (WHSs) – more established in the traditional settlement countries – have the primary objective of fostering cultural connections and international goodwill by providing short-term work for young people. The settlement countries account for the bulk of these young global holiday makers – around 90% between 2007-12 – with the remainder going largely to the United Kingdom and Japan. The flows of WHS workers have increased by 10% (38 000) from 2007, however, more than half of this increase is driven by increased WHS flows to Australia. Over the same period, an increase of 82% was observed in Canada and of 43% in New Zealand. In contrast, the United States – the main destination country in this category in 2007 – has experienced a decrease in the number of WHS entries from 148 000 in 2007 to 80 000 in 2012.[7]

Seasonal workers, who numbered over half a million in 2007, have fallen by 64% between 2007 and 2012. The main reason behind this substantial drop is the fact that seasonal workers from new EU countries no longer require a permit to work in EU countries (in particular Germany). Further, two of those countries that, previously, received large numbers of seasonal labour migrants from outside of the EU – Italy and Spain – now each receive less than 10 000 annually. In other OECD countries, seasonal worker flows were stable.

Intra-company transfers (ICTs) have increased by 15% since 2007, indicating sustained global business demand for specific skills. The United States continues to be the major destination for such transfer workers, although the number of entries declined slightly in 2012. Europe has seen approximately 16 500 ICT entries in 2012 – corresponding to about 4% of temporary migrant workers. In 2014, the EU adopted a council directive (2010/0209) that aims, among other objectives, at facilitating the temporary assignment of highly-skilled employees of international companies to subsidiaries situated in the EU. The United Kingdom, which is one of the main destinations for ICT workers, did not opt into the EU directive.

Asylum seeking

In 2013, 556 000 persons sought asylum in the OECD, a 20% increase from the previous year (Table 1.3). This growth in the numbers of asylum seekers stems mostly from the continuing situation in Syria. Not surprisingly Syria, with 47 800 asylum seekers, overtook Afghanistan (34 500) as the major country of origin of asylum seekers. At the same time, the number of asylum seekers from the Russian Federation, Iraq, Afghanistan and Serbia (and Kosovo) has increased considerably, and levels originating from these countries now reach approximately 35-40 000 each.

Germany has emerged as the world's largest single recipient of new asylum claims and, in 2013, recorded its sixth consecutive annual increase. The main origin countries of asylum seekers in Germany were the Russian Federation, Serbia (and Kosovo) and Syria. Following Germany, the United States, France, Sweden and Turkey also received a large number of asylum seekers. The number of asylum seekers has increased substantially in Turkey as a result of the arrival of asylum seekers from Iraq, Afghanistan and Iran. Hungary also saw significant increase in the number of asylum seekers, recording 18 900 asylum applications in 2013, eight times as many as in 2012. Most of these were from Serbia (and Kosovo), Pakistan and Afghanistan.

When comparing asylum inflows on a per capita basis, all major receiving countries are in Europe, namely Sweden, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Austria, Norway and Denmark. Sweden – with about 5 700 asylum seekers per million of the population – hosts the most asylum seekers on a per capita basis, with most asylum seekers coming from Syria, Eritrea and Somalia. While typically the smaller countries have had the highest per capita asylum flows, two large countries – Germany (1 340) and France (950) – host more than the OECD average of 830 asylum seekers per million inhabitants.

Preliminary data for the first five months of 2014 suggest that some of the countries receiving the largest numbers of asylum seekers are receiving substantially more asylum seekers than in the same period the previous year. Much of this is due to the conflict in Syria which started in 2011. During this 5-month period, Germany has received 53 600 (about 20% of whom are from Syria), followed by the United States (30 560), France (24 400), Sweden (23 800), and Turkey (19 300). Syria now accounts for about 15% of asylum flows directed to the OECD (Figure 1.5).

International students

Movements of international students continue to attract policy attention in many OECD countries, and represent a growing source of skilled labour migration. Indeed, in contrast to both permanent migration and temporary labour migration, international mobility of students has been steadily increasing since 2000 (Figure 1.6). Worldwide, the

Table 1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by country of destination, 2009-13**

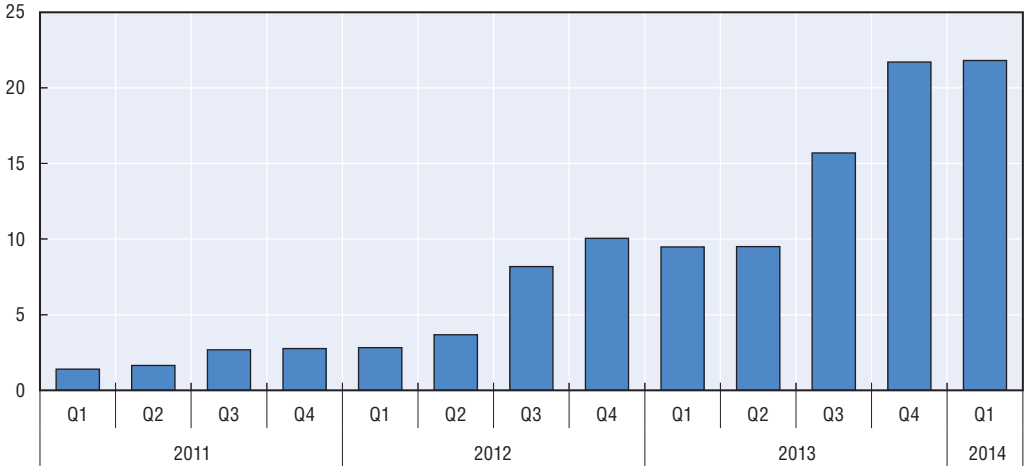
	Average 2009-12	2012	2013	Absolute change 2012-13	% change 2012-13	Asylum seekers per million population (2013)	Permanent humanitarian migrants per million population (2012)	Top three countries of origin of the asylum seekers (2013)
Germany	44 815	64 540	109 580	45 040	70	1 337	221	The Russian Federation, Serbia (and Kosovo), Syria
United States	51 935	66 100	68 240	2 140	3	217	480	China, Mexico, El Salvador
France	49 352	55 070	60 230	5 160	9	948	188	Serbia (and Kosovo), the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Albania
Sweden	32 385	43 880	54 260	10 380	24	5 700	1 823	Syria, Eritrea, Somalia
Turkey	14 888	26 470	44 810	18 340	69	596	..	Iraq, Afghanistan, Iran
United Kingdom	26 799	27 980	29 400	1 420	5	461	179	Pakistan, Iran, Sri Lanka
Italy	19 781	17 350	25 720	8 370	48	432	101	Pakistan, Nigeria, Somalia
Switzerland	18 728	25 950	19 440	-6 510	-25	2 457	532	Eritrea, Syria, Nigeria
Hungary	2 657	2 160	18 570	16 410	760	1 871	..	Serbia (and Kosovo), Pakistan, Afghanistan
Austria	14 666	17 410	17 500	90	1	2 076	485	The Russian Federation, Afghanistan, Syria
Netherlands	12 373	9 660	14 400	4 740	49	859	638	Somalia, Syria, Iraq
Poland	7 844	9 170	13 760	4 590	50	357	..	The Russian Federation, Georgia, Syria
Belgium	20 867	18 530	12 500	-6 030	-33	1 123	273	The Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea, Syria
Australia	10 436	15 790	11 740	-4 050	-26	517	605	China, India, Pakistan
Norway	11 532	9 790	11 470	1 680	17	2 285	1 141	Eritrea, Somalia, Syria
Canada	25 430	20 220	10 360	-9 860	-49	297	917	China, Pakistan, Colombia
Greece	11 272	9 580	8 220	-1 360	-14	742	..	Pakistan, Afghanistan, Bangladesh
Denmark	4 695	6 190	7 560	1 370	22	1 351	462	Syria, the Russian Federation, Somalia
Spain	2 936	2 580	4 510	1 930	75	98	11	Mali, Syria, Algeria
Japan	1 751	2 550	3 260	710	28	26	1	Turkey, Nepal, Myanmar
Finland	3 984	2 920	3 020	100	3	558	774	Iraq, the Russian Federation, Nigeria
Israel	2 500	2 000	..	..	..	253	..	Côte d'Ivoire, South Sudan, Eritrea
Korea	726	1 140	1 570	430	38	31	..	Syria, Pakistan, Nigeria
Mexico	821	810	1 300	490	60	11	3	Honduras, El Salvador, Cuba
Luxembourg	1 325	2 000	990	-1 010	-51	1 863	..	Serbia (and Kosovo), Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro
Ireland	1 715	940	940	0	0	205	24	Nigeria, Pakistan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo
Portugal	218	300	510	210	70	48	5	Syria, Guinea, Nigeria
Czech Republic	961	750	500	-250	-33	48	..	Syria, Ukraine, the Russian Federation
New Zealand	326	320	290	-30	-9	65	692	Sri Lanka, Fiji, Iran
Slovak Republic	647	730	280	-450	-62	52	..	Afghanistan, Somalia, Eritrea
Chile	183	170	250	80	47	14	..	Colombia, Syria
Slovenia	277	310	240	-70	-23	118	..	Syria, Serbia (and Kosovo), Pakistan
Iceland	69	110	170	60	55	539	..	Croatia, Albania, Iraq
Estonia	53	80	100	20	25	73	..	Viet Nam, Syria, the Russian Federation
OECD total	**396 444**	**461 530**	**555 690**	**94 140**	**20**	**830**	**455**	**Syria, the Russian Federation, Iraq**
Selected non-OECD countries								
Bulgaria	1 000	1 230	6 980	5 750	467	966	..	Syria, Algeria, Afghanistan
Malta	1 613	2 060	2 200	140	7	5 135	..	Somalia, Eritrea, Syria
Romania	1 574	2 510	1 500	-1 010	-40	69	..	Syria, Iraq, Pakistan
Lithuania	379	530	280	-250	-47	91	..	Georgia, Afghanistan, the Russian Federation
Latvia	159	190	190	0	0	90	..	Georgia, Syria, the Russian Federation

Note: Figures for the United States refer to "affirmative" claims submitted with the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases) and "defensive" claims submitted to the Executive Office for Immigration Review (number of individuals).
Source: UNHCR.

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Figure 1.5. **New Syrian asylum seekers in 44 industrialised countries by quarter, 2011-14**

Thousands



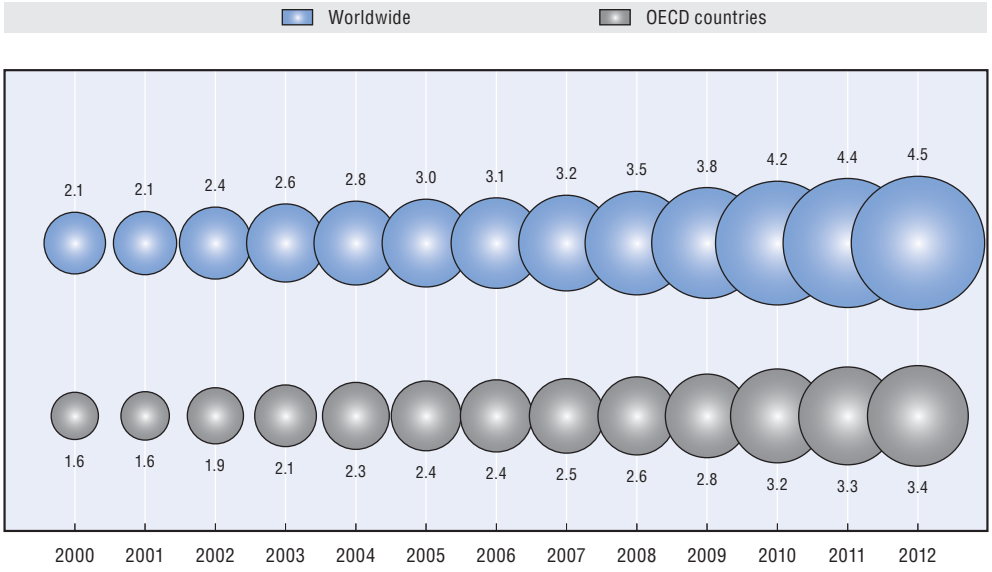
Note: The 44 countries are the 28 member states of the EU, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, Norway, Serbia (and Kosovo), Switzerland, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), Turkey, Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Korea and the United States. This group of 44 countries received an estimated 612 700 new asylum applications in 2013.

Source: UNHCR.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157329

Figure 1.6. **Foreign students worldwide and in OECD countries, 2000-12**

Millions



Note: Note that Figure 1.6 refers to foreign students, that is, students of foreign nationality, which is not necessarily the same as international students who are defined as students who are those who left their country of origin and moved to another country to study. Unfortunately, data on international students are not available for most countries before 2008.

Source: OECD, *Education Database*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157337

number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has more than doubled since 2000, reaching 4.5 million in 2012. The share of those enrolled in an OECD country remained relatively stable and stood at 75% in 2012.

However, the pace of growth seems to be slowing down. The number of international students in OECD countries increased by only 3% in 2012 (Table 1.4), in comparison with average annual growth rates of 8% between 2000 and 2005, and 6% between 2005 and 2011.

Table 1.4. **International tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2012**

	International/foreign students				Foreign students			
	Category	2012	Change from 2011 (%)	Share in total tertiary enrolment 2012 (%)	Market share 2012 (%)	Difference with 2000 (% points)	Share of students from OECD countries 2012 (%)	Difference with 2004 (% points)
Australia	International	249 588	-5.0	18.3	5.5	0.45	12.6	-0.6
Austria	International	58 019	9.4	15.4	1.7	0.24	72.5	3.9
Belgium	International	42 926	13.4	9.0	1.2	-0.62	67.6	7.8
Canada	International	120 960	13.8	8.2	4.9	0.37	24.1	0.3
Chile	International	3 461	17.8	0.3	0.3	0.11	10.1	10.1
Czech Republic	Foreign	39 455	3.7	9.0	0.9	0.61	73.1	9.3
Denmark	International	22 363	10.4	8.1	0.7	0.10	62.7	2.1
Estonia	International	1 573	10.0	2.3	0.1	0.02	37.6	..
Finland	International	15 636	10.7	5.1	0.4	0.12	27.9	-12.3
France	Foreign	271 399	1.2	11.8	6.0	-0.57	23.3	-0.9
Germany	International	184 594	4.5	..	6.3	-2.61	47.5	1.0
Greece	Foreign	29 012	-11.6	4.4	0.6	0.23	6.2	3.6
Hungary	International	17 520	6.4	4.6	0.4	-0.03	53.7	5.7
Iceland	International	971	-11.6	5.1	0.0	0.01	80.3	10.6
Ireland	International	11 100	-12.6	5.8	0.6	0.26	52.6	..
Israel	Foreign	4 506	14.2	1.2	0.1	..	86.0	..
Italy	Foreign	77 732	5.8	4.0	1.7	0.52	20.5	-20.3
Japan	International	136 215	-1.7	3.5	3.3	0.14	19.7	-3.6
Korea	Foreign	59 472	-5.1	1.8	1.3	1.15	5.8	-9.9
Luxembourg	International	2 468	10.9	40.6	0.1	0.04	80.3	..
Mexico	Foreign	..	..	..	0.0	-0.07	..	..
Netherlands	International	57 509	49.9	7.2	1.4	0.71	71.6	11.2
New Zealand	International	40 994	0.3	15.8	1.6	1.22	31.4	11.1
Norway	International	3 956	16.1	1.7	0.4	-0.01	49.1	-4.3
Poland	International	23 525	13.6	1.2	0.6	0.28	36.0	9.1
Portugal	International	18 525	38.7	4.7	0.6	0.10	32.1	12.3
Slovak Republic	International	9 059	3.6	4.1	0.2	0.13	84.7	30.8
Slovenia	International	2 357	19.3	2.3	0.1	0.04	14.9	..
Spain	International	55 759	-11.0	2.8	2.2	0.21	34.7	-2.8
Sweden	International	28 629	-21.6	6.3	0.9	-0.29	43.2	-30.3
Switzerland	International	44 468	6.4	16.5	1.4	0.17	70.9	-2.8
Turkey	Foreign	38 590	24.0	0.9	0.9	0.01	14.5	-0.8
United Kingdom	International	427 686	1.8	17.1	12.6	1.88	37.3	-7.3
United States	International	740 475	4.4	3.5	16.4	-6.41	28.0	-8.3
OECD		**2 840 502**	**3.1**	**7.6**	**75.4**	**-1.52**	**33.6**	**-2.2**

Source: OECD, *Education Database*.

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Where the Netherlands, Portugal and Turkey observed considerable increase of their international student population in 2012, the number in Sweden declined by more than 20%. And, while it remains a large destination country for international students, the number studying in Australia also declined by 5%. In contrast, the number of international students studying in Canada and the United States increased by 14% and 4% respectively and France and the United Kingdom also saw increases, of 1.2% and 1.8%, respectively.

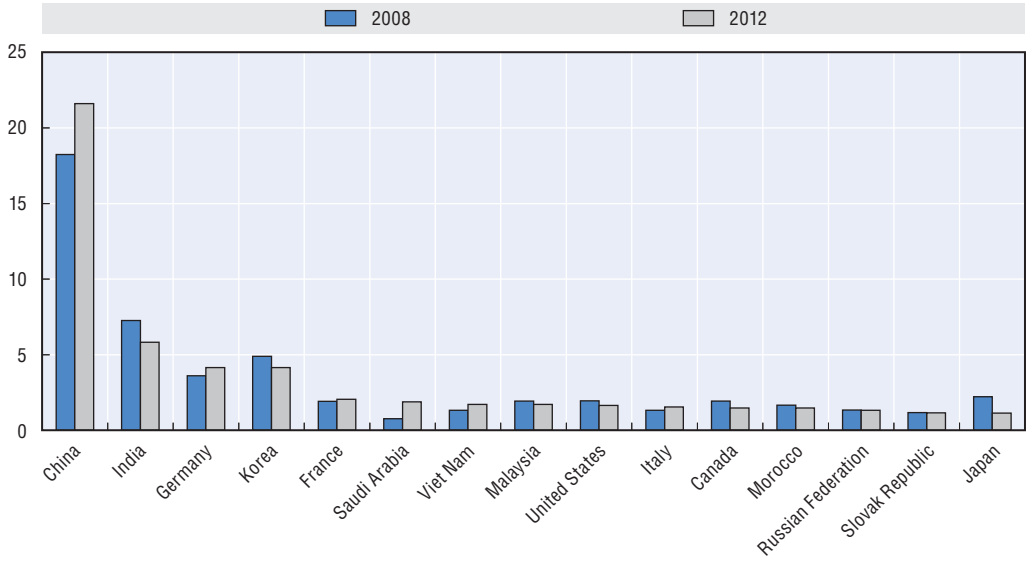
In spite of the increase in international students studying in the United States, its share in the global market for international tertiary education has dropped significantly since 2000 – standing at just 16% in 2012. Nevertheless, the United States, followed by the United Kingdom, continues to be the most popular destination for international students. Apart from the United States, all English-speaking OECD countries and Spain have increased their global market share, whereas that of France, Germany and Japan has declined.

International students account, on average, for around 8% of all tertiary students in OECD countries. This share varies widely, ranging from 1% in Poland to over 40% in Luxembourg. International students represent between 15% and 20% of the overall student population in Australia, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, New Zealand and Austria.

More than half of international students in OECD countries come from Asia. China now represents 22% of all international students in OECD countries, up 4 percentage points from 2008 (Figure 1.7). India remains the second main origin country though its share has declined to under 6%. Saudi Arabia on the other hand, has seen its contribution to the international student population double in four years and, in 2012, had more than 50 000 citizens studying in OECD countries – more than half of them in the United States. The main non-Asian countries sending international students are Germany and France. Overall, 30% of all international students in OECD countries are from another OECD country. This proportion remains virtually unchanged since 2008.

Figure 1.7. **Main countries of origin of the international students in tertiary education of OECD countries, 2008 and 2012**

Percentages



Source: OECD, *Education Database*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157349

Origin country of international migrants

Turning to the origin of all international migrants to the OECD, China remains the country sending the largest number of international migrants. With a little over half a million emigrants, China contributed 9.6% of all flows in 2012 (Table 1.5). As almost every fifth person in the world is a Chinese, it is thus still underrepresented among migration flows to the OECD. India, the second most populated country, accounts for a much smaller percentage than China in total migration flows to the OECD (4.3%). This percentage goes down to 2.3% in the case of the United States, the third most populated country.

Table 1.5. **Immigration into OECD countries, top 50 countries of origin, 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2012**

Origin country	Immigration into OECD countries (thousands)				% of total OECD inflows 2012	% of total world population 2011	Difference (percentage points)	Expatration rate (per million population) 2012
	2007	2009	2011	2012				
China	520	463	531	507	9.6	19.4	-9.9	375
Romania	557	274	310	294	5.6	0.3	5.2	14 664
Poland	**339**	**221**	**277**	**284**	**5.4**	**0.6**	**4.8**	**7 372**
India	213	229	243	228	4.3	17.7	-13.4	184
Mexico	**164**	**180**	**162**	**166**	**3.1**	**1.6**	**1.5**	**1 372**
Philippines	169	164	161	159	3.0	1.3	1.7	1 648
United States	**117**	**133**	**137**	**123**	**2.3**	**4.5**	**-2.2**	**393**
United Kingdom	**149**	**129**	**108**	**111**	**2.1**	**0.9**	**1.2**	**1 739**
Germany	**150**	**126**	**116**	**106**	**2.0**	**1.2**	**0.8**	**1 313**
Bulgaria	87	67	98	101	1.9	0.1	1.8	13 857
Italy	**66**	**73**	**85**	**99**	**1.9**	**0.9**	**1.0**	**1 668**
France	**82**	**93**	**96**	**97**	**1.8**	**0.9**	**0.9**	**1 475**
Morocco	152	143	112	96	1.8	0.5	1.4	2 965
Viet Nam	89	77	95	94	1.8	1.3	0.5	1 054
Hungary	**37**	**43**	**68**	**87**	**1.6**	**0.1**	**1.5**	**8 788**
Pakistan	75	77	106	86	1.6	2.5	-0.9	479
Russian Federation	68	68	71	77	1.4	2.1	-0.6	536
Spain	**24**	**40**	**52**	**75**	**1.4**	**0.7**	**0.8**	**1 609**
Korea	**72**	**79**	**71**	**70**	**1.3**	**0.7**	**0.6**	**1 408**
Peru	110	78	68	69	1.3	0.4	0.9	2 311
Brazil	108	84	69	66	1.2	2.8	-1.6	331
Colombia	89	72	68	65	1.2	0.7	0.6	1 368
Ukraine	110	81	68	64	1.2	0.7	0.5	1 405
Dominican Republic	50	66	65	63	1.2	0.1	1.0	6 096
Portugal	**60**	**43**	**50**	**60**	**1.1**	**0.2**	**1.0**	**5 730**
Turkey	**60**	**64**	**63**	**60**	**1.1**	**1.1**	**0.1**	**805**
Thailand	48	47	53	59	1.1	1.0	0.1	877
New Zealand	**42**	**43**	**44**	**54**	**1.0**	**0.1**	**1.0**	**12 138**
Greece	**14**	**15**	**39**	**52**	**1.0**	**0.2**	**0.8**	**4 683**
Cuba	45	53	51	46	0.9	0.2	0.7	4 094
Iran	28	44	45	45	0.8	1.1	-0.2	587
Nigeria	38	46	39	44	0.8	2.3	-1.5	260
Iraq	33	49	48	43	0.8	0.5	0.4	1 323
Canada	**35**	**37**	**43**	**42**	**0.8**	**0.5**	**0.3**	**1 205**
Bangladesh	35	51	50	42	0.8	2.2	-1.4	270
Algeria	43	42	39	40	0.8	0.5	0.2	1 038
Serbia	27	27	33	39	0.7	0.1	0.6	5 354
Albania	66	71	39	37	0.7	0.0	0.6	13 179

Table 1.5. **Immigration into OECD countries, top 50 countries of origin, 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2012** *(cont.)*

Origin country	Immigration into OECD countries (thousands)				% of total OECD inflows 2012	% of total world population 2011	Difference (percentage points)	Expatration rate (per million population) 2012
	2007	2009	2011	2012				
Japan	**32**	**36**	**34**	**36**	**0.7**	**1.8**	**-1.2**	**280**
Egypt	25	28	32	35	0.7	1.2	-0.5	431
Lithuania	15	16	44	34	0.7	0.0	0.6	11 545
Netherlands	**40**	**33**	**33**	**34**	**0.6**	**0.2**	**0.4**	**2 049**
Sri Lanka	21	34	36	34	0.6	0.3	0.3	1 675
Haiti	35	30	33	34	0.6	0.1	0.5	3 340
Nepal	17	23	30	33	0.6	0.4	0.2	1 211
Slovak Republic	**36**	**26**	**31**	**33**	**0.6**	**0.1**	**0.5**	**6 099**
Afghanistan	12	19	29	32	0.6	0.5	0.1	1 067
Australia	**32**	**26**	**28**	**31**	**0.6**	**0.3**	**0.3**	**1 363**
Indonesia	27	22	29	30	0.6	3.5	-2.9	123
Myanmar	10	23	24	27	0.5	0.8	-0.2	520
All origin countries	**5 908**	**5 293**	**5 401**	**5 422**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**..**	
All OECD origin countries	**1 708**	**1 601**	**1 722**	**1 808**	**33.4**	**17.9**	**15.5**	
All Non-OECD origin countries	**4 200**	**3 692**	**3 678**	**3 613**	**66.6**	**34.1**	**32.6**	
All EU origin countries	**1 787**	**1 344**	**1 591**	**1 653**	**30.5**	**7.2**	**23.2**	

Note: Destination country data are not comparable across countries and may include more short-term movements for some countries than for others. Results should therefore be interpreted with caution. Countries in bold are OECD countries.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157810

Romania and Poland, with emigration rates to the OECD of 1.5% and 0.7%, became, respectively, the second and third most important countries of origin of migrants to the OECD. Relative to their population, flows to OECD countries from these countries are thus more than 20 times larger than flows from India and China. Bulgaria replaced Morocco among the top ten origin countries of new flows in 2012. However, aside from this, the list of the top ten origin countries has seen little variation since 2000.

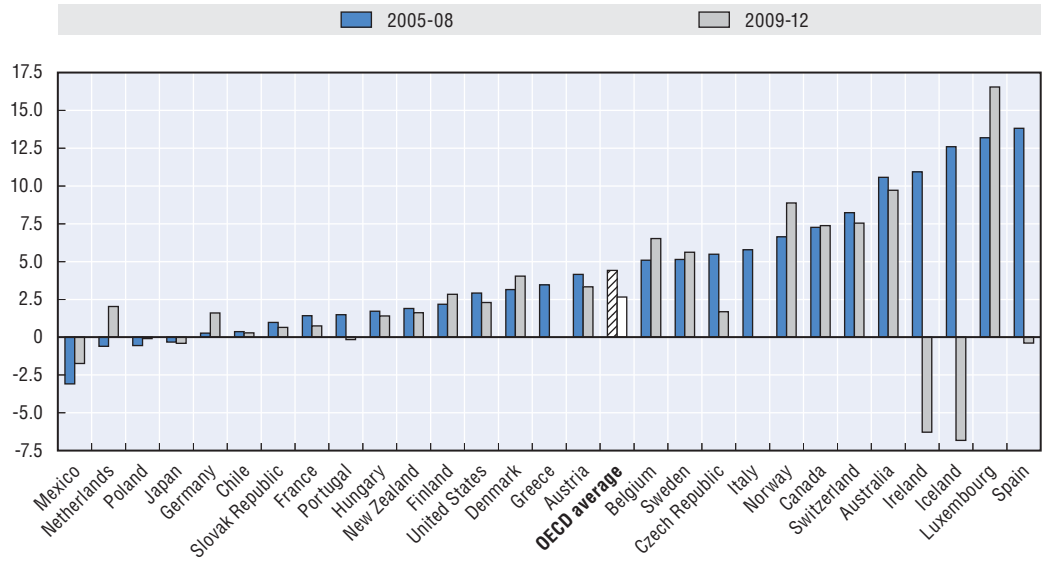
The countries included in Table 1.5 with the highest emigration rates are typically medium size countries, such as Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and New Zealand. Emigration rates from these countries range from 0.7% to 1.5%. What distinguishes these countries from other, smaller, countries with high emigration such as Albania, the Dominican Republic and Cuba, is that the vast majority of their outflows are linked to free movement. Romania and Poland have more or less tripled their outflows since 2000, following their accession to the EU.

Net migration

Net migration among OECD countries remains positive, with the exception of Iceland, Ireland, Mexico, Japan, Poland, Portugal and Spain. However, reflecting the economic conditions since the global slowdown, average net migration has almost halved in recent years – from 4.4 persons per thousand in 2005-08 to 2.6 persons per thousand in 2009-12 (Figure 1.8).

Figure 1.8. **Average annual net migration rates, 2005-08 and 2009-12**

Per thousand population



Note: When 2012 data was not available, the 2009-12 average refers to the average from 2009 to the most recent available year.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157350

Increases in net migration between these two periods have been particularly strong in the Netherlands, Germany, Finland, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Luxembourg. Luxembourg, experiencing one of the fastest rates of population growth, records very high net migration rates: 16 persons per thousand population per year. Germany, now the second most important destination for permanent migration in the OECD, saw its net migration increase from close to zero in 2005-08 to 370 000 in 2012.

Migration has a negative contribution to the demographic growth in Mexico, Poland and Japan. The former two, as a consequence of being next to a large prosperous neighbour or within a free movement area are characterised by relatively large emigration flows. But both countries have seen the magnitude of migration-related population losses reduce, with fewer migrants leaving and more coming. Iceland and Ireland also have a negative net migration rate of around 0.6%; this largely reflects the impact of the global economic crisis. Some southern European countries (Greece, Portugal and Spain), whose inflows have been consistently decreasing since the financial crisis, now have negative net migration, or net migration close to zero.

Notes

1. Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States.
2. These preliminary results are to be taken with caution, as they are based on partial data, and/or estimations for a number of countries. Preliminary data or estimates based on partial data for 2013 are available for 21 countries representing 93% of the migration flows to the OECD area.
3. For more information on the labour component of free-movement migration, please refer to Chapter 3.

4. Australia's total number of visas granted in 2012-13 under the offshore resettlement component of the programme rose by 87% on the previous year to 12 500. A further 7 500 visa grants were made under the onshore protection component for asylum seekers.
5. Note that there is generally a time-lag between asylum seeking and the status grant of a humanitarian migrant. The rising inflows of asylum seekers to European OECD countries in 2012 may induce an increase in humanitarian migration in the following years.
6. Assuming there was no change in numbers in the countries for which full 2012 data are not available. Countries covered are those for which permit data are available (see Table 1.1) except the Czech Republic.
7. The reduction in the United States coincides with policy changes aimed at tightening procedures to ensure programme integrity and reduce impact on domestic workers as well as increase protection of participants.

Chapter 2

Labour market integration of immigrants and their children: Developing, activating and using skills[1]

Immigrants now account for more than 115 million people in the OECD, which represents almost 10% of the total population. Their share has increased in virtually all OECD countries over the past decade, and children of immigrants are also entering the labour market in growing numbers. Against this backdrop, the integration of immigrants and their offspring has become a prime policy objective for OECD countries, and a vast array of different integration policies have been adopted over the past fifteen years. Among the various challenges for integration, perhaps the most important one is releasing the full skills potential of immigrants and their offspring. Skills of immigrants that are not used represent a wasted resource at a time when economies are increasingly less able to afford such waste, and may also impact negatively on social cohesion.

The chapter takes stock of the broad issues involved in the labour market integration of immigrants and their offspring from a human capital perspective, as well as of the policies at hand to free their full skills potential through the identification and utilisation, the activation, and the development of their skills. It builds on the extensive work of the OECD on integration issues, together with new evidence. The chapter first identifies the main issues involved, followed by a discussion of the instruments and policies in OECD countries along the three pillars identified by the OECD Skills Strategy – namely using, developing and activating skills.

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.

Key policy findings

Immigrants make up a growing share of the workforce in nearly all OECD countries.

There are now 115 million immigrants in the OECD, about 10% of the total population. They entered for a wide variety of reasons, ranging from labour, humanitarian, and family-reunification to immigrants who benefited from mobility within free movement zones. While the share of immigrants has grown in all OECD countries – save Estonia and Israel – the size of populations varies from over 25% of the total population in Australia, Luxembourg, and Switzerland to less than 2% in the Asian and Latin American OECD countries, as well as in most Central and Eastern European OECD countries. However, a number of them with small immigrant populations – like the Central and Eastern European Countries and Korea – are preparing themselves for larger inflows. Others meanwhile, e.g. Southern European countries, have only recently become large-scale immigration destinations.

New challenges are emerging related to the children of immigrants,…

In many countries, particularly in Europe, children of immigrants are entering the labour market in greater numbers. In 2012, about 12.5% of all 15-year-olds had two foreign-born parents – 50% more than a decade earlier. Their integration, particularly those whose parents are low-educated, is a growing concern.

… the impact of the crisis…

Countries, particularly in Southern Europe, which experienced large inflows of low-skilled labour migration, are grappling with the pressing concerns of the crisis and the long-term employability of lesser-skilled immigrants. Indeed, the crisis hit immigrants disproportionately hard and, of the additional 15 million unemployed in the OECD since 2007, about 3 million, i.e. about one in five, are foreign-born.

… and the integration of highly educated immigrants.

Immigrants are also overrepresented at the other end of the qualification scale, and the number of highly educated has grown by 70% over the past decade. Robust efforts are being made to make better use of their qualifications. This is a key issue in the OECD countries that were settled by immigration and host many highly educated immigrants, such as

Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. It is also an emerging topic in the United States and in European OECD countries. Countries with limited inflows until now, however, are only just starting to consider how to integrate immigrants into the labour market and society.

The growing diversity of the immigrant population poses additional challenges.

Over the past two decades, as immigration flows have become more diverse across the OECD, integration has become a greater challenge. That diversity applies not only to immigrants' countries of origin and destination, but to their education levels and the categories to which they belong – labour, free movement, family reunification, and humanitarian. Migration category is the single largest determinant of integration outcomes: while integration is more or less immediate for labour immigrants, this is not the case for humanitarian and family immigrants. These two groups struggle with labour market integration in all countries. The different categories that make up immigrant populations account for most of the cross-country differences in labour market outcomes. And even within the different categories, there are wide disparities. While many humanitarian migrants, for example, are tertiary-educated, a significant proportion also lacks basic qualifications. Moreover, there are specific issues for immigrant women. Many arrive in a host country for family reasons and, in comparison with immigrant men, are much less likely to be in employment than their native-born peers.

The majority of immigrants are employed…

In spite of such diversity, however, most immigrants are in work. On average, the employment rates of low-educated immigrants are actually higher than those of their native-born peers – although households headed by such immigrants are twice as likely to suffer from in-work poverty. In contrast, highly educated immigrants show lower employment rates than their native-born counterparts in virtually all OECD countries. And, even when they are employed, they are 47% more likely to be in jobs for which they are formally over-qualified.

… but their potential is underutilised.

As a result, labour markets fail to utilise much of the potential that immigrants offer. Qualifications and work experience from abroad, particularly non-OECD countries, are widely undervalued. One reason is that immigrants often acquire their work experience in different languages and labour markets, and obtain qualifications in education systems that may perform less effectively than the host country's. There are implications for the transferability of skills and their value in the host-country labour market, and employers have trouble judging them.

Unlocking the skills potential of immigrants is one of the most important issues in integration.

The underutilisation of immigrants' skills is a waste of resources that OECD countries can scarcely afford. Using them effectively is important if immigrants are to feel part of the host-country society. Making use of their skills matters, too, for social cohesion and for the acceptance of future migration by the host-country society. Effective labour market integration has important spill-overs: it improves language learning, for example, and enables immigrants to contribute to society at large in their host countries.

Even the children of immigrants face barriers, which extend beyond the education system.

While it might be difficult to assess the skills that immigrants have acquired abroad, the issue should not arise when it comes to their children who have been raised and educated in the host country. Their outcomes are widely considered an integration "benchmark", yet they, too, are often lower than those of natives' children. This holds not only regarding education outcomes, but even for labour market outcomes at given education and skills levels. Yet, there is also evidence that education is a powerful driver in the labour market integration of the children of immigrants – more so than for the children of the native-born.

This is due to a mix of factors such as few contacts and little knowledge of how the labour market functions.

Immigrant offspring's relatively low outcomes in the labour market relate to a series of obstacles to full integration. They include: little contact with employers, limited access to the networks through which many vacancies are filled, or merely a lack of knowledge about the way the host-country labour market functions. For example, job application covering letters and CVs tend to be highly country-specific. Mentorship programmes, such as the large-scale programmes in Canada, Denmark, and France tackle those obstacles and have met with some success.

A further, often underestimated, factor is discrimination. Immigrants make particular efforts to compensate for that challenge.

Discrimination against immigrants in the labour market is a serious issue in most countries. While it is generally difficult to clearly assess, one clear way to measure its extent is to examine how the labour market treats CVs that are fully equivalent to those of native-born applicants – except for the name which indicates a migration background. Studies have revealed a high incidence of discrimination in all 17 OECD countries in which these were carried out. It is not uncommon that, to get an interview, candidates with an immigrant-sounding name have to submit twice as many applications as people who have similar qualifications and experience but a name with a native ring to it. To compensate for this disadvantage, immigrants and their offspring work disproportionately hard to find a job.

The starting point for integration is to make sure that immigrants' skills are identified through recognition and validation procedures which, however, are often lacking.

To integrate adult immigrants, the point of departure is to take stock of their qualifications and skills. This first step should be designed into integration programmes which should themselves be tailored to specific needs. The available evidence suggests that credential recognition procedures which convert foreign degrees into their host-country equivalents are highly valued by employers and are associated with better labour-market outcomes. Yet, few immigrants seek to have their qualifications recognised. One reason is the lack of transparency surrounding the procedures and the large number of actors involved, particularly in heavy-regulated professions. Recent reforms in several OECD countries have sought to respond by putting in place contact points that inform applicants and, ideally, pass on their applications directly to those in charge of the recognition process. A much broader issue than the recognition of formal qualifications is the validation of skills – acquired both formally and informally. It is a measure from which immigrants would be expected to benefit disproportionately, yet they are under-represented among those who have their skills evaluated.

Immigrants with foreign qualifications often need bridging courses.

Since not all foreign qualifications are fully equivalent with domestic ones, there is often a need for supplementary education to bring them up to the standard required in the host country. Bridging courses meet that purpose. Such courses, a logical complement to the growing focus on recognition and accreditation, are currently underdeveloped in most OECD countries and should be stepped up.

Employer involvement is crucial in the recognition and validation process.

Ultimately, however, it is up to the employer to accept the skills and qualifications of immigrants as "equivalent". Validation and recognition procedures should therefore involve employers. Indeed a feature of many of the most successful integration measures is precisely strong employer involvement.

Work experience measures help to overcome employer uncertainty about immigrants' skills.

One very important issue for immigrants is to get a chance to demonstrate their skills to employers and overcome employer resistance to hiring them. Traineeships and other work-experience measures have proved effective, as has "temping" work – i.e. jobs in temporary employment agencies – which can be a springboard to more stable employment. Well-designed and carefully phased-out temporary wage subsidies can also be a highly efficient tool for disadvantaged groups in the labour market, and the available evidence – particularly from Denmark and Sweden – points to much greater benefits for immigrants than for the native-born.

At the same time, immigrants are often underrepresented in the most effective programmes.

Yet, immigrants tend to be underrepresented in wage-subsidy schemes and in other active labour market programmes which have proven particularly effective in enabling quick transitions into employment. In some countries, such as Austria, Belgium, Germany, Norway and Sweden, immigrants have become a specific target group of active labour market policy instruments.

Many promising integration measures are small-scale and project-based, with little evaluation and mainstreaming.

While the bulk of integration measures are mainstream across all OECD countries, many innovative and promising new ones have been developed to address the specific integration challenges that immigrants and their children grapple with. Such instruments are often small-scale and project-based, however, and the resources to identify and scale up successful projects are generally lacking. Since many participants would have found a job anyway – even in the absence of such measures – a simple comparison of outcomes does not have much value. Proper evaluation, though costly, should be designed into policy measures and that includes factoring in an appropriate comparison group of non-participants.

This also raises the issue of policy co-ordination.

There is a need for better communication and co-ordination between the many different actors involved in integration. Indeed, one key challenge in the design and implementation of integration policy is precisely the fact that so many stakeholders are involved and responsibilities are often widely dispersed, both within and across levels of government.

Naturalisation is associated with better outcomes, partly because it is seen by employers as a signal for integration.

In most host countries, immigrants who have obtained citizenship show better integration outcomes. One reason is that those who are better integrated are more likely to naturalise. But there is also growing evidence that naturalisation can, by itself, trigger integration – notably for immigrants from non-OECD countries – seemingly because employers interpret naturalisation as a sign of immigrants integrating. Take-up of host-country citizenship should therefore be encouraged as it is, for example, in Australia, Canada, and the United States. By the same token, barriers to naturalisation should not be unreasonably high. What's more, the fact that employers equate naturalisation with integration suggests there is a general case for raising immigrant awareness of the benefits of sending out signals to employers that they are "integrated".

Public opinion about immigration also has a significant impact on integration, so debate should be fact-based and balanced.

Society in the host country sends out signals, too – through the public discourse, for example. It plays a central role in shaping the way immigrants are perceived. The challenge in this respect is not necessarily to obtain a consensus on immigration issues, but to limit preconceptions. For example, contrary to what public opinion widely thinks, immigrants receive fewer benefits than the native-born on average. The public focus on negative integration outcomes among some immigrant groups tends to obscure all that is positive. Sending out ambivalent messages on integration risks encouraging discriminatory attitudes, which may in turn affect the behaviour of immigrants themselves – affecting their willingness to learn the host-country language, for example.

Employment in the public sector can be an important driver for the integration process.

Public sector recruitment practices also send out signals on integration. Perceptions of immigrants are shaped, in part, by their being seen to be part of everyday life. By employing qualified immigrant candidates, the public sector enhances such visibility and acts as a role model for the private sector. Employment in the public sector can also contribute to enhancing the understanding of immigrants' needs by the institutions concerned. When immigrants are employed in certain key occupations such as teaching, they can serve as a role model for others – notably youth with immigrant parents. Yet, even the native-born children of immigrants are underrepresented in the public sector, which should identify barriers to the employment of immigrants and their offspring and take corrective action. To that end, some countries, such as Norway and the Netherlands, have implemented specific policies. Because the authorities can naturally exert more influence on public employment decisions than on those in the private sector, those policies have been rather effective.

The single most important skill is knowledge of the host-country's language.

While immigrants have many skills that the labour market should value more, they also need to develop new ones – generally ones that are specific to the host country. The most important one is the host-country language. Not surprisingly, governments spend more on language training than any other component of integration policy directly aimed at immigrants. While the sheer importance of mastering the host-country language in the integration process can hardly be overstated, care needs to be taken not to demand standards of language that are so high they rule immigrants out of certain occupations. It needs to be made clear to employers that immigrants can be productive even if they do not fully master the host-country language.

Language training should be adapted to immigrants' skills and oriented towards labour market integration.

The starting point, when it comes to language learning, varies greatly according to immigrants' prior qualifications, their intended occupation in the host country, and their background. In order to be effective, training must account for different needs and be geared towards labour market integration – by providing vocation-specific language training, ideally on-the-job. Although such training is costly, it is an investment that appears to pay off, and the beneficial impact on labour market integration is often considerable. Immigrants are also more likely to be motivated by training if it is adapted to their skills needs.

For the children of immigrants, early intervention is crucial.

For the native-born children of immigrants with low-educated parents, early contact with host-country educational institutions has proven crucial for future integration outcomes. Yet, while the age of three to four is a critical one in this respect, children of immigrants are still often underrepresented in early childhood education and care. As for children born abroad, early family reunification should be encouraged, as each year of delay further sets back educational outcomes.

The concentration of the offspring of low-educated in certain schools needs to be addressed.

Creating an appropriate environment for developing the skills of immigrant children requires tackling the concentrations of the children of low-educated immigrants in certain schools. It is not, in fact, the actual concentrations that are the issue, but the fact that they concern the children of immigrants with little education. The effects on the educational outcomes of the children and of both immigrants and the native-born are highly detrimental. Addressing such a challenge involves a mix of measures that should include supporting immigrant parents.

Activating the skills of immigrants who have been out of the labour market – in particular women – is a particular challenge.

If inactive immigrants are to be coaxed back into the labour market, they need to be activated. This is a particular challenge when immigrants have been inactive for a number of years and if they arrived at a time when integration policies were less well developed (which is frequently the case). One widely affected group is immigrant women. They are often ineligible for mainstream support, since they are not benefit-dependent if their partner is working – as he usually is. Measures to integrate immigrant women also benefit their children considerably. One promising scheme – that has been rolled in Denmark and Germany – is to offer women language training combined with care and language stimulation for their children, ideally in the same institution.

Supporting the children of immigrants in the school-to-work transition requires an individualised approach.

Another group of particular concern to policymakers is young people who do not pursue further education and who are not in employment or training (NEET). The children of immigrants are overrepresented among NEETs in many OECD countries, often by a factor of two or more. Measures that have been successful in promoting their transition into employment involve an individualised approach with specialised case-workers. The young people attend targeted additional training courses and internships during which their case workers continue to accompany them. Switzerland is one country that uses this approach. Early contact with the population at risk while still in school is crucial.

To encourage employers, diversity policies are a promising tool that is sparking renewed interest.

An emerging workplace policy trend is voluntary diversity measures. It includes initiatives like "diversity labels", whereby the authorities audit and certify a company's diversity management policies on a regular basis with the relevant stakeholders. In such schemes, companies commit to diversity as part of their corporate social responsibility and are given an incentive – the labels are a public relations tool – which is in line with the promotion of equal opportunity. Diversity plans go a step further: companies volunteer to be audited for potentially discriminatory hiring practices, then implement measures to diversify their staff – with the support of consultants paid by the public employment services and in co-operation with social partners.

Ultimately, integration is an investment – and that needs to be designed into integration measures.

Effective policies need not always be accompanied by high costs to the public purse. However, some certainly do require significant investment at a time when most OECD countries face severe budget constraints. Here, integration needs to be seen as an investment, which calls for early intervention and the pursuit of policies where the pay-off is not always immediate. Access to integration programmes should not, therefore, be dependent on the group to which the immigrant belongs, but rather on his or her settlement prospects and needs. Ultimately, integration can only fully succeed if all immigrant groups have a chance to realise their potential.

Box 2.1. **Effective policies for better using the potential of immigrants and their children**

Take stock of the skills which immigrants bring and value them

- Develop efficient and transparent procedures for recognising foreign credentials and validating competences in co-operation with the social partners.
- Start integration programmes by evaluating and validating immigrants' qualifications and skills and raising awareness of the benefits of such measures.
- Establish policy measures which bring immigrants into contact with employers and help them gain early work experience.
- Make sure that immigrants benefit from effective mainstream active labour market policy instruments, including wage subsidies.
- Encourage the take-up of host-country citizenship.
- Identify and remove barriers to employment in the public sector.
- Tackle stereotypes and false perceptions of immigration by disseminating facts-based evidence on migration issues.

Develop host-country-specific skills which immigrants need

- Ensure that language training and introduction programmes prepare for labour market integration but do not delay it.
- Focus on vocational language training that should be provided, if possible, on the job.
- Equip all immigrants with the basic skills for succeeding in the labour market.
- Provide more bridging course offers for immigrants with foreign qualifications.
- Make sure that immigrants are informed and understand how the host-country labour market functions.
- Use mentorship to promote integration.
- Encourage that immigrants' children enter early childhood education, starting at the age of three.
- Encourage early family reunification if families have children.
- Make sure that children who arrive in a host country at the end of obligatory schooling are either in education, employment or training.
- Avoid the geographic concentration of children of low-educated immigrants in the same schools.

Activate the skills of immigrants

- Ensure that all long-term immigrants have full access to the labour market.
- Implement tailor-made approaches for disadvantaged youth with an immigrant background.
- Make sure that immigrant women have equal access to integration measures.
- Link training for immigrant mothers with childcare opportunities.
- Raise awareness of the issue of discrimination and take pro-active measures to tackle it.
- Engage employers through diversity policies and monitor the outcomes.
- Make sure that immigrant entrepreneurs have equal access to credit and start-up support.

Introduction

A significant and growing share of the population in OECD countries is made up of immigrants and their descendants.[2] Since 2000-01, that share has grown everywhere, except Estonia and Israel. There are now 115 million immigrants in the OECD – about 10% of the total population. Around one-half have become nationals of their country of residence and, of those, two out of three reported voting in the most recent elections. It is generally expected that the proportion of immigrants will continue to rise in coming decades, notably because of labour needs related to population ageing.

Immigrants and their native-born offspring account for a growing share of the workforce across the OECD. They have become part of society in countries of longstanding immigration – not only those that were settled though immigration like Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States, but also some Western European OECD countries. Elsewhere – in Southern Europe, for example – the growing presence of immigrants' offspring in the education system and the labour market is more recent. Across the OECD in 2012, 12.5% of all 15-year-olds were either born abroad or had two foreign-born parents – 50% more than ten years before.

The integration of immigrants and their offspring has become a prime policy objective in OECD countries, which have adopted a wide array of policies in the past 15 years. They generally run in parallel to mainstream labour market and social policies and target specific groups of immigrants, particularly newcomers. They range from "civic" integration packages and language courses for new arrivals to broader schemes regulating residence and citizenship.

Although many integration issues are longstanding, policies must nevertheless continuously adapt to new challenges and target groups. They need also to adjust to macroeconomic contexts like the recent global economic crisis and draw on experience of what works and what does not, both domestically and abroad. In addition, a number of OECD countries, like those in Central and Eastern Europe and Korea, are bracing for larger immigrant inflows. Others, in Southern Europe, have only recently experienced large-scale migration and are having to address new issues, such as the long-term employability of low-skilled immigrants and the integration of their children. One clear trend across the whole OECD in the past two decades, however, has been the growing diversity of immigration. There is an increasingly wide cross-section of countries of origin, education levels, and migration categories (i.e. labour, family reunification, humanitarian, and free movement).

Among the various integration challenges, perhaps the most important is how to unleash the full skills potential of immigrants and their offspring. The failure to use them is a waste of resources that economies today can ill afford.

An extensive literature exists on the role of skills in driving economic growth – both in augmenting human capital and prompting technological change. The skills of immigrants are already an important part of the human capital on which OECD economies depend today. They will become even more important in the future. In this sense, investing in immigrants' skills to promote integration is a critical element in a broader skills strategy.

Education and skills are important at the individual level, too. Workers with higher skills are more productive, tend to earn more, and enjoy better employment prospects. Yet, skills do not automatically translate into higher incomes or higher productivity. Much depends on which skills are developed, whether they are geared to the labour market, and

how they are used in the workforce. While many such issues hold true for both the native-born and the foreign-born, there are a number of specific issues relating to immigrants and their descendants which this chapter sets out to explore.

The starting point is that immigrants have generally acquired at least some of their skills in their country of origin, in contexts that are frequently very different from those in host countries. Does this matter and, if so, why? Are their skills appropriate to the local labour market? How do they compare with those of the native-born citizens? How can information on immigrants' skills be effectively communicated to the general public and, in particular, to employers so that they can make the appropriate hiring decisions?

These questions are relevant to wider societal integration, since the under-utilisation of the skills of immigrants and their children has both economic and social costs. Although freeing up immigrants' potential skills and using them in the labour market does not necessarily guarantee social integration, it is certainly a major step towards economic independence, social inclusion, and acceptance in their new homes. A good job affords people better protection against poverty, greater recognition in society, and more opportunities for social interaction.

The question of how to make the best use of immigrants' skills goes well beyond issues of over-qualification and the recognition of qualifications and skills obtained abroad. This chapter takes stock of the broad issues involved in the labour market integration of immigrants and their offspring from a human capital perspective. It also considers the policies at hand for unlocking their full skills potential through the identification, utilisation, activation and development of those skills. It builds on the extensive work of the OECD on integration issues (Box 2.2), together with new evidence.

The first part of this chapter sets out the overall context and identifies the major issues for labour market integration from a skills perspective. The second part then discusses the instruments and policies as they relate to the three pillars identified by the OECD Skills Strategy – namely using, developing, and activating skills. The chapter ends with a discussion of some general lessons for policy.

The labour market integration context

Size and structure of immigrant populations

Priorities in integration policy are set in response to the characteristics of past and present waves of immigration. In order to understand the current state of labour market integration and the use of immigrants' skills across the OECD, it is important first to take stock of the size and make-up of immigrant populations.

The foreign-born population has steadily grown in most OECD countries over the past 15 years and did not decline even during the recent global economic and financial crisis. Immigrant populations vary widely in size across the OECD. They range from less than 5% of the total population in most Central European countries, Chile, Japan, Korea, Mexico and Turkey to between 20% and 30% in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and Switzerland, and over 40% in Luxembourg (Figure 2.1). Countries with large foreign-born populations generally also have higher populations of native-born children of immigrants.

Another important factor is the share of recent arrivals in the immigrant population, as integration generally occurs over time and the need for support is greatest in the first few years. As a consequence, newcomers tend to receive the bulk of policy attention and

Box 2.2. **OECD work on the integration of immigrants and their children**

Over the past decade, the OECD has done extensive work on the integration of immigrants and their children. In its *Jobs for Immigrants* series, the OECD has completed 12 in-depth country reviews on the labour market integration of immigrants and their children in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland (OECD, 2007, 2008, 2012c, 2014). The OECD has now begun a new series that starts with Sweden. It brings together the expertise of local and national stakeholders in order to identify bottlenecks in the integration system, strengthen co-ordination, and build on good practice from elsewhere in the OECD.

Comprehensive cross-cutting information on the integration outcomes of immigrants and their children in all OECD countries is set out in *Settling In: OECD Indicators of Immigrant Integration* (OECD, 2012e). The *International Migration Outlook* also regularly analyses trends and developments in immigrants' labour market outcomes. They include, among other issues, the labour market integration of immigrant women (OECD, 2006a), over-qualification (Dumont and Monso, 2007), the wages of immigrants (OECD, 2008), and discrimination (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013).

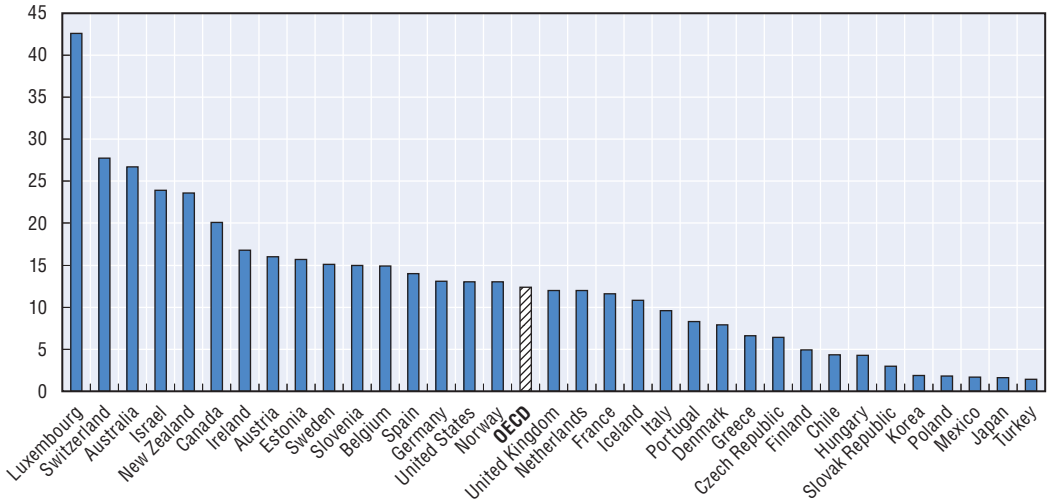
With the support of the European Commission, the OECD has shed new light on emerging integration topics by bringing together the latest research and new comparative evidence on the following issues: the school-to-work transition of the children of immigrants (OECD 2010a), the links between naturalisation and socio-economic integration (OECD, 2011) and, more recently, immigrants' skills (OECD/European Union, 2014). Immigrant entrepreneurship has been a further topic of in-depth investigation (OECD, 2010c), as were local integration solutions (OECD, 2006c) and the links between immigration and labour market outcomes (Jean et al., 2010).

The OECD has also analysed the education outcomes of immigrants' children, chiefly in its Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (OECD, 2006b and 2012d). As part of the assessments, the OECD also undertook a number of country reviews of education frameworks for the children of immigrants.

support across the OECD. Nowhere, however, do they make up the majority of the foreign-born population. Nevertheless, in some countries, like Ireland and in Southern Europe, about one-third of the immigrant population has arrived in the past five years.

A third key issue is the education levels of immigrant populations. Highly and poorly educated immigrants grapple with different labour-market challenges and overcoming them requires policy responses that factor in different experiences. On average across the OECD in 2011-12, the foreign-born were overrepresented both among the low educated (i.e. lower secondary education or below) and among the highly educated (i.e. those with tertiary-level degrees). The foreign-born are particularly highly educated in Canada, New Zealand, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Israel, Australia, Ireland, Poland and Estonia (Figure 2.2), where some 40% or more have a university degree. The shares were above 30% in Japan, Switzerland, Norway, the United States, Sweden and Mexico. By contrast, in Italy and Greece, where most immigrants come to take up low-skilled jobs, the highly educated accounted for less than 15%. Since the beginning of the millennium, the proportion of tertiary-educated immigrants has risen in virtually all OECD countries.

Figure 2.1. **Foreign-born as a percentage of the total population, 2012**

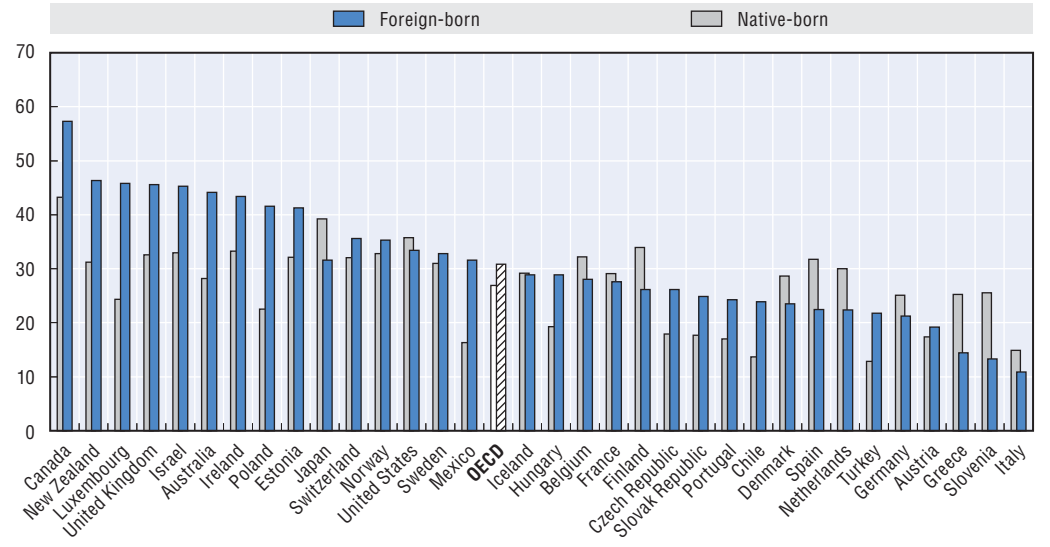


Note: The data for Korea and Japan are on the stock of foreigners.
Source: OECD International Migration Database 2012 except for Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, Poland and Portugal (2011), Chile and Mexico (2010), and Turkey: *Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010/11*.

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Figure 2.2. **Share of the highly educated among the foreign- and native-born of working age (15-64 years old), 2013**

Percentages



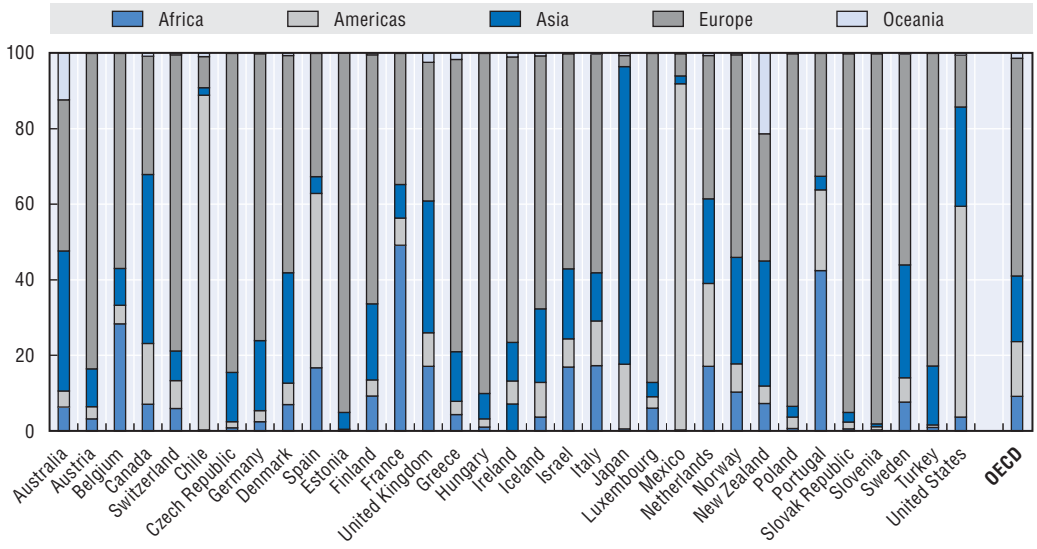
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013 (Eurostat); Australia and Japan (DIOC 2010/11); Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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There is also great diversity in countries of origin (Figure 2.3). On average, just over one-third of foreign-born working-age adults hail from another OECD country, although the share varies significantly across the OECD. Most foreign-born working-age adults in Luxembourg, Iceland, Ireland and Switzerland are from the OECD, as they are in the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Mexico. Immigrants from neighbouring countries and within areas of free movement – namely the European Union (EU) and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) – account for most of them, as they do in Belgium, the Nordic countries, and the United Kingdom. Australia and New Zealand also have high shares of immigrants from OECD countries. In contrast, people born in non-OECD countries make up the vast majority of foreign-born working-age adults in Southern Europe and some Central European countries, as well as in Chile, Israel, Japan, and Korea.

Figure 2.3. **Distribution of the working-age foreign-born by continent of birth, 2010-11**

Percentages



Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010/11.

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Immigrants' country of origin is often related to migration categories. In many European OECD countries, for example, high numbers of immigrants from non-OECD countries have arrived for humanitarian or family reasons. As explained in more detail below, such immigrants often show lower labour market outcomes than those who migrate for employment, even if they originate from the same countries and share otherwise similar characteristics.

Unfortunately, comparative data on the composition of the resident immigrant population by category of migration are scarce. Some information on self-reported categories is nevertheless available for selected European OECD countries from an ad hoc module in the 2008 European Labour Force Survey. It shows that in Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden, between 61% and 81% of the non-OECD foreign-born arrived as adult family-reunification immigrants or for humanitarian reasons.

Knowledge of the host country's language is probably the single most important asset for both the transferability of skills across countries and labour market integration (for recent overviews, see e.g. Chiswick and Miller, 2014; Sweetman, 2014). In practice, however, it is difficult to single out its impact – it is closely related to other skills – or to measure it. Indeed, constructing a reliable language proficiency indicator is no easy task. One basic, widely used measure is immigrants' self-reported command of their host countries' languages. It is, however, prone to error and seldom found in labour force surveys. Another, more easily available proxy, is the percentage of immigrants from a country which shares one official language with the host country – even though the official tongue might be different from the one actually spoken by immigrants, especially in multilingual countries.

Obviously, an OECD host country whose language is widely spoken in countries of origin will have a much greater share of immigrants who speak their language than one which does not share that advantage.[3] Nevertheless, there is still wide variation even among English-speaking OECD countries. The proportion of immigrants from countries with English as a main official language ranges from 24% in the United States to around 50% in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and New Zealand. Among non-English speaking countries, France, Portugal, and Spain are home to many immigrants from former colonies where French, Portuguese, and Spanish are official languages. Belgium, Chile, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Slovak Republic, and Switzerland also have non-negligible shares of immigrants with a command of their languages – mainly because many are from neighbouring countries. Percentages are, however, very small in OECD countries whose language is spoken little beyond their national borders. They include Germany, Greece, Israel, and Italy and Central and Eastern European, Scandinavian, and Asian countries.

Taken together, the characteristics of immigrant populations in the above overview paint a picture of widely diverse national contexts in OECD host countries and can be used to classify them. Figure 2.4 affords an overview of the resulting groups.

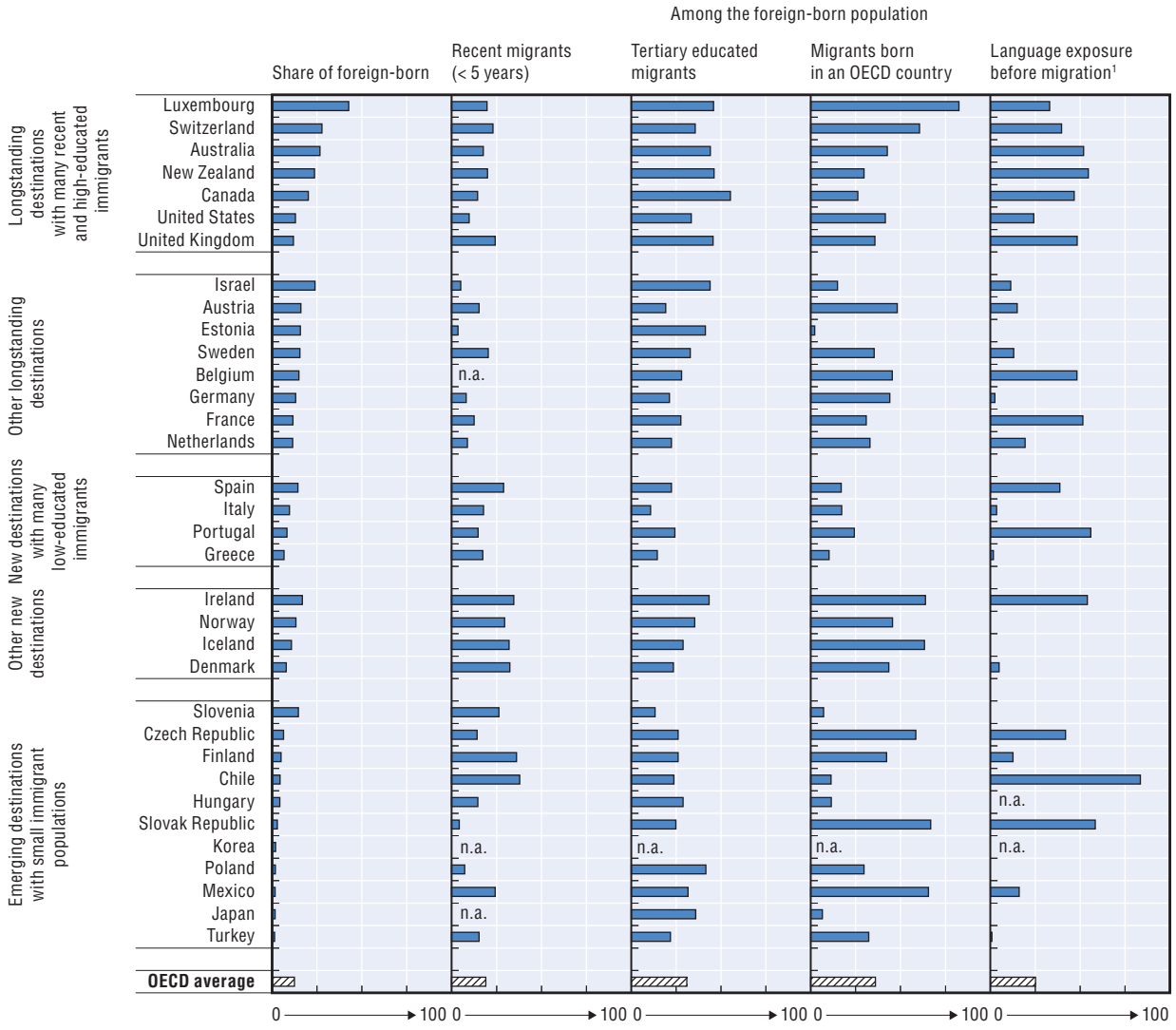
Group 1: Longstanding destinations with many recent and high-educated immigrants

Countries in this group boast lengthy traditions as destinations and have many recent and long-settled immigrants. In all of them, the foreign-born represent at least 12% of the working-age population, while native-born children of immigrants also make up a significant share of the overall population. All the countries in the group have sizable shares of highly educated immigrants– around one-third are university-educated – and many were exposed to their host country's language before arrival.[4]

The traditional destinations – Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – see their history of immigration as a generally successful one of integration, and consider it part of the national heritage. This first group also includes several European countries – namely Luxembourg, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom – with longstanding immigrant populations and large shares of new arrivals stemming from free movement within the EU-EFTA area. All have also experienced significant employment-driven migration over the past decade.

Figure 2.4. **Characteristics of immigrants in OECD countries, 2012**

Percentages



1. If the country of birth and the country of destination have an official language in common, the immigrant is considered to have been exposed to the language spoken in the country of destination before his/her migration.

Source:

Foreign-born (all ages): *OECD International Migration Database 2012* except for Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, Poland and Portugal (2011), Turkey (*Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries [DIOC] 2010-11*). The data for Korea and Japan relate to the foreign nationals.

Recent immigrants (aged 15+): DIOC 2010/11; Portugal: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12.

Tertiary-educated immigrants (aged 15-64): European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013 (Eurostat); Australia and Japan: DIOC 2010/11; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

Region of birth (aged 15-64): European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012, Germany and other countries: DIOC 2010/11.

Language exposure before migration (aged 15+): French research centre in international economics (CEPII), *Trade, Production and Bilateral Database*; DIOC 2010/11.

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Group 2: Other longstanding destinations

The second group comprises other countries in Europe (plus Israel) that are longstanding immigrant destinations. They have predominantly long-settled foreign-born populations who account for between 12% and 16% of the population (24% in the case of

Israel). In all these countries, with the exception of Sweden, at least three-quarters of the foreign-born have lived in the country for more than ten years. The group includes Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands, all of which experienced significant migration of the "guest-worker" type after the Second World War. Guest workers were generally low-skilled labour migrants seeking work who were later joined by their families.

With the exception of Estonia, all the European countries in this group have also taken in many humanitarian immigrants. They thus have large shares of immigrants who arrived for reasons other than employment, and whose integration outcomes tend to be less favourable. As a result, integration issues are relatively high on the policy agenda. Although some countries in the group – notably Germany – currently experience significant flows of immigration, mainly from other EU countries, newcomer populations are relatively small in comparison with the long-settled populations from lower-income countries. In the case of France, many long-settled immigrants arrived from the former colonies. As for Estonia, the high share of foreign-born stems from internal migration within the former Soviet Union. Since independence, immigration has been very limited.

Group 3: New destinations with many low-educated labour migrants

The third group encompasses the Southern European countries, all of which are relatively recent destinations with large shares of low-educated labour immigrants from non-OECD countries. About 14% of the population in Spain is now foreign-born, with the vast majority having arrived since the year 2000. Greece, Italy, and Portugal have somewhat smaller immigrant populations, making up around 10% of the working-age population.

In all the countries in this group, labour immigrants filled many of the low-skilled jobs prior to the global financial and economic crisis. Since the downturn, they have been disproportionately affected by unemployment. Between 2008 and 2012, the number of newcomers to all four countries dropped by nearly one-half. Yet, at the same time, the number of children of immigrants has grown rapidly, which raises new questions related to integration in the education system, school-to-work transition, and citizenship legislation.

Group 4: Other new destinations

The fourth group comprises relatively recent immigrant destinations in Northern Europe, Ireland and Scandinavia, where a sizeable share of the foreign-born populations are relative newcomers. These countries host large numbers of EU citizens who benefited from free mobility and, in the case of Ireland, immigrants from English-speaking countries. Much immigration to the Scandinavian countries has been humanitarian and, subsequently, family-related – in other words, groups only loosely attached to the labour market, at least initially. As a result, integration tends to be relatively high on the policy agenda.

Group 5: Emerging destinations with small immigrant populations

The remaining group of countries is diverse, consisting of destinations with small foreign-born populations. It includes the OECD countries in Central Europe, the Americas, East Asia, and Turkey. In all these countries, foreign-born residents makes up less than 5% of the population. Percentages are higher, however, in Slovenia and the Czech Republic, where – as in the Slovak Republic – many foreign-born inhabitants are so classified as a result of border changes.

Since the immigrant population across this group is small and new inflows limited, integration policies are recent and focus on certain categories of newcomers. For example, the impetus behind the development of integration policy in Japan and Korea was prompted by, respectively, ethnic and marriage migration. The European countries in this group generally put integration lower down the political agenda than the emigration of their own nationals and the transit of non-EU immigrants through their territory to Western Europe.

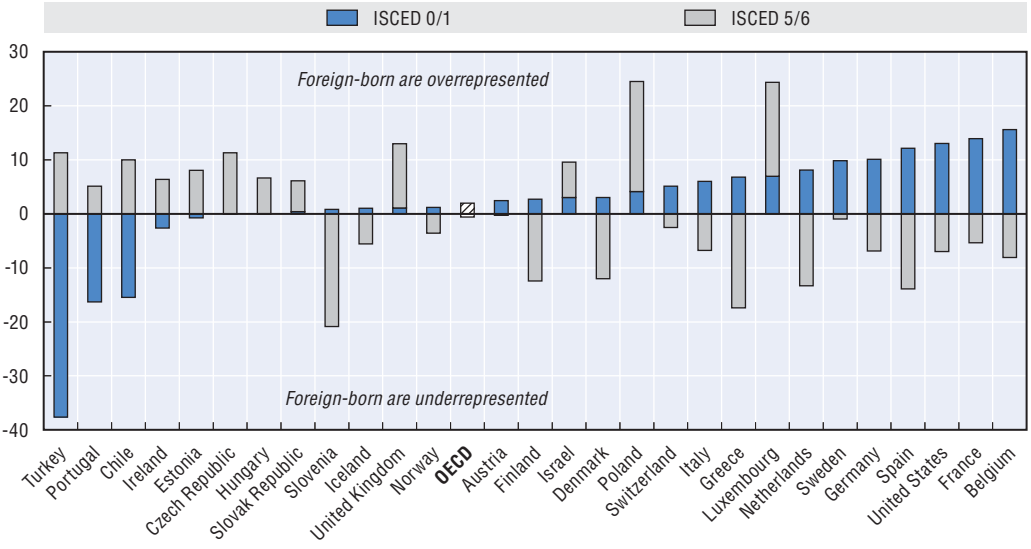
The qualifications and skills of foreign-born adults and their offspring

Foreign-born adults' qualifications and skills

Immigrants' overrepresentation at both ends of the educational attainment scale (see Figure 2.5) challenges labour market and social integration in specific ways. It also points to their underrepresentation at intermediate levels in most countries.

Figure 2.5. **Difference in the distribution of very low and high education levels between the foreign- and native-born aged 25-54, 2013**

Percentage points



Note: ISCED stands for International Standard Classification of Education. ISCED 0/1 refers to persons whose highest completed education level is pre-primary or primary. ISCED 5/6 refers to persons who have completed tertiary education. The information on the highest education level attained in the Chilean CASEN does not match ISCED levels exactly. It is assumed that those who started but did not complete secondary education at least completed lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

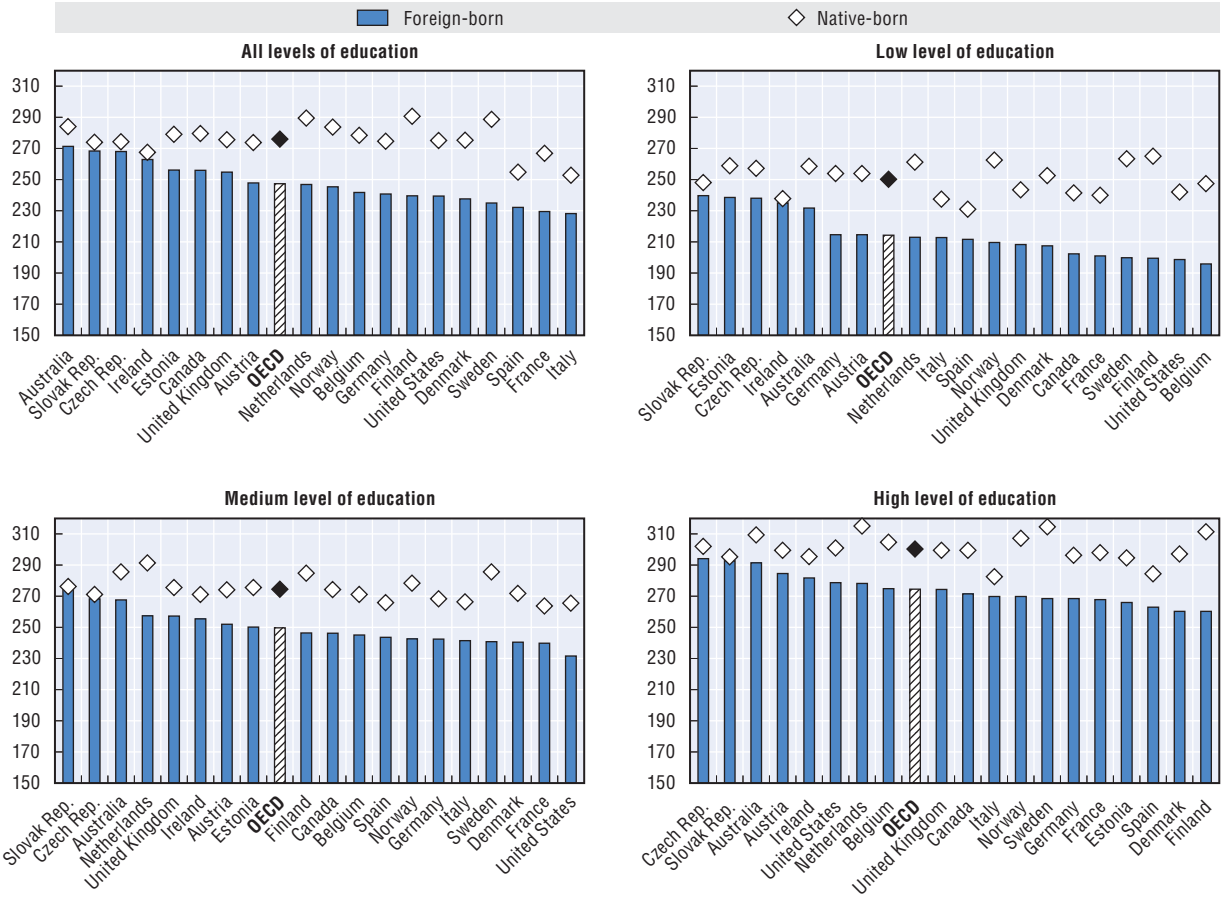
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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Information on immigrants' level of education is only a proxy for their actual skills. Such information is available in countries with significant foreign-born populations participating in the 2012 OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC). While a thorough discussion of the findings is beyond the scope of this chapter (for an overview, see Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014), they point to immigrants having – on average – lower skills than their native-born counterparts in all countries. The pattern holds true regardless of formal education levels (Figure 2.6). This is partly

Figure 2.6. **Mean literacy scores by country of residence, level of education, and place of birth of 16- to 64-year-olds, 2012**

Scores points



Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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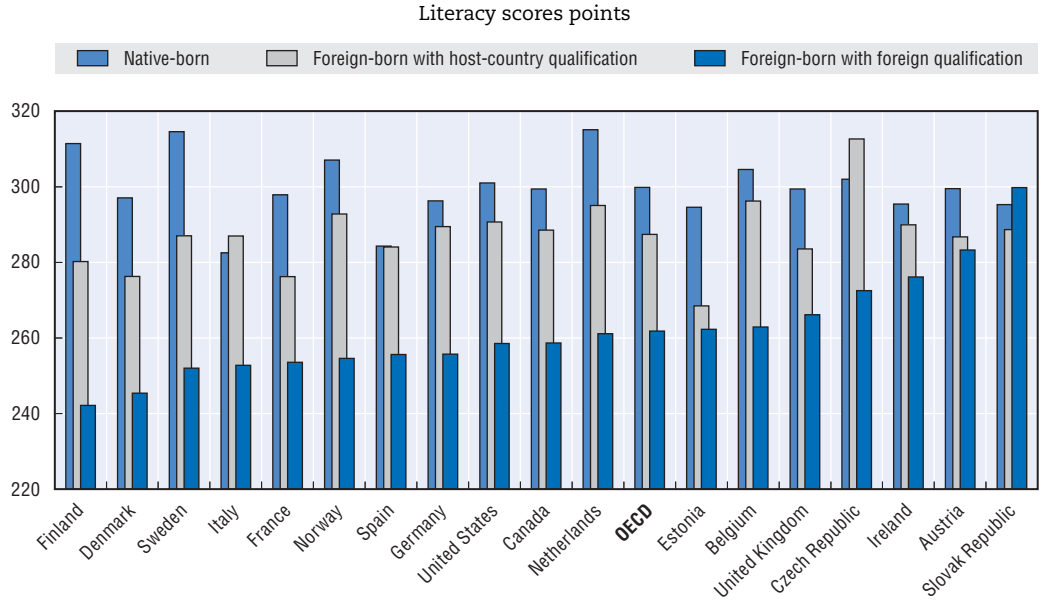
attributable to the fact that measured literacy includes command of language. And as tests are carried out in the host-country's language, it is not possible to properly disentangle mastery of that foreign language from command of language itself.

Immigrants' lower skills at given levels of education stem partly from their qualifications being obtained in education systems which do not always perform as well as those of their countries of residence.[5] Indeed, there appears to be less of a gap between native-born and foreign-born residents who graduate in the host country. Nevertheless, the gap – albeit narrower – still obtains in most countries (Figure 2.7).

Qualifications and skills among the offspring of immigrants

One key trend that emerges from the OECD Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA) is that the children of immigrants also tend to have lower educational outcomes than their peers whose parents are not migrants (OECD; 2006b, 2012d, 2013b). The finding may not be surprising for children who have themselves immigrated, particularly those who arrive towards the end of the obligatory schooling age. At least part of their schooling takes place in a system, context, and language that may have been quite

Figure 2.7. **Literacy scores of highly educated immigrants and native-born residents between the ages of 16 and 64, according to the country where the highest qualification was obtained**

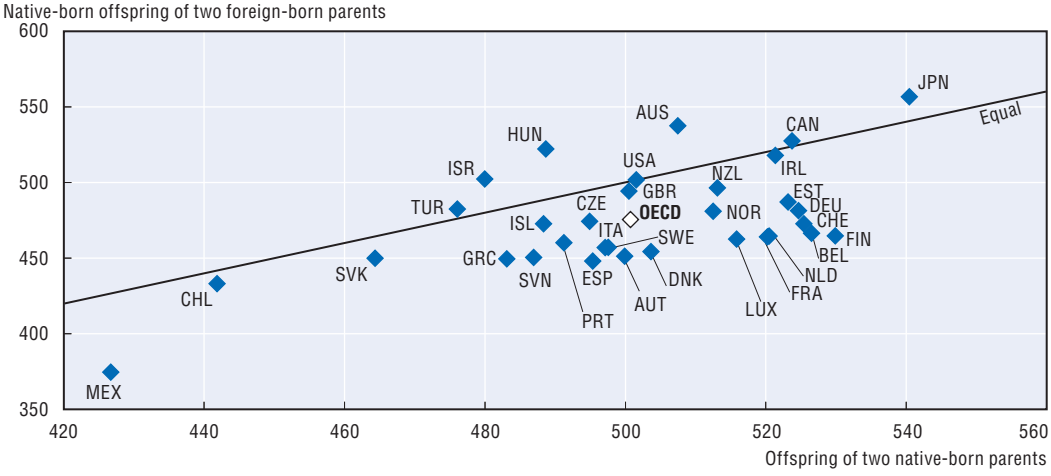


Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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different from those in the host country. Yet, even the native-born children of immigrants show lower educational outcomes in most countries (Figure 2.8). Such outcomes may be partly attributable to some intergenerational transmission of disadvantage, a still under-researched question.

Figure 2.8. **Mean reading scores of 15-year-old native-born students by parents' place of birth, 2012**



Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

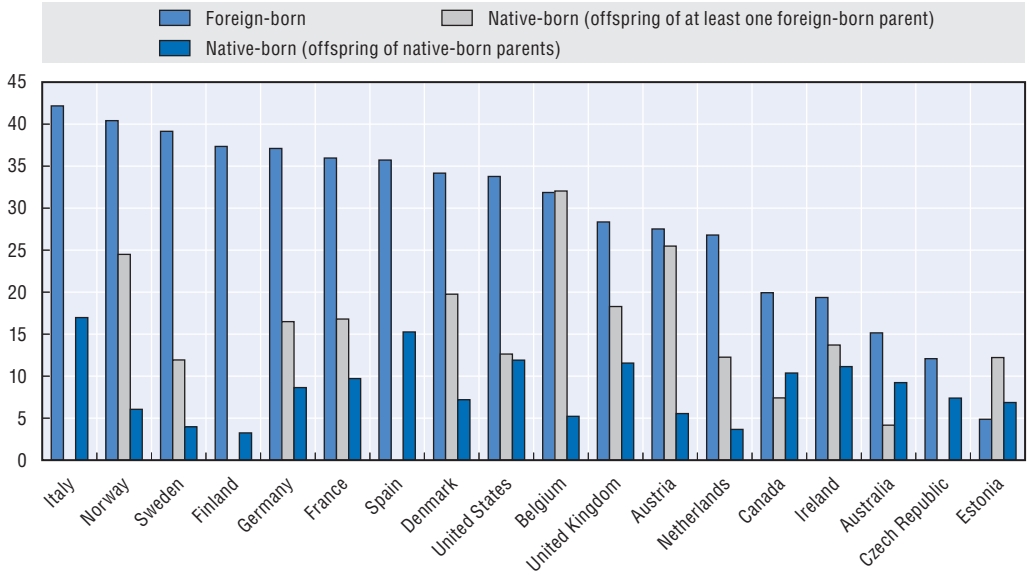
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Overall, however, differences in PISA scores are greater between countries than within countries between students with and without immigrant parents. Native-born children with parents from the same country of origin and social background are also found to have substantially different educational outcomes according to their country of residence (OECD, 2006b; Dronkers and Fleischmann, 2010; Dustmann et al., 2012).

Of particular concern for host country policymakers are young adults who lack the basic skills to be fully functional in the host-country's labour market and society. In all the OECD countries for which data is available, with the exception of Estonia, young immigrants are largely overrepresented among low achievers in literacy skills (Figure 2.9). The situation is particularly worrying in the Nordic countries, Germany, Belgium (Flanders), and France. Again, language difficulties are part of the reason, as are frequently low-performing education systems in countries of origin.

Figure 2.9. **Low achievers in literacy among 16- to 34-year-olds by migration status and parental origin**

Percentages



Note: The low achievers in literacy are adults with literacy scores below 226.
Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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As expected, therefore, the gap narrows – partly, at least, if not completely – between native-born offspring of immigrants and non-migrants in all countries where significant differences are observed (with the exception of Austria). This positive showing suggests that, in literacy skills at least, the native-born children of immigrants fare much better than their immigrant peers. They nevertheless remain overrepresented among the low achievers in many of the European OECD countries which experienced significant low-skilled labour migration in the 1960s and early 70s, such as those in the second group identified in Figure 2.4 (Austria, Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands), together with Norway and Denmark.

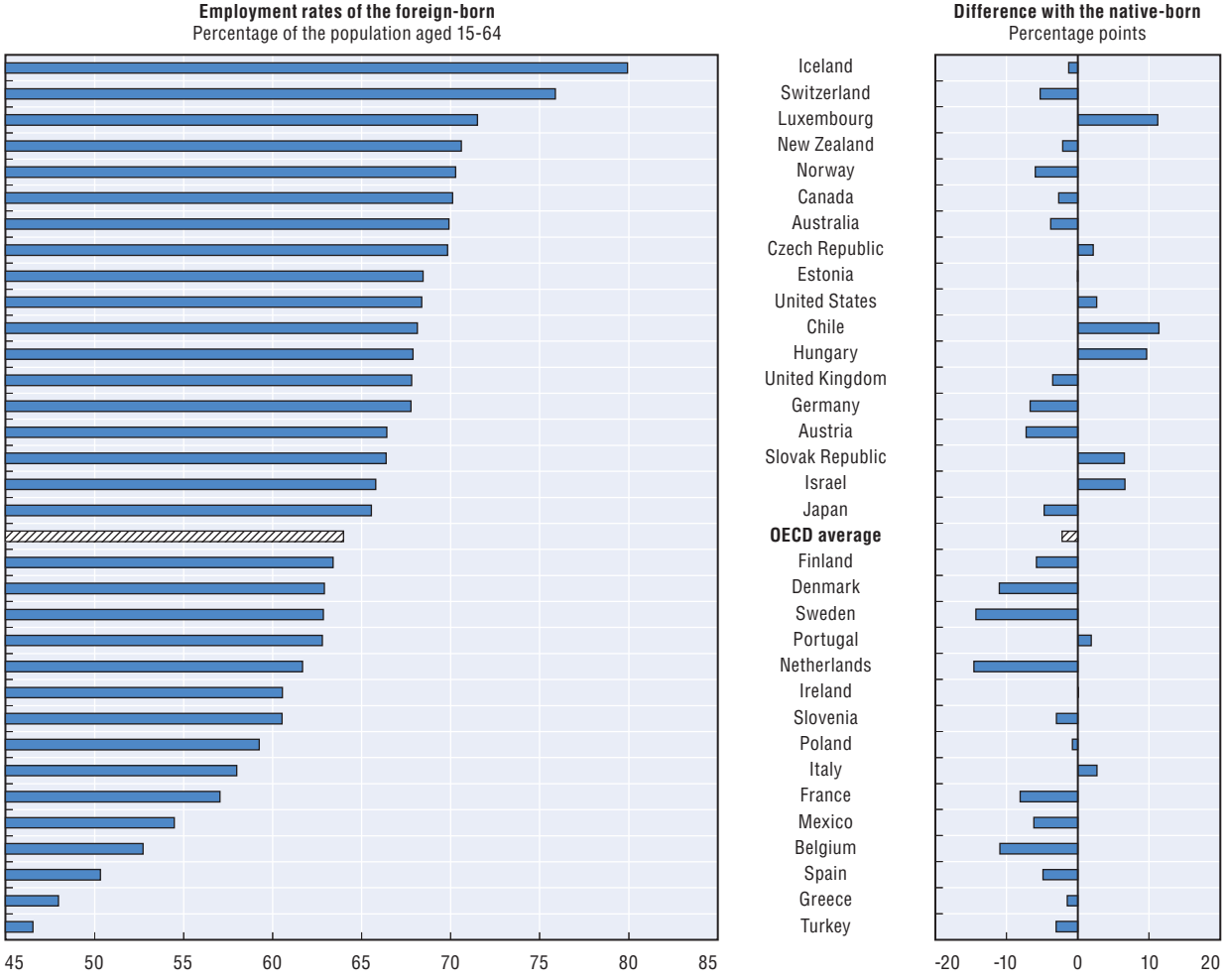
Labour market outcomes of immigrants and their children

Foreign-born adults' labour market outcomes

Overview. When looking at immigrants' labour market outcomes, the first and most striking fact is that in virtually all OECD countries, most working-age immigrants are in employment. The exceptions are Greece, which has been particularly hard hit by the global economic crisis, and Turkey (Figure 2.10).

Across the OECD, an average of nearly two-thirds of working-age immigrants are in employment. Rates range from less than 55% in Greece and Turkey, as well as in Spain – another country hard hit by the crisis – Belgium and Mexico, to 70% or more in Australia, Canada, Norway, New Zealand, Luxembourg, Switzerland and Iceland. Five of these seven countries are in Figure 2.4's group of longstanding destinations and boast many highly educated immigrants.

Figure 2.10. **Employment rates of the foreign-born in contrast to those of the native-born, 2013**



Note: Data for Japan relate to foreigners compared with Japanese nationals. Data for Chile and Israel are for the year 2011. Data for Australia and New Zealand refer to the year 2012.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Japan: Population Census; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

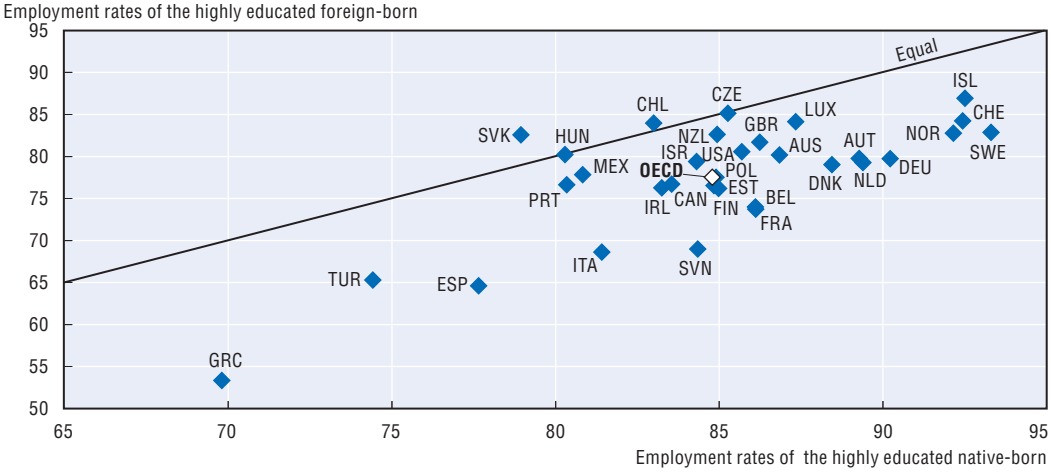
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Average employment rates are slightly lower among immigrants than native-born residents, with significant disparities in the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, France and Germany – all from the second and fourth country clusters identified in Figure 2.4. Gender is also an important factor, since employment gaps between immigrant women and their native-born peers tend to be wider than among men.

Among the highly educated, immigrant employment rates are lower than those of the native-born in all OECD countries except Chile and the Slovak Republic (Figure 2.11). The gaps are particularly wide in countries which are destinations for significant humanitarian migration, such as Sweden, and in those hard hit by the crisis, like Greece and Spain. Nevertheless, more than two-thirds of the university-educated foreign-born are working in all OECD countries, save Greece.

Figure 2.11. **Employment rates among the highly educated native-born and foreign-born aged 15-64 who are not in education, selected OECD countries, 2013**

Employment rates expressed as percentages



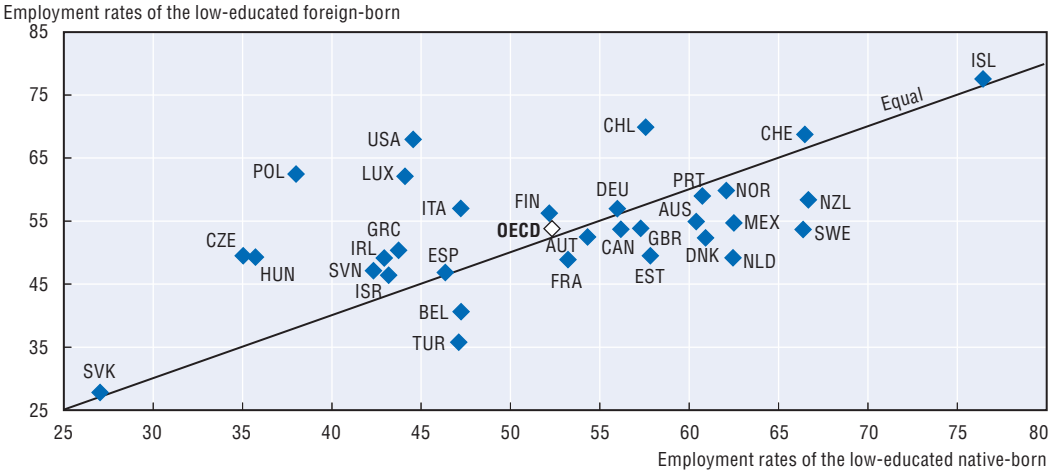
Note: The data for Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Turkey apply to the 25-64 age group and may include people still in education. The data for Australia refer to the 15-64 age group and may include people still in education.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Australia: Labour Force Survey 2012; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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The picture is much more diverse among low-educated workers (Figure 2.12). In contrast to the highly educated, low-educated foreign-born residents are often just as likely to work as their native-born peers. Compared with the latter, immigrants' labour situations appear particularly good in countries that have seen significant recent inflows of low-educated workers, e.g. the United States, Luxembourg, Italy, and Greece. By contrast, there are wide gaps to the detriment of immigrants in Estonia, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Denmark. In general, however, most foreign-born resident with low levels of educational attainment are in work in the bulk of OECD countries. The only exceptions are Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Israel, The Netherlands, Turkey and Central European countries with small and often older immigrant populations (belonging to the fifth group identified in Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.12. **Employment rates of the low-educated native-born and foreign-born, persons aged 15-64 and not in education, selected OECD countries, 2013**

Employment rates expressed as percentages



Note: The data for Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Turkey refer to the 25-64 age group and can include those still in education. The data for Australia refer to the 15-64 age group and can include people still in education.
Source: Australia: Labour Force Survey 2012; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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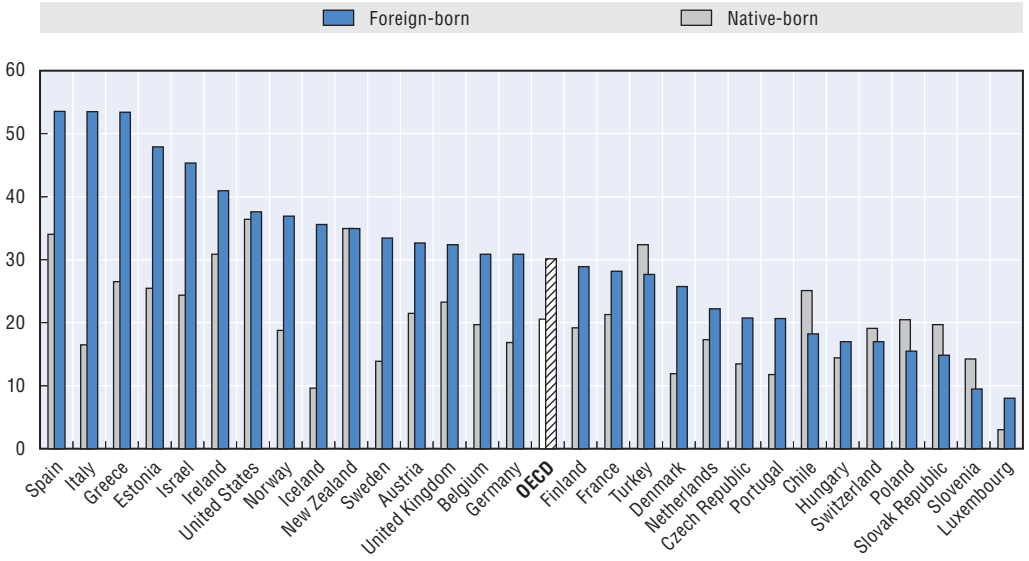
The picture that emerges is that, although immigrants' employment rates rise with their education levels, they do so to a lesser degree than those of the native-born. The employment gap thus widens with educational attainment (see Table 2.A1.4 and Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Although most of the foreign-born are in work, they are more often to be found in low-skilled or low-quality jobs than their native peers who have attained the same level of education. This is generally an issue for the highly educated, although it may also affect those with intermediate levels of education. Not only are educated immigrants less likely to be in employment, those who do work are also much more widely over-qualified than their native-born peers in virtually all countries (Figure 2.13). The incidence of over-qualification is particularly high in countries from the third and fourth groups in Figure 2.4 – i.e. Southern European countries, where there has been much recent labour migration into low-skilled jobs, and the Nordic countries, where many arrivals with university degrees are humanitarian immigrants. They are far more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs than other immigrant groups (Table 2.A1.4 and Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Where the issue for the highly educated in employment is over-qualification, the chief concerns for the uneducated foreign-born are poor working conditions and low wages, which are in turn associated with in-work poverty. In nearly all OECD countries for which such information is available, households headed by poorly educated immigrant workers are more likely to live in poverty than their native-born peers. The exceptions are Germany, Switzerland, and Poland (Figure 2.14). Disparities are often considerable and in some countries – such as Estonia, Greece, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden – the families of low-educated immigrant workers are more than twice as likely to be affected by in-work poverty as those where the household head is native-born.

Figure 2.13. **Over-qualification rates among the highly educated in employment, 15- to 64-year-olds, by migration status, 2013**

Over-qualification rates expressed as percentages

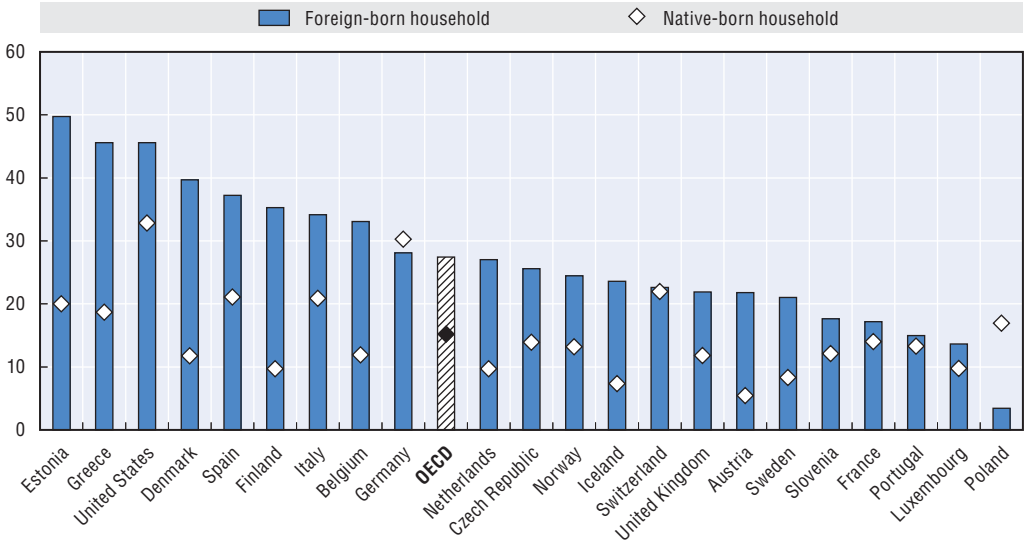


Note: Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. They are considered over-qualified if the job is classified as ISCO 4 to 9. (ISCO stands for International Standard Classification of Occupations.)
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; New Zealand: Labour Force Survey 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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Figure 2.14. **In-work poverty risk by migration status in households with low-educated household head(s), selected OECD countries, 2011**

Percentages



Note: "In-work poverty risk" denotes the share of individuals who live in a household where the equivalent income is below half of the median income of the whole population living in the country. The equivalent scale used is the square root scale. The households considered are those where at least one adult has been at work for at least seven months in the previous twelve. The income considered is the total household income after social transfers that is disposable in a twelve-month period (previous calendar or tax year or twelve months preceding the interview).
Source: European Countries: EU-SILC (Eurostat), 2011; United States: American Community Survey 2012.

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Specific labour-related issues for family and humanitarian immigrants. Obviously, immigrants do not all start out from the same position on the labour market. Labour immigrants – particularly those who arrive with the offer of a job – usually step into work immediately or a few months after arrival. Indeed, their employment rates can only decline over time.

The situation is very different for family and humanitarian immigrants, for whom employment is generally not the main reason for moving to a new country. Data for the European OECD countries show that – after controlling for other relevant individual characteristics – humanitarian immigrant men and women from lower-income countries have, respectively, employment rates that are 11 and 18 percentage points higher than their peers who have come as labour migrants (Table 2.A1.3).

With the exception of women from non-OECD countries, former international students are just as likely to be employed as labour immigrants. Of immigrants who arrive as adults in European countries, more than 50% of men declare that they come to work and 25% for family reasons. The proportions are reversed among women. Less than 10% of men and women arrive for humanitarian reasons or to study.

Given the different initial motives for migrating, what one may reasonably expect for one category of newcomers may not be appropriate for another. Indeed, differences in the composition of immigrant populations explain many cross-country disparities in integration outcomes (Bevelander and Pendakur, 2014). Finding work fast is a reasonable benchmark for labour immigrants and, indeed, having a job upon arrival is a precondition for admission into European OECD countries and, increasingly, into Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The same applies to former international students who change status. Family and humanitarian immigrants need greater support and more time (years) to achieve labour market integration.[6]

Immigrant women often face a double disadvantage. As most family migrants are women, gender is central to that particular migration category. Even after controlling for a broad range of socio-economic characteristics, it appears that immigrant women have much lower employment rates than men in relation to their native-born peers, whose employment rates already fall short of native men's. Clearly, then immigrant women are at a "double disadvantage" (OECD, 2006a addresses the issue in depth).

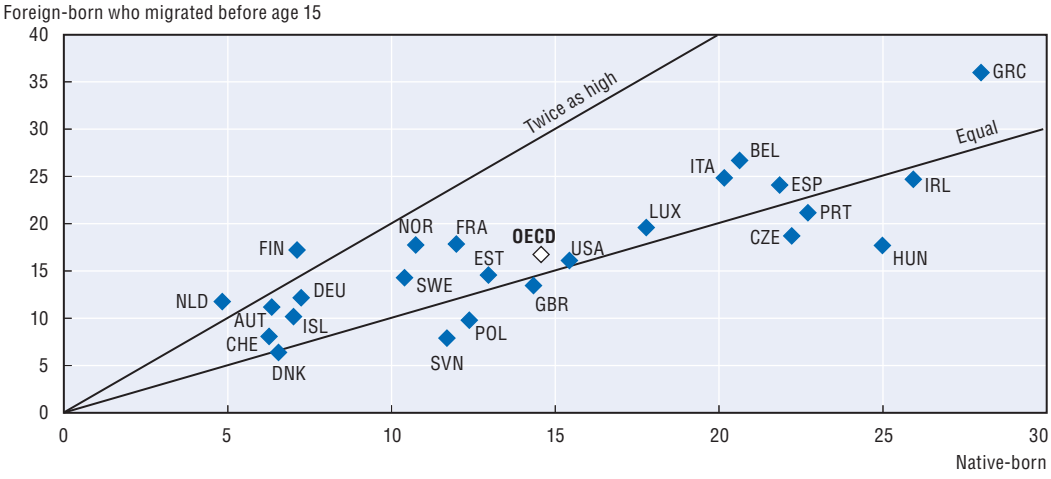
The twin disadvantage is partly attributable to more traditionally separate gender roles being more pronounced among immigrants, particularly those from countries where the incidence of women in work is low. Having small children also seems to curb the employment opportunities of foreign-born women more than it does those of their native-born peers. Although immigrant women from lower-income countries appear worst affected (Table 2.A1.4), they, too, tend to show higher employment rates in countries where large numbers of native-born women are in work. A country's overall labour market context for women thus seems to affect immigrant women's employment.

Outcomes of youth with immigrant parents

Since a significant proportion of young people are still in out comes of education, the best youth integration indicator is widely considered to be the percentages who are neither in employment nor in education or training (the NEET group). Figure 2.15 shows the share of NEETs among foreign-born young people who migrated as children in comparison to those who are native-born. In most countries, they are overrepresented among the NEET compared with their native-born peers – and more than twice as much in the Netherlands and Finland.

Figure 2.15. **Share by place of birth of youth who are neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET), 2012-13**

Percentages among 15- to 24-year-olds



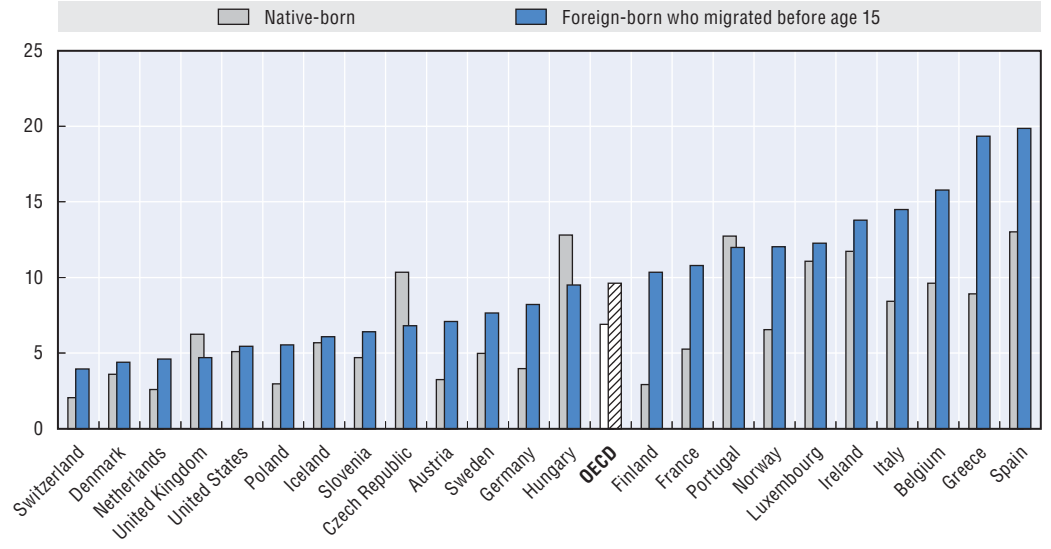
Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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Disparities between immigrant and native-born young people are even wider among the poorly educated NEET (Figure 2.16). In this group, which is of key concern for policy-makers, immigrant youth are overrepresented in all countries, particularly in Europe. The only exceptions are the United Kingdom and a few European OECD countries where the number of immigrants in the 15-to-24 age group is small.

Figure 2.16. **Share by place of birth of low-educated young people neither in employment nor education or training (NEET) among the total youth (15- to 25-year olds), 2012-13**

Percentages



Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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Although native-born children of immigrants show higher NEET and lower employment rates than the children of the native-born in many OECD countries, their outcomes are better than those of immigrant youth (OECD, 2010a and 2012e; Liebig and Widmaier, 2009).

That native-born immigrant offspring are overrepresented among NEETs and the unemployed is true irrespective of education level. However, for those whose parents were from a non-OECD county, their chances of employment rise faster with education level than those of children with native-born parents (Table 2.A1.4). This pattern suggests that education is a strong driver of labour market integration among children of immigrants, particularly among women.

Irrespective of their education level, native-born immigrant offspring widely show poorer labour market outcomes than their peers without a migration background – at least in the European OECD countries (Table 2.A1.2).[7] Preliminary analysis based on data from the PIAAC survey indicates that there are persistent gaps in employment rates between children of non-immigrants and native-born children of immigrants, even after controlling for education and literacy skills (Table 2.A1.7).[8] The inference is that structural obstacles other than formal qualifications or mastery of the host-country language undermines use of the skills of young people from immigrant parents.

Factors that shape differences between the labour market outcomes of immigrants and their offspring and those of the native-born

Integration takes place over time

Integration is a process that takes time. Labour market outcomes tend to improve with the years as immigrants gradually acquire the skills required by the host country, which includes command of the language. However, the gap with those who have no migration background seldom closes completely.

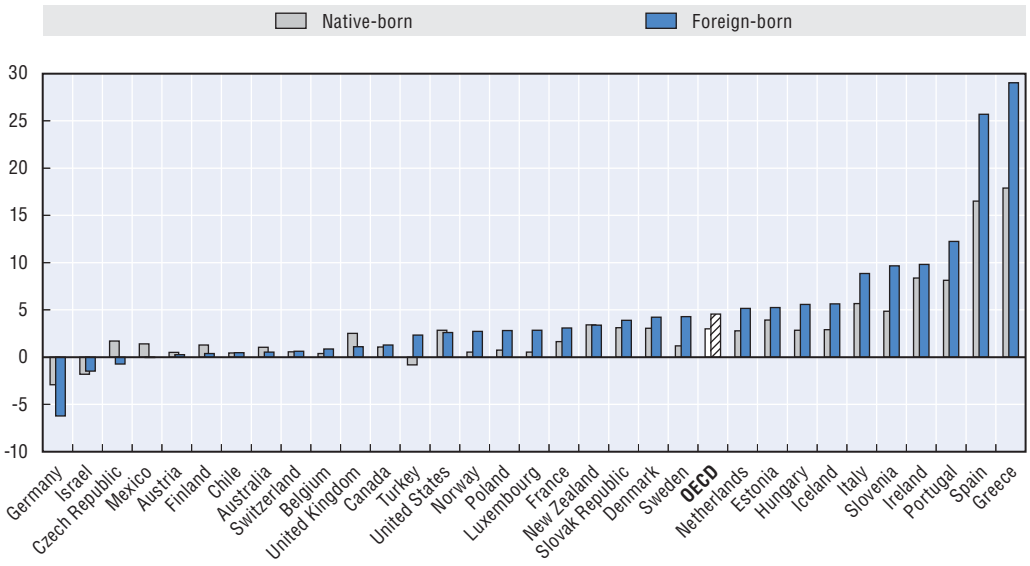
Comparison of recent and long-settled immigrants reveals that the latter are more likely to participate in the labour market and less prone to unemployment. In European OECD countries, an additional year of residence is associated with a 0.2 percentage point increase in the immigrant employment rate for men and a rise of 0.4 among women (Table 2.A1.3).[9] The improvement is particularly sharp in some immigrant groups, particularly refugees. Longitudinal data points to similar results in the settlement countries. The risk of over-qualification also seems to fall – by one percentage point per year – among employed immigrants born in a lower-income country (Table 2.A1.5).

General labour market conditions matter more for immigrants

General economic conditions obviously shape the labour market outcomes of both foreign- and native-born workers. Nevertheless, immigrants are, as a rule, much more widely affected by change because they tend to be overrepresented in cyclical sectors and occupations. In addition, their jobs are less stable and they tend to enjoy less seniority, which makes them more likely to be laid off. There is also some, albeit limited, evidence of employers selectively firing immigrants (Arai and Vilhelmsson, 2003; OECD, 2009). As a result, the immigrant unemployment rates have grown much faster with the economic and financial downturn than those of the native-born, particularly in the worst-affected countries, Greece and Spain (Figure 2.17).

Figure 2.17. **Evolution of unemployment rates by place of birth, 15 to 64 years old, 2007-13**

Percentage points



Note: The data for Canada are for the period 2008-12; Turkey: 2008-13; Israel: 2007-11; Chile: 2006-11; Australia and New Zealand: 2007-12.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Examination of how employment rates have evolved since the onset of the crisis paints an uneven picture (Figure 2.18). On average, the employment rates of both immigrants and the native-born have fallen by about 2.5 percentage points. And in some longstanding European destinations – particularly Germany, Austria, and Switzerland – the foreign-born have actually not been as badly affected as the native-born. In contrast, however, immigrant joblessness has risen much faster than that of the native-born in the OECD countries hardest hit by the economic crisis (i.e. those in the third group identified in Figure 2.4, together with Ireland). Many immigrants in those countries had arrived just prior to the crisis and struggled hard to find jobs. A protracted period of unemployment, especially upon arrival, tends to weaken the long-term prospects for successful labour market integration.

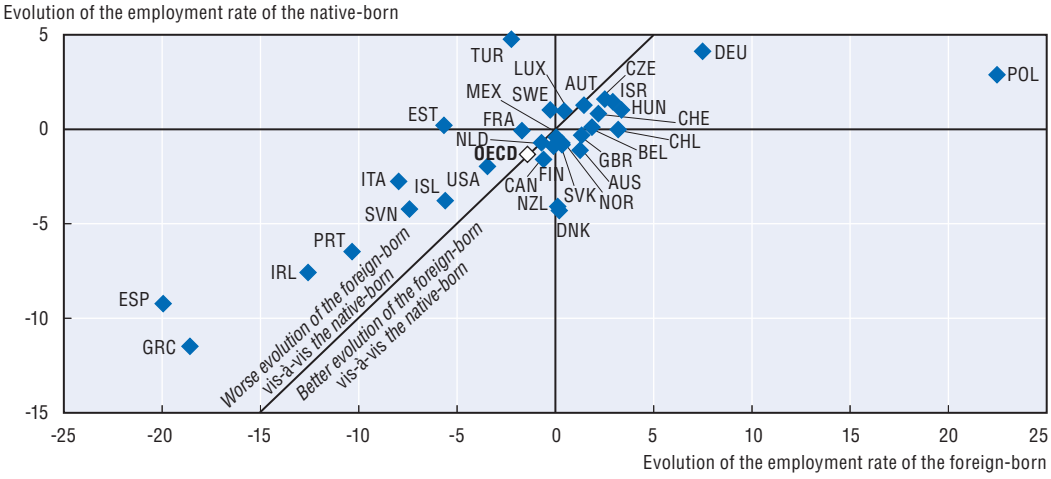
Employers have difficulty judging skills acquired abroad

As noted above, there are often significant differences between immigrants' qualifications and skills and those of their native-born peers (for more comprehensive overviews, see Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014, on qualifications; Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014, on skills; and, for a review of the literature, Damas de Matos, 2014).

The previous section pointed to significant, systematic disparities between the labour market outcomes of the native-born and those of highly educated immigrants, particularly if they have degrees from non-OECD countries. The same pattern was not necessarily true of the poorly-educated, however. The inference is that the returns to education are lower among immigrants than among the native-born, even after controlling for differences in age, gender, and field of study (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Figure 2.18. **Evolution of the employment rates of the foreign- and native-born, 15 to 64 years old, 2007-13**

Percentage points



Note: The data for Canada are for the years 2008 and 2012, Chile: 2006 and 2011, Israel: 2007 and 2011; Australia, New Zealand: 2007 and 2012; Turkey: 2008 and 2013.

Source: Australia, Canada, Israel and New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Host-country labour markets tend to devalue foreign qualifications, which affects employment, leads to over-qualification (see Tables 2.A1.5 and 2.A1.8 for European OECD countries), and reduces wages (Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014). Employment returns to education abroad – as measured by the increase with an additional year of education in the probability of being in employment – are only a little more than half the returns of domestic qualifications, both in Europe and the United States. Indeed, immigrants' labour market outcomes seem to be more strongly determined by the country in which they obtained their qualifications than by the country in which they were born (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

The downgrading of foreign qualifications on host-country labour markets holds even after controlling for differences in years of residence and literacy skills (Tables 2.A1.7 and 2.A1.8). It is a key issue in integration, since most immigrants hold foreign degrees (Figure 2.A1.1).

Estimates suggest that between one-third and one-half of the high observed over-qualification of immigrants compared with the native-born is associated with lower skills at given qualification levels (Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014; OECD, 2008a; Dumont and Monso, 2007). Indeed, immigrants with host-country degrees generally enjoy similar labour market outcomes to their native-born peers. However, it is unclear to what extent the undervaluing of foreign qualifications may be ascribed to the poor performance of education systems in countries of origin or to the limited transferability of skills. Further analysis with PIAAC data should shed some light on this.

Host-country employers downgrade foreign work experience even more than they do foreign qualifications. However, recent evidence (Picot and Sweetman, 2011) suggests that attitudes change once immigrants become more familiar with the local labour market and employers have information that enables them to better judge the value of foreign qualifications and work experience.

Mastering the host-country language is the most important skill for labour market integration

As mentioned above, the single most important skill for succeeding in local labour markets and, indeed, in society at large is mastery of host countries' official languages. Adequately measuring command of language and its links with the labour market is a challenging task. Literacy, as measured by PIAAC, clearly includes language skills. For European OECD countries, some self-reported information is available from the 2008 Labour Force Survey on whether immigrants consider that poor language skills are a barrier to finding a job that matches their qualifications and work experience. Although self-reporting is far from an objective measure of language skills, it does afford an immigrant take on language skills and what is adequate for the country's labour market.

More than one in five immigrants report that language difficulties are a considerable obstacle to finding a suitable job. Of that proportion, those with low levels of education are over-represented. Controlling for education level, it appears that immigrants who cite language as a major difficulty are chiefly those with foreign – particularly non-OECD – qualifications. Humanitarian immigrants are the most likely to report language difficulties, followed by family and labour immigrants, while those who state that they immigrated for the purpose of studying rarely report language problems.

Damas de Matos and Liebig (2014) find that there is a strong negative correlation between language difficulties and labour market outcomes, notwithstanding entry categories and the level and country of qualification. After controlling for differences in other observable characteristics, the authors find that immigrants who struggle with language are 17 percentage points more likely to be over-qualified for their job than those who do not report such difficulties. Immigrants' self-reported language difficulties also seem to account for much of the disadvantage observed among immigrants compared to the native-born of a similar age and education level. For labour immigrants who do not report language problems, the labour market disadvantage seems to disappear entirely.

Immigrants and their children lack networks and understanding of labour markets

Formal qualifications, language, and work experience are only some of the skills needed to succeed on the labour market. Immigrants also face greater challenges when seeking jobs and recruitment channels, even when their qualifications are at least comparable to those of their native-born peers. They are at an obvious disadvantage when it comes to knowledge of the host-country's labour market and hiring practices and with respect to contacts, direct or indirect, with employers.

In all OECD countries, much hiring is through informal contact with employers. The question of contacts and networks goes well beyond the "I'll put you in touch with". Sometimes, a contact may just be a mere hint that there is an employer who might be interested. Having contacts is not only an issue for people who immigrated as adults, but also for the children of immigrants raised and educated in the host country. The reason is that contact with the first employer – generally for apprenticeship or internships – often comes about through the parents' personal networks.

The lack of direct contact between employers and immigrants also fuels the formers' misgivings about the latters' skills and productivity. A Swedish study (Åslund et al., 2009) found that managers are generally much more likely to hire workers with their same ethnic background, except in cases where the applicant was a former employee.

Networks are part of the broader issue of knowledge of a local labour market and how it functions. Writing applications and presentation in a job interview tend to be highly country-specific. Differences in this respect are wide even between OECD countries. Analysis from the Nordic countries (Rosholm et al., 2001) suggests that interpersonal skills are particularly critical in highly skilled sectors where new technologies and work practices – e.g. team work, freelancing and virtual offices – are making the workplace more loosely structured.

Discrimination

Discrimination is also a factor that hinders the access of immigrants and their native-born offspring to the job market. However, the selective hiring of people from certain backgrounds and discrimination against those from others is hard to prove (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013; OECD, 2008b). There is always the chance that characteristics that affect productivity but are not observed directly could account for employer preference for certain candidates, rather than outright discrimination.

One way to circumvent this are situation and CV-testing studies. These have demonstrated discrimination in hiring for many OECD countries.[10] The results are summarised in Table 2.1. The tests involve submitting equivalent applications for the same job from two (fictitious) candidates with the same profile who differ in name alone. Since applicants' qualifications need to be very similar, they are given the same level of attainment in the domestic education system. Test findings therefore chiefly apply to the offspring of immigrants. They show that it is not uncommon that immigrants and their offspring have to regularly send out more than twice as many applications before they secure to a job interview.

Interestingly, given the high incidence of discrimination and the on average lower educational outcomes of immigrants' children, it is reasonable to expect that they should show much higher unemployment rates than are actually observed. One reason seems to be that immigrants' offspring compensate for discrimination by making additional efforts to find work or accepting lower-skilled jobs.[11] Survey data from a number of OECD countries suggest that that is actually what happens – an important finding that merits highlighting.

Although results cannot be directly compared across countries and sectors, one common finding is that discriminatory practices generally affect immigrant men more than women. Discrimination is also probably even greater when the labour market is slack, as companies can afford to pick and choose who they take on. It also tends to be more pronounced in small- and medium-sized enterprises which not only have fewer contacts with immigrants, but may also be less willing to take the risk of hiring a person about whose productivity they know little.

Yet, can uncertainty be justified when it comes to the children of immigrants who have good host-country qualifications? Indeed, a key finding from Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013) is that in European OECD countries, native-born children of immigrants report feeling discriminated against more often than immigrants themselves. The contrast is stark with non-European OECD countries that have been settled by migration, where the reverse is the case.

Discrimination has multiple negative effects and its extent, as revealed in testing studies, is worrying. It not only reduces immigrants' incentives to invest in education and training, but also impacts adversely on both the economy and social cohesion.

Table 2.1. **Results from situation testing in 17 OECD countries**

	Ethnic group	Relative call-back rate
Australia	Chinese	1.7[1]
	Italian	1.1
	Middle Eastern	1.6[1]
Austria	Chinese	1.4[1]
	Nigeria	2.0[1]
	Serbian	1.3[1]
	Turkish	1.5[1]
Belgium	Moroccan	1.9[1]
	Turkish (compared with Flemish) (Bottleneck jobs)	2.1[1]
	Turkish (compared with Flemish) (Non-bottleneck)	1.0
Canada (Montreal)	African	1.8[1]
	Arab	1.6[1]
	Latin-American	1.6[1]
Canada (Toronto)	Chinese	1.5[1]
	Indian	1.3[1]
	Pakistani (applicants with Canadian education and experience)	1.4[1]
Finland	Russian (names)	2.0[1]
France	North African and sub-Saharan African (native-born offspring)	2.0[1]
Germany	Turkish	1.4[1]
Greece	Albanian	1.8[1]
Ireland	African	2.4[1]
	Asian	1.8[1]
	German	2.1[1]
Italy	Moroccan (foreign-born)	1.4[1]
Netherlands	Antillean	1.2[1]
	Moroccan	1.1[1]
	Moroccan (men only)	1.3[1]
	Surinamese	1.2[1]
	Turkish	1.2[1]
Norway	Pakistani (native-born offspring)	1.3[1]
Spain	Moroccan (foreign-born)	1.3[1]
Sweden	Arabic/African	1.8[1]
	Young native Swedes of Middle-Eastern background	2.5[1]
	Middle Eastern (men only)	1.5[1]
Switzerland	Albanian speakers from former Yugoslavia (in French-speaking areas)	1.3[1]
	Albanian speakers from former Yugoslavia (in German-speaking areas) (foreign-born men)	2.5[1]
	Portuguese (in French-speaking areas)	1.1
	Turkish (in German-speaking areas)	1.4[1]
United Kingdom	Black African	1.7[1]
	Black Caribbean	1.9[1]
	Chinese	1.9[1]
	Indian	1.9[1]
	Pakistani/Bangladeshi	1.5[1]
United States	African American	1.5[1]
	Latinos	1.2
	Black	2.0[1]

1. Significantly different from 1.0. The relative call-back rate is the number of applications that a person from the group concerned has to send out – relative to a person without an "immigrant background" – before he or she is invited to a job interview.

Source: For full references and discussion: Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013), except for: Austria: Hofer et al. (2013); Finland: Larja et al. (2012); Germany: SVR (2014).

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In summary, while immigrants and their offspring face a number of labour market integration challenges, they should not overshadow the fact that, in most OECD countries, the majority of immigrants and their children are in work. This is an important point, since relatively few of the foreign-born in OECD countries arrive with the same advantages and skills as the native-born, who have domestic degrees, local contacts, and native-speaker's advantage on the labour market. Yet immigrants and their children still have much potential to offer. The next section sets out to explore which policies help tap into it.

What policies matter for immigrant integration?

When it comes to integrating immigrants and maintaining employment levels, appropriate skills investment – to develop, activate, and use them effectively in the host-country's labour market – can make immigration a tool for meeting the labour market challenges that stem from population ageing. In addition to driving long-term growth, investment in the skills of immigrants and their native-born children can, at the individual level, help them make the most of their potential and go some way to halting the transmission of disadvantage from one generation to the next. Workers with higher skills – be they immigrants or native-born – are more productive, tend to earn more, and have brighter employment prospects.

The OECD Skills Strategy (OECD, 2012a) is an instrument designed to help governments better understand how to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their existing training and education systems. Adapted to immigrants and their children, its holistic approach can help harness the widely underutilised skills of immigrants and their children as part of an integration policy that contributes effectively to the overall goals of better jobs, economic growth, and social inclusion.

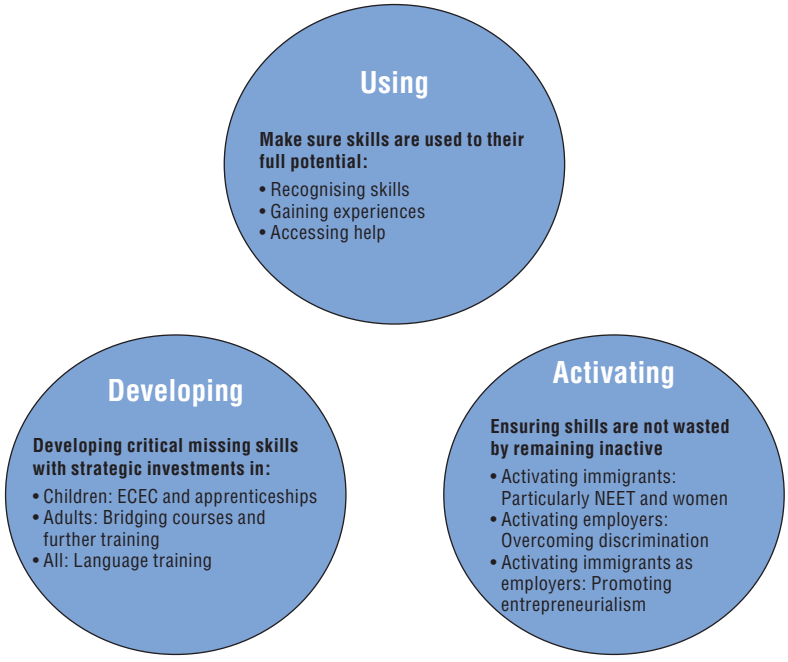
The Skills Strategy builds on three pillars:

- **Putting existing skills to effective use on the labour market** requires effective policies and investment. The first step is to take stock and "recognise" immigrants' skills appropriately. Foreign-born adults bring skills formalised by foreign qualifications and shaped by work experience that host countries often fail to fully acknowledge. Successful entry into the labour market has a profound impact on a person's career and subsequent use of skills, while the scarring effects of a poor start may lead to unemployment or over-qualification that workers struggle to overcome later in their careers. Skills that go unused tend to atrophy, while work experience often brings out new ones. Integration policies should begin by clearly communicating information about the skills that are needed and available, so helping to connect qualified workers with potential employers and averting the risk of unemployment and over-skilling.
- **Developing skills that meet the needs of the labour market.** Policies to develop skills seek to ensure that the supply of skills in the labour market is sufficient, in both quantity and quality, to meet current and emerging needs. Within integration policy, it is important to foster the right mix of skills through education and training.
- **Activating skills currently not supplied to the labour market.** Activating skills encourages inactive working-age people to seek a job or retrain. They may have many skills but not offer them on the labour market out of choice, for personal or family reasons, because of poor perceived employment prospects, or financial disincentives to work or hire. To activate skills effectively, governments can create financial incentives

that make work pay and dismantle non-financial barriers to labour market participation. Activating skills effectively may require galvanising employers and tackling their reluctance to hire individuals who are inactive or drifting away from the labour force.

The diagram below (Figure 2.19) shows how the skills strategy can be adapted to integrating immigrants.

Figure 2.19. **Using the OECD Skills Strategy framework to integrate immigrants**



Investing in skills involves all three of the inter-linked pillars. Ultimately, policies can enhance the use only of skills that have been developed and activated. If their skills are used effectively workers are more likely to be inclined to invest in developing them and feel encouraged to remain active. When it comes to the foreign-born, proper assessment and recognition of their existing skills will avoid any unnecessary investment in developing them and will focus any additional training on the critical missing skills. At the same time, activating existing skills – through early integration in the labour market – may facilitate the development of further ones, like language, among new arrivals.

This chapter draws on the three pillars of the OECD Skills Strategy – developing, activating, and putting skills to effective use. For the offspring of immigrants and the native-born, the Strategy rightly takes the development of skills as its starting point. The first part of this chapter considers the importance of recognising and harnessing existing skills to bring foreign-born adults into the labour market. Immigrant adults bring qualifications and skills with them and getting them into employment early has become a key policy goal. The second part goes on to demonstrate how immigrants and their offspring can effectively activate and develop the right skills for participating in the labour market on an equal footing with the native-born and their offspring.

Putting skills to use

Putting the skills of the foreign-born to effective use requires recognising them and putting them into practice. It can involve overcoming additional hurdles and may, at times, require extra help to connect immigrants with employers so that they can evaluate immigrants' skills rather than acting on preconceptions.

Assessing and recognising immigrants' skills

The first step in putting immigrants' skills and qualifications to effective use is to gather information about these qualifications and to make them available to potential employers. Employers, the public and even immigrants themselves may be uncertain whether a foreign qualification actually represents the skills that are needed in the labour market. Assessing and recognising these qualifications is often a helpful first step in the integration process and helps immigrants to access jobs that are appropriately matched to their skills and qualifications. Assessing the skills of foreign-trained immigrants can help to identify needs for additional training and work experience.

Many actors are involved in ensuring that the skills and qualifications of immigrants are appropriately recognised and used:

- **Educational authorities** assess and certify the comparability of qualifications from abroad, often to decide whether an applicant qualifies for a specific study programme.
- **Professional bodies** assess and recognise qualifications in their regulated field of expertise.
- **Dedicated recognition bodies** may certify qualifications, provide information, co-ordinate other actors involved and are often a first point of contact for potential applicants.
- Co-operation with **employers** in the recognition process can improve their appreciation of immigrants' foreign qualifications.

Recognising immigrants' skills primarily takes two forms: assessment and recognition of formal qualifications and the validation of competences.

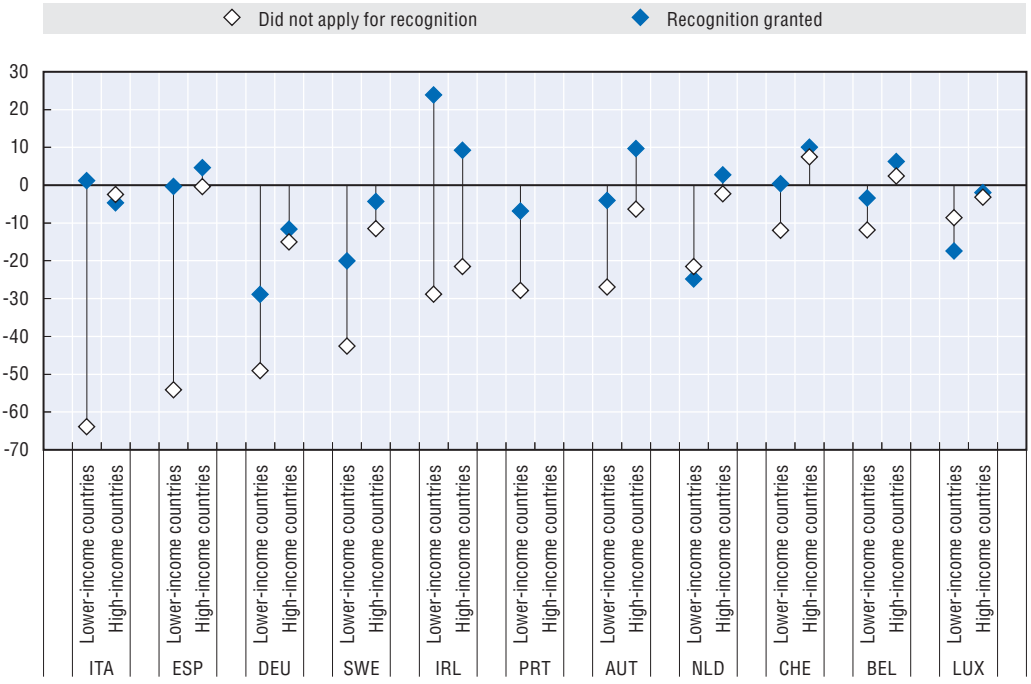
Assessment and recognition of formal qualifications. The formal assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications is an important tool for authorities as they seek to help employers overcome their misgivings about the skills of immigrants. Formal recognition by educational or professional bodies certifies the authenticity of the qualification and its (full or partial) equivalence with a domestic qualification that is better known to employers or grants a domestic degree directly. Formal recognition is needed to exercise regulated professions, such as medicine or law. Such professions, however, are generally only a small share of the labour market. In other cases, the assessment and recognition procedure can nevertheless be useful as an official certification of qualifications and a touchstone for employers who are unsure about the true value of immigrants' foreign qualifications – particularly those obtained in education systems that are very different from the host country's. Ultimately, however, "recognition" of immigrants' skills lies with employers who decide if they want to accept the foreign qualifications, whether they have undergone a formal assessment and recognition procedure or not. It is thus important that they have confidence in the outcome of the accreditation process.[12]

Data from selected EU countries shows that completion of a formal assessment and recognition procedure is associated with higher employment and better jobs for immigrants. It helps, for example to reduce over-qualification, as measured in the percentage of the highly educated who are employed below their formal education level.

The over-qualification gap between the foreign- and native-born is significantly narrower among immigrants who obtained recognition than among those who do not even apply. The improvement in labour market outcomes associated with recognition is particularly pronounced among immigrants from lower-income countries, i.e. those whose education systems tend to differ widely from those of OECD countries (Figure 2.20).

Figure 2.20. **Shares of highly educated foreign-born workers in jobs matching their formal qualifications in selected European OECD countries, by recognition of qualifications, 2008**

Percentage points differences with native-born



Note: "-10" means that the highly educated immigrants in employment have a probability to be in a job according to their qualification that is 10 percentage points lower than the native-born. Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. They are considered to hold a job "according to their qualification" if the job is classified as ISCO 1 to 3 (ISCO stands for International Standard Classification of Occupations). High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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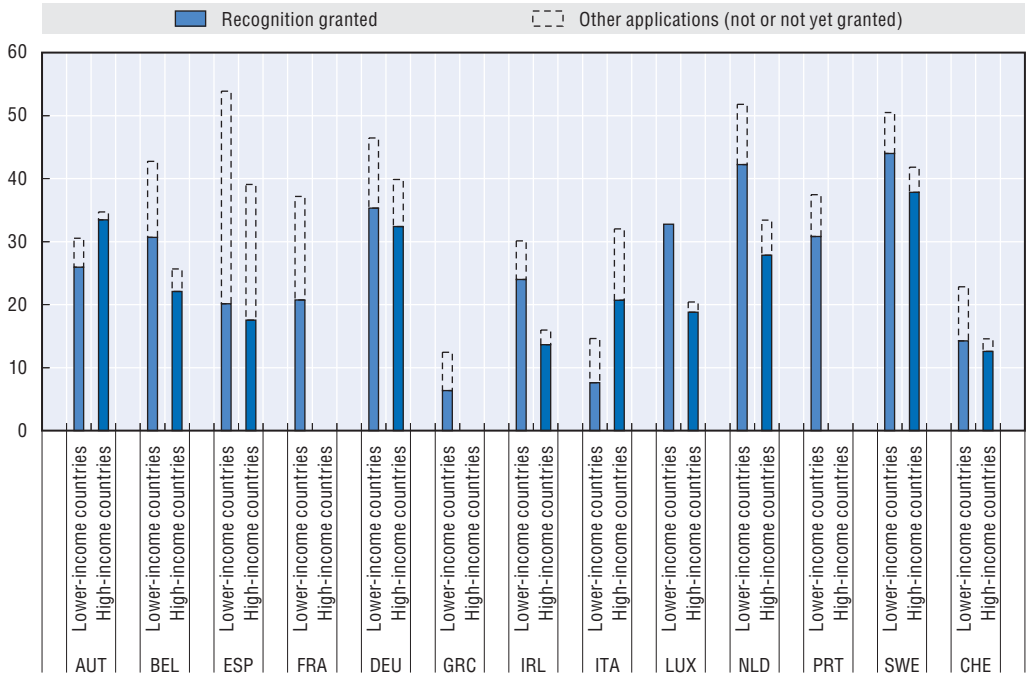
Some benefits derive from the fact that formal assessment and recognition is often the starting point for obtaining a host-country qualification that is highly valued in the labour market. For example, foreigners generally require formal certification that their qualifications are equivalent to at least to an upper secondary degree before they can enter the country's tertiary education system.

Across the European OECD countries, those most likely to apply for recognition are non-EU immigrants who arrive as students or ultimately obtain a tertiary-level degree in the host country. This finding indicates that accreditation is used mainly within the confines of the higher education system by immigrants pursuing their studies. Application rates are much lower among humanitarian and family immigrants and lowest among labour immigrants. Those with degrees in the health sector are also most likely to apply,

with rates 16 percentage points above the second most common field of study, which is teaching and education. Recognition thus appears to be only standard practice within certain highly regulated professions. Nevertheless, it yields positive results for a wide range of applicants, regardless of their reasons for migrating, their field of study, or where they obtained their degrees (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

In most countries for which data are available, though, it seems that despite the apparent career benefits, and the fact that full or partial recognition is generally granted to applicants, only a minority of immigrants with foreign qualifications actually do apply (see Figure 2.21).

Figure 2.21. **Percentages of highly educated immigrants, aged 15-24, who apply for accreditation of their foreign qualifications, selected European OECD countries, 2008**



Note: Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. The sample excludes persons who are not working, have not found a job which will start later and would not like to have work. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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Possible explanations for the low application rates point to the fact that assessment and recognition is not yet a standard part of most countries' integration policies. Outside higher education and the health sector, immigrants and integration service-providers may simply not know that there is such a procedure or that it can convey benefits.

A further explanation is that immigrants know about assessment and recognition but perceive the procedure as too burdensome or complex. Indeed, authorities responsible for this process are often numerous, disconnected from and unrelated to the bodies generally responsible for integration and employment. Additional formalities often surface, depending on the level and regulation of professions. For example, while universities are often in charge of the assessment and recognition of tertiary-level qualifications, it is the

job of professional bodies to grant recognition of qualifications in regulated professions. And overly cumbersome procedures can effectively exclude certain professional and academic qualifications. Administrative complexities are even greater in countries where education and employment authorities are decentralised or whose duties overlap.

Immigrants may encounter additional procedural hurdles, such as complicated documentation requirements, high fees, a potentially long wait for a decision, and a lack of transparency in the whole process. In some cases, too, a host country's authorities are unable to check on the degree from the country of origin – if, for example, the applicant is a refugee from a conflict zone or failed state. All such obstacles can deter foreign-educated immigrants from applying for recognition, so that only those certain to succeed in the end may apply.

Facilitating and promoting assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications has been a key recent policy trend in OECD countries, especially those seeking to attract highly educated immigrants. Germany's Federal Recognition Act instituted the right to an assessment in federally regulated professions through a more standardised, transparent procedure. In 2012, its first year in force, the act prompted 30 000 applications – mostly from EU citizens and in the health sector – and a high recognition rate.

Other countries, such as Denmark and Slovenia, also set forth the assessment and recognition procedure through laws that create the clear entitlement to assessment in regulated and non-regulated professions. Canada has drawn up a non-binding framework – the 2009 Pan-Canadian Framework for the Assessment and Recognition of Foreign Qualifications – which spells out to all provinces and territories common principles for improving fairness, transparency, timeliness, and consistency. A few countries have introduced uniform structures for the assessment and recognition of all foreign qualifications. Examples are some Nordic and Central European countries and the United Kingdom. Even without such structures, some countries have put in place one-stop shops to process all applications (e.g. the Netherlands) and counselling services to assist applicants (e.g. Austria, Canada, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden).

Validation of competencies. A related issue is the broader validation of competencies, obtained both formally and informally. This "accreditation of prior learning" is increasingly widespread among OECD countries and often focuses on the certification of intermediate-level skills of individuals who do not have a formal – or formally recognised – educational degree. However, while it might be expected that immigrants are overrepresented, as they would seem to benefit overwhelmingly from such certification, data on programmes from a number of OECD countries reveal that they are in fact underrepresented (OECD, 2008a and 2012c).

In several OECD countries – such as Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland – the public employment services have well established general procedures for assessing and validating skills, competencies, and work experience. Some countries have also developed immigrant-specific validation tools. One such tool is Denmark's "Competence Card".

The Competence Card helps to make immigrants' skills more visible to prospective employers and to connect them with labour market needs. The relevant institution assesses and documents individuals' professional, linguistic, and general skills. Competencies are placed on a digital competence card that can be used to seek jobs or further education. As with formal recognition of qualifications, accreditation of prior learning should involve employers in the certification process if it is to be successful. It is ultimately up to them to

accept the outcome. Denmark has again taken an innovative approach here, drawing not only the public employment service into the validation process, but the social partners, too.

Gaining experience: Integrating immigrants and their skills into the workplace

Working can be just as effective as formal study for developing a wide range of skills. Yet beyond the accreditation of foreign qualifications and competences, there are many hurdles still facing the effective use of immigrant skills on domestic labour markets. They relate to employers' experience with using those skills and public perceptions of them. Practical experience – in both the private and public sectors – is a valuable tool for debunking preconceptions and misinformation. It also helps to ensure that immigrants are given the opportunity to integrate and develop their skills.

Early integration in the labour market can set off a virtuous circle in the development and use of immigrants' skills as on-the-job learning, language use, and social integration mutually reinforce one another. Indeed, early labour market integration is a good predictor of outcomes in the long run. However, even when qualifications have been formally recognised, employer reticence as to the level and relevance of skills and experience obtained abroad can limit their willingness to hire foreign-born applicants. Against this backdrop, policies that bring immigrants into contact with employers and allow them to familiarise themselves with immigrants have proven particularly effective.

Work experience schemes – a chance to demonstrate skills. Instruments through which private-sector employers can be encouraged to offer work experience to foreign-born workers include subsidised wages, work placements, and internships. Policies that involve some element of employment experience can give them an opportunity to demonstrate to potential employers the relevance of their skills and qualifications. Such policies offset the employer uncertainty that widely affects demand for immigrant workers. Indeed, many of the most effective active labour market programmes (ALMPs) – for both native and foreign-born beneficiaries – combine work experience with on-the-job training.

Available evaluations from North-West Europe (see e.g. the meta-analysis by Butschek and Walter, 2013; and Nekby, 2008) suggest that private-sector incentive schemes, specifically wage subsidies and work placements, can be effective instruments. They are utilised to varying degrees in OECD countries and have been found to be most effective when implemented early – within the first six months of unemployment or in the first year(s) after arrival. The evaluations also found that such measures, particularly wage subsidies, often have a much stronger positive impact on immigrants than on their native-born peers.

The risk, however, associated with such private-sector incentive schemes of the wage subsidy sort is that they may crowd out hiring. In other words, employers may choose to rely on subsidised labour instead of regular contracts and therefore be reluctant to offer permanent jobs to programme participants when subsidies comes to an end. Such policies must therefore be carefully designed, targeted at the jobseekers most in need, used on a temporary basis, and made conditional on firms not substituting existing workers with subsidised ones. Combining subsidised work with on-the-job-training can help overcome that risk, as job-specific training will raise the productivity of the programme participant as subsidies are reduced. Sweden's "Step-in" jobs programme, for example – introduced in 2007 – grants a subsidy of 80% of gross wage costs for up to 24 months to employers who hire new arrivals. This employment subsidy can be combined with Swedish language training to prevent language hurdles from holding back rapid labour market integration.

Other programmes targeted at the rapid integration of foreign-born workers in Sweden include: "New Start Jobs", which gives tax relief to employers who hire foreign-born (or long-term unemployed) workers; funded apprenticeships; and the new "Applied Basic Year" which combines on-the-job vocational training with language instruction.

Similarly, the Danish "Stepmodel" applies three steps combining language training, work placements, and wage subsidies that are phased out as workers' productivity increases. Unemployed newcomers from non-Western countries first undergo intensive language training and labour market orientation. They are then given a state-financed work placement and, where possible, on-the-job language training. In the third and last phase, employers are expected to offer workers a job which the state may subsidise for up to one year while they acquire further language and skills trainings.

Despite the benefits that wage subsidies and similar policy measures seem to afford immigrants, they are rarely explicitly designated as a target group and are largely underrepresented among beneficiaries. Generally speaking, while the foreign-born tend to be more or less fairly represented among the participants in ALMPs as a whole, they are often underrepresented in the schemes from which they benefit most. Such a pattern has emerged, for example, in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and Switzerland (OECD; 2007, 2008a, 2012c).

There are several possible explanations for the underrepresentation. In the first place, immigrants may not know programmes are available and may instead be directed towards classroom-based vocational and language training, which can be difficult to combine with work. A second reason for the low take-up among the foreign-born may lie – as with regular employment – on the demand side. Employers may not have much contact with foreign-born workers or not realise that immigrant candidates are eligible for the schemes concerned. It is also conceivable that some employers are simply unwilling to give immigrants a chance. Finally, in some countries – such as Ireland, Korea and several Central European countries – there are legal barriers preventing some categories of newcomers from accessing public employment services.

Temporary employment agency work as a stepping stone. Another channel of work experience in host countries is through contracts arranged by temporary employment agencies. Indeed, in some countries – such as the Netherlands, Sweden, and Germany – there is evidence that the proportion of ethnic minorities among temporary agency workers is higher than among other employees. While the expansion of "temping" has raised concerns that it may be crowding out more stable forms of employment, it can actually be a valuable stepping stone into such work for foreign-born workers – whose skills often prompt misgiving when they lack domestic qualifications and experience. Depending on the country, between around one-third and two-thirds of temporary workers move into a permanent position within two years, and there is some evidence that foreign-born "temps" are more likely to make the transition (see OECD, 2008a).

However, private temporary employment agencies play no formal role in the integration process and have little connection with integration service providers and immigrant communities. The risk of relying on them to help immigrants gain experience is that they train their sights on the most employable workers, the "easy ones" who are most likely to reflect employer preferences. Ultimately, therefore, they may actually sideline foreign-born who face greater obstacles to labour market integration.

Employment in the public sector and the role of the public discourse. An important factor in shaping the way immigrants' skills are perceived by employers and society at large is the public discourse on migration and integration issues (Huddleston et al., 2013). The challenge with respect to public opinion is not to secure a consensus on immigration and integration issues, but rather to halt the perpetuation of preconceptions. A fact-based, solution-oriented public discourse helps to counter stereotypes about immigrants and dispel employers' doubts about their skills.[13] The public discourse not only influences public acceptance of future immigration in OECD countries, it may also play a crucial part in the integration of existing immigrant populations. Negative messages with regard to immigrants encourage discrimination, which may in turn affect the behaviour of immigrants themselves and lead to under-investment in their skills and labour market integration. In that event, anxieties over immigration would become self-fulfilling prophecies (OECD, 2010b; Liebig, 2011).

Negative public discourse also affects immigrants' self-confidence and their ability to give their best in host countries. Experiments show that exposing the foreign-born to negative stereotypes and anti-immigrant messages substantially lowers their performance on cognitive tests.[14] Those who internalise stereotypes become more anxious, more distracted, less confident, and less motivated.

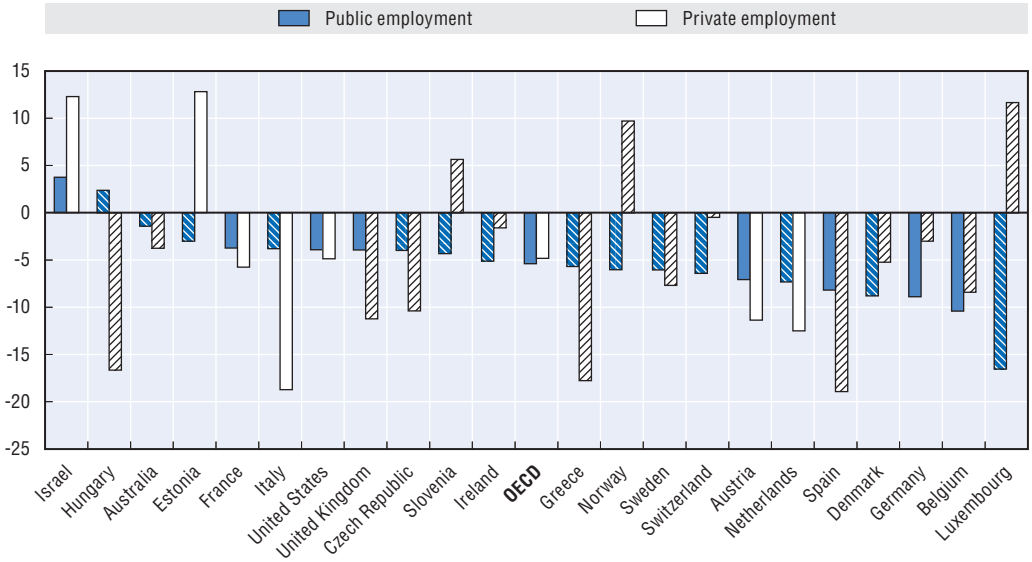
Perceptions of immigrants are partly shaped by their visibility in normal, everyday life. And, while the private sector, too, has its part to play, the public sector has proven particularly important in influencing perceptions. By employing qualified immigrant candidates, it acts as a role model for the private sector. Working in the public sector heightens the visibility of immigrants' as playing a normal part in everyday life. Greater diversity in public sector staff can help to enhance understanding of immigrants' needs by government institutions. And, when immigrants work in key occupations such as teaching, they can also serve as role models for others, particularly immigrant youth. Finally, employment in the public sector gives the government a lever with which to further labour market integration, as it has a more direct bearing on its own employment decisions than on those in the private sector.

With the exception of some healthcare professions, relatively few jobs in the public service are typical entry jobs for new arrivals, so it is not surprising that immigrants tend to be underrepresented even in the longer run. However, as Figure 2.22 shows, even the native-born children of immigrants are more under-represented in the public than in the private sector in most European OECD countries, which include those with large, longstanding populations of native-born offspring, such as Austria, Belgium and Germany. The reason may, in some cases, be that not all children born in a host country have its nationality, although that is generally not a major obstacle. A further explanation is that people are more likely to join the public service if one of their parents is or was employed there. There is less chance of that among immigrants and their children.

In recent years, several OECD countries have stepped up their efforts to promote the employment of immigrants and (particularly) their children in the public sector. Most OECD countries have now removed legal restrictions on foreign nationals working in public sector and civil service jobs unrelated to the exercise of public authority.[15] Some have gone further and actively encouraged the employment of immigrants and their offspring in the public sector, often as part of broader equal employment policies (EEPs) (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013). EEPs generally take as their benchmark the equitable representation of

Figure 2.22. **How immigrants' native-born offspring are represented in the public and private sectors compared to the children of the native-born in selected OECD countries, 2008-09**

Percentage points difference between native-born children of two immigrant parents and children of two native-born parents, persons aged 15-34



Note: Employment in the public sector is defined as the population working in public administration, human health, and social work activities or in education with the exception of Australia where it includes only employment in national, state/territory and local governments. The striped bars indicate that the differences are not statistically significant (at a 5% level), excluding the OECD average. A 5 percentage point negative difference means that native-born children of immigrants are five percentage points less likely to work in the given sector than children of the native-born.
Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants and the 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market; Australia: Population Census 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2008-09; United States: Current Population Surveys 2008-09.

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immigrants and their children at all levels of the public sector. Policymakers make a commitment to the benchmark and develop promotional activities and diversity management practices.

Countries with well-developed public sector EEPs in the public sector have often managed to improve the representation of immigrants and their descendants over time, compared with those countries that have not done so. In addition to the well-known examples of affirmative action in the US and employment equity policies in Canada, the United Kingdom has had policies in place since 2000 and broader equality duties since 2010. Similarly, Sweden introduced measures for ethnic and religious affirmative action in 1999 and reinforced them in 2009. In 2012, the proportion of new hires in the public sector who have an immigrant background succeeded their population share for the first time. Indeed, monitoring should rather focus on new hiring than on the stock of those employed.

The Netherlands, too, has a long tradition of such policies in the public sector. They were particularly robust in the late 1980s and early 1990s, though some of the more pro-active policies have recently been replaced by monitoring and reporting requirements. They may nevertheless have an impact as awareness-raising tools. Over the past decade, Norway has introduced legal obligations for the public sector to interview immigrant candidates, set up diversity recruitment plans, set targets, and provided diversity training

for hiring managers. The available evidence suggests that Norwegian action has yielded improved outcomes, with the public sector making a disproportionate contribution to the higher employment rates among immigrants from lower-income countries in recent years. Denmark's 2003 diversity agenda also set an equity benchmark for all state and municipal governments, investing funds and introducing major pilot schemes. Specific targets have been set, a regular employment statistics watch has been put in place, and small financial incentives provided.[16] Such measures have been backed by relatively good monitoring mechanisms and shown some positive results.

Naturalisation as a signal of motivation and intentions to stay. There are a number of other ways to overcome employer reticence apart from government equity measures. One way would be if immigrants were able to send out signals about their employability. Naturalisation is one such message. Employers tend to interpret it as a sign of integration and higher productivity – maybe because it denotes a better command of language or greater motivation. Multivariate and longitudinal analyses from several OECD countries have identified a "citizenship premium", although it cannot necessarily be observed in all countries and for all immigrant groups (Liebig and Von Haaren, 2011).[17]

Immigrants who have naturalised generally enjoy better employment outcomes than their peers with similar characteristics and years of residence. Naturalised men from non-OECD countries are 3.7% more likely to be employed than foreigners, controlling for other individual factors (Table 2.A1.3 in the annex). Young native-born adults with foreign-born parents are also slightly more likely to be employed if they are nationals of their country of birth, even after controlling for their age, education level, and family situation. Such a "naturalisation premium" has also been observed in longitudinal studies that followed the same people over time (see the overview in OECD, 2011). Furthermore, CV testing experiments have found that employers more frequently give a naturalised immigrant a job interview than a foreign applicant with the same qualifications (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013).

There are three possible explanations for the citizenship or naturalisation premium, which tends to have its most pronounced effect among immigrants from lower-income countries (OECD, 2011). Firstly, as indicated above, naturalisation allows immigrants to signal that they are, or intend to be, settled and "integrated" citizens of their host countries. Employers and the public respond positively, harbouring less doubts about immigrants' intentions of staying on and inferring a greater determination to integrate.

Secondly, although legal and administrative barriers to taking on foreigners are few and, where they do exist, not widely restrictive – at least for foreigners with a permanent status, some employers may still think formal barriers are in place.[18] However, there is no need to check a naturalised person's right to work or sponsor them for a work permit. Thirdly, naturalisation gives immigrants additional incentives and opportunities to invest in country-specific skills, both during and after the naturalisation process. Employers may also be more willing to invest in training naturalised immigrants who now have a secured future in the country. As for the native-born children of immigrants, their acquisition of citizenship at birth or when young, sends the signal that they are considered part of society. Indeed, data from the 2008 European Value Survey show that being born in a country is the determinant most widely cited by nationals of what it means to be a citizen of that country.

While naturalisation can be a useful tool for integration, it should be used with caution – not least because public opinion may need convincing that reforms to ease naturalisation do not "devalue" citizenship. Indeed, many OECD countries with liberal access to citizenship in terms of duration-of-residency requirements have reinforced other criteria for naturalisation to avoid the misperception that citizenship is being "given away". Interestingly, however, there is no evidence that the integration outcomes associated with the acquisition of citizenship are weaker in countries with more inclusive naturalisation policies. Nor does dual nationality seem to harm immigrants' labour market integration (Mazzolari, 2009).

There is, however, a case for encouraging citizenship take-up through public campaigns and by removing barriers to citizenship in countries where they are particularly restrictive. Over the past 15 years citizenship reforms in many countries have, to varying degrees: accepted dual nationality; set basic requirements for immigrant adults; removed practical obstacles in the naturalisation procedure, and created some form of birthright citizenship for the native-born children of immigrants. As for duration-of-residence requirements, there seems to be a general swing towards the five-to-eight year range. Promotional campaigns are also increasingly popular, encouraging eligible applicants to apply and assisting them in meeting requirements. Promoting citizenship is a longstanding policy in many OECD countries that have been settled by migration – e.g. Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – and is gradually spreading to European OECD countries.

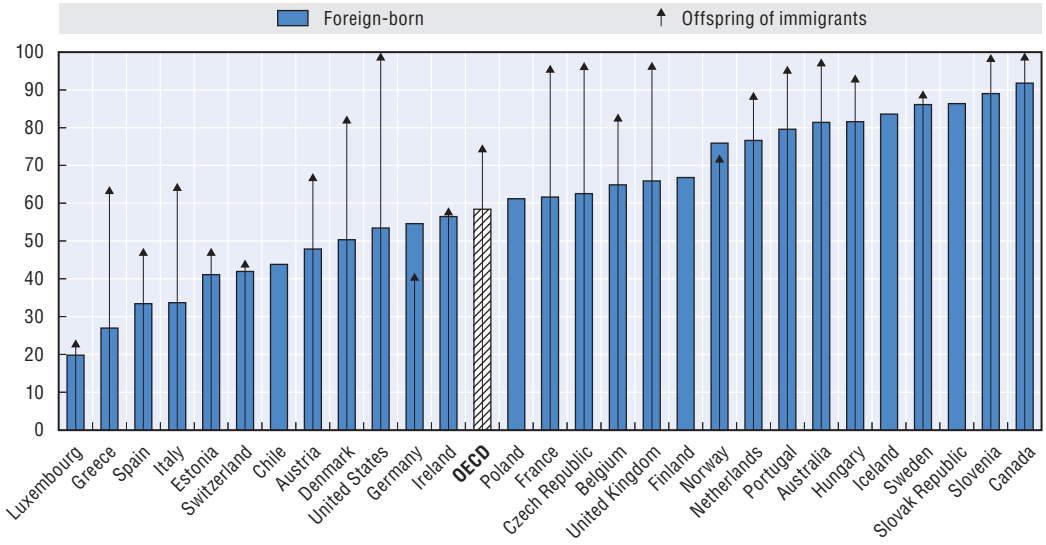
Tools for promoting citizenship include information campaigns and free preparatory courses, materials and practice tests. Citizenship ceremonies that publicly recognise naturalised immigrants are now the practice in most OECD countries. These and other measures are being increasingly adopted in European countries with large foreign populations, from Portugal and Sweden to the Baltic States and, most recently, Ireland, and more specifically in cities in Austria, Germany, and Italy (Huddleston, 2013). A number of countries, such as Korea, make it easier for migrants who have successfully attended integration courses to naturalise.

Notwithstanding the recent policy efforts, many migrants who would in principle be eligible for citizenship have not yet naturalised (Figure 2.23). Between 50% and 80% of immigrant adults have not naturalised, even after living for ten years or more in countries such as Austria, Chile, Switzerland, Estonia, Italy, Spain, Greece, and Luxembourg. Among the countries with significant immigrant populations not affected by border changes, the share of naturalised immigrants exceeds 80% only in Australia, Sweden, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Canada, all of which have generous provisions for naturalisation. Indeed, the shares of even native-born children of immigrants with host-country nationality are relatively low in countries like Estonia, Germany, Luxembourg, Switzerland, and most Southern European countries.

Accessing help: Improving immigrants' use of job-search support

The public employment service. In many OECD countries, the public employment service (PES) is the primary actor connecting jobseekers with employers. While structures differ from one country to another, the PES generally plays a key role in matching labour supply and demand by providing information, placing workers, and enhancing their employability through active labour market policies (ALMPs).[19] Labour force survey data suggest that, in many countries across the EU, less than 10% of the population relied on the PES when searching for their current job or setting up a business. In Spain, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, and Portugal – i.e. countries where many labour immigrants have arrived in recent years –

Figure 2.23. **Percentage of nationals among the foreign-born population with at least ten years of residence in 2013 and among the native-born offspring of two immigrant parents in 2008-09**



Note: The percentage of nationals among foreign-born is based on the 15- to 64-year-old population (except in Canada and Australia where it is based on the population aged 15 and above) with at least ten years of residence in the country. The percentage of nationals among the offspring of immigrants is based on the 15- 34-year-old native-born offspring of two immigrant parents. In the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia, the percentage of nationals among the foreign-born population might be influenced by the border changes in and between these countries in the past. The OECD average includes only countries that have some information on the percentage of nationals among the offspring of immigrants.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2013; 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants and the 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market; Australia: Population Census 2011; Canada: National Household Survey 2011; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys, 2008-09 and 2013.

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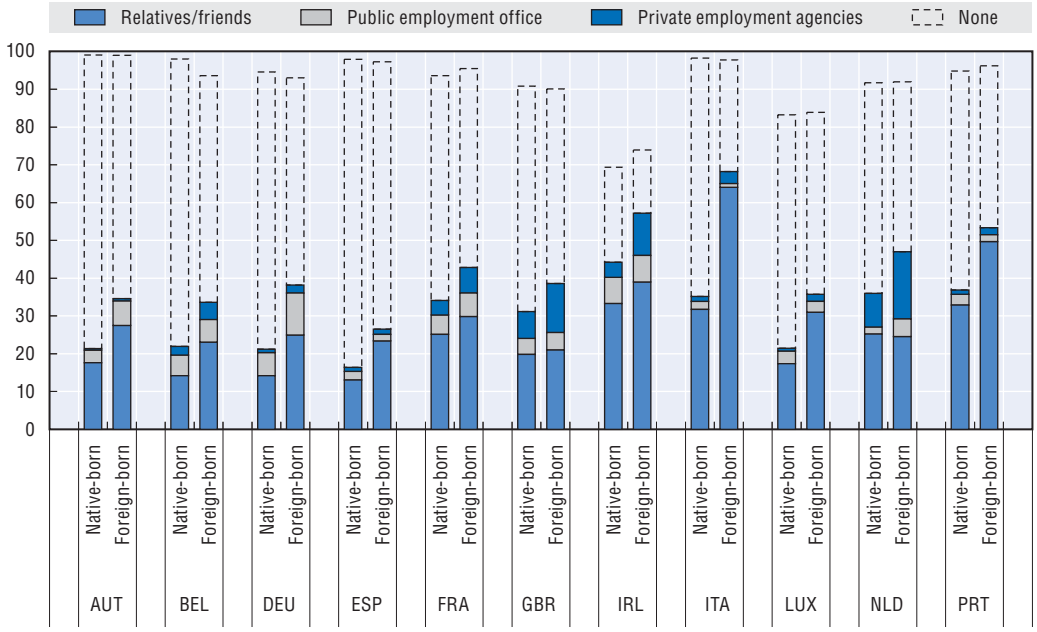
the foreign-born population rely on the PES even less than their native-born counterparts (Figure 2.24). The reverse is the case in Austria, Germany and the Netherlands, which all to some degree include immigrants in their ALMP target groups.

The role PESs play in integrating immigrants varies widely, although many countries have assigned it a key role and have taken specific measures to back it up:

- PESs in countries such as Austria, the United Kingdom, the Nordic countries, and Belgium's Flemish region, have made immigrants and their children explicit ALMP target groups. PESs may thus devote greater resources to people from an immigrant background in the form of training, outreach activities, staff specialisation, and the provision of one-stop shops or contact points on integration. Other countries, like Australia, seek to give immigrants equal representation in ALMPs.
- In other countries, PESs lead efforts to connect labour market actors with immigration authorities, immigrant-support NGOs, municipalities, and other bodies involved in integration. Norway's Labour and Welfare Service (NAV) started prioritising immigrants as a target group before putting in place NAV Intro, a specialised unit that helps immigrants seek work and advises local authorities on how to adapt their general services.
- Sweden has tasked its PES with administering its integration programme in order to strengthen the labour market focus of policy. Japan has also transferred responsibility for labour market integration to its PES and satellite offices in immigrant-dense areas (known as Employment Service Centres for Foreigners).

Figure 2.24. **Main source of support used by 15- to 64-year-olds for finding current jobs or creating business by place of birth, in selected European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentages



Note: The respondent could also respond "migrant or ethnic organisation" or "other".
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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Another strategy designed to encourage immigrants to take up ALMPs is to bring all job-seeking support together in integration programmes for newcomers. Reforms in Sweden in 2010 and Finland in 2010, for example, have steered that course. Such moves encourage PESs to adapt their general service provision and improve uptake among newcomers. This often involves informally assessing skills and advising on labour market functioning, then offering specific, tailored solutions. PES involvement is generally a key element in mainstreaming integration policies (Box 2.3).

Accessing help through networks and mentors. As mentioned in the first part of this chapter, informal networks of friends and relatives are an important source of employment information and contacts in many countries. Indeed, when they are looking for work, the foreign-born tend to rely on such networks even more heavily than the native-born population (see Figure 2.24). However, their networks are likely to be less extensive or professionally useful, while their reliance on them can compound integration challenges – particularly when immigrants are concentrated in certain areas.

One approach to extending networks of the foreign-born in host countries has been to create mentoring programmes. Mentoring has been particularly cost-effective almost everywhere for the highly skilled foreign-born and their children, helping them also to develop the knowledge about the host-country labour market and its functioning that is required to find adequate employment. It matches jobseekers with volunteers who have basic training and generally a similar background in age, gender, neighbourhood, or field of study. Volunteers with an immigrant background bring with them the added value of being

Box 2.3. **Mainstreaming in labour market integration policies**

The concept of mainstreaming, as developed in the field of gender equality, refers to efforts to facilitate access to and take-up of policies and services which do not target a particular disadvantaged group, but address disadvantage among the entire population, irrespective of gender or migration status.

The first step is to monitor access to and take-up of policies aimed at disadvantage – among the foreign-born, their children, and their native-born counterparts in similar socio-economic circumstances. It is a critical step designed to ascertain the extent to which certain disadvantaged groups struggle to access policies and programmes that are targeted not at them but at their circumstances.

If migrants are found to be significantly under-represented in access to or take-up of general programmes, it may be that they face additional hurdles, such as lack of information about their eligibility. In that event, specific policies become necessary, such as further investment in outreach to immigrant groups, pre-investment in the skills required for take-up (e.g. language), or additional support like childcare. The distinction between general and specific policies, therefore, is not always clear-cut. General policies may require specific targeting measures and outreach in order to ensure equal access and take-up across all disadvantaged groups. Similarly, specific policies may be most effective where they enable disadvantaged groups to access general policies. In addition, some mainstream policies may have strong indirect targeting – when, for example, they focus on groups with language difficulties.

Successfully mainstreaming integration into general policy development and implementation requires commitment from all relevant ministries. Germany, Portugal, and Norway have developed strong co-ordination structures that involve different stakeholders in the mainstreaming process.

Since 2006, Germany's annual national integration summit has brought together policymakers at various levels of governance, service providers, and immigrant organisations. The summits have led to the drawing up of National Integration Plans with hundreds of voluntary commitments from all actors. The Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration supports them in their work to implement their commitments, set targets, and monitor outcomes.

Portugal's High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI) co-ordinates the commitment of the different ministries in the Plan for Immigrant Integration and monitors implementation through a network of focal points, annual reports, and the Consultative Council for Immigration Affairs.

Norway's Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion plays the same mainstreaming role by helping to secure commitments from related ministries and then monitoring them in four main fields – labour and employment, education and qualification, living conditions, and social cohesion and participation. An annual report on these is submitted to Parliament within the national budget.

One new co-ordination structure under development is Australia's "Multicultural Access and Equity Policy", adopted in March 2013. It requires most departments and agencies to design and report on biennial plans in order to make their services accessible to all beneficiaries, responsive to their needs, and equally effective for all, regardless of cultural or linguistic background.

"role models".[20] In the mentoring schemes, they share with participants the unwritten rules and tricks of the trade for interviews, tests, job-seeking, and career advancement. Mentors help to make better use of participants' skills by building their self-confidence and connecting them with other professionals and employers through matching and recommendations.

Nearly every Western European country and countries of settlement have used immigrant mentoring programmes. Governments include them in their general policies (France's sponsorship scheme,) and introduction programmes (introduction guides in Sweden). The programmes often involved the civil society and rely on broad networks of native-born volunteers and mentors, such as the Toronto Region Immigrant Employment Council in Canada, KVinfo in Denmark and Finland's FIKA programme. In some countries, including Austria and Norway, employers' organisations have also developed mentorship programmes. Political representatives in countries such as Canada and Ireland have even developed mentoring schemes for immigrant candidates (Bird et al., 2011).

Building closer social contact with the native-born not only opens up employment opportunities for the foreign-born (Kanas et al., 2011; Facchini et al., 2014), it also improves attitudes towards them (Coenders et al., 2005; Ward and Masgoret, 2006) at a relatively low cost and to the satisfaction of participants and volunteers. Finding a sufficient number of volunteers is seldom an obstacle. One study in France, a country which makes wide use of mentoring, also suggests that they are effective in helping immigrant participants into jobs (see OECD, 2008a).

Developing skills

Developing the skills of foreign-born adults

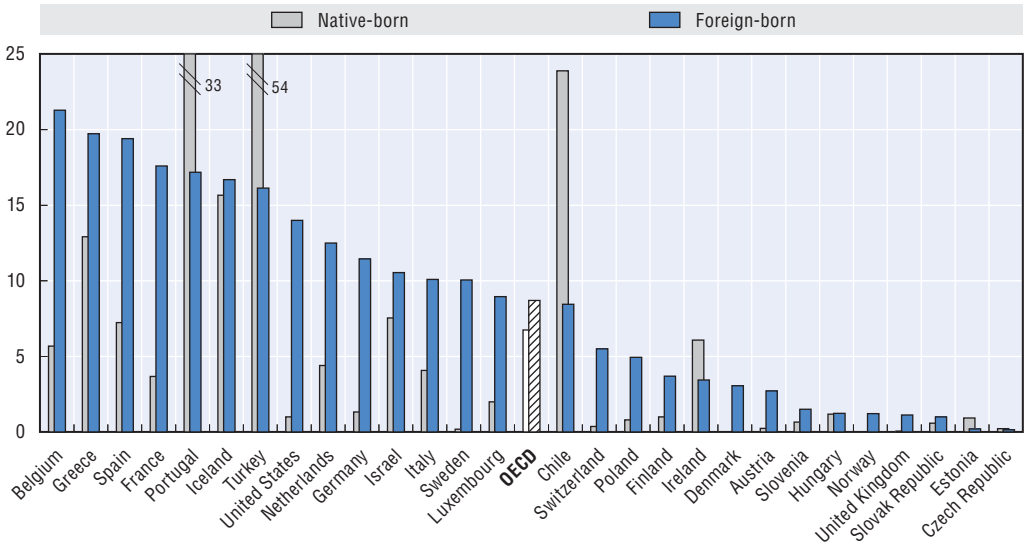
Policies to develop immigrants' skills are often couched in a language of deficit, suggesting they fall short of requirements and need extensive (re-)training and assistance. Such an assumption is often inaccurate and actually runs counter to the parallel goal of recognising – and thus valuing – their skills. Policies that begin with assessing and recognising them may then take a more individual approach to developing the skills needed to succeed in the local labour market. Obviously, learning trajectories will differ depending on immigrants' educational background. Most will develop skills specific to the host country over the length of time they live there. The challenge is to invest in developing immigrants' skills so as to speed up rather than delay labour market integration. It will be easier to achieve if learning eventually moves out of the classroom and into the workplace.

There are particular concerns for those without a lower secondary degree (ISCED 0-1),[21] often considered the minimum level required for long-term employability and the ability to function properly in society. Figure 2.25 shows how the foreign-born are overrepresented in the lowest education strata in most OECD countries. Only in Chile, Estonia, Ireland, Portugal and Turkey are shares of very poorly educated adults higher among the native- than the foreign-born.

Participation in lifelong learning. The evidence is mixed on the effectiveness of ALMP-type training. Although results appear to be slightly better for the foreign- than the native-born (Butschek and Walter, 2013; Nekby, 2008), ALMP training schemes that do not lead to a degree – the most common kind – show only modest benefits for both foreign- and native-born. The reasons may be that they have lock-in effects in the short term while

Figure 2.25. **Share of the population aged 25 to 54 with educational levels of ISCED 0-1 levels, 2013**

Percentages



Note: ISCED 0-1 levels denote primary education level only. The information on the highest education level attained in the Chilean CASEN does not match ISCED levels exactly. It is assumed that those who have started and not completed secondary education have at least completed lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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failing to offer any long-term guarantee of work. Programmes leading to a post-secondary degree (ISCED 3 or higher) tend to protect more effectively against unemployment and also help to limit the incidence of over-qualification among foreign-educated immigrants.

One type of lifelong learning relates to second-chance campaigns for adults with low or no formal qualifications. They have been rolled out in several countries – such as Austria, Germany, Korea, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Sweden (OECD, 2012a) – often with an implicit focus on immigrants. Some schemes target reluctant adults by providing non-formal environments compatible with their daily lives. When combined with part-time work, they tend to be more effective at helping immigrants find work, as joint work and study programmes generally overcome employers' reticence over immigrants' skills. The same holds for work placements and private-sector incentive schemes. Working part-time also help adults meet the costs of studying and some of their, and their families', basic needs. Programmes where there is basic financing are also more likely to be completed.

Bridging courses. Foreign-educated immigrants whose qualifications have been only partially recognised, or not at all, suffer from higher risks of unemployment and over-qualification (see OECD, 2007, on Australia and Sweden). Bridging programmes give them a chance to train and secure a host-country qualification in their field without having to study all over again. Starting from scratch may well delay labour market integration and lead to underutilisation of the skills of immigrants who cannot afford to study and have to work in positions for which they are over-qualified.

Effective bridging programmes deliver domestic qualification which employers know and value. This was a key finding in the recent evaluation of a Swedish programme that included bridging courses (Niknami and Schröder, 2012). Bridging picks up where accreditation finishes. Ideally, applicants follow an individual learning plan and receive the missing profession-specific training and/or workplace experience required to obtain the host country qualification. Subsidies can cover the sometimes substantial costs of training and taking exams, as they do in countries such as Australia, Canada, and Israel. Vocation-specific language training is almost always part of the package. Bridging's topping-up approach is the most direct and efficient path to re-qualification for educated immigrants as it avoids any duplication of their foreign education or training.

A further benefit of bridging is that it may also prompt greater interest in formal and informal recognition procedures, since educated immigrants who fear there is little chance of recognition may be more likely to apply when alternatives exist.

Bridging courses are becoming the standard follow-up to unsuccessful accreditation procedures and are expanding across countries and professions. While they are well established in longstanding labour immigration destinations – such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – they have recently begun to spread to other host countries, especially in Europe. For example, Sweden's complementary education scheme offers supplementary courses for university-trained non-EU nationals with foreign qualifications, like lawyers, and teachers. However, most new initiatives concern the healthcare sector.[22] Programmes seem to be particularly effective if they involve all relevant stakeholders, from labour market service providers and employers to professional organisations and universities. If immigrants are able to successfully re-qualify, bridging programmes are cost-effective. A programme for foreign-trained medical doctors in Portugal – run by non-governmental organisations, the health ministry and a university – saw 106 of the 120 participants find work in their profession. The cost of the nine-month programme was only a fraction of the average annual cost of medical training in the country (OECD, 2008). Likewise, a programme for foreign-trained nurses in Australia cost only 10% of the higher-education alternative (Konno, 2006).

Ensuring country-specific skills for all: Language training and introduction programmes

State-funded language training represents the bulk of public integration expenditure in most OECD countries – from traditional settlement countries and Europe to Japan and Korea. It is also the single most important component in introduction programmes for newcomers, which are gradually being opened up to all legal categories of newcomers, including immigrants in areas of free movement (see Box 2.4). Some OECD countries make participation or successful completion of such courses a requirement for acquiring long-term residence permits or naturalisation.

Many European countries include civic orientation in their immigrant introduction courses. Traditional settlement countries, on the other hand, provide such information chiefly through booklets, websites, and voluntary pre-arrival courses in immigrants' languages of origin (see annex Tables 2.A1.9 and 2.A1.10).

Language courses are seldom scientifically evaluated to determine whether they contribute effectively to labour market integration. This is somewhat surprising given the significant investment required. Evaluation was designed into very few courses from the

Box 2.4. **The integration of immigrants in free-movement areas**

With growing intra-European mobility, the integration of free moving European Union citizens is an increasingly important issue in European OECD countries. EU citizens do not generally have to contend with the same employment, over-qualification, and wage problems as immigrants from other, particularly non-OECD countries. Their relative ease of labour market integration is due partly to the greater return to and easier recognition of their qualifications. They are also more likely to move for reasons of work and study and to return home in the event of labour market difficulties.

The question which arises in this context is whether or not free-mobility migrants should have access to immigrant-specific integration measures, notably language training. Some EU citizens will make the investment themselves, while others may only do so if (part of) the cost is covered. Subsidised integration programmes are now also open to EU citizens in Belgium (Flanders), Denmark, Estonia, Germany and, most recently, Austria (Vienna). Free voluntary language training is also available in Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

start, due to the lack of pilot or randomised studies and the necessary administrative or survey data. Existing evaluations are mostly devised *ex post* to measure attendance rates and test scores. They use before-after comparisons to assess participants, often without the necessary comparison group. Designing scientific evaluations of language and orientation courses would be a timely move that would help improve the efficiency of such major investment in integration (Box 2.5).

The available evidence suggests that language courses have a limited effect on labour market integration, and civic orientation courses even less. Frequently, no direct link emerges between immigrants' overall employment rate and course attendance. One reason is a trade-off between language fluency and early work experience. If newcomers spend too much time becoming fully fluent, they are less likely to gain early work experience, which delays their chances of finding the right job. This so-called "lock-in" effect has been found to be substantial in scientific evaluations of integration programmes in the Nordic countries and in Germany (Djuve, 2003; Svantesson and Aranki, 2006; Clausen et al., 2009; Nekby, 2008; Nordin, 2009; Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012). While the few long-term studies undertaken reveal positive employment effects in some groups (Clausen et al., 2009; Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012), they are not necessarily robust enough to outweigh the potential "scarring effects" associated with employers shunning job applicants with long absences from the labour market.[23]

The demands and content of most language and civic orientation courses do not appear to be particularly relevant to the realities of the labour market. The one exception is vocation-specific language training – ideally undertaken on the job – which has been found to be highly effective in improving labour market integration. It would seem that people with basic skills in the language learn significantly more quickly when applying their skills to real-life situations. Clausen et al. (2009) find that, in Denmark, people who attended evening classes or were in work progressed much more quickly through the programme, even after controlling for other socio-economic characteristics. Sweden's SESAME Pilot 2001-3, which combined work-oriented language training with work placements, was also found to accelerate newcomers' transition into employment and mainstream training. On-the-job language courses may also address reticence about

Box 2.5. **Integration policy evaluation**

Across the OECD, the quality of integration policy evaluation varies widely and the authorities in both longstanding and newer destination countries have trouble assessing whether their policies have improved integration or not. Data constraints are part of the problem, as is an incomplete understanding of the process of rigorous impact evaluation. Ideally, an evaluation is factored in from the outset and part of the budget is set aside for that purpose.

All too often, however, evaluations are designed as an afterthought, once policy implementation is already underway and cannot therefore isolate the effects of the instruments.

No accurate picture of an intervention's impact may be gleaned from merely monitoring the *ex post* outcomes of participants. They need to be compared with the outcomes of a comparison group of non-participants who had the same *ex ante* outcomes and who are similar in age, gender, education and other key criteria that may influence outcomes. The reason is that those migrants that choose – or are picked – to participate in a programme are often systematically different from those who do not. Immigrants who do choose may do so because they are more motivated than those who do not. Improvements in outcomes may therefore reflect motivation rather than the impact of a programme itself. Similarly, if certain migrants are targeted for additional support, it may be because they are struggling. The impact of the programme is therefore underestimated. Occasionally, the "success" of a programme is measured by participant satisfaction – not necessarily the best metric of effectiveness.

Slightly better are evaluations that at least compare outcomes before and after a policy was implemented. However, even with such comparisons, evaluation of policy is problematic. Take integration policy, for example. Although some immigrants are found to have secured work after taking part in a particular programme, it is not necessarily because the programme is effective – let alone cost-efficient. They may just as easily have found a job without the aid of the programme.

Across all European OECD countries, an average of almost one-third of the foreign-born unemployed in 2011 found a job a year later, regardless of policy intervention. And rates reached upwards of 40% in Iceland, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom (Figure 2.A1.2 in the annex). Consequently, concluding that when an immigrant finds work it is the fruit of a particular policy intervention is not a straightforward matter of comparing their employment situation before and after the programme.

Rigorous evaluation relies on the ability to identify an appropriate counterfactual group that does not have access to a programme – i.e. a group of individuals who are similar *ex ante* to those who undergo the policy intervention. Comparing the *ex post* outcomes of the people who attend the programme with the counterfactual group yields an evaluation of the impact of the policy intervention.

In practice, such rigorous evaluations are seldom undertaken. There are a number of reasons. In the first place, they are costly and require long-term cost-benefit calculations. Secondly, smaller-scale projects may not involve sufficient numbers of participants to enable an evaluation, even under ideal circumstances. Last, identifying an appropriate counterfactual group often requires randomisation, or a policy roll-out that is random in the timing with which different individuals, or groups of individuals, have access to the programme. Policy can be randomly implemented either through implementing it in randomly selected areas (e.g. schools, neighbourhoods, or municipalities) or in all areas but only for randomly selected participants. The Nordic countries, for example, are increasingly using pilots with such randomisation in order to assess the effectiveness of new integration policies. An alternative that is often used, notably for introduction programmes, is to compare the outcomes of different cohorts of migrants – e.g. those who enter a new programme just prior to the cut-off date for eligibility with those who enter just after – provided that the two groups have otherwise similar characteristics.

immigrants' language qualifications among employers who – particularly those who have little experience with immigrant workers – may overestimate the language knowledge and fluency required for jobs (Chiswick and Miller, 2009).[24]

Relatively few immigrants in OECD countries benefit from such effective courses because there are none, or very few, as they are costly and difficult to organise.[25] There need to be enough students interested in a sector of activities for providers in a given area to develop the capacity to stage courses on a regular basis. And only a few employers are able or willing to accommodate language learning in the workplace. Countries which have no vocation-specific language training find it difficult to integrate language and vocational training: they are generally offered in parallel by separate providers and funded by stakeholders with different objectives.

Many stakeholders are involved in language training, but there is often little co-ordination between offers. In many countries, for example, standard language courses are funded by municipalities or agencies under the remit of the Ministry of Interior. The public employment service, by contrast, finances training that is geared to the labour market. Vocational training providers often lack accredited language teachers and offer syllabuses that are disconnected from language courses. Conversely, language training providers usually lack expertise in relevant job sectors. Even where the content of language courses content is partly job-specific, providers and participants widely focus on the standard language test required for long-term residence or naturalisation.

Several OECD countries have built extensive experience in vocation-specific language training, which is gradually becoming more widespread:

- Canada offers such a provision nationwide through its federal, provincial and territorial taxpayer-funded programmes.
- Since 1991, the authorities in Australia have, together with employers, co-financed on-the-job training to improve their workplace English language and literary. Australia's free extensive Adult Migrant English Programme also includes "Settlement Language Pathways to Employment and Training", where participants are entitled to up to 200 hours of vocation-specific language tuition and up to 80 hours of work placements.
- In Israel, Jewish immigrants can attend one of around 100 free institutes or schools specialised in the intensive study of Hebrew. The institutes offer specific courses for youngsters, seniors, immigrants with academic degrees and those with vocational degrees in fields such as medicine and engineering.
- Language is also part of on-the-job training in the introduction programmes of Sweden ("Step-in jobs") and Denmark ("Stepmodel").
- In Belgium, the third step in the integration programme in place in Belgium (Flanders) is to direct participants to the Flemish employment service (VDAB), whose programmes then offer job-oriented language courses, including "Dutch in the Workplace".
- Germany has put in place a wide-reaching new system of free courses in "German for professional purposes". They are aimed at foreign-born jobseekers and their children who have completed mandatory schooling and intermediate German courses. The vocation-specific language courses mix technical instruction, work placement and site visits. Germany has also taken an innovative approach to tackling the co-ordination issue, as part of the vocation-specific language training is co-funded by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees – an agency under the aegis of Ministry of the Interior – and the Ministry of Labour.

- Vocation-specific language courses are also part of Portugal's "Portuguese for All" training schemes and of the new Intervention Programme for Unemployed Immigrant Workers.

General language courses also need to be adapted to learners' education levels and language backgrounds. At the one end of the educational scale, adults with limited literacy take much longer to become fluent in a country's language – a significant investment for both the country and immigrant concerned. But pay-offs can be far-reaching in that they benefit also the immigrants' children, whose chances of academic success are strongly influenced by their parents' educational level, particularly their mother's. At the other end of the scale, the university-educated need a faster-paced, more demanding classroom dynamic in order to achieve the higher degrees of fluency required for highly skilled jobs.

As well as the education level, language background also affects how quickly immigrants learn a new language. The effects of linguistic difference have been investigated in a number of OECD countries such as Australia, Canada, Germany, Israel, and the United States (Chiswick, 2008; Isphording and Otten, 2011). They have also been tested with data from the International Adult Literacy Survey in nine European countries (Isphording, 2013). The rough indications are that immigrants of very different linguistic origins (e.g. a Korean or a Japanese person in France or Germany) are at significant initial disadvantage to those whose languages are not so far removed from the host-country's. Their language skills do progress over time, but not generally enough to offset the initial disadvantage.

The powerful influence of education level and linguistic difference on language learning ensures that no one type of course, or amount of support, is appropriate for all immigrants. This finding has emerged from course evaluations in several OECD countries, such as Australia, Germany and Sweden. When the evaluation was conducted, for example, Germany's programme of 600 hours of language training – high in comparison with other countries – was not enough for almost half of the participants to reach the required level (B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, CEFRL) (Schuller, Lochner and Rother, 2011).

The challenge is to provide high-quality personalised language courses across a country at a reasonable cost. Urban areas and those with high numbers of immigrants naturally develop the infrastructure to offer more specialised courses, as was also evidenced by programme evaluations in Germany (Ramboll, 2007) and Sweden (Åslund and Engdahl, 2012). In Norway, the lack of appropriate courses was one important reason given for non-participation: 60% of municipalities could not offer adequate language courses and work placements for highly educated immigrants (OECD, 2012c). Several OECD countries have reformed language and integration courses, developing specific pathways and programmes for different types of learners:

- In the wake of its 2007 programme evaluation, Germany introduced federally funded specialised schemes with literacy, catch-up and intensive courses, and additional specific pathways for young adults, parents, and women. A more recent assessment that used a longitudinal survey with a control group found significant improvements in language skills, employment, and other integration outcomes (Schuller et al., 2011).
- Sweden's adult language courses were also reformed following an evaluation in 2009 which advocated courses that were more flexible and geared to individuals so as to account for learners' different education levels, professions, and work schedules. It also recommended that language courses should be tied more closely to other employment and social activities.

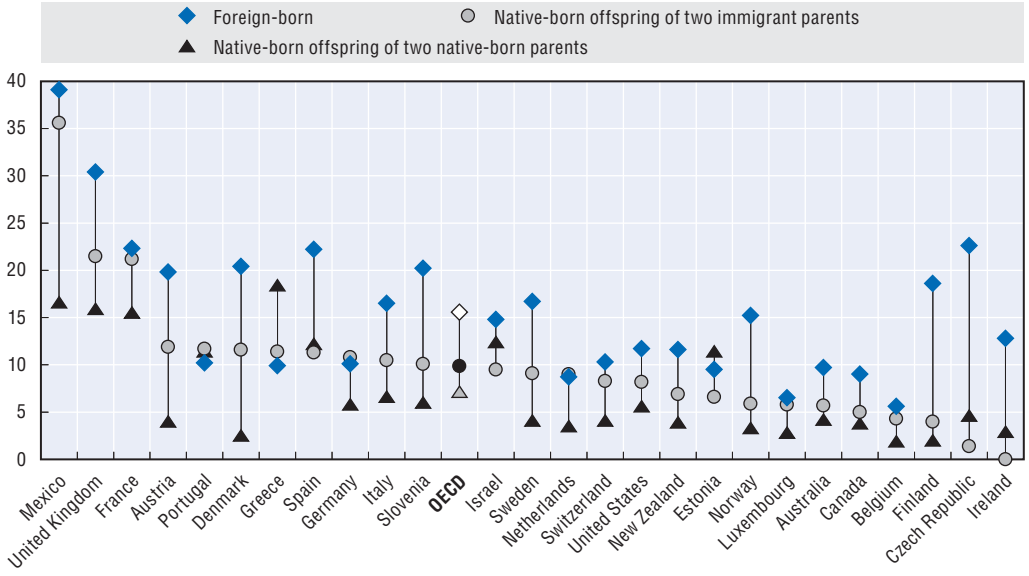
- The development of more flexible courses and support arrangements does not necessarily come at a higher cost, as there is often a certain overlap between different language offers. Finland, for example, seeks to offer a more differentiated, better targeted provision through the efficient reallocation of existing resources (Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012).

Developing the skills of immigrants' offspring

Promoting equal opportunities in education: Early childhood education, literacy, and socio-economic concentration in schools. Achieving basic language and literacy skills is a challenge for a significant number of pupils, particularly the children of low-educated immigrants. Data from Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012 revealed that, in most OECD countries, at least one in four of 15-year-old pupils with immigrant parents lacked basic reading proficiency. Given that high proportion, participation in remedial language courses is surprisingly low among children of immigrants, as Figure 2.26 shows.

Figure 2.26. **Shares of students attending test language remedial classes, by migration status**

Percentages



Note: Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of native-born offspring of two immigrant parents attending test language remedial classes.
Source: OECD, *PISA Database* in OECD (2012d), *Untapped Skills: Realising the Potential of Immigrant Students*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

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Growing evidence suggests that access to early childhood education and care (ECEC) from the age of two to three yields high returns in educational and, ultimately, labour market and social outcomes. The finding is especially true for the native-born children of low-educated immigrants. ECEC provides them not only with a basic education but exposure to the host-country language that they would not otherwise get. For example, native-born children of immigrants who attend ECEC are a full one year ahead in reading skills at the age of 15, according to PISA data. These effects persist even after controlling for

parental education, reasons for migration, and the language spoken at home. Attendance rates in ECEC are generally lower among the children of immigrants in countries with comparatively small, late, or fee-based programmes (OECD, 2012h).

The challenge is to boost immigrant offspring's often disproportionately low ECEC attendance rates, particularly at early ages, which are widely related to issues of cost, information, and outreach. Evaluations of the US Head Start programme found that the proximity of Head Start Centers helped overcome the underrepresentation of immigrant children, especially newcomers, in ECEC (Neidell and Waldfogel, 2009) and increased their English and mathematics proficiency (Magnuson et al., 2006). Reviews of the evidence (Burger, 2010; and Ruhm and Waldfogel, 2011) find the benefits are significant for disadvantaged pupils, including immigrants, even though they do not cancel out disadvantage.

Greater access to existing remedial courses may not be enough in schools with high numbers of pupils from low-educated families, where low literacy skills are frequent. Moreover, developing fluency in a language takes years of proper teaching. Early intervention and long-term support are both part of a comprehensive approach to basic literacy and language fluency.

A further finding is that the language spoken at home has less of an impact on academic performance in countries with higher ECEC attendance rates and after-school-support than in countries where children spend more time at home (Schnepf, 2004). The introduction of universal language diagnostic tests and support in pre-school has helped practitioners in Austria and Germany to better identify the language and literacy needs of children – including those without a migration background – and offer additional language bridging support. Such programmes have met with some success, both in the high take-up rates for remedial language classes and in education outcomes that are superior to those of non-participants (see Liebig, 2007).

During compulsory education, systematic ongoing support may be required across grade levels. In parallel to explicit language and literacy support, an "open-school" approach can offer additional support after school and over the summer with tutors, homework centres, and extracurricular activities that engage language skills (OECD, 2012d).

Specific issues arise from high concentrations of children of low-educated immigrant parents in the same areas and schools (see Box 2.6). A key challenge is to weaken the systemic link between academic performance and school socio-economic concentration. In some countries, the Netherlands and France, for example, schools with large numbers of pupils from low-educated families receive disproportionately high state funding. Funds may go into greater financial and technical support for such schools, staffing them with the most highly qualified and experienced teachers, and paying those teachers higher wages. However, evidence on the impact of such additional funding is mixed. Disadvantaged pupils, who would benefit disproportionally from high-quality teaching, are often the least likely to receive it, especially when there are shortages of qualified teachers (Nusche, 2009). In education systems with several educational tracks that run in parallel there is also a case for enhancing efforts to inform immigrant parents about the various choices available to their children, and the labour market prospects that are associated with them.

Box 2.6. **Socio-economic concentration in schools and its effects on the children of immigrants**

Evidence from the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) shows that the school performance of children of immigrants tends to lag significantly behind that of children of the native-born. The same finding applies to settlement countries – like Australia, Canada and New Zealand – and European OECD countries. One driver is the fact that, because immigrants are concentrated in certain housing areas, their children are concentrated in local schools.

At first glance, the concentrations of immigrants' children appears to account for much of the gap with children of the native-born in their educational outcomes. However, a closer look at the data suggests that it is rather the concentration of pupils from low socio-economic backgrounds (whose parents are often educated to a lower level) that hinders academic achievement. The two are often confused since children of immigrants are strongly overrepresented in disadvantaged schools in nearly all OECD countries, even after controlling for parental education (Lemaître, 2012). Indeed, in many OECD countries, going to a disadvantaged school – that is, a school with many children of low-educated parents – has a greater effect on educational attainment than parental country of origin. Concentration in disadvantaged schools negatively impacts the school performance of the children of immigrants and the native-born. However, the penalty (as measured in PISA scores) for going to a disadvantaged school is higher for children of immigrants.

OECD countries have adopted a number of approaches to prevent socio-economic concentrations in disadvantaged schools or to improve the academic performance of children in such schools. The Netherlands and France have addressed the latter by targeting financial and technical support at schools with many pupils from low-educated families. Such action has included higher pay – and other measures – to attract the most highly qualified and/or experienced teachers to disadvantaged schools.

A more fundamental solution, however, is to address the level of school socio-economic concentration within the school system. It is partly attributable to the housing market and to the structural characteristics of the school system itself, such as the number of different tracks and the age at which streaming first takes place (OECD, 2013b; Alegre and Ferrer, 2010). Schemes to ease institutional differentiation include the mandatory assignment of students to certain schools and "controlled choice" approaches. Their success depends partly on the discretionary power that the authorities enjoy over schools in their area (see Karsten, 2010a). Most promising, however, seems to be the focus on early interventions such as universal early childhood education and care in order to overcome disadvantage prior to admission into primary school (OECD, 2013b).

Participation in vocational education and apprenticeship. Vocational degrees and apprenticeships have been found to be highly effective in facilitating school-to-work transitions and so averting high rates of inactivity and incidences of young people neither in employment nor education or training (NEET). They are particularly effective among the children of immigrants, especially in countries with high quality apprenticeships and vocational training and education (VET) systems such as Austria, Germany, and Switzerland. The problem is nevertheless that the children of immigrants are often underrepresented and are also more likely to drop out. There are several possible reasons for underrepresentation, which also often help to understand the high drop-out rates.

A first possible explanation is that immigrant parents and pupils may prefer academic study or paid work to apprenticeships, particularly if they originate from countries without a well-respected VET and apprenticeship system. A second possibility is that the children of immigrants who perform poorly in compulsory schooling may need some additional preparatory skills development. Although a number of countries have responded by offering bridging years for this group, results have been mixed because of the stigma attached to them. The more successful bridging schemes identify target groups at early stage and implement a highly individual approach with a low student-to-trainer ratio. To prevent students dropping out and ensure they successfully complete apprenticeships, Austria, for example, has introduced "apprenticeship coaching". In addition, the country has a broad offer of preparatory courses and supra-company training opportunities in which children of immigrants are overrepresented.

It is also conceivable that immigrant students may lose out in competition for limited numbers of apprenticeship placements. In some countries, students need to have an apprenticeship placement before they can start the programme. In others, students do not need to find a placement with an employer to enter a programme and are supposed to find one later on. In these cases, not securing a placement with a private employer is often the reason for drop-outs, as the alternative – placement in a firm chosen by, or part of, the national education system – is seen as less prestigious.

Yet another possible reason why immigrants' children are underrepresented in VET programmes is that their parents often find apprenticeship placements through their contacts. However, the networks might not include the right employers. Those closest to immigrant parents, i.e. immigrant entrepreneurs, are the least likely to offer apprenticeships. The reason may be the relatively small size of immigrant businesses, limited knowledge of the apprenticeship system, and fewer links with Chambers of Commerce. Some countries – like Germany with Netzwerk IQ and KAUSA – have initiated schemes to reach out to immigrant businesses and/or to involve host-country employers through co-operation with the Chambers of Commerce and trade and crafts associations. Others, like the Netherlands and Norway, as well as some *Länder* in Germany, have implemented measures to offer the children of immigrants apprenticeship places in the public sector, where they are generally underrepresented. One project in the Netherlands provides specific preparatory training for children of immigrants if they fail the entry exam because of their lack of knowledge of Dutch society.

Finally, there is the issue of discrimination. This chapter previously described that the children of immigrants have to write up to twice as many applications to get a job interview as their peers without a migration background. Discrimination may ultimately breed a sense of exclusion from the host-country society and discourage the children of immigrants from applying for apprenticeships in sectors or occupations where they perceive discrimination as being particularly rife.[26]

Indeed, in systems where experience in the workplace comes at the end of a VET programme, the children of immigrants have trouble finding placements and apprenticeships. They often end up in less highly prized alternatives, which (as mentioned above) appears to account for drop-out.

Links with family reunification policies. The legal and administrative framework for family reunification can either hasten or delay the age at which children enter a country and its school system. Requirements for sponsors – a common practice in most countries but one that differs widely in scale and scope – may slow down the procedure and penalise children insofar as it postpones their integration at a critical age (Table 2.2). This "late-arrival" penalty is true of nearly all OECD countries (Figure 2.27).[27] The penalty is more marked for those originating from a low-income country and not speaking the language of the host country at home. These are generally also the groups with the greatest obstacles to family reunification from immigration policy. The merit of such policies thus has to be weighed against the fact that, when children arrive young, rapid family reunification is generally good for their skills development and future opportunities in the host country.

Table 2.2. **Average age of foreign-born pupils at time of immigration in PISA 2012, children aged 15**

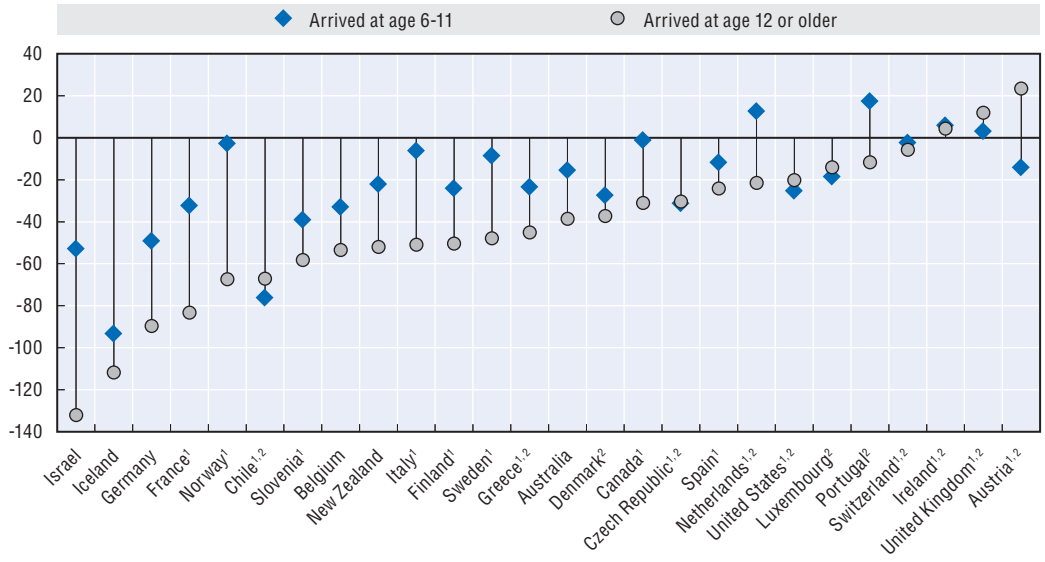
	Average age at immigration	Percentage arrived at 12 or later
Slovak Republic	10	51
Chile	9	37
Slovenia	9	35
Hungary	8	31
United Kingdom	8	31
Australia	8	28
Belgium	7	28
New Zealand	8	28
Portugal	8	28
Czech Republic	8	26
France	7	24
Sweden	8	24
Canada	7	23
Ireland	8	23
Switzerland	7	21
Italy	7	20
Luxembourg	7	20
Norway	7	20
Japan	7	19
Finland	7	18
OECD average	**7**	**18**
Spain	8	17
Iceland	8	15
Denmark	6	14
Estonia	6	14
Austria	6	12
United States	6	12
Turkey	4	10
Mexico	3	9
Germany	5	9
Greece	5	8
Israel	5	8
Netherlands	4	4

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

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Figure 2.27. **The advantage of early arrival for immigrant students**

PISA point differences in reading scores at 15 years old compared with immigrant students who arrive at or before the age of 5



1. Difference between immigrant students who arrived at or before the age of 5 and immigrants who arrived between the ages 6 and 11 is not significant.
2. Difference between immigrant students who arrived at or before the age of 5 and immigrants who arrived between at the age of 12 or older is not significant.

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

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Activating the skills of immigrants and their children

General skills activation policies include measures to strengthen motivation for entering the labour market through enhanced incentives to work, job search requirements, and benefit sanctions. They also seek to improve employability and manage employment services and other labour market instruments so that they effectively promote and support the return to work (OECD, 2013d).[28]

This section focuses on activating immigrants themselves, while also taking a broad view that includes policies to encourage employers to hire and train disadvantaged job-seekers on the labour market, including immigrants and their descendants. The section concludes with a discussion of how to activate immigrants by facilitating entrepreneurship so that they become employers themselves.

Activation policy design depends on countries' employment and social policies. However, a full discussion of activation policy and how it ties in with immigrants' labour market integration is beyond the scope of this chapter (see OECD, 2012b, for a discussion of that issue). The rest of this section looks at how specific issues and policies affect immigrants.

Activating immigrants' skills

Effective activation begins with an analysis of the reasons for inactivity. The obstacles that immigrants face are best identified by comparing reasons for inactivity among the foreign-born and their descendants with those that account for inactivity among the native-born with similar profiles – gender, age, level of educational attainment, and family background.

However, even within the foreign-born population, inactivity can be ascribed to factors that vary widely. New arrivals are inactive for very different reasons than immigrants who settled a long time ago and have become increasingly distant from the labour market over a length of time. Similarly, the obstacles to activation can be quite different for the educated, young people, and women. Specific issues affect all four groups – newcomers, the highly educated, youth, and women. They will be discussed in turn below.[29]

Unemployment and inactivity traps. A particular concern for activation policy is that unemployment benefits and/or social assistance may weaken the incentive to look for work, particularly among low-skilled newcomers who expect only low wages. The result is what is often referred to as "unemployment/inactivity traps". It affects both immigrants and the native-born, of course. But because they are widely socio-economically disadvantaged and expect lower wages, immigrants are generally overrepresented among the entrapped, which has an adverse impact on employment. Any policy to eliminate unemployment/inactivity traps by enhancing the net benefit of being in employment will also tend to promote employment.

Supply-side incentives in the tax and benefit system try to make work more attractive by lowering the marginal effective tax rates on entry-level low-skilled jobs. The disincentives of high marginal tax rates affect immigrants in the same way as the low-skilled native-born, making both groups prone to inactivity traps. The worst-affected tend to be potential second earners, many of whom can only look forward to low wages in the labour market. Immigrant women are often overrepresented in this group. Restructuring the tax and benefit system can therefore help to alleviate such inactivity and avert the unemployment/inactivity trap. Adults able to work can be supported through unemployment benefit that is made conditional on active job-seeking, accepting suitable job offers, and taking in active labour market programmes (ALMPs). The activation tool set also includes tax credits for work and training and transitional into-work benefits that combine benefits and training with work for a certain period.

Schemes initiated by countries include:

- Norway's "qualification programme", which is targeted at people with reduced work capacity and provides a salary-type benefit to participants who follow a tailor-made integration plan to improve their education and work-related training.
- Combined work and disability benefit programmes in the Netherlands (Snel and Linder, 2008) also yield positive employment effects for the foreign- and native-born, according to research.

Such incentive programmes seek less to decrease the use of benefits than to reduce barriers to retraining and employment as part of a broader activation strategy. The challenge in redesigning the tax and benefit structure is to determine the amount of support that different types of jobseekers need if they are to successfully pursue their training and job hunting and transition into regular employment.

Evidence from many OECD countries (Liebig and Mo, 2013; Zimmermann and Barrett, 2011) shows that even though the foreign-born are often overrepresented among those targeted by benefits (i.e. the poor, the unemployed, parents), they are actually less likely to use benefits than the native-born with the same characteristics (i.e. age, gender, education, employment, and family situation).

Specific issues for newcomers. Legally permitted access to the labour market is a precondition for activation. If immigrants, and new arrivals in particular, are prevented by law from working in their new country of residence, they risk turning to informal work or drifting further away from the labour force.

The bulk of OECD countries now grant immediate access to the labour market to most new arrivals who are expected to stay even if – as happens in European OECD countries – they initially have only a temporary permit. Family migrants, for example, are now generally granted the same labour market access as their sponsors. In the past, several European OECD countries enforced waiting periods, which may have contributed to the low employment rates among immigrant women widely seen in those countries (Krause and Liebig, 2011). Recent reforms in Austria, Germany, Greece and Spain have extended equal access to reunited family members.

The reforms are indicative of the growing emphasis that policymakers are placing on early labour market participation for all newcomers on the path to permanent residence. However, there are still restrictions on the full, immediate right to work of provisionally or temporarily admitted humanitarian immigrants. Yet many will stay in the host country for good, so there seems to be a good case for removing these last remaining obstacles – unless it is evident that their stay will only be temporary.

The unemployment/inactivity traps discussed above are an issue only if immigrants do indeed have access to benefits. In several OECD countries, such as Australia and Denmark, the law specifically restricts access to benefits for newcomers or at least some of these. Although they may consequently move swiftly into employment, it might be with unintended consequences. Newcomers may be overly exposed to poverty, for example, especially if they have no job. There might also be a higher incidence of over-qualification if higher-skilled immigrants are compelled to accept low-skilled employment prematurely:

- While the evidence suggests that Denmark's lower social benefits for newcomers – the "Start Help" – slightly increased employment rates, it has also cut their income levels. Furthermore, it seems that it has not increased labour market participation among newcomers and has had little effect on the groups furthest from the labour market, such as women and the low educated (Rosholm and Vejlin, 2010; Pedersen, 2013).
- Along the same lines, the United States' 1996 restrictions on welfare benefits for newcomers have been associated with increases in employment rates among immigrant women (Kaushal and Kaestner, 2007; Hall et al., 2010). At the same time, however, it has also affected immigrants' exposure to poverty and social exclusion (Fix, 2009; Nam, 2011).
- Australia's introduction of a two-year waiting period for social benefits for labour immigrants and their families has boosted their employment rate but has had a negative impact on their job quality and over-qualification rate (Junankar and Mahuteau, 2005).[30]
- Similarly, there seems to be a link between the high incidence of over-qualification in Austria and the fact that immigrants were, until recently, required to be in work in order to enjoy secure residence status (Krause and Liebig, 2011).

Introducing immigrant-specific restrictions on access to benefits also conflicts with the objective of welcoming immigrants and risks sending out the message that they are different. The restrictions raise the question of trade-off between short-term gains and negative long-term impacts on career mobility and social integration.

Specific issues for the children of immigrants. When low income, poor education, and limited command of a host country's language limit immigrants' resources, their children may well be particularly vulnerable to dropping out of school early. And, as described in the first part of this chapter, they find themselves in disproportionately high numbers among NEETs.

Activating young people goes hand-in-hand with skills development. Across the OECD, remedial policies for early school leavers are paying ever greater attention to immigrant pupils, especially late arrivals, as they are overrepresented among pupils quitting education prematurely.

- Switzerland's "Motivation Semester" provides individual vocational, language and confidence-building support to coax young people onto the right track to starting an apprenticeship or educational programme.
- Denmark's campaigns, "We need all youngsters" and "Retention Caravan", are both mainstream assistance programmes for young people with immigrant backgrounds that encourage them to take up courses in sectors such as social work, healthcare, and the police.
- Austria uses a range of tools such as youth coaching and supra-company apprenticeships. It also runs workshop-based dual programmes and complementing (preparatory) measures that integrate vocational training and language support measures.
- France has also rolled out numerous initiatives, including the CIVIS programme to support young people who have family, social, or cultural difficulties in finding a job.
- Germany is currently putting in place an initiative called "Strengthen Youth". It comprises four key programmes, one of which is specific to migrant youth.

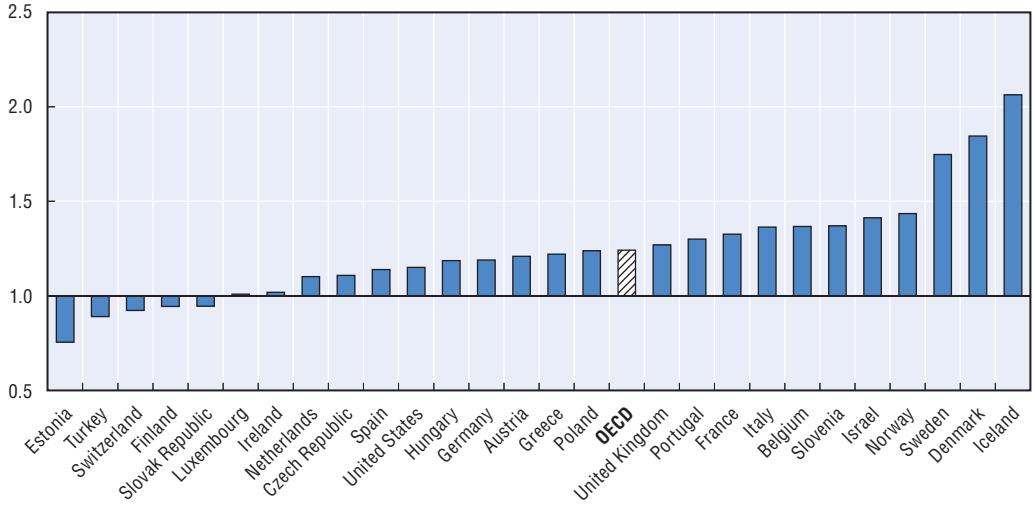
Working with young people who are struggling in school is a challenge. But when they have dropped out it can be even more challenging. It is important, therefore, to identify them early and give them the support they need to stop them from slipping into a downward spiral. Promising approaches in this respect include the "Work-Up" project in Belgium, where youth counsellors – generally themselves of immigration background – work on the street with the children of immigrants. Although it is a resource-intensive approach, it could nevertheless pay off significantly in the long run.

In addition to such remedial policies, Belgium has also undertaken preventative action to improve school graduation rates by raising the minimum school-leaving age, limiting the practice of requiring students to repeat a year, and improving VET upper-secondary options (De Witte et al., 2013; and European Commission, 2010). In this context, co-operation is key, since school-to-work transition is often an area in which the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders such as schools, municipalities, and the public employment service are not clear-cut. One group of immigrant youth for which the school-to-work transition is a particularly problematic time are those who arrive at the end of compulsory schooling. Indeed, family reunification policies should, as far as possible, seek to avoid immigrant children from arriving at such a late age.

Specific issues for immigrant women. Activating foreign-born women also entails specific challenges. Low labour market participation among women frequently stems from household or childcare duties which stand in the way of job-seeking and employment. They also can prevent women from taking part in introduction programmes and language training. In most countries, immigrant women are more likely than their native-born peers to cite family and childcare as their main reason for not looking for work (Figure 2.28). The gap is particularly stark in the Nordic countries, where they are up to twice as likely to mention these reasons.

Figure 2.28. **Inactive women who cite family commitments as the main reason for not looking for work, 2012-13**

Ratio between foreign-born and native-born, women aged 25-54



Note: Family commitments include child care, looking after incapacitated adults or other family reasons.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012-13; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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Childcare duties can be particularly burdensome on foreign-born women, who tend to enjoy more limited access to childcare than the native-born. While few countries place access restrictions on children of foreign nationality, the fact that supply cannot match demand and places are often costly tends to put immigrant women at a disadvantage. And women from countries where there is little formal childcare may also be unaware of the benefits the provision can bring.

Particular issues arise from cash-for-care subsidies. They often disproportionately curb the labour market supply of immigrant mothers as the wages they can expect from working are lower than those of the native-born (Hardoy and Schøne, 2008). According to studies from Nordic countries, replacing cash-for-care with free or low-cost early childhood education and afterschool care for all tends to improve both children's educational outcomes and their mothers' labour market participation. Immigrant mothers stand to gain considerably (Ellingsæter, 2012).

One example of an effective way to activate immigrant women is the "District Mothers" programme in Denmark, where unemployed immigrant mothers are trained to visit and advise other women in their neighbourhood on how to enrol in education or find work. Similar schemes are in place in other OECD countries, such as Germany where some *Länder* have taken action.

Also promising are policies that combine measures to activate immigrant mothers – which include language training – with care and early language stimulation for their children, ideally in the same institution. Such an approach helps to overcome immigrant parents' reticence about the way their children may be treated in childcare and preschool institutions.

Facilitating mothers' involvement in school, preschool, and childcare not only benefits their children, it can also help to activate mothers themselves as it improves their language learning and brings them more into social mainstream. Several OECD countries have introduced the international programme "Home Instruction for Parents of Preschool Youngsters" (HIPPY) and other programmes of mother and child education. There is evidence that they have helped connect educationally disadvantaged parents with the labour market and improved their children's education outcomes.

Norway has initiated a scheme to enhance immigrant parents' self-confidence and awareness of their role in their children's learning. Similar projects have also been rolled out at national and local level in Denmark and the Netherlands (OECD; 2007, 2008a). Germany and France run programmes that organise language and vocational training for parents at their children's school. The aim is also to generate positive side-effects on the school climate and parent-teacher relations. In Korea, support centres provide basic services directed specifically at immigrant mothers. The services include family education, language courses, translation and interpretation, childcare and child education support.

Immigrant women across the OECD are also addressing these issues themselves by creating self-help groups focused on empowerment. Countries where they are taking matters into their own hands include Australia, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, and Sweden.

Family commitments, particularly childcare, are not the only obstacles to efforts to activate foreign-born mothers. In some countries, women who arrive as family-reunification immigrants are not entitled to welfare, which also makes them ineligible for ALMP. Indeed, provisions for family formation and reunification in many countries formally prohibit access to social benefit. Where integration schemes are time-bound – as introduction programmes usually are – foreign-born women who have spent their first few years in a host-country busy with childcare duties may find that they are no longer entitled to them. Action to activate foreign-born women should therefore carefully factor in formal obstacles to activity.

Specific issues for highly educated immigrants. One of the most striking findings from the first part of this chapter is the wide gap in employment rates between the highly educated foreign- and native-born. It stems chiefly from inactivity, which is particularly high among immigrants from non-OECD countries. And even when they are in employment, they are often over-qualified for the jobs they do. The fact, though, that so many are inactive, and therefore not even looking for a job, is a puzzle. It points to issues of discouragement. The reasons are not entirely clear, but seem related to the non-recognition of their foreign credentials and discrimination, as well as language obstacles.

Positive versus negative incentives. The activation approach adds a new perspective to the on-going political debate over compulsory versus voluntary integration programmes. Many mainstream schemes carry the threat of benefit sanctions for refusal to participate. In fact, that is now standard practice and there is no reason to distinguish between immigrants and the native-born in this respect.[31] Yet, several European OECD countries – including Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, and Norway – have also made integration programmes obligatory for specific categories of newcomers.[32] Obligation is further reinforced by penalties for non-participation. They do not necessarily entail shutting off access to benefits – indeed, as mentioned, many family immigrants are not eligible, anyway – but, rather, the denial of permanent residence permits.

A frequently aired motive for compelling immigrants to attend integration programmes is that many of those who have been resident in a host country for years still do not master its language well. There has been less focus on the underlying barriers to participation in integration programmes or the use of positive incentives.

Like other integration policy approaches, activation should start by spotting immigrants who struggle with the language and identifying their reasons for non-participation in integration programmes. Reasons can range from simple disinterest to ignorance of available courses, lack of time due to work or family commitments, inconvenient or inadequate offers, the perceived high costs or low benefits of programmes for labour market integration.

A number of well-designed voluntary integration measures in OECD countries have had take-up rates of well above 90%. Their popularity suggests that the widespread concern over immigrants' "lack of willingness to integrate" – reflected in the mandatory nature of many programmes – is a problem that concerns only a small minority. The question is not only whether making integration measures obligatory is an effective way of reaching the few immigrants who would not otherwise participate, but whether it may have an adverse effect on the vast majority who would have participated anyway. After all, obligation sends out the message that the host-country presumes that immigrants do not want to learn the language or settle down permanently. That sentiment can discourage the foreign-born from investing in their skills and training and reinforce negative stereotypes about immigrants, which may put employers off from hiring them.

The activation approach focuses both on expanding the demand for and the supply of integration support, since high-quality courses and high levels of participation are mutually reinforcing. In addition, incentives should be directed not only at immigrants – after all, participation is generally in their own best interest. Providers, too, should be incentivised to ensure quality training. They should be paid – in part, at least – only if they achieve the stated objectives of improving language proficiency and labour market integration.[33]

Engaging with employers

Making hiring more attractive. Several OECD countries have addressed the issue of encouraging employers to hire people who have drifted away from the labour market. They do so through mechanisms such as wage subsidies (see previous section) and cuts in employer-based contributions to social security.[34] Recent structural reforms in Italy and Spain have sought to reduce barriers to employment by facilitating part-time work and introducing more flexible working arrangements (OECD, 2012b).

Making informal work into formal employment may also be an effective strategy, particularly in lower-income OECD countries with large estimated informal sectors, such as domestic services, where immigrants are widely over-represented. While greater enforcement seems to have had only a modest effect, potentially effective measures are tax and wage incentives and cuts in red tape to ease hiring formalities (OECD, 2004). Personal and household service vouchers that lower the price in the formal market can also help to move people out of informal to formal employment. The use of such vouchers in Italy and Belgium, for example, has improved the employment prospects of low-skilled workers, particularly women, in domestic service.

As with active labour market policies in general, a recurring problem with action primarily aimed at the labour demand side is that immigrants are often underrepresented among beneficiaries. The inference is that there are further structural barriers to employers' willingness to employ immigrants – at least in the formal sector – that need to be addressed. Some schemes, like one targeted at refugees in Australia and local initiatives in Sweden, have reached out to employers in an effort to better understand their business needs and give immigrant participants training that responds specifically to those needs.

Anti-discrimination law and equal employment policies. As was described in the first part of this chapter, discrimination – on the grounds of ethnicity, race, religion, and nationality – is still a major obstacle to immigrants' participation in the labour market. Yet, there is a wide lack of awareness of discrimination – 40% of EU residents think ethnic discrimination is rare or non-existent in their country, according to a 2012 Eurobarometer Survey.[35]

The most basic instrument for preventing discrimination is legislation formally outlawing it. Victims in employment and training can now turn to dedicated laws and agencies in the vast majority of OECD countries. Anti-discrimination legislation seeks to go beyond solely securing redress for victims to actually changing public behaviour. People who believe they have been discriminated against are encouraged to report cases and file complaints. Unfortunately, though, legislation in most OECD countries is generally not strong or accessible enough to effectively prevent employers and others from discriminating against immigrants.

Some OECD countries actually do have comprehensive legislation with strong enforcement mechanisms and agencies. They include countries of settlement and European OECD countries like Sweden and the United Kingdom. In most European OECD countries, frameworks build on recent laws and agencies adopted them some time after 2000 in the wake of the European Union's Employment Equality Framework Directive.[36] The Czech Republic (2009), Estonia (2009), and Poland (2010) are the most recent member countries to incorporate the directive. And even countries with small immigrant populations outside Europe, like Chile and Mexico, are increasingly adopting anti-discrimination framework laws.

However, legislation in a number of countries does not cover discrimination on all grounds and in all areas of public life. The failure to explicitly prohibit it on the basis of nationality or citizenship opens the way to discrimination against immigrants. Plaintiffs often carry the entire burden of proof, while government equality agencies which advise victims are frequently not allowed to file suits themselves and lack independent investigatory powers. Moreover, the penalties meted out to employers found guilty of discrimination are often merely token (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2008). As a result, few cases find their way into the courts, while some are settled informally.

The robustness and enforcement of legislation and anti-discrimination agencies' powers determine whether employers comply with the law and victims lodge complaints. Evidence from the US indicates that sterner anti-racism laws improve minorities' long-term employment prospects and, to some extent, their earnings (Neumark and Stock, 2001; Donohue, 2005). While the under-reporting of discrimination is a major problem across countries, immigrant survey respondents said they were more likely not to report a case or to think that nothing would come of it in countries with weak anti-discrimination laws (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2009). Stronger, comprehensive

laws and empowered agencies improve plaintiffs' chances of redress and increase the number of deterrent sanctions. But the chief merit of anti-discrimination legislation is the signal it provides – i.e. that discrimination is unacceptable and policy is watchful.

To offset the known weaknesses of anti-discrimination legislation, a number of countries have gone a step further and introduced equal employment policies (EEPs). They have done so to promote equal opportunity for disadvantaged groups on the labour market, and are increasingly making immigrants and their children a key target group. EEPs seek to remove obstacles to employment through action that ranges from targets regarding immigrant employment and monitoring to quotas and affirmative action. Diversity policies, like Belgium's, for example, include administrative and financial support to employers who agree to take measures that give disadvantaged groups a better chance (OECD, 2008a). Within the OECD, the most robust EEPs seek to enforce gender parity and incorporate measures to ensure equal employment opportunity for women. The foreign-born and their descendants benefit from relatively firm private-sector EEPs mainly in the United Kingdom and countries of longstanding settlement, such as Australia, Canada and the United States. Elsewhere, there are no obligatory EEPs for the foreign-born or their descendants in the private sector, although some countries – like Norway – have introduced them in the public sector.[37]

A recent trend is diversity management whereby employers voluntarily agree to promote diversity and equal opportunity in the workplace for all individuals regardless of race, ethnic origin, or religion. Twelve European OECD countries have introduced national diversity charters,[38] which businesses and public institutions voluntarily sign, pledging to foster diversity. However, the scale and scope of such instruments often remains limited, as implementation is not monitored and only a few large companies commit to them. Belgium and France, however, have taken matters further. They have introduced diversity labels, whereby authorities audit and certify a company's diversity management policies on a regular basis with relevant stakeholders. The labels testify to a company's commitment to its corporate social responsibility, while the labels give it a public relations incentive to be an equal opportunity employer.

EEPs, whether voluntary or obligatory, do not appear to be effective if they are not backed by reporting and accountability requirements. In the United States, affirmative action programmes – which are a management responsibility and hold firms accountable – have improved employment outcomes for minorities, especially those working in firms with federal government contracts (see Holzer, 2010). In comparison, voluntary EEPs have a number of shortcomings.

First, comparatively few businesses participate in EEPs in Europe compared with the United States. Second, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) tend to be underrepresented, even though they not only generally account for the bulk of new jobs, but are the companies where discrimination against immigrants is worst.[39] Moreover, participating businesses often do not have to answer to any monitoring or reporting requirement as to the results of their voluntary diversity action (European Commission, 2008). Greater evaluation and better piloting would strengthen the business case for voluntary EEPs and help design more effective ones, whether voluntary or obligatory.

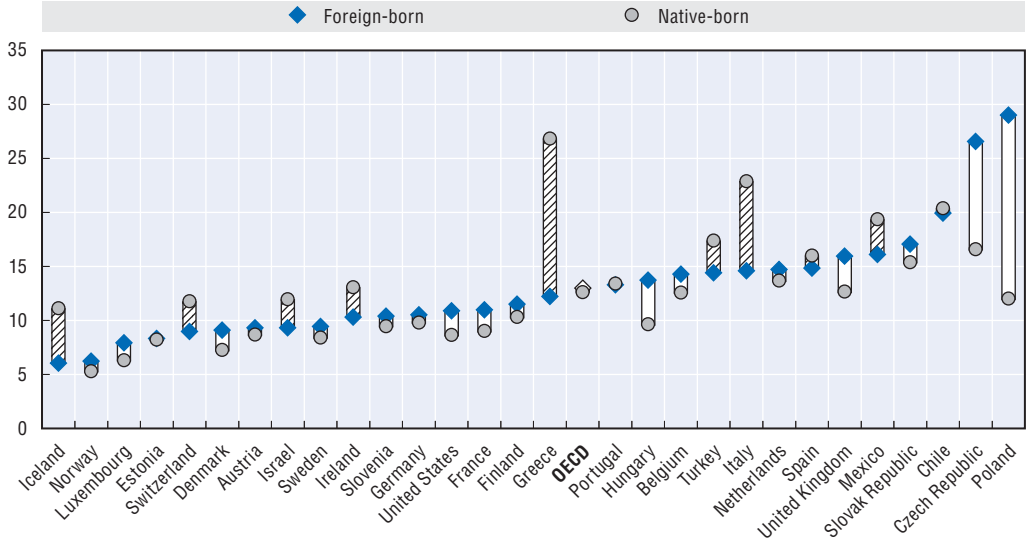
Clearly, there is room for an evidence-based approach to designing more effective EEPs. One good example is a pilot scheme to monitor anonymous CVs in the hiring process. The idea behind anonymous CVs is that there is nothing to tie them to people who are

exposed to discrimination on the grounds of age, gender, ethnicity, race, nationality, or religion. They thus contribute to reducing discrimination. Pilots in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden suggest that anonymous CVs can indeed help curb discriminatory hiring (Heath, Liebig, and Simon; 2013).[40] However, they may be difficult to implement in SMEs where there is no separate human resources department which would normally be the intermediary between an applicant and the recruitment manager to whom the anonymous application is sent.

Activating immigrants as employers

A third channel of activation is immigrants as employers themselves. In most OECD countries, the foreign-born are slightly more likely than the native-born to be self-employed and open new businesses, even after controlling for their individual characteristics (Figure 2.29).

Figure 2.29. **Percentage of self-employed 15- to 64-year-olds among non-agricultural workers by place of birth, 2012-13**



Note: Hatched bars indicate that the percentage of self-employed is higher among the native-born and white bars indicate that the percentage is higher among the foreign-born.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012-13; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo 2013* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157640

There are several positive aspects to immigrants becoming self-employed or setting up their own businesses, such as the significant contribution they make to employment and tentative evidence of growing trade with their countries of origin (OECD, 2010c). Still, doing so is no panacea for labour market integration. Many foreign-born end up in self-employment to escape from marginalisation in the labour market. In other words, self-employment is not always related to entrepreneurial skills. The foreign-born are more likely to both enter and exit self-employment, while new immigrant-run businesses have a lower survival rate than businesses founded by the native-born.

There are barriers to entrepreneurship that are particularly difficult to overcome for immigrants. Among these is access to credit. On the borrower's side, foreign-born entrepreneurs have a more limited credit history in their country of residence than their native-born counterparts. One reason is the lack of cross-border information sharing on credit histories. And because host-country credit institutions have more misgiving about foreign- than native-born entrepreneurs, they apply more stringent lending criteria and even discriminate against them. Research from Italy (Albareto and Mistrulli, 2010 and 2011) shows that immigrant entrepreneurs who obtained a loan had to pay interest rates that were, on average, 70 base points higher than those charged to their native-born peers. Knowledge of host-country administrative requirements and country-specific ways of running a business can also be an obstacle.

However, greater attention is being paid to immigrant entrepreneurs. Specific support is well established in several countries – such as Israel, the United Kingdom, and the United States – and start-ups using them seem to have higher survival rates than the national average. Mainstream programmes, too, can be particularly effective for immigrants. For example, Australia's New Enterprise Incentive Scheme looks to have had good results in helping non-English-speaking immigrants set up stable businesses.

Support for immigrant entrepreneurs is still on the limited side in most European OECD countries, although it is on the increase in France, Germany, and Norway among others. Sweden's national entrepreneurship support agency, ALMI, has even created a dedicated branch – a fine example of how immigrant-specific support can be part of the mainstream.

Conclusion: Integration as investment

Successful integration requires comprehensive, well-tailored measures that factor in considerations specific to immigrants' countries of origins, the groups to which they belong, their entry categories, education background, and family situation. As immigration flows grow more diverse in most countries, they must increasingly customise their integration policy instruments. That being said, immigrants' needs are not necessarily different from those of the native-born, once they have settled in. Indeed, effective general programmes often have an even greater impact on immigrants than on native-born in similar situations, provided that they are accessible. Greater mainstreaming should thus address immigrants' under-representation in more effective general policies that is widely observed to date.

Nevertheless, the reasons for underrepresentation are not always clear. Is it due to lack of information? Are immigrants and employers just not interested enough? If not, why not? Or are integration programmes not properly targeted or incentives wrongly set?

Effective policies do not always need to cost the public purse much. Instruments like volunteer-based mentoring, public sector recruitment, the promotion of naturalisation and stronger anti-discrimination legislation do not entail significant financial investment. Similarly, supplying information on the integration programmes available and the benefits they bring is often just as important as actually providing the programmes. A balanced public discourse is also a "measure" that does not come at a financial cost, but produces potentially valuable gains.

Ultimately, however, the success of labour market integration policy depends not only on the take-up of the programmes and on the investment that goes into them, but – above all – on employers' willingness to hire and train immigrant workers. To that end, aligning

employers' incentives with the objective of harnessing the skills potential of immigrants and their children is critical. Employers need to be part of the integration process and to see integration as an investment, if only for securing future labour supply. Well-designed diversity polices are a promising direction in that respect.

Investing in the skills that bring immigrants into the labour market can pay off handsomely. OECD work on the fiscal impact of migration (Liebig and Mo, 2013) has shown that lifting immigrants' employment rates to native-born levels would deliver fiscal benefits of one-half of a percentage point of GDP or more annually in OECD countries like Belgium, France, and Sweden. Successful integration not only improves the economic and fiscal benefits of immigration, it is also an important factor in social cohesion. Viewing integration as an investment also has implications for the way that integration policies are designed.

First, policy should incorporate early intervention – critical both for newcomers on the way to permanent residence and for the children of immigrants. While the early labour market integration of newcomers is the best predictor of employment in the long-term, an immigrant's first job may well not make full use of his or her skills and thereby not be very stable. Yet, if support does not end with the first day of employment, there need not be a trade-off between rapid employment and lasting integration. As for the offspring of immigrants, the most effective policy is to ensure their participation in early childhood education and care from around the age of three. It is precisely the age at which the fewest children of immigrants tend to be in the education system.

Second, if they consider integration an investment, policies should not seek to pay off immediately. All the immigrants who settle need to build the basic skills that enable them to function in the host society. It is undoubtedly a costly approach and may not even pay off in fiscal terms if only immigrants themselves are considered – particularly if they lack basic skills and have drifted well outside the confines of the labour market. However, the benefits extend beyond the labour market to social cohesion and across generations, where immigrants' children may reap them.

Viewing integration as an investment does not necessarily mean that the state should fund all integration measures. Nevertheless, if the benefits of effective integration are to be felt across the whole of society, there is a strong case for significant subsidies. Especially in situations where immigrants are not in a position themselves to invest the amount they need, government intervention to provide support is warranted.

Finally, policy that takes the long view means that access to integration support should be dependent not on the group to which an immigrant belongs, but on his or her settlement prospects and needs. Family-reunification immigrants, for example, are still too often out of the focus of integration policy. Yet there is a high probability that they will stay on in the host country.

Most immigrants and their offspring, be they educated or not, work in OECD countries. Their situation and skills improve over time. Nevertheless, they have a great fund of still-underused skills and potential to offer. Tapping into their skills and investing to unleash their potential are critical to the future of OECD countries.

Notes

1. This chapter was prepared by Thomas Liebig (OECD) and Thomas Huddleston (Consultant).
2. The terms "foreign-born", "migrant" and "immigrant" are used synonymously in this chapter. They refer to the population born abroad – not only to the population which has a foreign nationality. The terms "descendants", "offspring of immigrants" and "children of immigrants" are also used synonymously. They encompass both youth who immigrated with their parents at school age and the native-born children of immigrants. For the latter, some countries use the term "second-generation immigrants", which risks the connotation that the immigrant status is perpetuated. The OECD countries that have been settled by migration also occasionally use the term "second generation" but give it a different connotation. Canada, for example, refers to "second-generation Canadians", to reflect the fact that both they and their parents are considered an integral part of society.
3. The OECD countries which are English-speaking have the additional advantage that English is widely spoken. Thus, even many – if not most – immigrants from countries which are not formally English-speaking master the language well.
4. In the United States, the shares of recent arrivals, of highly educated and of immigrants who were exposed to their host country's language before arrival are lower than in the other countries in this group.
5. Again, however, part of the higher scores for immigrants with domestic qualifications may also be due to the fact that they master the host-country language better.
6. As a result, humanitarian migrants generally tend to be the main target group of integration programmes in OECD countries. However, this is less often the case for family migrants.
7. Although the integration of the native-born children of immigrants is of particular concern in the European OECD countries, the outcomes of this group are also an important consideration elsewhere (see Hugo [2011] on the children of humanitarian immigrants in Australia).
8. However, the sample sizes are small in most countries, so the results are only statistically significant in a few European OECD countries with large populations of children of immigrants.
9. Note, however, that these results are not based on longitudinal data following the same immigrants over time, but on cross-sectional data based on length of stay. Nonetheless, the pattern observed is generally as expected, i.e. immigrants who have been longer in the host country have better outcomes.
10. Beyond this well-documented discrimination against immigrants in hiring, evidence exists of discrimination in career advancement and in the education system.
11. Along the same line, PISA data show that children of immigrants have on average higher motivation and higher aspirations regarding their careers than the children of native-born.
12. For example, in Canada's Red Seal programme for skilled trades' workers, employer organisations and associations are closely involved in determining standards and accreditation.
13. Many OECD countries have developed media projects and awards to encourage the reporting of objective stories, statistics, and research on migration and integration. One interesting initiative in Germany is "Mediendienst Integration" (Integration Media Service), funded by the government together with private foundations, and located in the House of the German Press Conference. This service provides information, summarises research, highlights new and missing topics, and builds up networks of expertise among researchers and journalists.
14. This is known as the "stereotype threat" which has been confirmed by experiments among women, ethnic minorities, and immigrants. For the United States, see Massey and Fischer (2005); Ward-Schofield (2006); Deaux et al. (2007); Owens and Lynch (2012). For an Austrian example: Appel and Kronberger, 2012.
15. For example, in 2012, the Belgian regions of Brussels and Wallonia granted non-EU nationals equal access to the civil service and teaching jobs in 2013. In Italy, the Law 97/2013 opened the public sector to several legal categories of non-EU nationals.
16. Similar initiatives have been started in cities and federal states in Germany, such as "Berlin braucht dich!" and "Wir sind Hamburg" to raise the proportion of public sector trainees with a migration background. Workforce diversity targets have also been set for the public sector in the region of Flanders in Belgium (Equal Opportunities and Diversity Plan) and cities in Austria (Vienna's Integration and Diversity Monitor), Denmark (Copenhagen's Integration Barometer) and the Netherlands (Amsterdam's Programma Diversiteit). For more such initiatives in Europe, see the European Commission's website on integration.

17. See, for example, the literature review in Liebig and Von Haaren (2011) and the studies collected in OECD (2011).

18. Some barriers remain for certain jobs in the public sector. These again tend to be small in most cases and there has been great improvement in recent years, but hiring nationals might still be preferred. In Canada, where barriers to naturalisation are low, there are no administrative barriers to hiring permanent residents (that is, immigrants who have not yet naturalised), but citizens are given preferential treatment when applying for jobs in the federal public service.

19. In many countries, the PES offers early and intensive coaching focused on immediate employment with individualised follow-up. This policy seems to have met with some success, notably in the Scandinavian countries (Sianesi, 2004; Aslund and Johansson, 2006; Joona and Nekby, 2012).

20. Examples of the systematic use of immigrant-origin mentors are Denmark's "We Need All Youngsters" campaign and its "Retention Caravan" that use youth and parent role models to discuss their experiences and give advice on how to choose and successfully complete education programmes.

21. ISCED stands for International Standard Classification of Education.

22. For instance, Ireland allows the temporary registration of non-EU doctors to work under supervision and receive further training for a period of up to seven years. The United Kingdom also allows temporary registration for certain healthcare professionals. Since 2002, Portugal has put in place a bridging programme for immigrant doctors with a training, exam, and registration procedure. The programme includes financial support covering fees and medicine-specific language courses and textbooks.

23. Similarly, most surveyed participants and teachers in Estonia's language training development programmes did not think it improved labour market participation (Saar Poll OÜ, 2013).

24. Vocational-specific language specialists can also work with employers to help properly define the language skills actually needed for specific jobs, as in the "Work-Up Project" in the Flemish region of Belgium.

25. For example, the Austrian Public Employment Service (AMS) offers vocation-specific on-the-job language training, but this is only 5% of its total language training (see Krause and Liebig, 2011). In Brussels, non-EU immigrants are strongly under-represented among users of its language-cheque programme, providing 20-40 hours of one-to-one language training.

26. Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013) show, using data from social surveys in European OECD countries, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, that native-born children of immigrants in European OECD countries feel more often discriminated against than their parents. Exactly the reverse is observed in the OECD countries which have been settled by migration.

27. While this pattern is observed in the vast majority of countries, it does not hold everywhere. This is probably due to cohort effects: children who arrived in a host country more recently may have different backgrounds than earlier arrivals. For example, they may have parents who are higher educated on average.

28. Training and education for the inactive are also generally considered activation measures. However, they are discussed in the previous section on developing skills since their focus is on the development of new skills rather than on the activation of existing ones.

29. For example, beneficiaries of international protection in European OECD countries are 10 percentage points more likely to be inactive for health reasons than other immigrants of the same age and gender.

30. Note, however, that Australia's social security system differs from that of most other OECD countries as it is government-funded (tax transfers) rather than insurance/contributory based.

31. There may nevertheless be some indirect targeting, if, for example participation in programmes to overcome language obstacles – presumably an issue mainly for immigrants – is a precondition for benefit access. For example, the United Kingdom recently introduced an English Language Requirement for all jobseekers whose English speaking and listening skills are below Entry Level 2. Where levels are below, participation in measures is compulsory. Such measures have the advantage of targeting the issue, rather than immigrants themselves.

32. The Netherlands does not require participation, but does require an integration test to be taken.

33. At the same time, incentives should reflect the fact that immigrants with different skills also have different integration pathways.

34. Indeed, the objective of wage subsidies is two-fold. On the one hand, they aim at encouraging employers to give disadvantaged groups a chance – by compensating for actual or perceived lower productivity. On the other hand, they help to give immigrants a chance to demonstrate their skills in a context where employers are reticent. This is probably the reason why they tend to be more effective for immigrants than for other disadvantaged groups.

35. Particularly in Austria, Germany, Ireland, and most Southern European countries.

36. *http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32000L0078:en:HTML*.

37. The Netherlands also had strong policies in this respect in the past, but most have been abolished over the past decade (see OECD [2008a] for a discussion of the issue).

38. Austria, Belgium, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Poland, Spain and Sweden.

39. SMEs often have little experience in hiring immigrants. In addition, in situations where there is uncertainty about a candidates' skills, SMEs may tend to be more risk-averse since a single less productive employee would have a relatively stronger impact on the company's performance than in a larger firm. As a result, testing studies have confirmed that discrimination tends to be more pronounced in SMEs (Heath, Liebig and Simon; 2013).

40. In France, one evaluation of a pilot scheme point to a negative impact of anonymous CVs. However, the companies that took part had volunteered, making it likely that the participating companies wanted to diversify their staff and were thus not representative.

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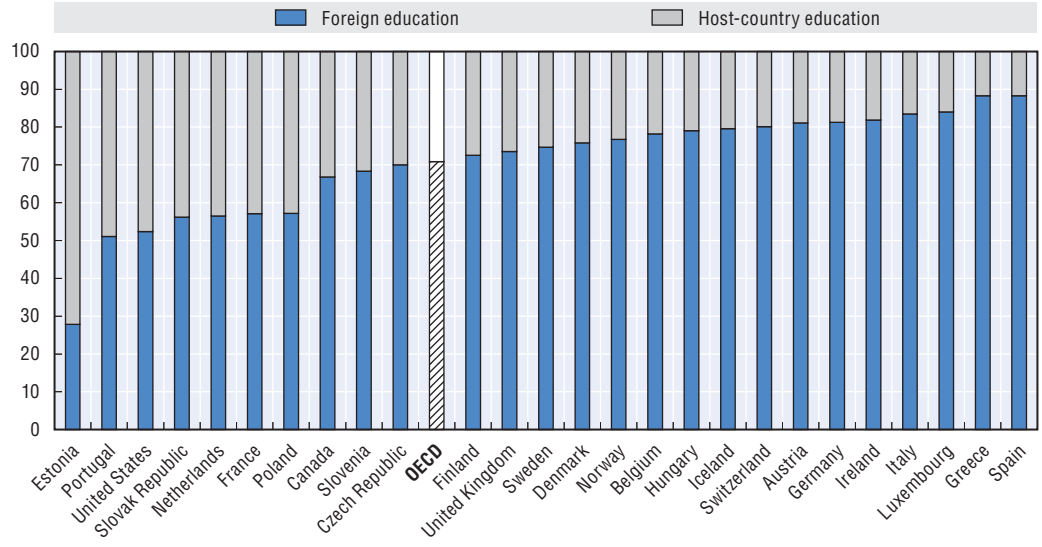
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ANNEX 2.A1

Supplementary tables and figures

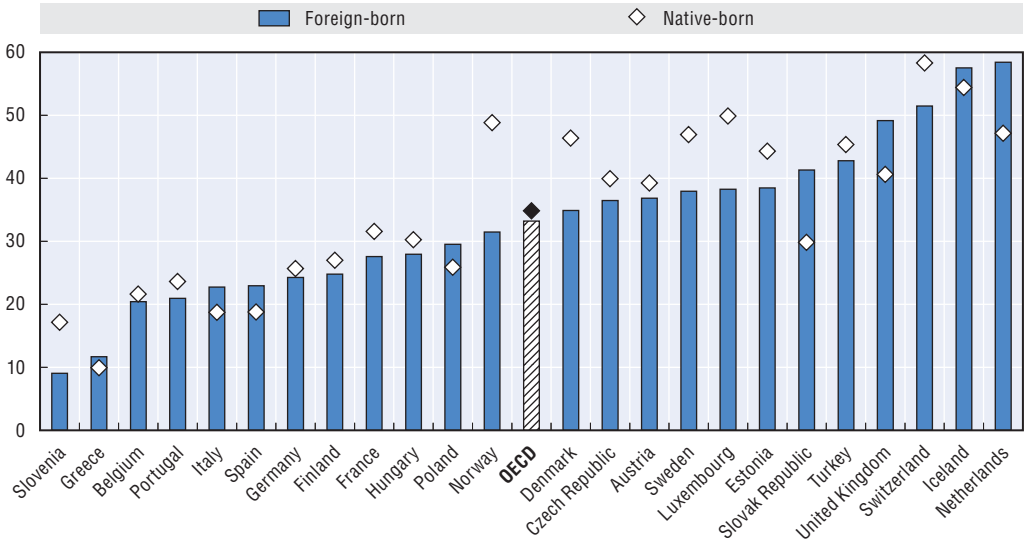
Figure 2.A1.1. **Where the foreign-born obtained their qualifications in selected OECD countries, persons aged 25-64, 2011-12**



Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2011-12; Canada, United States: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157659

Figure 2.A1.2. **Percentage of employed among people aged 15-64 who were unemployed one year earlier, by place of birth, 2013**



Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2013.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157662

Table 2.A1.1. **Associated likelihood of being employed, 25 to 64-year-olds not in education, European OECD countries, 2011-12**

Percentage points

A. Men			
Born in a high-income country	-1.0**	-1.1**	-1.9***
Born in a lower-income country	-9.7***	-8.4***	-9.4***
High level of education		17.3***	16.7***
Medium level of education		10.9***	10.4***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			-15.0***
Has one or more child under 6			0.5**
N	1 988 123	1 981 617	1 981 617
B. Women			
Born in a high-income country	-4.5***	-5.0***	-4.9***
Born in a lower-income country	-16.9***	-14.3***	-13.8***
High level of education		29.2***	29.2***
Medium level of education		18.0***	18.0***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			0.8***
Has one or more child under 6			-12.3***
N	2 112 745	2 106 213	2 106 213

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001. The probit regressions control for age and country fixed effects. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.

Source: European Labour Force Surveys 2011-12 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157846

Table 2.A1.2. **Associated likelihood of being employed among 15 to 34-year-olds who are not in education, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

A. Men			
Native-born sons of two foreign-born parents	-4.4***	-2.4***	-3.3***
High level of education		12.5***	12.4***
Medium level of education		11.7***	11.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			-9.6***
Has one or more child under 6			-2.0**
N	110 061	109 543	109 543
B. Women			
Native-born daughters of two foreign-born parents	-18.2***	-13.5***	-12.3***
High level of education		30.8***	29.3***
Medium level of education		22.2***	21.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			2.1***
Has one or more child under 6			-20.1***
N	104 941	104 522	104 522

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001. The probit regressions control for age and country fixed effects.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157859

Table 2.A1.3. **Associated likelihood of being employed, 15 to 64-year-olds not in education, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country
	A. Men	
Citizen	0.1	3.7**
Years of residence in this country	0.2**	0.2**
High level of education	6.1***	4.6***
Medium level of education	3.4**	4.0***
Reason to migrate: Study	-3.8	-4.5
Reason to migrate: Family	-4.4**	-3.5*
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	-0.9	-11.3***
Reason to migrate: Other	-0.1	-0.3
Has language limitations	-6.9***	-6.3***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	-8.7***	-5.4***
Has one or more child under 6	-2.2	2.0
N	10 717	12 336
	B. Women	
Citizen	-5.5**	0.9
Years of residence in this country	0.4***	0.4***
High level of education	5.9***	7.9***
Medium level of education	3.6*	6.7***
Reason to migrate: Study	-5.9	-8.6*
Reason to migrate: Family	-8.7***	-13.3***
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	-9.2	-18.4***
Reason to migrate: Other	-9.8**	-12.9***
Has language limitations	-10.5***	-13.8***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	3.3*	0.9
Has one or more child under 6	-6.8**	-8.6***
N	10 351	11 208

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and the Slovak Republic, are not included in the analysis as they did not collect all the information necessary to run the regression. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey. Labour is the reference category for the reason to migrate.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157869

Table 2.A1.4. **Associated likelihood of being employed, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Native-born adults (25-64)	Foreign-born (25-64)		Native-born children of immigrants (15-34 not in education)		Foreign-born who migrated before the age of 16 (15-34 not in education)		Native-born children of two native-born parents (15-34 not in education)
		Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country	The two parents were born in a high-income country	The two parents were born in a lower-income country	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country	
A. Men								
High level of education	14.2***	10.6***	10.0***	11.0***	24.3***	14.6***	16.8***	12.3***
Medium level of education	9.0***	5.9***	8.5***	16.5***	12.6***	16.2***	10.5***	12.2***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	-15.0***	-11.1***	-10.5***	-13.5***	-7.3	-11.7*	-17.8***	-10.3***
Has one or more child under 6	0.3	-2.1	0.7	3.3	5.1	-1.0	-2.9	-2.5***
N	353 271	16 103	18 790	861	1 491	1 185	2 474	96 209
B. Women								
High level of education	29.0***	14.3***	23.5***	23.5***	42.6***	29.8***	38.8***	29.0***
Medium level of education	17.8***	7.6***	19.4***	21.4**	24.1***	20.1***	19.9***	21.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	1.5***	13.1***	10.5***	12.6*	-3	10.3	-0.3	0.1
Has one or more child under 6	-12.0***	-16.7***	-17.4***	-32.2***	-25.0***	-20.8**	-24.1***	-19.1***
N	374 860	18 182	21 454	815	1 564	1 269	2 359	89 600

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions controls for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. The regressions on the native-born children of immigrants exclude Denmark and Norway. The regressions on 15-34 foreign-born exclude Poland and the Slovak Republic. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157874

Table 2.A1.5. **Associated risks of over-qualification, employed people between 15 and 64 years old, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country
Citizen	-4.5	-17.2***
Years of residence in this country	-0.1	-1.1***
Reason to migrate: Study	-6.4	-15.4***
Reason to migrate: Family	5.6	4.3
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	21.4	27.2***
Reason to migrate: Other	-4.9	-4.1
Has language limitations	20.9***	16.2***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	1.0	1
Has one or more child under 6	-5.2	-0.5
N	6 620	4 473

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and the Slovak Republic are not included in the analysis as they did not collect all the information necessary to run the regression. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey. Labour is the reference category for the reason to migrate.

Source: Labour Force Surveys ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157881

Table 2.A1.6. **Associated risk of in-work poverty, European OECD countries, 2011**

Percentage points

Native-born household	-7.5***
Medium level of education	-4.3***
High level of education	-8.6***
One adult working, with children	8.4***
Two adults or more, two workers or more, without children	-6.9***
Two adults or more, one worker, without children	-1.8***
Two adults or more, two workers or more, with children	-5.0***
Two adults or more, one worker, with children	4.3***
N	355 449

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. "In-work poverty risk" represents the share of individuals who live in a household whose equivalent income is below half of the median income of the whole population living in the country. The equivalent scale used is the square root scale. The households considered are the ones where at least one adult has been at work at least seven months in the last twelve months. The income considered is the total household income after social transfers disposable in a twelve-month period (previous calendar or tax year or twelve months preceding the interview). The ordinary least squares regression controls for country fixed effects.
Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (SILC) 2011.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157892

Table 2.A1.7. **Probability of being employed, 2012**

Percentage points

	Native-born offspring of two immigrant parents (aged 16 to 34) compared to the native-born offspring of two native-born parents	Foreign-born (aged 16 to 64) compared to the native-born
Australia	-4.8	-3.2[1]
Austria	-10.3	-8.3[1]
Canada	-4.1	-1.7
Czech Republic	-8.7	-1.2
Denmark	5.9	-6.3[1]
Estonia	-8.7[1]	-7.5[1]
France	-15.7[1]	-6.4[1]
Germany	-3.4	-1.9
Ireland	4.6	-5.0[1]
Italy	25.6	1.6
Netherlands	-19.4[1]	-14.3[1]
Norway	-9.9	-3.5
Slovak Republic	-0.1	-2.1
Spain	-7.0	-3.8
Sweden	-13.3	-2.7
United States	-11.7	7.0[1]
Belgium	-25.7[1]	-4.1
United Kingdom	-1.1	-2.9

1. Results significant at a 5% level. The coefficients are obtained from separate linear probability models which include controls for literacy score and fixed effects for 5-year age groups, gender and education level. The sample excludes the persons in education.

Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157903

Table 2.A1.8. **Probability of being employed and over-qualified, tertiary-educated foreign-born, 2012**

Percentage points

	Probability of being employed of the highly educated foreign-born aged 16 to 64	Risk of being over-qualified of the highly educated employed foreign-born aged 16 to 64
	Association with foreign qualifications	
Austria	5.2	28.2[1]
Belgium	6.4	0.8
Canada	0.4	12.9[1]
Czech Republic	-0.3	-3.0
Denmark	2.3	14.0[1]
Estonia	12.4[1]	14.8
Finland	-16.0	5.6
France	0.4	13.9
Germany	8.6	14.4
Ireland	-4.4	5.5
Italy	0.3	31.3
Netherlands	-21.9[1]	25.4[1]
Norway	8.0	3.5
Spain	-26.8[1]	21.6
Sweden	8.0	34.8[1]
United Kingdom	-13.8[1]	2.4
United States	0.0	8.9

1. Results significant at a 5% level. The coefficients are obtained from separate linear probability models which include controls for literacy score and fixed effects for 5-year age groups, gender and years of residence. The sample excludes the persons in education.

Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157913

Table 2.A1.9. **Overview and timeline of possible integration measures for adult immigrants**

Phase	Abroad	Orientation	Settlement	Participation
Duration	6 months prior to departure.	Arrival to six months of residence.	6 months to 3 years.	After 3-5 years of residence.
Location	Countries of origin and residence.	One-stop shop (per area/region).	General and specific service-provider.	General service-provider.
Securing future in country	• Information/tools on where to settle in the country of residence.	• Equivalence of country of origin/identity documentation. • Advice on area of residence/housing.	• Renewal of residence and path to long-term residence. • Promote early family reunification.	• Goal: Secure access to quality housing. • Goal: Path to naturalisation.
Learning the language of the country	• Free/online language courses for immigrants with a secured visa.	• Right to language assessment. • Free courses tracked by education level, flexible for workers and parents.	• Shift to job-specific/based course. • Certification by professional.	• Goal: Fluency commensurate with level of education.
Developing and activating job-specific skills	• Free information and advise for newcomers on job shortages and job-hunting advice.	• Short orientation course/session. • Assessment of skills and information on specific training options. • Early, intensive, and individualised support by public/temp emp. agency.	• Any necessary job training. • Equal uptake of effective ALMPs (work placement/wage subsidies). • Volunteer mentoring networks. • Entrepreneurs orientation/loans.	• Goal: All newcomers have job-specific skills and network. • Goal: Employment, over-qualification and in-work poverty rate similar to rate for native-born in similar circumstances.
Recognising the qualifications of high-educated immigrants	• Obtain diploma (and official information on equivalence from country of origin).	• Start recognition procedure; right to assessment of foreign qualifications.	• Partial recognition → Bridging programme (e.g. on the job). • No recognition → Support for training or equivalent qualification.	• Goal: Fully recognised or bridged country of origin qualifications or equivalent qualification in country of residence.

Table 2.A1.10. **Overview and timeline of possible integration measures for children of immigrants**

Phase	Orientation for newcomers	Pre-primary and compulsory	Transition-to-work
Duration	Arrival to six months in country.	Until age of compulsory education.	Young adulthood.
Location	Schools with support of one-stop shop (per area/region).	School system and local community.	General service-providers.
Specific policy in school	• Obtain documentation from country of origin required for school. • Assessment by experts of new pupils' prior learning/language skills. • Orientation programme with intensive language support until basic communicative fluency.	• Goal: Near-universal early uptake of early childhood education and care. • Early literacy intervention for all and right to extra language hours until academic fluency and academic support hours to catch-up. • Intercultural approach across school and autonomy to adapt curriculum. • Goal: Equal uptake of mentoring programmes and homework centres. • Goal: Equal uptake and success in "second-chance" programmes, academic and vocational tracks compared to children of native-born in similar circumstances.	• Equal uptake and completion of school-to-work and youth employment programmes. • Equal uptake and completion of apprenticeships. • Goal: Youth NEET rate not higher than that of children of native-born.
Specific policy outside of school	• Facilitate family reunification as early as possible. • Language/orientation courses for newcomer parents at child's school. • Access to nationality for foreign- and native-born children.	• Affordable childcare and recreational services during working hours. • Inform parents about school choice options in due time for school enrolment. • Avoid socio-economic concentration in schools. • Outreach to immigrant parents for ECEC, volunteering and school governance. • Support mentoring among immigrant parents and community.	• Support in finding apprenticeships in immigrant-owned enterprises and promotion of apprenticeships among immigrant employers. • Promote greater diversity in education sector.

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	57.8	56.8	60.2	59.4	78.8	77.4	75.0	58.9	66.6	61.0	66.9	73.8	41.2	66.5
	Q2 2009	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	-	57.9	57.3	63.3	59.5	78.7	77.8	74.3	59.3	66.3	60.4	67.8	74.9	44.6	66.5
	Q3 2009	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	-	57.2	56.9	62.9	60.0	78.6	76.8	73.6	59.9	65.4	60.1	68.6	74.9	45.8	66.2
	Q4 2009	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	-	57.2	56.5	61.0	60.6	78.1	76.4	74.6	59.4	65.5	59.2	67.5	73.3	44.9	65.1
	2009	**73.9**	**73.1**	**63.2**	**72.3**	**..**	**54.2**	**65.4**	**72.5**	**76.6**	**60.1**	**62.9**	**68.9**	**65.0**	**70.5**	**60.7**	**55.2**	**61.8**	**78.4**	**57.5**	**56.9**	**61.9**	**59.9**	**78.6**	**77.1**	**74.4**	**59.4**	**66.0**	**60.2**	**67.7**	**74.2**	**44.1**	**66.1**
	Q1 2010	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	-	57.5	56.1	60.5	59.4	77.6	75.6	74.1	58.2	65.5	58.0	66.3	73.1	43.6	64.6
	Q2 2010	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	-	58.7	56.6	60.3	60.4	78.0	76.5	73.5	59.3	65.3	58.6	66.4	75.4	47.3	65.3
	Q3 2010	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	-	58.7	56.0	62.0	60.0	76.4	76.2	73.8	60.0	65.1	59.2	66.6	76.5	47.4	65.6
	Q4 2010	74.4	73.4	64.2	72.6	80.5	..	65.4	73.2	74.2	58.9	63.7	68.1	64.4	70.2	57.8	55.6	59.6	-	59.1	56.5	59.9	59.2	76.3	76.0	74.0	59.6	64.9	59.3	65.9	75.3	46.4	65.2
	2010	**73.9**	**72.9**	**63.6**	**72.4**	**80.3**	**..**	**64.9**	**72.5**	**74.7**	**58.9**	**61.3**	**68.5**	**64.7**	**70.1**	**59.0**	**55.2**	**60.1**	**78.5**	**58.5**	**56.3**	**60.7**	**59.7**	**76.2**	**76.1**	**73.9**	**59.3**	**65.2**	**58.8**	**66.3**	**75.1**	**46.2**	**65.2**
	Q1 2011	73.8	72.3	63.0	71.3	80.9	..	64.9	72.8	74.3	58.3	63.6	67.6	64.3	69.9	56.6	54.5	58.6	-	59.0	56.1	60.0	59.1	76.0	75.5	73.6	58.9	64.4	59.0	64.0	75.1	46.0	64.6
	Q2 2011	74.0	73.2	64.3	73.5	81.1	..	65.6	73.6	74.9	58.9	64.8	70.4	64.9	69.9	56.0	55.7	59.1	-	59.5	56.5	58.8	59.9	76.5	75.8	73.2	59.7	64.4	59.6	64.6	77.1	49.2	65.1
	Q3 2011	73.8	74.3	63.5	73.9	80.7	..	66.1	74.0	75.2	58.6	67.2	70.7	65.3	70.0	55.1	56.3	58.6	-	59.0	56.3	60.5	60.1	76.8	76.4	73.3	60.2	64.0	59.9	65.4	78.0	49.9	65.4
	Q4 2011	73.9	73.5	64.0	72.6	81.4	..	66.0	74.6	74.5	57.7	65.8	68.9	64.7	70.2	53.3	56.3	59.0	-	59.1	56.4	58.8	61.2	77.0	76.2	73.9	59.9	62.3	59.5	64.7	76.1	48.3	65.3
	2011	**73.9**	**73.3**	**63.7**	**72.8**	**81.0**	**56.8**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**59.2**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**60.1**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**73.5**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**65.1**
	Q1 2012	73.3	72.7	63.5	71.2	80.6	..	65.6	73.3	73.9	56.6	66.0	68.2	64.3	70.1	52.4	55.6	58.3	-	..	56.1	58.8	60.1	76.7	76.2	73.4	59.2	61.7	59.6	64.0	75.4	46.3	64.7
	Q2 2012	73.8	73.7	63.9	73.4	80.5	..	66.5	73.7	74.4	56.6	67.1	70.7	65.0	70.4	51.9	57.0	58.7	-	..	56.6	60.6	61.4	76.8	76.7	72.9	60.0	62.0	59.8	63.8	77.0	49.9	65.7
	Q3 2012	73.6	75.0	64.1	73.7	81.1	..	67.0	74.2	74.4	56.2	68.2	70.9	65.3	71.0	51.0	57.9	59.0	-	..	56.4	62.2	61.5	77.0	76.7	72.4	60.2	61.5	60.1	64.3	78.2	49.9	66.0
	Q4 2012	73.9	73.8	63.8	72.8	81.3	..	67.0	74.4	74.0	55.3	67.4	68.7	64.8	71.4	50.5	57.6	59.3	-	..	56.1	61.3	60.8	76.9	76.2	72.2	60.0	60.1	59.3	64.2	75.9	49.6	65.9
	2012	**73.7**	**73.8**	**63.8**	**72.8**	**80.9**	**..**	**66.5**	**73.9**	**74.2**	**56.2**	**67.2**	**69.6**	**64.9**	**70.8**	**51.4**	**57.0**	**58.9**	**79.8**	**..**	**56.3**	**60.7**	**60.9**	**76.9**	**76.5**	**72.7**	**59.7**	**61.3**	**59.7**	**64.1**	**76.2**	**48.9**	**65.6**
	Q1 2013	73.2	72.5	63.0	71.6	81.3	..	66.8	73.8	73.5	55.0	67.1	67.7	64.6	70.9	49.4	56.3	59.4	-	..	55.1	59.5	60.0	76.3	76.0	..	58.7	59.5	59.8	62.8	75.5	47.9	65.0
	Q2 2013	73.5	73.7	64.1	73.6	80.7	..	67.8	74.4	74.3	55.4	69.1	70.5	65.2	71.0	49.8	58.1	60.2	-	..	55.4	60.4	61.1	76.4	76.5	..	59.8	60.6	59.8	63.2	77.2	50.8	65.9
	Q3 2013	73.3	74.6	64.1	73.9	80.8	..	68.0	74.6	74.4	56.0	69.0	70.3	65.6	71.6	49.7	59.0	60.9	-	..	55.3	59.3	60.9	76.4	76.6	..	60.7	61.4	60.0	64.7	78.7	50.3	66.2
	Q4 2013	73.4	73.9	63.3	73.1	81.9	..	68.2	75.0	73.6	55.8	68.6	68.2	65.1	71.8	48.9	59.5	61.4	-	..	55.3	61.9	61.6	76.1	75.9	..	60.8	61.9	59.8	63.5	77.2	49.2	65.8
	2013	**73.3**	**73.7**	**63.6**	**73.1**	**81.2**	**..**	**67.7**	**74.4**	**73.9**	**55.6**	**68.5**	**69.2**	**65.1**	**71.3**	**49.4**	**58.2**	**60.5**	**81.2**	**..**	**55.3**	**60.3**	**60.9**	**76.3**	**76.3**	**..**	**60.0**	**60.9**	**59.8**	**63.5**	**77.2**	**49.6**	**65.7**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	63.6	62.9	69.6	46.4	67.8	70.5	69.4	43.4	71.0	64.9	64.7	62.2	46.2	67.3
	Q2 2009	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	-	62.9	63.5	68.6	50.3	65.9	71.0	69.6	44.4	71.3	61.4	66.1	61.9	48.2	68.3
	Q3 2009	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	-	64.4	62.6	69.4	49.5	66.6	70.5	68.1	43.1	69.0	56.6	66.0	62.8	47.5	67.9
	Q4 2009	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	-	63.8	62.3	69.6	46.8	66.0	68.9	68.2	52.6	68.0	58.1	67.4	61.5	47.2	67.4
	2009	**67.3**	**64.7**	**52.2**	**68.5**	**..**	**64.7**	**65.8**	**63.5**	**68.1**	**58.0**	**67.8**	**63.8**	**57.8**	**66.0**	**66.0**	**65.5**	**62.0**	**77.2**	**63.7**	**62.8**	**69.3**	**48.2**	**66.6**	**70.2**	**68.8**	**45.7**	**69.8**	**60.6**	**66.1**	**62.1**	**47.2**	**67.7**
	Q1 2010	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	-	63.2	61.4	70.1	48.4	64.6	69.4	68.1	47.3	68.8	55.9	66.8	60.6	47.9	66.1
	Q2 2010	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	-	65.3	62.6	69.8	48.3	65.4	69.1	67.8	49.1	69.5	56.2	67.1	60.9	49.6	68.8
	Q3 2010	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	-	65.3	62.5	71.1	49.8	65.0	68.6	68.0	54.7	69.3	55.9	63.1	62.5	49.7	68.2
	Q4 2010	69.9	67.6	54.5	68.8	74.9	..	69.8	64.2	62.2	56.3	63.4	59.0	57.8	66.6	62.4	64.2	58.5	-	64.9	61.0	71.7	50.4	65.2	68.5	69.3	53.0	68.7	57.9	64.1	61.4	50.9	67.4
	2010	**68.5**	**66.3**	**53.0**	**68.8**	**74.6**	**..**	**68.1**	**64.1**	**63.4**	**56.8**	**59.2**	**60.5**	**57.7**	**66.2**	**64.0**	**65.5**	**59.5**	**74.8**	**64.7**	**61.9**	**70.7**	**49.2**	**64.4**	**68.9**	**68.3**	**50.7**	**69.1**	**56.5**	**65.3**	**61.3**	**49.5**	**67.6**
	Q1 2011	69.9	65.6	52.4	67.8	74.0	..	68.5	65.0	59.7	54.6	61.0	57.5	57.6	66.6	59.6	61.1	57.8	-	64.9	61.5	72.3	50.2	64.1	68.2	70.1	54.2	66.8	58.7	61.7	61.3	49.4	66.7
	Q2 2011	69.6	67.1	52.9	69.0	75.7	..	67.9	66.9	61.6	55.7	60.7	62.6	58.4	66.7	60.5	60.9	59.4	-	66.4	63.0	69.4	52.1	62.7	70.7	70.2	55.8	69.2	59.0	63.1	62.1	49.8	67.8
	Q3 2011	69.9	67.2	52.0	69.5	76.1	..	67.1	67.1	63.4	54.5	67.4	61.8	57.7	66.8	58.2	63.2	59.7	-	66.0	61.5	70.0	54.9	63.1	71.4	69.6	56.6	69.6	-	61.6	63.5	49.0	67.5
	Q4 2011	69.7	66.8	53.0	69.0	76.1	..	67.9	66.9	61.8	52.7	66.2	62.8	56.3	65.9	55.3	62.9	58.9	-	65.8	60.1	69.7	54.4	64.4	70.4	70.8	55.1	69.2	61.3	61.2	63.3	50.5	68.2
	2011	**69.8**	**66.7**	**52.6**	**68.8**	**75.5**	**68.1**	**67.8**	**66.5**	**61.7**	**54.4**	**63.9**	**61.1**	**57.5**	**66.5**	**58.4**	**62.1**	**59.0**	**76.3**	**65.8**	**61.5**	**70.3**	**52.9**	**63.6**	**70.2**	**70.2**	**55.3**	**68.7**	**59.7**	**61.9**	**62.6**	**49.7**	**67.5**
	Q1 2012	69.9	65.8	51.8	68.5	75.4	..	66.3	66.3	60.8	51.4	66.1	61.7	56.8	65.2	51.3	61.6	58.1	-	..	59.5	70.8	52.1	63.5	69.3	71.0	58.5	67.7	60.7	63.5	62.2	45.2	67.0
	Q2 2012	69.9	67.5	51.7	70.2	76.4	..	66.6	67.9	60.9	51.9	67.4	64.7	57.4	66.6	50.0	65.4	59.3	-	..	61.1	71.4	53.6	63.8	72.4	70.5	63.2	67.9	63.0	63.5	63.8	45.2	67.9
	Q3 2012	69.8	67.4	52.1	70.8	76.8	..	68.0	68.0	61.9	52.6	67.3	65.5	58.1	67.5	50.6	68.5	59.0	-	..	60.4	71.3	53.2	64.6	71.9	70.3	66.1	66.8	62.9	64.3	63.7	48.1	68.0
	Q4 2012	69.9	66.1	52.3	70.8	75.9	..	68.0	68.0	61.0	51.2	66.0	63.4	57.3	67.5	47.9	70.1	59.0	-	..	59.5	71.9	55.8	62.8	70.0	70.6	61.3	63.9	67.4	64.2	62.6	47.0	67.8
	2012	**69.9**	**66.7**	**52.0**	**70.1**	**76.1**	**..**	**67.3**	**67.5**	**61.1**	**51.8**	**66.7**	**63.8**	**57.4**	**66.7**	**49.9**	**66.5**	**58.8**	**79.0**	**..**	**60.1**	**71.3**	**53.6**	**63.6**	**70.9**	**70.6**	**61.9**	**66.6**	**63.7**	**63.9**	**62.8**	**46.4**	**67.7**
	Q1 2013	70.0	64.9	53.0	69.7	75.0	..	67.6	66.9	61.9	50.0	69.8	62.0	56.0	66.9	46.2	68.3	58.7	-	..	58.2	71.5	54.7	61.4	68.8	..	60.0	61.9	-	57.4	61.7	46.4	67.4
	Q2 2013	70.1	66.9	51.8	71.1	76.3	..	69.9	67.8	63.6	51.1	71.3	65.8	57.3	67.3	47.8	68.1	60.2	-	..	57.8	70.5	53.3	61.3	70.2	..	59.6	62.4	64.5	61.0	63.6	48.1	68.7
	Q3 2013	69.6	67.9	53.3	71.5	76.0	..	70.6	68.6	63.4	50.8	67.2	63.4	57.7	68.3	49.0	66.7	61.7	-	..	57.9	73.6	55.5	61.8	71.1	..	59.5	63.3	64.4	62.8	63.5	47.0	69.0
	Q4 2013	69.4	66.0	52.8	69.7	76.3	..	71.1	67.7	62.7	51.0	65.5	62.5	57.2	68.7	49.0	68.4	61.6	-	..	58.0	70.6	52.6	62.2	70.9	..	58.0	63.5	67.6	60.8	62.5	44.7	68.4
	2013	**69.8**	**66.4**	**52.7**	**70.5**	**75.9**	**..**	**69.8**	**67.8**	**62.9**	**50.7**	**68.4**	**63.4**	**57.1**	**67.8**	**48.0**	**67.9**	**60.5**	**79.9**	**..**	**58.0**	**71.5**	**54.0**	**61.7**	**70.3**	**..**	**59.2**	**62.8**	**66.4**	**60.5**	**62.9**	**46.5**	**68.4**

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	60.6	67.6	67.3	78.1	83.8	79.0	80.1	65.7	71.7	68.6	69.8	75.1	61.6	69.3
	Q2 2009	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	-	60.9	68.1	71.1	77.7	83.9	79.8	80.0	66.1	71.2	68.0	71.4	76.0	64.8	69.5
	Q3 2009	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	-	60.4	67.9	70.0	77.9	83.6	78.7	78.2	66.9	70.2	67.4	71.9	76.3	66.7	69.8
	Q4 2009	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	-	59.8	67.3	68.4	78.4	82.8	77.8	79.7	65.9	70.0	66.1	71.1	74.8	65.5	68.0
	2009	**78.8**	**77.7**	**68.1**	**74.0**	**..**	**68.8**	**73.8**	**76.4**	**78.8**	**67.7**	**63.5**	**69.6**	**68.8**	**74.8**	**72.7**	**60.9**	**66.0**	**80.3**	**60.4**	**67.7**	**69.2**	**78.0**	**83.5**	**78.8**	**79.5**	**66.2**	**70.8**	**67.5**	**71.0**	**75.6**	**64.6**	**69.1**
	Q1 2010	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	-	60.6	66.8	67.6	77.6	82.0	77.2	79.2	64.3	70.0	64.3	69.8	74.4	63.7	67.0
	Q2 2010	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	-	62.0	67.0	67.6	78.5	82.4	78.1	78.6	65.5	69.6	65.2	68.9	76.9	67.8	68.5
	Q3 2010	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	-	62.0	66.4	70.5	78.2	81.4	78.2	79.4	66.6	69.7	65.5	70.3	78.2	68.3	69.2
	Q4 2010	79.9	78.7	68.7	74.5	85.6	..	73.9	77.4	77.2	65.1	66.0	69.1	68.3	74.7	68.6	60.7	63.0	-	61.5	66.7	67.7	77.3	81.1	77.8	79.2	66.2	69.5	65.7	69.3	76.9	67.2	68.2
	2010	**79.2**	**77.9**	**68.5**	**74.3**	**85.3**	**..**	**73.4**	**76.7**	**76.6**	**65.6**	**61.6**	**69.5**	**68.4**	**74.5**	**70.2**	**60.2**	**63.7**	**80.6**	**61.5**	**66.7**	**68.4**	**77.9**	**81.2**	**77.8**	**79.1**	**65.6**	**69.7**	**65.2**	**69.6**	**76.6**	**66.7**	**68.2**
	Q1 2011	79.2	76.8	67.5	72.6	85.7	..	72.9	76.7	76.5	64.6	65.7	68.8	68.1	74.1	67.0	59.5	62.1	-	61.6	66.3	67.5	77.3	80.6	76.8	78.6	65.1	68.6	65.5	67.2	76.4	66.7	67.2
	Q2 2011	79.1	78.4	69.1	75.5	85.6	..	74.0	77.5	77.0	64.8	66.6	72.0	68.7	74.2	66.6	61.0	62.4	-	62.8	66.6	65.6	77.8	80.9	77.3	78.5	66.4	68.4	66.4	67.3	78.5	69.9	68.4
	Q3 2011	78.5	79.4	67.4	77.1	86.0	..	74.4	78.0	77.7	64.8	69.7	72.1	69.1	74.4	65.4	61.8	62.2	-	63.0	66.7	66.0	78.2	81.4	78.3	78.6	67.3	68.5	66.7	68.5	79.3	71.3	69.2
	Q4 2011	78.9	78.8	68.7	74.7	86.0	..	74.2	78.7	77.0	63.3	67.7	70.1	68.2	74.5	63.0	61.8	62.5	-	62.0	66.2	64.4	78.6	81.5	78.0	78.9	66.7	66.1	66.4	67.5	77.5	69.5	68.8
	2011	**78.9**	**73.3**	**68.2**	**75.0**	**81.0**	**70.7**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**62.3**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**78.0**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**78.7**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**68.4**
	Q1 2012	78.3	76.9	68.1	72.5	85.2	..	73.5	77.1	75.8	61.8	67.6	68.9	67.7	74.1	61.9	60.7	61.8	-	..	65.5	63.9	77.8	81.0	77.8	78.8	65.4	65.1	66.4	66.1	76.4	66.1	68.0
	Q2 2012	78.6	78.6	68.8	75.7	85.3	..	74.5	77.7	76.3	61.6	68.3	71.8	68.4	74.7	61.4	62.1	62.0	-	..	65.9	66.9	79.0	81.2	78.2	77.9	66.7	65.3	66.6	66.5	78.0	70.0	69.4
	Q3 2012	78.1	79.6	68.4	76.9	85.9	..	75.1	78.3	76.5	61.5	71.6	71.9	68.8	75.4	60.5	63.3	62.8	-	..	66.2	66.8	79.2	81.1	78.4	77.0	67.1	64.6	67.2	67.8	79.4	70.7	70.2
	Q4 2012	78.8	78.4	67.5	74.9	86.2	..	74.8	78.4	76.6	60.3	70.9	69.9	68.0	75.5	59.7	63.1	62.6	-	..	65.4	67.6	78.3	80.8	77.5	77.4	66.6	63.3	66.4	67.6	77.2	70.0	69.7
	2012	**78.4**	**78.4**	**68.2**	**75.0**	**85.6**	**..**	**74.5**	**77.9**	**76.3**	**61.3**	**69.6**	**70.6**	**68.3**	**75.0**	**60.9**	**62.3**	**62.3**	**81.4**	**..**	**65.8**	**66.3**	**78.6**	**81.0**	**78.0**	**77.8**	**66.3**	**64.6**	**66.7**	**67.0**	**77.4**	**69.2**	**69.3**
	Q1 2013	78.1	76.2	67.0	72.9	85.5	..	74.5	77.1	76.0	59.6	69.9	67.9	67.6	74.8	58.4	61.2	63.3	-	..	64.1	64.0	77.7	79.8	77.1	..	65.2	62.4	66.5	65.7	76.7	67.5	68.5
	Q2 2013	78.2	77.6	68.7	75.6	84.9	..	75.6	78.0	76.3	60.1	71.6	71.4	68.3	75.0	59.0	64.0	64.0	-	..	64.3	64.8	78.3	80.1	78.0	..	66.5	63.6	66.6	66.2	78.2	70.6	69.5
	Q3 2013	78.0	78.6	67.4	76.9	85.0	..	76.0	78.2	75.9	61.0	72.4	71.8	68.7	75.8	59.0	65.2	65.1	-	..	64.6	66.1	78.3	80.3	78.3	..	67.5	64.7	66.5	68.0	80.1	70.8	70.1
	Q4 2013	78.0	78.3	67.1	75.1	85.5	..	76.0	78.6	75.8	60.5	71.2	68.8	67.9	76.0	58.1	65.4	65.9	-	..	64.3	66.6	79.0	80.1	77.1	..	67.2	65.0	65.7	66.8	78.2	69.3	69.2
	2013	**78.1**	**77.7**	**67.5**	**75.1**	**85.2**	**..**	**75.5**	**78.0**	**76.0**	**60.3**	**71.3**	**70.0**	**68.1**	**75.4**	**58.6**	**64.0**	**64.6**	**83.2**	**..**	**64.3**	**65.3**	**78.3**	**80.1**	**77.6**	**..**	**66.6**	**63.9**	**66.3**	**66.6**	**78.3**	**69.6**	**69.3**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	69.2	77.8	76.4	62.9	76.1	72.6	77.2	46.2	76.1	75.7	67.9	66.8	59.8	76.7
	Q2 2009	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	-	69.0	77.9	79.0	65.5	74.5	75.2	77.2	52.9	75.7	71.6	71.4	66.3	63.3	78.8
	Q3 2009	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	-	69.2	77.5	78.8	65.2	74.8	74.0	74.7	53.8	73.5	67.7	71.3	67.5	62.4	77.8
	Q4 2009	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	-	67.8	76.0	78.2	67.6	73.7	74.0	75.3	66.2	73.7	73.7	72.7	66.1	62.6	76.6
	2009	**75.1**	**72.5**	**61.4**	**73.9**	**..**	**73.4**	**74.6**	**71.7**	**73.5**	**61.1**	**68.8**	**67.7**	**65.5**	**75.1**	**80.5**	**74.0**	**67.7**	**76.5**	**68.8**	**77.3**	**78.1**	**65.4**	**74.8**	**74.0**	**76.1**	**54.2**	**74.8**	**72.4**	**70.9**	**66.7**	**61.9**	**77.5**
	Q1 2010	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	-	67.0	74.5	78.3	64.4	71.3	73.0	76.1	60.1	73.5	74.8	71.2	65.9	61.5	75.2
	Q2 2010	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	-	70.4	76.4	77.4	65.9	72.2	73.4	75.0	60.8	75.0	74.3	70.5	66.8	64.3	78.8
	Q3 2010	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	-	70.5	78.1	79.7	69.1	72.5	72.3	75.5	55.4	74.8	74.9	69.9	68.3	66.1	78.7
	Q4 2010	78.2	75.1	63.4	75.4	83.0	..	80.5	73.3	67.6	60.1	70.4	65.1	66.4	76.1	75.3	70.3	63.8	-	69.4	75.3	80.1	70.4	73.2	72.3	76.5	60.1	73.7	73.8	69.4	68.0	66.3	76.8
	2010	**77.0**	**73.5**	**61.4**	**74.5**	**82.8**	**..**	**79.1**	**72.9**	**67.6**	**60.0**	**60.8**	**66.2**	**66.4**	**74.8**	**76.7**	**69.2**	**65.0**	**74.6**	**69.3**	**76.1**	**78.9**	**67.4**	**71.7**	**72.7**	**75.7**	**59.3**	**74.3**	**74.5**	**70.3**	**67.3**	**64.5**	**77.4**
	Q1 2011	78.7	72.4	60.9	73.7	82.4	..	80.7	74.0	63.2	58.2	68.0	64.3	65.7	75.5	71.7	67.0	62.2	-	68.9	74.4	80.5	67.9	70.5	70.8	77.8	59.6	69.4	71.6	66.7	66.7	64.6	76.7
	Q2 2011	77.8	76.1	60.4	75.6	84.4	..	80.5	75.8	66.4	58.6	64.6	68.1	66.3	75.7	71.8	69.7	64.1	-	71.6	77.7	77.3	68.7	69.8	74.5	76.0	58.7	71.0	75.2	69.8	67.6	67.1	78.5
	Q3 2011	78.2	76.4	61.9	76.0	85.4	..	79.7	75.8	67.7	57.7	73.4	66.6	66.2	75.5	70.2	75.2	65.3	-	71.6	76.3	79.4	67.0	71.1	75.1	76.4	63.6	71.5	76.0	69.2	69.3	65.4	78.4
	Q4 2011	77.8	75.0	62.1	75.2	84.7	..	80.0	76.6	67.0	56.3	72.1	68.2	64.5	75.1	66.0	72.1	64.1	-	71.1	73.8	78.6	65.1	71.9	73.6	77.2	69.9	71.0	70.6	68.3	68.5	66.5	78.6
	2011	**78.1**	**75.0**	**61.3**	**75.1**	**84.2**	**79.3**	**80.2**	**75.6**	**66.1**	**57.7**	**69.6**	**66.8**	**65.7**	**75.5**	**70.0**	**71.1**	**63.9**	**77.9**	**70.8**	**75.6**	**78.9**	**67.2**	**70.8**	**73.5**	**76.8**	**62.7**	**70.7**	**73.3**	**68.4**	**68.0**	**65.9**	**78.1**
	Q1 2012	78.9	73.3	60.6	74.6	83.0	..	77.8	75.6	66.1	54.1	68.8	67.3	64.2	75.5	61.4	69.8	62.4	-	..	71.9	79.2	62.2	71.6	72.5	78.4	-	70.1	-	70.7	66.5	61.5	77.2
	Q2 2012	78.5	76.2	60.1	76.1	84.6	..	77.9	76.5	65.0	54.6	73.2	69.4	65.8	77.2	58.2	71.5	64.3	-	..	73.6	79.4	64.1	71.5	75.9	76.2	67.9	68.8	-	71.4	69.2	60.1	78.7
	Q3 2012	78.0	77.3	59.4	77.1	85.3	..	81.5	77.2	65.7	55.3	72.8	71.0	67.0	78.0	58.7	76.8	64.7	-	..	73.1	78.9	62.9	71.5	76.3	75.9	76.5	68.9	67.4	70.5	68.7	70.0	79.4
	Q4 2012	78.5	74.0	59.8	76.8	83.5	..	80.8	76.8	67.5	53.8	68.3	67.6	66.8	76.9	54.9	76.6	65.4	-	..	70.7	79.2	66.9	69.9	75.8	76.9	74.9	66.1	-	73.0	67.6	63.8	78.6
	2012	**78.5**	**75.2**	**60.0**	**76.1**	**84.1**	**..**	**79.5**	**76.5**	**66.1**	**54.4**	**70.7**	**68.9**	**66.0**	**76.9**	**58.4**	**73.8**	**64.2**	**82.1**	**..**	**72.3**	**79.2**	**64.0**	**71.1**	**75.2**	**76.8**	**71.1**	**68.5**	**68.4**	**71.4**	**67.5**	**64.0**	**78.5**
	Q1 2013	78.4	71.9	60.1	75.1	82.1	..	79.3	75.3	66.3	51.7	70.9	67.7	65.0	75.3	53.8	75.6	64.5	-	..	68.2	79.2	67.0	69.6	74.4	..	72.8	63.7	75.8	69.6	66.3	61.2	78.1
	Q2 2013	78.3	75.7	60.0	77.3	83.4	..	80.4	76.7	67.5	54.1	79.2	70.2	66.5	76.0	56.0	81.0	67.1	-	..	68.2	77.1	68.8	68.6	74.7	..	68.9	64.9	70.7	70.1	67.9	65.9	80.2
	Q3 2013	77.2	76.4	61.2	78.1	83.3	..	81.5	77.4	67.2	52.8	71.6	69.6	67.7	78.5	58.3	79.7	68.9	-	..	69.0	81.2	70.1	67.6	75.2	..	70.6	63.9	68.7	74.1	68.2	65.0	80.4
	Q4 2013	77.3	73.7	60.8	75.4	84.6	..	81.3	76.9	68.1	54.3	66.1	68.1	66.4	78.1	58.5	80.8	68.9	-	..	68.4	80.0	67.1	69.4	75.7	..	65.7	64.9	75.4	71.0	67.1	63.5	79.8
	2013	**77.8**	**74.4**	**60.5**	**76.5**	**83.3**	**..**	**80.6**	**76.5**	**67.3**	**53.2**	**71.9**	**68.9**	**66.4**	**77.0**	**56.6**	**79.2**	**67.4**	**82.7**	**..**	**68.5**	**79.4**	**68.2**	**68.8**	**75.0**	**..**	**69.5**	**64.3**	**72.5**	**71.3**	**67.4**	**63.9**	**79.6**

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	54.9	46.0	53.1	42.5	73.8	75.7	70.1	52.3	61.6	53.3	63.8	72.5	21.5	63.8
	Q2 2009	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	-	55.0	46.4	55.3	43.0	73.5	75.7	68.9	52.7	61.3	52.8	64.0	73.7	24.9	63.6
	Q3 2009	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	-	53.8	45.6	55.4	44.0	73.4	74.9	69.1	53.1	60.7	52.8	65.0	73.4	25.4	62.8
	Q4 2009	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	-	54.5	45.6	53.5	44.5	73.3	74.9	69.8	53.0	61.1	52.3	63.7	71.7	24.8	62.4
	2009	**69.0**	**68.4**	**58.2**	**70.7**	**..**	**40.9**	**56.7**	**68.5**	**74.3**	**52.3**	**62.4**	**68.2**	**61.3**	**66.3**	**48.7**	**49.7**	**57.6**	**76.4**	**54.5**	**45.9**	**54.4**	**43.5**	**73.5**	**75.3**	**69.5**	**52.8**	**61.2**	**52.8**	**64.1**	**72.8**	**24.2**	**63.2**
	Q1 2010	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	-	54.3	45.2	53.1	42.9	73.1	74.1	69.2	52.3	61.1	51.7	62.6	71.7	24.2	62.3
	Q2 2010	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	-	55.4	46.0	53.2	43.9	73.6	74.7	68.7	53.3	61.1	52.1	63.7	73.8	27.3	62.3
	Q3 2010	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	-	55.4	45.4	53.3	43.5	71.2	74.2	68.5	53.6	60.5	52.9	62.6	74.8	27.0	62.1
	Q4 2010	68.9	68.0	59.5	70.6	75.3	..	56.8	69.0	71.1	52.4	61.5	67.0	60.5	65.6	46.9	50.6	56.2	-	56.7	46.2	51.4	42.7	71.4	74.1	68.9	53.1	60.3	53.0	62.4	73.7	26.1	62.2
	2010	**68.5**	**67.9**	**58.7**	**70.5**	**75.1**	**..**	**56.3**	**68.3**	**72.6**	**52.0**	**61.0**	**67.5**	**61.1**	**65.7**	**47.8**	**50.4**	**56.4**	**76.4**	**55.5**	**45.7**	**52.8**	**43.2**	**71.1**	**74.3**	**68.8**	**53.1**	**60.8**	**52.4**	**62.8**	**73.5**	**26.1**	**62.2**
	Q1 2011	68.2	67.7	58.4	70.0	75.9	..	56.7	68.8	71.9	51.9	61.6	66.4	60.5	65.7	46.0	49.7	55.2	-	56.3	45.9	52.4	42.5	71.2	74.2	68.7	52.8	60.2	52.5	60.6	73.7	25.9	62.0
	Q2 2011	68.9	67.9	59.4	71.4	76.4	..	57.2	69.6	72.8	52.8	63.1	68.8	61.2	65.5	45.3	50.5	55.8	-	56.2	46.2	51.8	43.5	72.0	74.4	68.1	53.2	60.5	52.8	61.7	75.6	29.0	61.9
	Q3 2011	69.1	69.1	59.5	70.6	75.2	..	57.6	69.9	72.7	52.3	64.8	69.2	61.6	65.6	44.8	50.8	55.0	-	54.9	45.7	54.7	43.6	72.1	74.3	68.1	53.2	59.5	53.0	62.2	76.6	28.9	61.7
	Q4 2011	69.0	68.1	59.3	70.4	76.6	..	57.8	70.5	71.8	51.8	64.0	67.7	61.3	66.0	43.5	51.0	55.6	-	56.1	46.6	53.1	45.4	72.4	74.2	69.1	53.3	58.6	52.5	61.9	74.7	27.6	61.9
	2011	**68.8**	**73.3**	**63.7**	**70.6**	**81.0**	**44.1**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**55.9**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**43.7**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**68.5**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**61.9**
	Q1 2012	68.4	68.4	58.8	69.9	75.9	..	57.5	69.4	71.9	51.3	64.4	67.5	61.0	66.1	42.7	50.7	54.9	-	..	46.6	53.4	43.9	72.3	74.5	68.2	53.0	58.4	52.7	61.9	74.3	26.5	61.6
	Q2 2012	69.0	68.8	58.9	71.2	75.7	..	58.2	69.7	72.5	51.3	65.9	69.5	61.7	66.2	42.3	52.0	55.4	-	..	47.1	54.0	45.4	72.4	75.1	68.1	53.5	58.6	52.9	60.9	76.0	29.8	62.1
	Q3 2012	68.9	70.2	59.7	70.5	76.3	..	58.7	70.0	72.2	50.7	65.0	69.9	61.9	66.6	41.4	52.8	55.2	-	..	46.4	57.6	45.3	72.7	74.9	68.0	53.4	58.4	52.9	60.7	77.0	29.2	62.0
	Q4 2012	69.0	69.2	60.0	70.7	76.3	..	59.0	70.4	71.3	50.2	64.0	67.6	61.7	67.2	41.2	52.2	56.0	-	..	46.7	54.7	44.9	73.0	74.8	67.2	53.4	57.0	52.2	60.6	74.6	29.1	62.3
	2012	**68.8**	**69.2**	**59.4**	**70.6**	**76.0**	**..**	**58.3**	**69.8**	**72.0**	**50.9**	**64.8**	**68.6**	**61.6**	**66.5**	**41.9**	**51.9**	**55.4**	**78.2**	**..**	**46.7**	**54.9**	**44.9**	**72.6**	**74.8**	**67.9**	**53.1**	**58.1**	**52.7**	**61.0**	**75.0**	**28.7**	**62.0**
	Q1 2013	68.2	68.7	58.9	70.4	77.0	..	58.9	70.4	70.8	50.2	64.4	67.6	61.6	67.0	40.2	51.5	55.6	-	..	46.0	54.7	43.9	72.6	74.8	..	52.3	56.7	53.0	59.9	74.3	28.3	61.6
	Q2 2013	68.8	69.7	59.5	71.6	76.5	..	59.7	70.7	72.2	50.6	66.5	69.6	62.2	66.9	40.4	52.3	56.4	-	..	46.3	55.7	45.4	72.5	74.8	..	53.0	57.7	53.0	60.0	76.2	31.0	62.4
	Q3 2013	68.5	70.5	60.8	70.9	76.4	..	59.8	71.0	72.8	50.9	65.6	68.8	62.7	67.3	40.2	53.0	56.7	-	..	45.8	52.4	45.0	72.3	74.9	..	54.0	58.2	53.5	61.2	77.1	29.9	62.4
	Q4 2013	68.8	69.5	59.5	71.1	78.1	..	60.2	71.3	71.2	51.1	66.1	67.7	62.3	67.6	39.7	53.8	56.9	-	..	46.3	57.3	45.7	72.0	74.7	..	54.4	58.8	53.8	60.0	76.1	29.1	62.5
	2013	**68.5**	**69.6**	**59.7**	**71.0**	**77.0**	**..**	**59.6**	**70.8**	**71.7**	**50.7**	**65.7**	**68.4**	**62.2**	**67.2**	**40.1**	**52.7**	**56.4**	**79.1**	**..**	**46.1**	**55.0**	**45.0**	**72.4**	**74.8**	**..**	**53.4**	**57.9**	**53.3**	**60.3**	**75.9**	**29.6**	**62.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	58.7	49.6	62.3	30.9	60.4	68.5	62.3	41.2	66.6	54.7	61.3	58.0	26.7	57.4
	Q2 2009	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	-	57.5	51.0	58.2	37.3	58.2	66.8	62.2	37.1	67.4	53.4	60.9	57.9	27.3	57.4
	Q3 2009	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	-	60.2	49.9	60.1	34.9	59.2	67.0	61.8	35.7	65.2	47.7	60.2	58.7	25.8	57.4
	Q4 2009	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	-	60.3	50.2	60.6	27.4	59.2	63.8	61.2	43.8	63.1	45.1	61.5	57.2	25.5	57.6
	2009	**59.5**	**57.5**	**43.4**	**63.4**	**..**	**57.1**	**56.8**	**55.7**	**63.2**	**54.9**	**67.0**	**59.8**	**50.6**	**57.4**	**51.1**	**59.2**	**56.1**	**77.7**	**59.2**	**50.2**	**60.3**	**32.5**	**59.3**	**66.5**	**61.9**	**39.4**	**65.6**	**50.6**	**61.0**	**58.0**	**26.4**	**57.4**
	Q1 2010	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	-	59.9	50.0	61.9	33.1	58.8	65.7	60.4	36.9	64.8	39.5	62.0	55.8	27.4	56.6
	Q2 2010	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	-	60.7	50.5	61.5	32.7	59.4	64.6	60.8	39.4	64.7	39.9	63.4	55.5	28.0	58.1
	Q3 2010	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	-	60.6	48.9	62.6	29.7	58.2	64.7	60.9	54.2	64.4	36.5	56.2	57.3	26.7	57.4
	Q4 2010	61.8	60.9	46.3	62.7	67.1	..	58.3	55.6	58.2	52.6	58.1	53.7	50.0	57.9	49.8	59.1	53.2	-	61.1	48.6	63.6	30.0	57.9	64.5	62.5	46.8	64.3	39.9	58.0	55.5	29.3	57.7
	2010	**60.3**	**59.8**	**45.0**	**63.3**	**66.6**	**..**	**56.2**	**55.7**	**60.0**	**53.8**	**58.0**	**55.1**	**49.7**	**58.0**	**51.2**	**62.4**	**54.1**	**75.0**	**60.5**	**49.5**	**62.4**	**31.5**	**57.8**	**64.8**	**61.1**	**43.7**	**64.5**	**38.9**	**59.8**	**56.0**	**27.8**	**57.4**
	Q1 2011	61.4	59.4	44.6	62.5	65.9	..	55.3	56.5	57.0	51.3	55.5	51.0	50.3	58.4	47.7	56.3	53.5	-	61.4	50.4	63.6	31.9	58.2	65.5	62.7	-	64.6	-	55.7	56.5	27.3	56.4
	Q2 2011	61.5	59.0	45.7	62.9	67.3	..	53.7	58.3	57.7	53.0	57.6	57.4	51.2	58.2	49.2	53.9	54.8	-	61.7	50.3	61.1	34.5	56.5	66.9	64.7	-	67.7	-	55.3	57.0	25.1	56.5
	Q3 2011	61.7	59.0	42.7	63.3	67.1	..	53.1	58.8	59.6	51.7	62.8	57.1	50.0	58.6	46.3	53.0	54.3	-	61.0	48.7	60.3	42.4	55.9	67.7	63.3	50.7	67.7	45.6	53.3	58.1	26.7	56.1
	Q4 2011	61.5	59.4	44.8	63.3	67.7	..	54.4	57.7	57.5	49.3	61.3	57.8	49.0	57.3	44.8	55.6	53.8	-	61.3	48.5	60.6	42.8	57.6	67.2	64.7	43.4	67.4	53.4	52.8	58.5	28.7	57.6
	2011	**61.6**	**59.2**	**44.4**	**63.0**	**67.0**	**59.7**	**54.1**	**57.8**	**58.0**	**51.3**	**59.4**	**55.8**	**50.1**	**58.1**	**47.0**	**54.7**	**54.1**	**74.9**	**61.4**	**49.4**	**61.4**	**38.0**	**57.0**	**66.8**	**63.8**	**48.5**	**66.8**	**46.9**	**54.3**	**57.5**	**27.0**	**56.7**
	Q1 2012	61.0	59.1	43.4	62.7	68.1	..	54.1	57.2	56.3	48.9	64.2	56.5	50.1	55.7	41.4	54.6	54.0	-	..	48.8	62.5	40.6	56.3	66.1	64.2	50.9	65.2	56.2	54.6	58.1	33.1	56.7
	Q2 2012	61.4	59.9	44.1	64.7	68.3	..	55.1	59.6	57.5	49.5	63.6	60.2	49.7	56.7	41.7	60.0	54.6	-	..	50.3	63.5	43.0	56.8	69.0	64.8	57.9	67.1	56.4	54.6	58.8	34.1	57.1
	Q3 2012	61.8	58.9	45.2	65.0	68.2	..	54.5	59.1	58.5	50.2	63.1	60.1	50.0	57.6	42.6	60.9	53.9	-	..	49.6	63.1	42.4	58.4	67.4	64.8	-	64.9	-	57.3	59.0	31.0	56.7
	Q4 2012	61.6	59.2	45.4	65.3	68.2	..	54.7	59.5	55.1	48.8	64.2	59.4	48.5	58.8	41.0	64.1	53.1	-	..	49.9	64.5	42.6	56.3	64.1	64.5	45.4	61.9	66.0	54.6	57.9	32.8	57.2
	2012	**61.4**	**59.3**	**44.5**	**64.4**	**68.2**	**..**	**54.6**	**58.9**	**56.8**	**49.3**	**63.8**	**59.1**	**49.6**	**57.2**	**41.7**	**59.9**	**53.9**	**75.8**	**..**	**49.7**	**63.4**	**42.2**	**56.9**	**66.7**	**64.6**	**51.7**	**64.7**	**59.7**	**55.2**	**58.4**	**32.7**	**56.9**
	Q1 2013	61.9	58.7	46.2	64.7	67.8	..	55.3	58.7	57.6	48.5	68.9	56.6	47.9	58.8	38.9	61.6	53.2	-	..	49.5	63.9	40.6	54.3	63.0	..	-	60.2	-	44.2	57.3	35.2	56.8
	Q2 2013	62.1	59.3	44.3	65.4	69.2	..	58.9	59.3	60.3	48.3	65.7	61.8	48.9	59.2	39.8	56.6	53.9	-	..	48.9	63.8	37.3	55.0	65.7	..	49.3	60.1	58.8	51.2	59.5	35.2	57.4
	Q3 2013	62.2	60.3	45.7	65.2	68.7	..	58.8	60.2	60.4	49.0	64.0	57.0	48.8	58.8	40.2	55.3	54.8	-	..	48.6	65.5	40.5	56.7	66.7	..	48.5	62.8	60.2	50.5	59.0	32.6	58.1
	Q4 2013	61.8	59.2	44.9	64.3	68.2	..	60.6	58.9	58.1	47.9	65.0	57.2	49.0	59.9	39.9	58.2	54.5	-	..	49.1	60.6	38.0	55.7	66.0	..	48.2	62.3	59.3	49.5	58.3	29.3	57.2
	2013	**62.0**	**59.4**	**45.3**	**64.9**	**68.5**	**..**	**58.4**	**59.3**	**59.1**	**48.4**	**65.9**	**58.2**	**48.6**	**59.2**	**39.7**	**58.0**	**54.1**	**77.5**	**..**	**49.0**	**63.4**	**39.0**	**55.4**	**65.4**	**..**	**47.7**	**61.4**	**60.5**	**48.9**	**58.5**	**33.0**	**57.4**

Note: 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*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157944

Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	7.4	7.8	3.9	5.2	2.7	2.7	5.6	8.3	9.0	10.5	5.1	6.9	14.4	8.9
	Q2 2009	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	-	7.8	7.0	3.2	5.4	2.8	3.0	5.7	8.0	9.3	11.3	5.5	8.0	12.4	9.4
	Q3 2009	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	-	8.6	7.0	3.5	6.4	3.0	3.0	6.4	8.2	10.1	12.5	6.2	7.0	12.3	9.7
	Q4 2009	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	-	8.1	8.2	2.7	5.5	3.3	2.5	6.6	8.6	10.4	13.9	6.7	7.1	11.9	9.7
	2009	**5.3**	**3.9**	**6.6**	**7.9**	**..**	**10.8**	**6.7**	**6.9**	**5.7**	**16.0**	**14.0**	**8.0**	**8.5**	**7.5**	**9.3**	**10.1**	**11.2**	**7.0**	**8.0**	**7.5**	**3.3**	**5.6**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**6.1**	**8.3**	**9.7**	**12.1**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**12.8**	**9.4**
	Q1 2010	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	-	7.3	8.8	2.6	5.5	3.9	3.2	6.5	10.7	10.9	15.2	7.0	8.0	13.2	10.5
	Q2 2010	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	-	6.4	8.0	2.7	5.3	3.7	3.3	6.4	9.6	10.9	14.4	7.0	8.0	10.0	9.9
	Q3 2010	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	-	7.7	7.4	2.7	5.8	3.8	2.9	6.2	9.2	11.2	14.2	7.0	6.4	10.3	9.8
	Q4 2010	4.9	3.4	6.6	6.8	3.1	..	7.0	5.8	6.9	18.4	13.2	7.2	8.8	7.7	14.0	11.0	13.4	-	6.8	8.3	4.0	5.4	3.8	2.7	6.7	9.4	11.2	13.9	7.7	5.9	9.9	9.2
	2010	**5.3**	**3.7**	**6.9**	**7.6**	**3.3**	**..**	**7.4**	**6.3**	**6.9**	**18.1**	**16.4**	**8.1**	**8.7**	**7.8**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**13.1**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**8.1**	**3.0**	**5.5**	**4.0**	**3.0**	**6.5**	**9.7**	**11.0**	**14.4**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**10.8**	**9.9**
	Q1 2011	5.6	3.6	5.9	7.9	3.2	..	7.3	6.1	7.3	19.2	14.1	8.4	8.7	7.7	15.5	11.7	13.8	-	5.9	8.3	3.5	5.3	3.9	2.7	7.1	10.2	12.3	13.9	8.1	6.6	10.5	9.6
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.4	5.1	7.2	2.6	..	6.8	5.3	6.6	18.8	12.8	8.7	8.0	7.8	16.2	10.9	14.3	-	5.5	7.4	-	5.4	3.5	3.0	6.7	9.6	12.3	13.2	7.5	6.8	8.6	9.2
	Q3 2011	5.1	3.1	6.5	7.0	3.4	..	6.6	5.2	6.8	19.4	10.6	6.5	8.3	8.4	17.5	10.8	14.9	-	6.8	7.4	3.4	5.7	3.6	2.7	6.4	9.5	12.7	13.2	7.7	5.3	8.4	9.4
	Q4 2011	5.1	3.4	5.8	6.5	3.0	..	6.5	4.8	6.8	20.6	11.1	6.6	8.8	8.1	20.3	10.8	14.2	-	5.9	9.0	4.0	5.0	4.1	2.5	6.4	9.9	14.5	14.0	8.6	5.5	8.2	8.5
	2011	**5.2**	**3.4**	**5.8**	**7.2**	**3.0**	**8.1**	**6.8**	**5.4**	**6.9**	**19.5**	**12.1**	**7.6**	**8.4**	**8.0**	**17.4**	**11.0**	**14.3**	**6.7**	**6.0**	**8.0**	**3.4**	**5.4**	**3.8**	**2.7**	**6.7**	**9.8**	**13.0**	**13.6**	**8.0**	**6.0**	**8.9**	**9.2**
	Q1 2012	5.8	3.5	5.4	7.6	3.1	..	7.1	5.4	7.3	22.1	11.6	7.8	9.1	8.0	21.9	11.8	14.6	-	..	10.5	-	5.1	4.5	2.6	7.2	10.7	15.3	14.1	8.5	6.4	9.5	8.8
	Q2 2012	5.2	3.6	5.5	7.0	2.7	..	6.7	4.9	7.1	22.5	10.1	8.5	8.6	7.8	22.7	10.9	14.7	-	..	10.2	3.2	4.9	4.4	2.8	6.8	10.1	15.5	13.7	8.1	7.0	7.4	8.3
	Q3 2012	5.2	3.7	6.2	7.1	3.6	..	7.0	4.9	6.7	23.3	9.3	6.9	9.0	7.9	24.0	10.5	14.8	-	..	9.6	-	5.3	4.5	2.7	7.2	10.0	16.3	13.7	9.1	5.7	7.9	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.1	3.6	6.5	6.4	3.2	..	7.2	4.7	6.3	24.1	9.0	6.8	9.7	7.5	25.0	10.9	13.4	-	..	11.2	3.6	5.0	4.8	2.6	6.9	10.2	17.4	14.5	9.5	6.0	8.4	7.7
	2012	**5.3**	**3.6**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**3.1**	**..**	**7.0**	**5.0**	**6.8**	**23.0**	**10.0**	**7.5**	**9.1**	**7.8**	**23.4**	**11.0**	**14.4**	**5.7**	**..**	**10.4**	**3.8**	**5.1**	**4.6**	**2.7**	**7.0**	**10.2**	**16.1**	**14.0**	**8.8**	**6.5**	**8.3**	**8.3**
	Q1 2013	6.0	4.2	6.6	7.3	3.1	..	7.5	5.3	7.2	24.9	10.1	8.6	9.5	7.7	26.2	11.9	13.1	..	..	12.2	3.9	5.0	5.7	2.8	..	11.4	18.0	14.6	10.5	7.1	9.6	8.3
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.7	6.6	6.9	2.9	..	6.8	4.8	6.2	24.4	8.0	9.0	8.9	7.6	26.1	10.4	13.5	..	..	11.3	-	5.2	5.9	3.0	..	10.6	16.6	14.1	10.0	7.4	8.1	7.8
	Q3 2013	5.6	4.2	7.1	6.9	3.5	..	7.0	4.7	6.6	23.8	7.7	6.8	8.7	7.7	26.1	9.9	12.7	..	..	10.8	5.0	5.4	6.0	2.8	..	9.9	15.8	14.1	9.2	5.7	8.9	7.7
	Q4 2013	5.7	4.1	7.0	6.2	2.9	..	6.8	4.6	5.9	24.0	8.4	7.5	9.2	7.0	26.8	9.2	11.4	..	..	12.2	-	4.8	6.0	2.6	..	9.9	15.6	14.3	9.3	5.7	9.0	6.9
	2013	**5.7**	**4.0**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**3.1**	**..**	**7.0**	**4.9**	**6.5**	**24.3**	**8.6**	**8.0**	**9.1**	**7.5**	**26.3**	**10.3**	**12.7**	**..**	**..**	**11.7**	**4.1**	**5.1**	**5.9**	**2.8**	**..**	**10.4**	**16.5**	**14.3**	**9.7**	**6.5**	**8.9**	**7.7**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	7.0	10.6	7.7	8.1	6.3	6.9	6.3	-	12.6	-	8.6	14.3	16.8	9.8
	Q2 2009	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	-	7.7	10.7	7.3	2.4	7.2	7.1	6.7	-	12.4	-	7.5	16.7	13.8	9.1
	Q3 2009	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	-	6.6	10.4	5.4	8.2	6.6	5.9	6.8	-	13.9	-	8.1	15.0	16.1	10.0
	Q4 2009	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	-	6.8	12.3	8.1	9.0	7.3	7.3	8.3	-	13.6	-	5.5	15.5	14.1	10.0
	2009	**6.7**	**9.5**	**16.2**	**10.2**	**..**	**8.2**	**9.6**	**12.8**	**9.9**	**27.2**	**14.8**	**15.4**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**12.0**	**9.1**	**15.4**	**11.8**	**7.0**	**11.0**	**7.1**	**7.0**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**7.0**	**-**	**13.1**	**-**	**7.4**	**15.4**	**15.1**	**9.7**
	Q1 2010	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	-	6.5	12.6	7.3	6.3	8.7	8.6	7.6	-	14.4	-	9.7	16.2	15.1	11.4
	Q2 2010	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	-	5.2	11.5	5.6	6.0	7.7	9.1	8.2	-	13.9	-	9.6	17.4	13.3	8.7
	Q3 2010	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	-	6.4	9.7	5.1	6.4	7.9	8.5	6.9	-	14.6	-	8.9	15.7	10.8	9.2
	Q4 2010	5.1	7.4	15.5	8.9	7.1	..	6.3	11.3	12.2	29.3	17.3	15.5	15.1	8.4	17.9	6.1	18.1	-	6.4	12.2	5.1	7.8	7.8	8.0	7.1	-	16.9	-	10.1	15.7	11.8	9.9
	2010	**5.6**	**8.2**	**17.1**	**10.0**	**7.9**	**..**	**7.2**	**11.6**	**13.6**	**29.1**	**22.8**	**17.2**	**14.8**	**8.9**	**16.2**	**7.5**	**16.8**	**13.4**	**6.1**	**11.5**	**5.8**	**6.6**	**8.5**	**8.5**	**7.4**	**11.6**	**15.0**	**11.8**	**9.6**	**16.3**	**12.8**	**9.8**
	Q1 2011	5.5	9.4	14.6	9.3	7.7	..	7.3	10.4	15.7	30.9	19.1	17.1	15.7	8.7	21.2	-	17.7	-	5.5	11.8	-	7.6	9.2	8.3	7.5	-	19.2	-	13.2	16.9	13.2	10.1
	Q2 2011	5.3	7.8	15.5	8.7	6.1	..	8.1	9.5	14.4	30.5	19.5	14.1	14.3	8.9	19.5	10.5	17.2	-	4.8	10.8	7.6	6.1	9.3	8.4	6.2	9.6	16.7	-	10.9	17.0	11.4	8.7
	Q3 2011	5.1	6.8	15.6	9.1	6.5	..	-	9.1	14.1	31.3	-	-	14.5	9.7	21.9	-	17.2	-	5.0	10.1	-	4.0	9.0	-	7.1	-	15.9	-	-	15.3	9.8	9.0
	Q4 2011	4.9	8.6	14.8	8.7	6.9	..	7.7	9.0	13.8	33.4	14.5	14.4	15.8	10.0	26.3	8.7	17.2	-	4.9	13.9	5.4	7.4	9.1	7.4	6.9	15.3	16.0	15.9	11.2	14.8	9.7	8.7
	2011	**5.2**	**8.2**	**15.1**	**8.9**	**6.8**	**5.9**	**8.0**	**9.5**	**14.5**	**31.5**	**16.9**	**15.2**	**15.1**	**9.3**	**22.2**	**9.5**	**17.3**	**11.1**	**5.0**	**11.7**	**6.3**	**6.2**	**9.2**	**7.7**	**6.9**	**12.1**	**16.9**	**15.3**	**11.5**	**16.0**	**11.1**	**9.1**
	Q1 2012	5.5	8.6	17.0	8.8	7.5	..	9.3	9.6	16.0	35.4	13.1	15.2	16.5	10.1	31.2	11.4	18.1	-	..	15.1	7.1	9.0	10.4	7.8	8.0	4.7	18.6	13.9	10.6	15.8	12.6	9.2
	Q2 2012	5.3	8.0	15.5	8.6	6.5	..	8.9	8.4	14.9	34.5	13.3	14.4	15.5	8.7	33.0	10.7	17.3	-	..	13.3	4.8	8.8	10.6	6.7	7.1	4.5	18.2	-	10.2	15.9	13.3	7.7
	Q3 2012	5.3	7.8	16.6	8.6	6.5	..	8.6	8.3	14.5	33.4	13.4	13.0	14.8	9.2	33.5	8.1	17.3	-	..	11.8	7.5	6.5	10.0	5.7	7.9	-	19.2	-	11.4	15.3	9.4	7.8
	Q4 2012	5.6	8.6	18.3	7.8	7.6	..	8.7	8.4	13.4	35.4	12.2	14.2	16.3	9.1	37.3	6.2	16.4	-	..	15.2	6.4	4.9	11.1	7.0	7.3	10.9	21.5	-	11.4	16.2	11.6	7.9
	2012	**5.4**	**8.3**	**16.9**	**8.5**	**7.0**	**..**	**8.9**	**8.7**	**14.7**	**34.7**	**13.0**	**14.2**	**15.8**	**9.3**	**33.7**	**9.0**	**17.3**	**9.5**	**..**	**13.9**	**6.4**	**7.3**	**10.5**	**6.8**	**7.6**	**6.9**	**19.4**	**11.6**	**10.9**	**16.1**	**11.6**	**8.1**
	Q1 2013	6.2	11.0	18.1	8.6	8.5	..	-	9.1	13.5	37.3	-	-	17.4	9.5	39.8	-	17.0	-	..	17.6	-	5.8	12.4	8.7	..	-	23.1	-	-	16.9	10.6	8.1
	Q2 2013	5.9	8.6	16.6	8.1	7.4	..	8.1	8.5	12.2	35.2	10.4	14.6	15.7	8.7	37.8	8.0	16.4	-	..	17.4	8.5	5.6	12.5	7.8	..	10.7	23.1	-	15.7	16.5	11.1	6.6
	Q3 2013	5.8	8.3	17.1	8.4	7.8	..	8.0	7.9	11.7	35.5	10.6	15.1	14.9	9.1	36.8	11.1	15.4	-	..	15.2	6.3	7.1	12.8	7.7	..	14.2	21.1	13.6	12.5	16.0	10.3	6.7
	Q4 2013	5.6	9.3	17.2	8.2	7.3	..	8.1	7.8	12.3	35.0	12.0	14.3	16.7	7.8	36.4	10.3	14.3	-	..	16.7	8.1	8.8	13.3	7.1	..	13.1	20.2	-	14.5	16.3	10.7	6.5
	2013	**5.9**	**9.3**	**17.2**	**8.3**	**7.7**	**..**	**8.3**	**8.3**	**12.4**	**35.8**	**11.0**	**14.8**	**16.2**	**8.8**	**37.7**	**9.9**	**15.7**	**-**	**..**	**16.7**	**7.5**	**6.9**	**12.7**	**7.8**	**..**	**12.2**	**21.9**	**-**	**15.3**	**16.4**	**10.7**	**7.0**

Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	7.0	6.7	4.3	5.3	2.7	3.0	5.5	7.8	8.3	9.7	5.2	7.1	14.6	10.6
	Q2 2009	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	-	7.9	6.2	2.6	5.6	2.7	3.4	5.4	7.6	8.9	10.5	5.4	8.2	12.5	10.8
	Q3 2009	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	-	8.2	6.2	2.7	6.0	2.9	3.1	6.5	7.7	9.2	11.9	6.4	7.3	12.0	10.4
	Q4 2009	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	-	8.2	7.2	2.7	5.7	3.3	2.9	6.7	8.3	9.8	13.5	6.6	7.5	12.0	11.0
	2009	**5.6**	**3.9**	**6.4**	**9.3**	**..**	**9.3**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**6.4**	**15.1**	**17.3**	**8.7**	**8.2**	**8.7**	**6.5**	**10.4**	**14.4**	**8.3**	**7.8**	**6.6**	**3.0**	**5.6**	**2.9**	**3.1**	**6.1**	**7.9**	**9.0**	**11.4**	**5.9**	**7.5**	**12.7**	**10.7**
	Q1 2010	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	-	7.5	7.9	2.8	5.5	3.9	3.7	6.2	10.6	10.2	15.1	7.2	8.5	13.2	12.4
	Q2 2010	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	-	6.5	7.4	2.7	5.4	3.7	4.0	6.3	9.4	10.2	14.2	7.4	8.4	9.7	11.0
	Q3 2010	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	-	7.3	6.7	1.9	5.7	3.8	3.1	5.6	8.7	10.0	14.0	7.2	6.6	9.8	10.3
	Q4 2010	4.8	3.3	6.5	7.5	2.9	..	6.0	6.0	7.2	17.7	14.3	7.8	8.2	8.6	11.1	11.2	16.9	-	6.6	7.5	2.7	5.8	3.6	3.1	6.5	9.0	10.3	13.9	7.9	6.1	9.4	10.1
	2010	**5.3**	**3.8**	**6.7**	**8.6**	**3.1**	**..**	**6.5**	**6.7**	**7.7**	**17.3**	**19.4**	**8.8**	**8.4**	**8.7**	**9.4**	**11.7**	**16.6**	**7.9**	**7.0**	**7.4**	**2.5**	**5.6**	**3.9**	**3.5**	**6.1**	**9.4**	**10.2**	**14.3**	**7.4**	**7.4**	**10.5**	**10.9**
	Q1 2011	5.4	3.6	5.9	9.2	3.0	..	6.5	6.6	7.9	18.5	15.7	9.1	8.2	8.6	12.7	12.2	17.4	-	6.3	7.7	-	5.5	3.9	3.0	6.6	10.1	12.0	14.0	8.3	6.5	10.2	10.9
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.3	4.8	8.0	2.6	..	5.9	5.7	7.2	18.3	13.7	9.3	7.6	8.5	13.2	10.9	17.8	-	5.6	6.9	-	5.4	3.6	3.1	6.5	9.1	12.1	13.5	8.0	6.8	8.2	9.8
	Q3 2011	5.3	3.1	6.3	7.0	2.9	..	5.6	5.3	6.7	18.6	10.4	6.9	7.8	9.2	14.5	10.7	18.1	-	5.9	6.6	3.6	5.5	3.6	2.6	6.3	8.4	12.2	13.1	8.1	5.5	7.5	9.5
	Q4 2011	5.1	3.0	5.7	7.2	2.7	..	5.6	4.9	6.8	20.0	12.5	7.5	8.7	8.8	17.2	10.7	17.8	-	5.4	8.4	3.8	5.1	4.0	2.8	6.3	9.0	14.6	13.8	8.4	5.6	7.7	9.0
	2011	**5.2**	**3.3**	**5.7**	**7.8**	**2.8**	**6.7**	**5.9**	**5.6**	**7.2**	**18.8**	**13.1**	**8.2**	**8.1**	**8.8**	**14.4**	**11.1**	**17.8**	**7.6**	**5.8**	**7.4**	**3.0**	**5.4**	**3.8**	**2.9**	**6.4**	**9.1**	**12.7**	**13.6**	**8.2**	**6.1**	**8.4**	**9.8**
	Q1 2012	5.9	3.3	5.2	8.9	3.0	..	6.3	5.8	7.7	21.5	12.9	8.7	9.1	8.9	18.7	12.2	18.0	-	..	9.8	5.1	5.2	4.6	3.2	6.8	10.3	15.2	13.9	8.5	6.7	9.3	9.5
	Q2 2012	5.1	3.6	5.4	7.6	2.5	..	5.8	5.1	7.4	22.2	11.5	9.3	8.5	8.7	19.5	11.4	18.4	-	..	9.7	3.4	4.9	4.3	3.4	6.4	9.4	15.6	13.4	7.9	7.2	7.1	8.7
	Q3 2012	5.6	3.6	5.9	7.0	3.7	..	5.9	5.0	6.8	22.5	9.3	7.1	8.8	8.6	20.4	10.7	18.1	-	..	8.8	3.6	5.2	4.6	2.8	6.9	9.1	16.8	13.0	8.5	5.8	7.1	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.2	3.5	6.9	7.1	3.2	..	6.2	4.8	6.4	23.4	9.4	7.4	9.6	8.1	21.7	11.0	16.8	-	..	10.4	-	5.0	5.0	3.2	6.6	9.5	17.4	14.0	9.3	6.2	7.7	8.0
	2012	**5.4**	**3.5**	**5.8**	**7.6**	**3.1**	**..**	**6.0**	**5.2**	**7.1**	**22.4**	**10.8**	**8.1**	**9.0**	**8.5**	**20.1**	**11.3**	**17.8**	**6.1**	**..**	**9.7**	**3.7**	**5.1**	**4.6**	**3.1**	**6.7**	**9.6**	**16.2**	**13.6**	**8.6**	**6.7**	**7.8**	**8.6**
	Q1 2013	6.1	4.3	6.5	8.4	3.1	..	6.6	5.8	7.3	24.3	10.8	9.6	9.8	8.4	23.1	12.6	15.7	-	..	11.4	4.9	5.0	6.2	3.2	..	10.9	18.3	14.2	10.4	7.3	9.0	9.0
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.8	6.4	7.7	2.9	..	5.7	5.1	5.9	23.7	8.4	10.0	9.0	8.4	22.7	10.3	16.1	-	..	10.9	-	5.2	6.4	3.5	..	10.0	16.7	13.8	9.9	7.6	7.4	8.3
	Q3 2013	5.8	4.1	7.1	6.8	3.5	..	5.8	5.0	6.8	22.9	8.0	7.2	8.7	8.3	22.8	9.8	15.0	-	..	10.3	5.2	5.3	6.3	2.7	..	9.2	15.5	13.7	8.5	5.6	7.9	8.0
	Q4 2013	6.0	3.8	7.3	6.9	3.2	..	5.6	4.8	5.5	23.2	8.6	8.0	9.2	7.6	23.5	9.1	13.3	-	..	11.7	3.8	4.7	6.3	2.8	..	9.3	15.1	14.5	8.9	5.9	8.0	7.4
	2013	**5.9**	**4.0**	**6.8**	**7.5**	**3.2**	**..**	**5.9**	**5.2**	**6.4**	**23.5**	**9.0**	**8.7**	**9.2**	**8.2**	**23.0**	**10.4**	**15.0**	**5.4**	**..**	**11.1**	**4.3**	**5.1**	**6.3**	**3.1**	**..**	**9.8**	**16.4**	**14.0**	**9.4**	**6.6**	**8.1**	**8.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	7.3	8.9	6.0	9.0	6.3	9.9	6.4	-	11.6	-	10.1	14.7	16.5	10.4
	Q2 2009	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	-	8.0	8.9	6.2	2.8	7.5	7.3	6.7	-	12.6	-	8.9	18.0	13.8	9.3
	Q3 2009	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	-	6.8	9.4	4.9	8.8	7.1	7.8	7.2	-	14.9	-	6.3	16.2	16.0	10.2
	Q4 2009	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	-	7.9	10.4	6.4	7.1	8.0	8.8	8.1	-	13.8	-	5.1	16.0	12.7	10.6
	2009	**6.5**	**10.7**	**16.3**	**10.7**	**..**	**7.4**	**8.5**	**13.6**	**10.0**	**29.8**	**17.7**	**16.1**	**14.2**	**8.9**	**10.4**	**8.6**	**18.2**	**14.8**	**7.5**	**9.4**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**7.2**	**8.5**	**7.1**	**-**	**13.2**	**-**	**7.5**	**16.2**	**14.7**	**10.1**
	Q1 2010	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	-	7.7	11.2	6.5	6.5	9.4	9.5	6.9	-	12.9	-	10.6	16.3	14.6	12.1
	Q2 2010	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	-	5.9	10.0	5.7	5.3	8.1	10.3	8.6	-	10.9	-	9.7	16.8	14.2	8.8
	Q3 2010	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	-	7.2	8.0	3.8	7.2	8.0	9.7	6.6	-	12.0	-	7.5	15.3	9.5	9.0
	Q4 2010	4.5	7.1	15.0	8.7	6.4	..	5.0	11.7	12.4	30.7	15.5	16.7	13.7	7.8	16.6	6.4	21.0	-	6.7	11.0	4.7	7.7	8.3	9.6	6.8	-	14.9	-	9.7	15.1	11.1	10.0
	2010	**5.1**	**8.8**	**16.9**	**10.0**	**7.2**	**..**	**5.6**	**12.4**	**15.1**	**31.1**	**23.6**	**18.4**	**13.7**	**8.8**	**15.2**	**7.6**	**19.7**	**16.5**	**6.9**	**10.0**	**5.2**	**6.7**	**8.8**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**12.1**	**12.7**	**8.9**	**9.4**	**15.9**	**12.4**	**10.0**
	Q1 2011	4.7	10.2	16.0	9.1	7.3	..	-	10.9	16.3	31.9	-	17.2	14.3	8.6	19.7	-	20.8	-	6.2	10.4	-	5.3	9.8	9.2	7.4	-	20.2	-	13.0	16.9	12.6	10.4
	Q2 2011	4.6	7.9	16.0	8.2	5.9	..	6.5	9.8	12.9	31.8	19.0	15.7	13.8	9.0	19.4	9.7	19.8	-	5.1	8.2	5.9	4.5	10.1	9.3	6.2	8.4	17.4	-	8.8	16.8	10.1	8.4
	Q3 2011	4.5	6.0	15.0	8.3	5.4	..	7.4	9.3	13.1	33.1	13.6	16.4	13.6	9.3	21.3	8.5	19.3	-	5.8	8.4	3.5	4.0	9.4	6.8	6.5	11.7	18.0	-	8.2	15.0	9.0	8.2
	Q4 2011	4.6	7.9	14.9	8.0	6.2	..	6.2	9.0	13.2	34.6	14.3	14.7	14.7	9.5	25.9	7.1	19.3	-	5.1	11.9	4.7	6.7	9.5	7.8	7.9	11.2	16.4	-	8.2	15.4	9.2	8.4
	2011	**4.6**	**8.0**	**15.5**	**8.4**	**6.2**	**3.9**	**6.1**	**9.7**	**13.8**	**32.9**	**15.6**	**16.0**	**14.1**	**9.1**	**21.5**	**8.9**	**19.8**	**-**	**5.6**	**9.7**	**4.7**	**5.1**	**9.7**	**8.3**	**7.0**	**9.9**	**18.0**	**-**	**9.7**	**16.0**	**10.3**	**8.9**
	Q1 2012	4.8	8.2	17.8	8.7	7.3	..	-	9.9	-	36.9	-	-	16.8	9.4	30.6	-	21.0	-	..	13.2	-	10.9	10.0	-	7.3	-	19.2	-	-	17.0	-	9.0
	Q2 2012	4.7	8.9	15.1	8.6	5.7	..	-	8.6	13.9	36.4	-	14.4	14.8	7.5	34.0	-	19.5	-	..	12.1	-	9.6	10.7	8.1	6.6	-	20.0	-	-	16.0	13.1	7.1
	Q3 2012	4.8	8.0	17.7	8.4	5.4	..	6.2	8.5	13.8	35.7	13.0	12.8	14.4	7.9	34.5	8.8	18.9	-	..	10.2	-	6.6	10.2	5.6	8.2	-	19.1	-	-	16.3	6.7	6.9
	Q4 2012	5.3	9.8	19.6	7.5	6.7	..	-	8.6	11.2	36.9	-	15.9	15.8	8.3	39.0	-	18.2	-	..	14.1	-	4.0	11.1	6.2	6.4	-	21.7	-	-	17.2	11.4	7.0
	2012	**4.9**	**8.7**	**17.6**	**8.3**	**6.3**	**..**	**7.3**	**8.9**	**13.5**	**36.5**	**14.9**	**14.5**	**15.5**	**8.2**	**34.5**	**9.9**	**19.4**	**9.1**	**..**	**12.4**	**5.4**	**7.8**	**10.5**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**3.5**	**20.0**	**14.1**	**8.3**	**16.9**	**11.0**	**7.5**
	Q1 2013	6.1	12.2	20.1	8.6	8.1	..	8.5	9.8	12.6	39.6	12.9	14.7	17.4	9.0	40.4	9.5	18.6	-	..	16.9	6.2	5.7	12.1	7.8	..	6.9	23.7	-	14.5	17.6	12.3	7.6
	Q2 2013	5.8	8.9	17.9	7.7	7.2	..	7.0	8.5	11.0	35.9	7.2	15.7	15.8	8.2	37.6	4.2	17.2	-	..	16.8	7.9	5.3	13.1	7.9	..	-	22.8	-	11.8	17.3	9.9	6.2
	Q3 2013	5.7	8.3	17.6	7.9	7.6	..	6.8	8.0	12.0	38.1	9.1	14.5	14.5	8.0	35.0	8.3	16.1	-	..	14.8	5.7	7.1	14.2	7.0	..	5.1	22.8	15.6	7.7	16.2	8.8	6.1
	Q4 2013	5.6	9.2	17.1	8.3	6.0	..	7.1	8.0	9.8	35.8	15.6	13.0	16.1	6.7	35.0	6.5	15.2	-	..	15.1	6.3	9.3	13.7	7.0	..	7.9	21.2	-	10.1	16.8	9.9	6.1
	2013	**5.8**	**9.6**	**18.2**	**8.1**	**7.2**	**..**	**7.3**	**8.6**	**11.4**	**37.4**	**11.2**	**14.5**	**16.0**	**8.0**	**37.0**	**7.2**	**16.7**	**9.1**	**..**	**15.9**	**6.5**	**6.9**	**13.2**	**7.4**	**..**	**5.7**	**22.6**	**11.8**	**11.0**	**17.0**	**10.2**	**6.5**

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Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	7.8	9.2	3.3	5.2	2.7	2.3	5.6	9.0	9.9	11.4	5.0	6.6	13.9	7.1
	Q2 2009	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	-	7.8	8.3	3.9	5.0	2.8	2.5	6.1	8.4	9.8	12.3	5.6	7.8	12.3	8.0
	Q3 2009	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	-	9.0	8.2	4.5	7.1	3.1	2.8	6.2	8.7	11.1	13.3	5.9	6.6	13.2	9.0
	Q4 2009	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	-	7.9	9.6	2.8	5.3	3.3	2.0	6.5	8.9	11.1	14.4	6.7	6.6	11.9	8.3
	2009	**5.0**	**3.9**	**7.0**	**6.4**	**..**	**13.0**	**7.7**	**6.5**	**5.0**	**17.1**	**10.5**	**7.4**	**8.8**	**6.1**	**13.2**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**5.5**	**8.1**	**8.8**	**3.6**	**5.7**	**3.0**	**2.4**	**6.1**	**8.7**	**10.5**	**12.9**	**5.8**	**6.9**	**12.8**	**8.1**
	Q1 2010	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	-	7.1	10.1	2.3	5.4	3.9	2.6	6.8	10.7	11.6	15.4	6.8	7.5	13.1	8.3
	Q2 2010	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	-	6.3	8.9	2.8	5.3	3.7	2.6	6.6	9.9	11.6	14.7	6.5	7.7	10.6	8.8
	Q3 2010	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	8.3	3.8	5.9	3.8	2.8	7.0	9.8	12.5	14.3	6.9	6.2	11.6	9.3
	Q4 2010	5.0	3.6	6.8	6.0	3.3	..	8.2	5.5	6.7	19.3	12.2	6.5	9.4	6.7	17.9	10.8	9.1	-	7.0	9.5	5.8	4.9	4.0	2.2	6.9	10.0	12.2	14.0	7.5	5.6	11.0	8.3
	2010	**5.2**	**3.6**	**7.1**	**6.6**	**3.6**	**..**	**8.5**	**5.9**	**6.0**	**19.1**	**13.4**	**7.4**	**8.9**	**6.6**	**16.2**	**10.8**	**8.9**	**6.4**	**7.2**	**9.2**	**3.6**	**5.4**	**4.0**	**2.5**	**6.8**	**10.1**	**12.0**	**14.6**	**6.9**	**6.8**	**11.6**	**8.7**
	Q1 2011	5.8	3.6	5.9	6.5	3.5	..	8.2	5.6	6.6	20.1	12.4	7.6	9.2	6.7	19.2	11.2	9.4	-	5.4	9.1	-	5.0	4.0	2.4	7.7	10.3	12.7	13.9	8.0	6.6	11.2	8.2
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.4	5.4	6.4	2.7	..	8.0	4.9	5.9	19.4	11.9	8.1	8.4	6.9	20.2	10.9	9.9	-	5.4	8.2	-	5.4	3.5	2.8	6.9	10.2	12.6	12.8	6.9	6.7	9.7	8.5
	Q3 2011	4.9	3.1	6.7	7.1	3.8	..	7.8	5.1	6.8	20.4	10.9	6.1	8.9	7.4	21.5	10.9	11.0	-	7.7	8.5	-	6.0	3.6	2.9	6.6	10.7	13.3	13.3	7.4	5.0	10.5	9.2
	Q4 2011	5.2	3.9	5.9	5.7	3.3	..	7.6	4.8	6.8	21.3	9.6	5.6	9.0	7.2	24.5	10.9	9.8	-	6.4	10.0	-	4.9	4.2	-	6.6	10.9	14.5	14.3	8.9	5.4	9.6	7.9
	2011	**5.2**	**3.5**	**6.0**	**6.4**	**3.3**	**10.0**	**7.9**	**5.1**	**6.5**	**20.3**	**11.2**	**6.9**	**8.9**	**7.0**	**21.4**	**11.0**	**10.0**	**5.8**	**6.2**	**8.9**	**4.0**	**5.3**	**3.8**	**2.5**	**7.0**	**10.5**	**13.3**	**13.6**	**7.8**	**5.9**	**10.2**	**8.5**
	Q1 2012	5.8	3.7	5.8	6.3	3.3	..	8.1	4.8	6.8	22.8	10.2	6.8	9.1	7.0	26.1	11.4	10.4	-	..	11.4	3.9	4.8	4.4	1.9	7.6	11.2	15.4	14.5	8.5	6.2	10.1	8.0
	Q2 2012	5.3	3.5	5.6	6.3	2.9	..	7.9	4.7	6.8	23.0	8.7	7.7	8.7	6.9	27.0	10.4	10.2	-	..	10.9	-	5.0	4.4	2.2	7.2	10.9	15.4	14.1	8.4	6.7	8.2	7.9
	Q3 2012	4.8	3.8	6.6	7.3	3.4	..	8.3	4.8	6.5	24.3	9.3	6.7	9.3	7.2	28.7	10.3	10.6	-	..	10.7	-	5.5	4.4	2.5	7.5	11.0	15.7	14.6	9.7	5.6	9.7	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.0	3.7	5.9	5.7	3.1	..	8.5	4.6	6.1	25.0	8.6	6.1	9.8	6.9	29.3	10.7	9.4	-	..	12.3	4.6	5.0	4.7	2.1	7.3	11.1	17.4	15.1	9.7	5.8	10.2	7.3
	2012	**5.2**	**3.7**	**5.9**	**6.4**	**3.2**	**..**	**8.2**	**4.7**	**6.6**	**23.8**	**9.2**	**6.8**	**9.2**	**7.0**	**27.8**	**10.7**	**10.1**	**5.2**	**..**	**11.3**	**3.9**	**5.1**	**4.5**	**2.2**	**7.4**	**11.0**	**16.0**	**14.6**	**9.1**	**6.3**	**9.5**	**7.9**
	Q1 2013	5.9	4.1	6.7	6.2	3.2	..	8.6	4.8	7.0	25.7	9.4	7.5	9.2	6.8	30.3	11.0	10.0	-	..	13.2	-	5.0	5.1	2.4	..	12.0	17.7	15.1	10.5	6.9	11.0	7.6
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.6	6.8	6.1	3.0	..	8.2	4.4	6.5	25.2	7.5	7.9	8.7	6.7	30.5	10.5	10.5	-	..	11.9	-	5.1	5.3	2.5	..	11.3	16.4	14.5	10.1	7.2	9.6	7.3
	Q3 2013	5.4	4.3	7.1	7.0	3.4	..	8.5	4.4	6.4	24.9	7.4	6.4	8.6	7.0	30.6	10.0	9.8	-	..	11.5	4.7	5.6	5.6	2.9	..	10.9	16.1	14.6	10.0	5.9	11.2	7.4
	Q4 2013	5.4	4.4	6.7	5.4	2.5	..	8.1	4.4	6.2	25.0	8.2	7.0	9.3	6.3	31.1	9.3	9.0	-	..	13.0	4.4	4.8	5.7	2.4	..	10.6	16.1	14.2	9.7	5.5	11.3	6.5
	2013	**5.6**	**4.1**	**6.8**	**6.2**	**3.0**	**..**	**8.4**	**4.5**	**6.5**	**25.2**	**8.1**	**7.2**	**9.0**	**6.7**	**30.6**	**10.2**	**9.8**	**4.9**	**..**	**12.4**	**3.9**	**5.1**	**5.4**	**2.6**	**..**	**11.2**	**16.6**	**14.6**	**10.1**	**6.4**	**10.8**	**7.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	6.8	12.8	9.8	6.4	6.3	3.5	6.2	-	13.5	-	6.8	13.9	17.5	8.9
	Q2 2009	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	-	7.4	12.9	8.8	1.8	6.8	6.8	6.8	-	12.2	-	5.8	15.3	13.8	9.0
	Q3 2009	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	-	6.4	11.7	6.2	7.1	6.1	3.6	6.2	-	12.8	-	10.1	13.7	16.4	9.7
	Q4 2009	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	-	5.8	14.6	10.1	13.0	6.5	5.5	8.5	-	13.4	-	6.1	15.0	18.5	9.3
	2009	**6.9**	**8.2**	**16.1**	**9.6**	**..**	**9.0**	**11.0**	**11.8**	**9.7**	**24.1**	**12.3**	**14.7**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**14.5**	**9.6**	**11.7**	**8.6**	**6.6**	**13.0**	**8.8**	**7.1**	**6.4**	**4.9**	**7.0**	**-**	**13.0**	**-**	**7.2**	**14.5**	**16.6**	**9.2**
	Q1 2010	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	-	5.4	14.3	8.3	5.8	7.9	7.5	8.5	-	15.8	-	8.5	16.2	16.5	10.3
	Q2 2010	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	-	4.3	13.4	5.5	7.1	7.4	7.5	7.7	-	16.8	-	9.5	18.1	10.4	8.6
	Q3 2010	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	-	5.5	11.9	6.6	4.6	7.8	7.1	7.3	-	17.1	-	10.5	16.1	15.1	9.4
	Q4 2010	5.9	7.7	16.2	9.2	7.9	..	8.1	10.7	12.0	27.6	18.9	14.1	16.6	9.0	19.9	-	14.4	-	6.0	13.7	5.7	8.0	7.4	6.0	7.4	-	19.0	-	10.7	16.4	14.2	9.8
	2010	**6.1**	**7.6**	**17.3**	**9.9**	**8.8**	**..**	**9.5**	**10.7**	**12.1**	**26.7**	**22.2**	**15.8**	**16.0**	**9.0**	**17.7**	**7.4**	**13.0**	**10.4**	**5.3**	**13.3**	**6.5**	**6.4**	**8.2**	**7.0**	**7.7**	**11.1**	**17.2**	**16.7**	**9.8**	**16.7**	**14.1**	**9.5**
	Q1 2011	6.5	8.5	12.8	9.4	8.1	..	11.6	9.8	15.2	29.9	21.8	16.9	17.3	8.9	23.3	8.2	13.8	-	4.4	13.5	9.5	12.4	8.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	18.1	-	13.5	16.8	15.1	9.6
	Q2 2011	6.2	7.6	14.9	9.1	6.3	..	-	9.1	15.7	29.1	20.0	-	14.9	8.9	19.7	-	14.1	-	4.2	14.1	-	9.2	8.5	7.3	6.3	-	16.1	-	-	17.1	15.9	9.1
	Q3 2011	5.9	7.8	16.3	9.9	7.8	..	11.0	9.0	15.1	29.4	16.2	13.6	15.6	10.2	22.8	10.3	14.6	-	4.6	12.3	7.8	4.0	8.4	6.4	7.9	18.2	13.7	-	13.2	15.6	12.3	10.1
	Q4 2011	5.3	9.4	14.6	9.4	7.6	..	10.2	8.9	14.4	32.1	14.7	14.0	17.0	10.6	26.9	10.4	14.6	-	4.5	16.5	6.4	8.5	8.6	7.0	5.8	19.9	15.6	-	15.5	14.2	11.3	9.2
	2011	**6.0**	**8.3**	**14.6**	**9.5**	**7.5**	**7.7**	**10.9**	**9.2**	**15.1**	**30.1**	**18.1**	**14.2**	**16.2**	**9.6**	**23.2**	**10.1**	**14.3**	**-**	**4.5**	**14.1**	**8.4**	**8.2**	**8.5**	**7.0**	**6.9**	**14.5**	**15.9**	**20.8**	**14.0**	**15.9**	**13.6**	**9.5**
	Q1 2012	6.3	9.1	15.8	9.0	7.6	..	11.0	9.2	16.9	33.8	11.2	15.7	16.0	10.9	32.0	11.4	14.6	-	..	17.5	7.7	5.4	11.0	6.2	8.7	-	18.0	-	13.9	14.5	11.2	9.4
	Q2 2012	6.0	7.0	16.0	8.5	7.4	..	10.1	8.2	15.9	32.5	12.2	14.4	16.3	10.2	31.6	8.0	14.8	-	..	14.8	6.3	7.7	10.4	5.2	7.6	-	16.3	-	14.3	15.8	13.6	8.5
	Q3 2012	5.8	7.6	15.2	8.9	7.9	..	12.0	8.1	15.3	30.9	13.9	13.1	15.4	10.8	32.0	7.2	15.5	-	..	13.8	9.9	6.3	9.6	5.9	7.6	12.8	19.3	-	14.2	14.3	13.6	9.0
	Q4 2012	5.9	7.3	16.7	8.1	8.8	..	11.5	8.2	15.7	33.8	8.4	12.2	16.9	10.0	34.9	5.9	14.2	-	..	16.4	7.1	6.6	11.2	7.9	8.3	22.3	21.3	-	15.7	14.9	11.9	9.0
	2012	**6.0**	**7.7**	**15.9**	**8.6**	**7.9**	**..**	**11.2**	**8.4**	**15.9**	**32.8**	**11.4**	**13.8**	**16.2**	**10.5**	**32.6**	**8.0**	**14.8**	**9.9**	**..**	**15.6**	**7.8**	**6.5**	**10.5**	**6.3**	**8.1**	**11.7**	**18.8**	**9.1**	**14.5**	**15.1**	**12.6**	**9.0**
	Q1 2013	6.4	9.6	15.4	8.5	8.9	..	-	8.3	14.5	34.9	-	-	717.4	10.1	39.0	-	15.1	-	..	18.4	-	5.9	12.8	-	..	-	22.6	-	-	16.2	-	8.8
	Q2 2013	6.1	8.2	14.9	8.4	7.5	..	9.8	8.5	13.3	34.4	12.9	13.4	15.5	9.3	38.2	12.4	15.4	-	..	18.0	9.2	6.3	11.8	7.7	..	21.1	23.3	-	20.7	15.4	12.6	7.2
	Q3 2013	6.0	8.2	16.4	9.0	8.0	..	9.7	7.8	11.5	32.8	11.7	15.9	15.5	10.4	39.1	14.5	14.5	-	..	15.7	7.1	7.1	11.4	8.7	..	24.6	19.4	-	19.1	15.7	12.7	7.4
	Q4 2013	5.7	9.5	17.3	8.1	8.8	..	9.5	7.7	14.7	34.2	9.0	15.7	17.4	9.0	38.3	14.2	13.2	-	..	18.5	10.6	7.8	12.7	7.3	..	20.9	19.3	-	20.6	15.8	12.2	7.1
	2013	**6.1**	**8.9**	**16.0**	**8.5**	**8.3**	**..**	**9.7**	**8.1**	**13.5**	**34.1**	**10.8**	**15.2**	**16.5**	**9.7**	**38.7**	**13.0**	**14.5**	**-**	**..**	**17.7**	**8.6**	**6.8**	**12.2**	**8.3**	**..**	**21.1**	**21.1**	**-**	**21.4**	**15.8**	**11.5**	**7.6**

Note: 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*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157951

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	62.4	61.6	69.2	62.6	81.0	79.5	79.4	64.3	73.3	68.1	70.5	79.3	48.2	73.0
	Q2 2009	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	-	62.9	61.7	69.6	62.9	81.0	80.2	78.9	64.4	73.1	68.1	71.7	81.4	50.9	73.4
	Q3 2009	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	-	62.5	61.2	70.1	64.2	81.0	79.2	78.6	65.3	72.8	68.8	73.1	80.5	52.2	73.4
	Q4 2009	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	-	62.2	61.5	69.6	64.1	80.8	78.3	79.8	65.0	73.1	68.7	72.3	78.9	51.0	72.1
	2009	**78.1**	**76.1**	**67.7**	**78.6**	**..**	**60.8**	**70.0**	**77.9**	**81.2**	**71.6**	**73.1**	**74.9**	**71.0**	**76.2**	**66.9**	**61.4**	**69.6**	**84.3**	**62.5**	**61.5**	**69.6**	**63.5**	**80.9**	**79.3**	**79.2**	**64.7**	**73.1**	**68.4**	**71.9**	**80.0**	**50.6**	**73.0**
	Q1 2010	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	-	62.1	61.5	69.2	62.8	79.3	78.1	79.2	65.2	73.5	68.4	71.3	79.5	50.3	72.2
	Q2 2010	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	-	62.8	61.5	69.3	63.8	79.3	79.1	78.6	65.6	73.3	68.5	71.4	82.0	52.5	72.5
	Q3 2010	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	-	63.7	60.4	71.2	63.6	79.4	78.5	78.8	66.1	73.3	69.0	71.6	81.8	52.9	72.7
	Q4 2010	78.3	76.0	68.8	77.9	83.1	..	70.3	77.7	79.8	72.1	73.4	73.3	70.6	76.0	67.2	62.5	68.8	-	63.4	61.6	62.4	62.6	79.3	78.1	79.3	65.8	73.1	68.9	71.4	80.0	51.5	71.8
	2010	**78.0**	**75.7**	**68.3**	**78.4**	**83.0**	**..**	**70.1**	**77.4**	**80.2**	**71.9**	**73.3**	**74.6**	**70.8**	**76.0**	**67.3**	**62.3**	**69.1**	**84.6**	**63.0**	**61.2**	**62.6**	**63.2**	**79.3**	**78.5**	**79.0**	**65.7**	**73.3**	**68.7**	**71.4**	**80.8**	**51.8**	**72.3**
	Q1 2011	78.1	75.0	66.9	77.4	83.6	..	70.0	77.6	80.1	72.2	74.0	73.8	70.4	75.8	66.9	61.8	68.0	-	62.7	61.2	62.2	62.4	79.1	77.6	79.2	65.5	73.5	68.6	69.6	80.4	51.4	71.4
	Q2 2011	77.9	75.7	67.7	79.2	83.3	..	70.4	77.7	80.3	72.5	74.3	77.2	70.6	75.8	66.8	62.5	69.0	-	63.0	61.0	60.4	63.3	79.3	78.2	78.5	66.0	73.5	68.7	69.8	82.7	53.9	71.7
	Q3 2011	77.8	76.7	67.9	79.5	83.5	..	70.7	78.1	80.7	72.8	75.2	75.6	71.2	76.4	66.8	63.1	68.9	-	63.3	60.8	62.6	63.7	79.7	78.5	78.3	66.5	73.3	69.0	70.9	82.3	54.5	72.2
	Q4 2011	77.9	76.1	67.9	77.6	83.9	..	70.6	78.4	79.9	72.6	74.0	73.8	71.0	76.4	66.9	63.1	68.8	-	62.8	62.0	61.2	64.4	80.3	78.1	79.0	66.5	72.9	69.2	70.8	80.5	52.7	71.3
	2011	**77.9**	**75.9**	**67.6**	**78.5**	**83.6**	**61.7**	**70.4**	**77.9**	**80.2**	**72.5**	**74.4**	**75.1**	**70.8**	**76.1**	**66.8**	**62.6**	**68.7**	**84.4**	**62.9**	**61.3**	**61.6**	**63.5**	**79.6**	**78.1**	**78.8**	**66.1**	**73.3**	**68.8**	**70.3**	**81.5**	**53.1**	**71.7**
	Q1 2012	77.9	75.3	67.1	77.1	83.2	..	70.6	77.5	79.7	72.7	74.6	74.0	70.8	76.2	67.0	63.1	68.3	-	..	62.7	61.6	63.3	80.4	78.2	79.1	66.3	72.8	69.4	70.0	80.6	51.2	71.0
	Q2 2012	77.8	76.5	67.6	79.0	82.8	..	71.2	77.5	80.1	73.0	74.6	77.3	71.2	76.4	67.2	64.0	68.8	-	..	63.0	62.6	64.6	80.4	78.9	78.2	66.7	73.3	69.3	69.4	82.8	53.9	71.6
	Q3 2012	77.6	77.8	68.3	79.4	84.1	..	72.1	78.0	79.7	73.2	75.2	76.2	71.8	77.1	67.2	64.8	69.3	-	..	62.4	64.7	64.9	80.6	78.8	78.0	66.9	73.5	69.6	70.7	82.9	54.2	72.0
	Q4 2012	77.9	76.6	68.2	77.8	83.9	..	72.2	78.1	78.9	72.9	74.0	73.7	71.8	77.2	67.3	64.6	68.5	-	..	63.2	63.6	64.0	80.8	78.3	77.6	66.8	72.8	69.4	70.9	80.8	54.1	71.4
	2012	**77.8**	**76.5**	**67.8**	**78.3**	**83.5**	**..**	**71.5**	**77.8**	**79.6**	**73.0**	**74.6**	**75.3**	**71.4**	**76.8**	**67.2**	**64.1**	**68.7**	**84.6**	**..**	**62.8**	**63.1**	**64.2**	**80.5**	**78.6**	**78.2**	**66.5**	**73.1**	**69.4**	**70.3**	**81.5**	**53.4**	**71.5**
	Q1 2013	77.9	75.7	67.4	77.3	84.0	..	72.2	77.9	79.1	73.3	74.7	74.1	71.4	76.7	66.9	63.9	68.4	-	..	62.8	61.9	63.2	80.9	78.2	..	66.3	72.6	70.0	70.2	81.3	53.0	70.9
	Q2 2013	77.9	76.6	68.7	79.1	83.2	..	72.7	78.1	79.2	73.3	75.1	77.5	71.6	76.8	67.3	64.8	69.7	-	..	62.5	62.6	64.4	81.2	78.8	..	66.8	72.7	69.6	70.2	83.4	55.3	71.5
	Q3 2013	77.6	77.8	69.1	79.4	83.7	..	73.1	78.3	79.6	73.5	74.8	75.4	71.9	77.5	67.2	65.5	69.7	-	..	62.0	62.4	64.4	81.2	78.8	..	67.4	73.0	69.9	71.3	83.4	55.3	71.7
	Q4 2013	77.8	77.1	68.1	77.9	84.3	..	73.1	78.6	78.1	73.5	75.0	73.8	71.7	77.2	66.8	65.5	69.2	-	..	63.1	64.6	64.7	81.0	78.0	..	67.4	73.4	69.8	70.0	81.9	54.0	70.7
	2013	**77.8**	**76.8**	**68.3**	**78.4**	**83.8**	**..**	**72.8**	**78.2**	**79.0**	**73.4**	**74.9**	**75.2**	**71.6**	**77.1**	**67.1**	**64.9**	**69.3**	**85.6**	**..**	**62.6**	**62.9**	**64.1**	**81.1**	**78.5**	**..**	**67.0**	**72.9**	**69.8**	**70.4**	**82.5**	**54.4**	**71.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	68.4	70.3	72.2	50.5	72.4	75.7	74.1	51.3	81.3	70.9	70.8	72.6	55.5	74.6
	Q2 2009	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	-	68.1	71.1	79.1	51.5	71.0	76.4	74.7	51.0	81.3	71.2	71.5	74.3	55.9	75.2
	Q3 2009	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	-	69.0	69.9	74.4	53.9	71.3	74.9	73.0	48.9	80.1	68.5	71.8	73.9	56.6	75.4
	Q4 2009	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	-	68.5	71.0	73.3	51.4	71.2	74.4	74.4	55.6	78.7	67.7	71.4	72.8	54.9	74.9
	2009	**72.1**	**71.5**	**62.3**	**76.3**	**..**	**70.4**	**72.7**	**72.9**	**75.5**	**79.7**	**79.6**	**75.4**	**67.4**	**72.4**	**75.0**	**72.0**	**73.3**	**87.4**	**68.5**	**70.6**	**74.7**	**51.9**	**71.5**	**75.3**	**74.0**	**51.6**	**80.4**	**69.7**	**71.3**	**73.4**	**55.7**	**75.0**
	Q1 2010	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	-	67.6	70.3	76.6	51.6	69.2	75.8	73.8	54.8	80.4	64.1	74.0	72.3	56.3	74.6
	Q2 2010	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	-	68.8	70.7	77.0	51.4	71.0	76.0	73.8	56.7	80.8	63.4	74.2	73.7	57.2	75.4
	Q3 2010	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	-	69.7	69.2	78.2	53.2	70.6	75.0	73.0	59.5	81.2	61.9	69.3	74.2	55.7	75.1
	Q4 2010	73.7	73.1	64.6	75.6	80.6	..	74.4	72.4	70.9	79.5	76.7	69.9	68.0	72.7	76.1	68.4	71.4	-	69.3	69.4	75.6	54.7	70.7	74.5	74.6	59.4	82.8	66.8	71.3	72.8	57.7	74.8
	2010	**72.6**	**72.3**	**64.0**	**76.4**	**81.0**	**..**	**73.3**	**72.6**	**73.4**	**80.1**	**76.7**	**73.0**	**67.7**	**72.7**	**76.4**	**70.8**	**71.5**	**86.4**	**68.9**	**69.9**	**75.0**	**52.7**	**70.4**	**75.3**	**73.8**	**57.4**	**81.3**	**64.0**	**72.2**	**73.3**	**56.8**	**75.0**
	Q1 2011	74.0	72.5	61.4	74.7	80.1	..	73.9	72.6	70.9	79.1	75.4	69.3	68.4	73.0	75.6	67.4	70.2	-	68.7	69.7	77.6	54.3	70.6	74.4	75.8	59.1	82.7	66.5	71.1	73.8	56.9	74.2
	Q2 2011	73.5	72.7	62.7	75.6	80.6	..	73.8	73.9	72.0	80.1	75.4	72.9	68.2	73.2	75.2	68.1	71.7	-	69.7	70.6	75.1	55.5	69.2	77.2	74.8	61.7	83.1	70.6	70.8	74.8	56.2	74.3
	Q3 2011	73.7	72.2	61.5	76.4	81.3	..	73.5	73.9	73.9	79.4	79.3	72.7	67.5	74.0	74.5	69.7	72.2	-	69.5	68.4	74.0	57.1	69.3	76.4	75.0	66.6	82.7	-	68.7	74.9	54.4	74.1
	Q4 2011	73.3	73.1	62.2	75.6	81.7	..	73.5	73.5	71.8	79.1	77.5	73.3	66.8	73.2	75.1	68.9	71.2	-	69.2	69.8	73.7	58.7	70.8	76.1	76.1	65.0	82.4	72.9	68.9	74.4	55.9	74.7
	2011	**73.6**	**72.6**	**61.9**	**75.6**	**80.9**	**72.4**	**73.7**	**73.5**	**72.1**	**79.4**	**76.9**	**72.0**	**67.7**	**73.4**	**75.1**	**68.6**	**71.3**	**85.8**	**69.3**	**69.6**	**75.1**	**56.4**	**70.0**	**76.0**	**75.4**	**62.9**	**82.7**	**70.5**	**69.9**	**74.5**	**55.9**	**74.3**
	Q1 2012	73.9	72.0	62.3	75.1	81.5	..	73.1	73.3	72.4	79.5	76.1	72.8	68.0	72.5	74.5	69.5	70.9	-	..	70.1	76.2	57.2	70.9	75.2	77.2	61.4	83.2	70.5	71.1	73.9	51.7	73.7
	Q2 2012	73.8	73.4	61.2	76.8	81.7	..	73.1	74.1	71.5	79.3	77.7	75.5	68.0	72.9	74.5	73.2	71.7	-	..	70.4	75.0	58.8	71.3	77.7	75.8	66.2	83.0	70.6	70.8	75.8	52.2	73.6
	Q3 2012	73.7	73.2	62.4	77.5	82.1	..	74.5	74.2	72.4	79.0	77.8	75.2	68.2	74.4	76.0	74.5	71.4	-	..	68.5	77.0	56.8	71.7	76.3	76.4	70.8	82.7	73.0	72.6	75.2	53.1	73.7
	Q4 2012	74.0	72.4	64.1	76.8	82.1	..	74.5	74.2	70.4	79.2	75.2	73.9	68.4	74.3	76.3	74.7	70.5	-	..	70.1	76.8	58.7	70.6	75.3	76.2	68.7	81.4	73.6	72.5	74.7	53.1	73.5
	2012	**73.9**	**72.7**	**62.5**	**76.6**	**81.9**	**..**	**73.8**	**74.0**	**71.7**	**79.3**	**76.6**	**74.3**	**68.2**	**73.5**	**75.3**	**73.1**	**71.1**	**87.3**	**..**	**69.8**	**76.2**	**57.9**	**71.1**	**76.1**	**76.4**	**66.4**	**82.6**	**72.0**	**71.7**	**74.9**	**52.5**	**73.7**
	Q1 2013	74.6	72.9	64.6	76.2	81.9	..	74.3	73.6	71.5	79.7	78.3	73.3	67.8	73.8	76.8	76.1	70.7	-	..	70.6	76.8	58.0	70.1	75.3	..	67.3	80.5	-	71.0	74.3	51.9	73.3
	Q2 2013	74.5	73.2	62.1	77.4	82.3	..	76.1	74.1	72.4	78.8	79.6	77.0	67.9	73.8	76.9	74.0	72.1	-	..	70.0	77.0	56.5	70.1	76.2	..	66.7	81.1	73.4	72.3	76.2	54.1	73.6
	Q3 2013	73.9	74.0	64.3	78.1	82.4	..	76.8	74.5	71.9	78.8	75.1	74.7	67.8	75.1	77.5	75.1	72.9	-	..	68.3	78.5	59.7	70.9	77.1	..	69.4	80.2	74.5	71.7	75.6	52.5	74.0
	Q4 2013	73.6	72.8	63.7	75.9	82.3	..	77.4	73.5	71.5	78.4	74.4	72.9	68.7	74.5	77.0	76.2	71.8	-	..	69.6	76.9	57.6	71.7	76.4	..	66.7	79.6	73.3	71.0	74.7	50.1	73.1
	2013	**74.1**	**73.2**	**63.7**	**76.9**	**82.2**	**..**	**76.2**	**73.9**	**71.8**	**78.9**	**76.9**	**74.4**	**68.1**	**74.3**	**77.0**	**75.4**	**71.9**	**87.4**	**..**	**69.6**	**77.3**	**58.0**	**70.7**	**76.2**	**..**	**67.5**	**80.4**	**74.4**	**71.5**	**75.2**	**52.1**	**73.5**

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	83.9	79.6	72.9	80.5	..	..	78.0	82.1	84.3	80.1	76.5	75.5	74.6	82.1	77.6	67.3	76.9	-	65.2	72.5	70.3	82.5	86.1	81.5	84.8	71.3	78.2	76.0	73.6	80.8	72.1	77.5
	Q2 2009	83.5	80.8	72.3	82.4	87.1	..	78.2	81.9	84.7	80.0	76.5	78.7	74.9	81.8	77.7	68.1	77.8	-	66.1	72.6	73.0	82.3	86.2	82.6	84.6	71.5	78.2	76.0	75.5	82.8	74.0	77.9
	Q3 2009	83.2	82.1	72.4	82.9	..	..	78.7	82.5	84.6	79.7	78.5	76.3	75.0	82.1	78.0	68.3	77.7	-	65.8	72.4	72.0	82.9	86.0	81.2	83.7	72.5	77.3	76.6	76.9	82.3	75.8	77.9
	Q4 2009	83.5	81.3	73.4	80.4	..	..	78.7	82.3	83.2	79.2	75.6	74.4	74.8	81.6	77.6	68.2	75.8	-	65.1	72.5	70.3	83.1	85.6	80.1	85.4	71.9	77.6	76.4	76.1	80.9	74.4	76.4
	2009	**83.5**	**80.9**	**72.8**	**81.6**	**87.1**	**75.8**	**78.4**	**82.2**	**84.2**	**79.8**	**76.8**	**76.2**	**74.9**	**81.9**	**77.7**	**67.9**	**77.0**	**87.5**	**65.6**	**72.5**	**71.4**	**82.7**	**86.0**	**81.3**	**84.6**	**71.8**	**77.8**	**76.2**	**75.5**	**81.7**	**74.1**	**77.4**
	Q1 2010	83.6	79.4	73.2	79.6	87.9	..	78.1	82.1	82.9	79.1	76.5	75.0	74.8	81.1	77.7	67.6	75.5	-	65.5	72.5	69.5	82.1	84.5	80.1	84.4	71.9	77.9	75.7	75.2	81.3	73.4	76.5
	Q2 2010	83.5	81.0	73.1	82.0	87.6	..	78.3	82.1	83.2	79.7	75.9	78.2	74.5	81.3	77.6	68.3	77.0	-	66.3	72.3	69.5	83.0	84.5	81.4	83.9	72.2	77.5	76.0	74.5	84.0	75.1	77.0
	Q3 2010	83.4	82.0	73.6	82.8	88.3	..	78.9	82.2	83.0	79.5	76.3	76.9	74.9	82.2	77.4	68.7	77.1	-	66.9	71.2	71.9	82.9	84.7	80.7	84.1	72.9	77.5	76.2	75.7	83.7	75.7	77.1
	Q4 2010	83.9	81.4	73.5	80.6	88.1	..	78.6	82.3	83.1	79.1	76.9	74.9	74.4	81.7	77.2	68.4	75.8	-	65.8	72.0	69.7	82.0	84.2	80.3	84.8	72.7	77.5	76.3	75.2	81.9	74.2	75.8
	2010	**83.6**	**80.9**	**73.4**	**81.3**	**88.0**	**..**	**78.5**	**82.2**	**83.1**	**79.4**	**76.4**	**76.2**	**74.7**	**81.6**	**77.5**	**68.2**	**76.3**	**87.4**	**66.1**	**72.0**	**70.1**	**82.5**	**84.4**	**80.6**	**84.3**	**72.5**	**77.6**	**76.0**	**75.1**	**82.7**	**74.6**	**76.6**
	Q1 2011	83.7	79.7	71.7	80.0	88.3	..	78.0	82.2	83.1	79.2	77.9	75.7	74.2	81.1	76.8	67.7	75.1	-	65.7	71.9	68.6	81.7	83.9	79.1	84.2	72.3	78.0	76.2	73.3	81.8	74.3	75.4
	Q2 2011	83.3	81.1	72.6	82.1	87.9	..	78.6	82.1	83.0	79.3	77.1	79.4	74.4	81.2	76.7	68.5	76.0	-	66.5	71.6	67.5	82.3	83.9	79.7	84.0	73.0	77.8	76.8	73.2	84.3	76.1	75.8
	Q3 2011	82.9	82.0	71.9	82.9	88.6	..	78.8	82.3	83.3	79.6	77.8	77.4	74.9	81.9	76.5	69.3	76.0	-	66.9	71.5	68.5	82.8	84.4	80.4	83.9	73.4	78.0	76.8	74.5	84.0	77.1	76.5
	Q4 2011	83.2	81.2	72.8	80.5	88.4	..	78.5	82.7	82.7	79.1	77.4	75.8	74.6	81.7	76.0	69.2	76.1	-	65.5	72.2	66.9	82.9	84.9	80.3	84.3	73.2	77.3	77.0	73.6	82.1	75.3	75.6
	2011	**83.3**	**81.0**	**72.3**	**81.4**	**88.3**	**75.8**	**78.5**	**82.3**	**83.0**	**79.3**	**77.5**	**77.1**	**74.5**	**81.5**	**76.5**	**68.6**	**75.8**	**87.2**	**66.2**	**71.8**	**67.9**	**82.4**	**84.3**	**79.9**	**84.1**	**73.0**	**77.8**	**76.7**	**73.7**	**83.0**	**75.7**	**75.8**
	Q1 2012	83.1	79.5	71.8	79.5	87.8	..	78.5	81.9	82.1	78.7	77.6	75.5	74.5	81.3	76.1	69.1	75.3	-	..	72.6	67.3	82.1	85.0	80.4	84.5	72.9	76.8	77.1	72.2	81.8	72.9	75.1
	Q2 2012	82.8	81.5	72.7	81.9	87.4	..	79.1	81.8	82.3	79.2	77.2	79.2	74.8	81.8	76.3	70.1	76.0	-	..	73.0	69.2	83.1	84.8	80.9	83.3	73.6	77.4	76.9	72.2	84.0	75.3	76.0
	Q3 2012	82.7	82.6	72.7	82.6	89.2	..	79.9	82.5	82.0	79.3	79.0	77.4	75.4	82.5	76.1	70.9	76.7	-	..	72.6	69.3	83.6	85.0	80.7	82.7	73.8	77.7	77.3	74.1	84.3	76.1	76.6
	Q4 2012	83.1	81.3	72.5	80.6	89.0	..	79.7	82.3	81.8	78.7	78.2	75.5	75.3	82.2	76.2	71.0	75.3	-	..	73.1	69.6	82.5	85.1	80.1	82.9	73.6	76.6	77.2	74.6	82.3	75.9	75.8
	2012	**82.9**	**81.2**	**72.4**	**81.2**	**88.4**	**..**	**79.3**	**82.1**	**82.1**	**79.0**	**78.0**	**76.9**	**75.0**	**82.0**	**76.2**	**70.3**	**75.8**	**86.7**	**..**	**72.8**	**68.9**	**82.8**	**85.0**	**80.5**	**83.3**	**73.3**	**77.1**	**77.1**	**73.3**	**82.9**	**75.1**	**75.9**
	Q1 2013	83.2	79.6	71.7	79.5	88.3	..	79.7	81.9	82.0	78.7	78.4	75.1	75.0	81.6	76.0	70.0	75.1	-	..	72.4	67.3	81.8	85.1	79.7	..	73.2	76.4	77.5	73.3	82.8	74.2	75.3
	Q2 2013	82.9	80.7	73.3	81.9	87.4	..	80.2	82.2	81.1	78.7	78.3	79.3	75.1	81.9	76.4	71.4	76.3	-	..	72.2	67.0	82.6	85.6	80.8	..	73.9	76.4	77.2	73.5	84.6	76.3	75.8
	Q3 2013	82.8	82.0	72.6	82.5	88.1	..	80.7	82.3	81.4	79.2	78.7	77.3	75.2	82.7	76.4	72.3	76.6	-	..	72.0	69.7	82.7	85.7	80.5	..	74.4	76.6	77.1	74.3	84.9	76.8	76.2
	Q4 2013	83.0	81.4	72.3	80.7	88.3	..	80.5	82.5	80.3	78.7	78.0	74.8	74.8	82.3	75.9	71.9	76.0	-	..	72.8	69.3	82.9	85.4	79.3	..	74.1	76.6	76.8	73.3	83.1	75.3	74.7
	2013	**83.0**	**80.9**	**72.5**	**81.1**	**88.0**	**..**	**80.3**	**82.2**	**81.2**	**78.8**	**78.3**	**76.6**	**75.0**	**82.1**	**76.1**	**71.4**	**76.0**	**88.0**	**..**	**72.3**	**68.3**	**82.5**	**85.5**	**80.1**	**..**	**73.9**	**76.5**	**77.2**	**73.6**	**83.8**	**75.7**	**75.5**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	80.6	79.2	73.8	82.4	..	..	80.2	81.9	80.4	88.2	82.5	78.1	76.6	83.4	89.6	81.6	83.0	-	74.6	85.4	81.3	69.1	81.2	80.5	82.5	59.5	86.1	80.8	75.5	78.3	71.6	85.6
	Q2 2009	80.6	81.0	72.4	83.0	89.6	..	82.1	82.3	78.0	87.6	86.1	84.7	76.1	81.8	89.7	82.3	84.0	-	74.9	85.5	84.2	67.4	80.5	81.2	82.7	60.9	86.7	80.8	78.4	80.8	73.5	86.8
	Q3 2009	80.1	82.5	74.3	83.2	..	..	81.4	82.5	85.2	85.9	82.2	81.2	76.1	83.6	90.2	79.6	82.5	-	74.2	85.6	82.9	71.4	80.6	80.3	80.5	58.1	86.4	83.3	76.1	80.5	74.2	86.6
	Q4 2009	80.3	82.0	72.8	82.3	..	..	82.1	82.3	83.3	86.5	83.1	78.3	76.4	80.9	89.6	79.9	81.5	-	73.5	84.8	83.5	72.8	80.1	81.2	82.0	67.4	85.5	85.3	76.6	78.7	71.7	85.7
	2009	**80.4**	**81.2**	**73.3**	**82.7**	**89.6**	**79.3**	**81.5**	**82.2**	**81.8**	**87.0**	**83.6**	**80.6**	**76.3**	**82.4**	**89.8**	**80.9**	**82.8**	**89.9**	**74.3**	**85.3**	**83.0**	**70.3**	**80.6**	**80.8**	**81.9**	**61.2**	**86.2**	**82.3**	**76.6**	**79.6**	**72.6**	**86.2**
	Q1 2010	81.4	79.1	72.1	81.3	88.4	..	81.9	83.1	84.7	86.7	75.2	80.2	76.1	80.5	90.4	76.4	80.1	-	72.6	83.9	83.7	68.9	76.6	80.6	81.7	68.4	84.4	82.8	79.7	78.7	72.0	85.5
	Q2 2010	80.4	80.7	74.3	83.0	89.6	..	83.4	82.8	80.3	87.4	78.1	85.4	77.1	81.9	90.3	73.9	81.3	-	74.8	84.9	82.1	69.6	79.3	81.8	82.0	67.8	84.2	82.7	78.0	80.3	74.9	86.5
	Q3 2010	80.8	81.8	74.8	84.2	90.1	..	85.3	83.7	76.9	87.7	81.6	81.1	77.3	83.4	90.9	74.1	81.4	-	75.9	84.9	82.9	74.5	78.8	80.1	80.8	62.5	85.0	79.9	75.6	80.6	73.1	86.5
	Q4 2010	81.9	80.8	74.6	82.5	88.7	..	84.7	83.0	77.2	86.8	83.3	78.1	76.9	82.5	90.2	75.2	80.7	-	74.4	84.7	84.0	76.3	79.7	80.0	82.1	70.1	86.6	81.6	76.9	80.1	74.5	85.3
	2010	**81.1**	**80.6**	**74.0**	**82.8**	**89.2**	**..**	**83.8**	**83.1**	**79.7**	**87.1**	**79.6**	**81.2**	**76.9**	**82.1**	**90.4**	**74.9**	**80.9**	**89.3**	**74.4**	**84.6**	**83.2**	**72.3**	**78.6**	**80.6**	**81.6**	**67.4**	**85.1**	**81.7**	**77.5**	**79.9**	**73.6**	**86.0**
	Q1 2011	82.6	80.6	72.4	81.1	88.9	..	84.4	83.0	75.5	85.5	81.0	77.7	76.7	82.6	89.4	74.8	78.5	-	73.5	83.0	84.6	71.7	78.2	78.0	84.0	65.1	86.9	79.1	76.7	80.3	73.9	85.6
	Q2 2011	81.5	82.6	71.9	82.4	89.7	..	86.1	84.0	76.2	85.9	79.7	80.7	76.9	83.2	89.1	77.2	79.9	-	75.5	84.7	82.1	72.0	77.7	82.1	81.0	64.1	85.9	81.8	76.6	81.4	74.6	85.7
	Q3 2011	81.9	81.2	72.8	82.9	90.2	..	86.1	83.6	77.9	86.1	84.9	79.7	76.6	83.3	89.2	82.2	80.9	-	76.0	83.3	82.2	69.8	78.5	80.6	81.6	72.0	87.3	86.5	75.4	81.5	71.9	85.5
	Q4 2011	81.6	81.5	73.0	81.8	90.2	..	85.3	84.2	77.2	86.1	84.2	80.0	75.6	83.0	89.1	77.6	79.5	-	74.9	83.7	82.4	69.8	79.5	79.8	83.8	78.7	85.0	83.1	74.3	80.9	73.3	85.8
	2011	**81.9**	**81.5**	**72.5**	**82.0**	**89.8**	**82.6**	**85.5**	**83.7**	**76.7**	**85.9**	**82.5**	**79.5**	**76.4**	**83.0**	**89.2**	**78.1**	**79.7**	**88.2**	**75.0**	**83.7**	**82.8**	**70.8**	**78.4**	**80.1**	**82.6**	**69.6**	**86.3**	**82.5**	**75.8**	**81.0**	**73.5**	**85.6**
	Q1 2012	82.9	79.8	73.7	81.7	89.5	..	84.7	83.9	77.8	85.7	81.4	79.0	77.2	83.3	88.5	78.9	79.0	-	..	82.9	84.8	69.8	79.5	79.9	84.5		86.7	-	77.2	80.2	71.1	84.9
	Q2 2012	82.4	83.6	70.8	83.3	89.8	..	84.6	83.7	75.5	85.8	85.7	81.1	77.2	83.4	88.2	82.3	79.9	-	..	83.8	82.2	70.9	80.1	82.6	81.6	70.4	86.0	-	77.0	82.4	69.1	84.7
	Q3 2012	82.0	84.0	72.2	84.2	90.2	..	86.9	84.5	76.2	85.9	83.7	81.5	78.3	84.6	89.6	84.2	79.8	-	..	81.4	83.5	67.4	79.7	80.8	82.7	78.0	85.1	80.2	77.7	82.0	75.1	85.2
	Q4 2012	82.9	82.0	74.4	83.0	89.5	..	86.8	84.0	76.0	85.3	81.9	80.4	79.4	83.8	90.0	82.0	80.0	-	..	82.4	84.1	69.7	78.7	80.8	82.2	77.6	84.4	-	79.5	81.7	72.0	84.5
	2012	**82.5**	**82.3**	**72.8**	**83.0**	**89.7**	**..**	**85.7**	**84.0**	**76.4**	**85.7**	**83.1**	**80.5**	**78.0**	**83.8**	**89.1**	**81.9**	**79.6**	**90.3**	**..**	**82.6**	**83.7**	**69.4**	**79.5**	**81.0**	**82.8**	**73.6**	**85.6**	**79.7**	**77.8**	**81.3**	**71.9**	**84.9**
	Q1 2013	83.5	81.8	75.1	82.2	89.4	..	86.6	83.4	75.9	85.6	81.4	79.3	78.7	82.7	90.3	83.6	79.3	-	..	82.2	84.5	71.1	79.2	80.7	..	78.2	83.4	85.0	81.4	80.4	69.8	84.6
	Q2 2013	83.2	83.2	73.0	83.8	89.9	..	86.4	83.8	75.8	84.5	85.4	83.3	79.0	82.8	89.7	84.6	81.0	-	..	82.0	83.7	72.6	79.0	81.1	..	70.5	84.1	82.1	79.5	82.1	73.2	85.5
	Q3 2013	81.8	83.3	74.2	84.7	90.1	..	87.4	84.1	76.3	85.3	78.8	81.4	79.1	85.3	89.7	86.9	82.2	-	..	81.0	86.1	75.4	78.8	80.9	..	74.4	82.8	81.4	80.3	81.5	71.2	85.6
	Q4 2013	81.8	81.1	73.4	82.3	90.0	..	87.4	83.5	75.5	84.6	78.4	78.2	79.1	83.7	90.0	86.5	81.2	-	..	80.6	85.4	74.1	80.5	81.3	..	71.3	82.3	81.1	79.0	80.6	70.4	84.9
	2013	**82.6**	**82.3**	**73.9**	**83.3**	**89.8**	**..**	**87.0**	**83.7**	**75.9**	**85.0**	**80.9**	**80.5**	**79.0**	**83.6**	**89.9**	**85.3**	**80.9**	**91.0**	**..**	**81.4**	**84.9**	**73.3**	**79.3**	**81.0**	**..**	**73.7**	**83.2**	**82.2**	**80.0**	**81.1**	**71.1**	**85.1**

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	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	-	59.5	50.7	55.0	44.8	75.8	77.4	74.3	57.5	68.4	60.2	67.2	77.7	24.9	68.7
	Q2 2009	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	-	59.6	50.6	57.5	45.3	75.6	77.7	73.4	57.6	68.0	60.2	67.8	79.9	28.4	69.2
	Q3 2009	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	-	59.1	49.7	58.0	47.3	75.8	77.1	73.7	58.2	68.3	61.0	69.1	78.7	29.3	69.0
	Q4 2009	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	-	59.1	50.4	55.1	47.0	75.8	76.5	74.6	58.2	68.7	61.1	68.3	76.7	28.1	68.0
	2009	**72.6**	**71.1**	**62.6**	**75.5**	**..**	**47.0**	**61.4**	**73.3**	**78.2**	**69.7**	**63.2**	**73.7**	**67.2**	**70.6**	**56.1**	**55.1**	**62.1**	**80.9**	**59.3**	**50.4**	**56.4**	**46.1**	**75.8**	**77.2**	**74.0**	**57.9**	**68.3**	**60.6**	**68.1**	**78.2**	**27.7**	**68.7**
	Q1 2010	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	-	58.5	50.3	54.4	45.4	76.1	76.0	74.3	58.6	69.2	61.1	67.2	77.5	27.8	68.0
	Q2 2010	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	-	59.1	50.5	54.8	46.3	76.4	76.7	73.5	59.2	69.2	61.1	68.2	79.9	30.5	68.3
	Q3 2010	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	-	60.4	49.5	55.4	46.2	74.0	76.3	73.6	59.5	69.2	61.8	67.3	79.7	30.5	68.5
	Q4 2010	72.5	70.5	63.9	75.1	77.9	..	61.9	73.0	76.2	65.0	70.0	71.7	66.8	70.3	57.2	56.7	61.8	-	60.9	51.0	54.6	44.9	74.4	75.8	74.0	59.0	68.7	61.6	67.4	78.1	29.3	67.9
	2010	**72.3**	**70.4**	**63.2**	**75.5**	**77.9**	**..**	**61.5**	**72.6**	**77.2**	**64.3**	**70.4**	**72.8**	**67.1**	**70.3**	**57.0**	**56.5**	**61.9**	**81.6**	**59.7**	**50.3**	**54.8**	**45.7**	**74.1**	**76.2**	**73.9**	**59.0**	**69.1**	**61.4**	**67.5**	**78.8**	**29.5**	**68.1**
	Q1 2011	72.4	70.3	62.1	74.9	78.6	..	61.8	72.9	77.0	65.0	70.3	71.8	66.6	70.4	57.0	56.0	61.0	-	59.5	50.4	55.6	44.8	74.2	76.0	74.5	58.9	69.0	61.0	65.8	79.0	29.1	67.6
	Q2 2011	72.5	70.3	62.7	76.3	78.5	..	62.1	73.2	77.4	65.5	71.6	74.8	66.8	70.4	56.8	56.6	62.0	-	59.5	50.4	53.3	45.9	74.6	76.5	73.2	59.2	69.2	60.6	66.3	81.0	32.2	67.7
	Q3 2011	72.6	71.3	63.8	76.1	78.2	..	62.5	73.7	78.0	65.7	72.7	73.7	67.6	70.9	57.1	57.1	61.8	-	59.5	49.9	56.5	46.4	74.8	76.5	72.9	59.6	68.7	61.2	67.1	80.6	32.3	68.0
	Q4 2011	72.7	70.9	63.0	74.7	79.2	..	62.5	74.0	77.0	65.8	70.8	71.7	67.4	71.0	57.6	57.3	61.6	-	59.9	51.7	55.4	47.7	75.6	75.8	73.9	59.8	68.5	61.3	67.9	78.9	30.5	67.2
	2011	**72.6**	**70.7**	**62.9**	**75.5**	**78.6**	**49.0**	**62.2**	**73.5**	**77.3**	**65.5**	**71.3**	**73.0**	**67.1**	**70.7**	**57.1**	**56.7**	**61.6**	**81.5**	**59.6**	**50.6**	**55.2**	**46.2**	**74.8**	**76.2**	**73.6**	**59.4**	**68.8**	**61.0**	**66.8**	**79.9**	**31.0**	**67.6**
	Q1 2012	72.6	71.0	62.4	74.5	78.4	..	62.5	72.9	77.1	66.4	71.8	72.4	67.1	71.1	57.8	57.3	61.3	-	..	52.6	55.5	46.1	75.6	76.0	73.9	59.7	69.0	61.6	67.7	79.2	29.5	67.0
	Q2 2012	72.8	71.3	62.4	75.9	77.9	..	63.2	73.1	77.8	66.6	72.1	75.3	67.6	71.1	58.0	58.0	61.7	-	..	52.9	55.6	47.7	75.7	76.8	73.4	60.0	69.3	61.6	66.5	81.5	32.5	67.4
	Q3 2012	72.4	73.0	63.9	76.0	79.0	..	64.0	73.5	77.2	66.9	71.6	74.9	68.2	71.8	58.2	58.9	61.8	-	..	52.0	60.1	48.0	76.0	76.9	73.5	60.1	69.3	62.0	67.3	81.6	32.3	67.7
	Q4 2012	72.7	71.9	63.8	75.0	78.7	..	64.5	73.8	75.9	66.9	70.1	72.0	68.4	72.1	58.3	58.5	61.8	-	..	53.2	57.3	47.3	76.5	76.4	72.5	60.1	69.0	61.5	67.1	79.2	32.4	67.2
	2012	**72.6**	**71.8**	**63.1**	**75.4**	**78.5**	**..**	**63.6**	**73.3**	**77.0**	**66.7**	**71.4**	**73.7**	**67.8**	**71.5**	**58.0**	**58.2**	**61.6**	**82.5**	**..**	**52.7**	**57.2**	**47.3**	**76.0**	**76.5**	**73.3**	**59.7**	**69.2**	**61.7**	**67.1**	**80.1**	**31.7**	**67.3**
	Q1 2013	72.5	71.6	63.1	75.0	79.6	..	64.5	73.9	76.2	67.6	71.1	73.1	67.9	71.9	57.7	57.9	61.8	-	..	53.0	56.3	46.2	76.6	76.6	..	59.4	68.9	62.4	66.9	79.8	31.8	66.6
	Q2 2013	72.8	72.3	63.8	76.2	78.9	..	65.0	73.9	77.2	67.7	71.9	75.6	68.2	71.7	58.1	58.4	63.1	-	..	52.6	57.9	47.8	76.6	76.7	..	59.8	69.1	62.0	66.7	82.0	34.4	67.4
	Q3 2013	72.4	73.6	65.5	76.3	79.2	..	65.3	74.2	77.8	67.7	70.9	73.5	68.6	72.4	57.9	58.9	62.9	-	..	51.8	55.0	47.7	76.6	77.1	..	60.6	69.4	62.6	68.0	81.9	33.7	67.3
	Q4 2013	72.7	72.7	63.8	75.2	80.2	..	65.5	74.6	75.9	68.1	72.0	72.7	68.7	72.1	57.6	59.3	62.5	-	..	53.2	59.9	48.0	76.3	76.6	..	60.8	70.1	62.7	66.4	80.5	32.8	66.8
	2013	**72.6**	**72.6**	**64.1**	**75.7**	**79.4**	**..**	**65.1**	**74.2**	**76.8**	**67.8**	**71.5**	**73.7**	**68.3**	**72.0**	**57.8**	**58.6**	**62.5**	**83.2**	**..**	**52.6**	**57.3**	**47.4**	**76.5**	**76.8**	**..**	**60.1**	**69.4**	**62.4**	**67.0**	**81.1**	**33.2**	**67.0**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	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	-	63.0	56.9	69.1	33.0	64.4	70.9	66.4	45.4	77.0	61.4	65.8	67.4	32.4	63.0
	Q2 2009	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	-	62.1	58.6	63.8	38.0	62.4	71.7	66.8	41.8	76.8	63.4	64.7	68.4	31.7	63.0
	Q3 2009	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	-	64.4	56.5	64.0	37.6	63.1	69.5	65.9	42.4	74.8	56.4	67.0	68.1	30.8	63.5
	Q4 2009	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	-	64.0	58.8	67.4	31.5	63.4	67.6	66.9	47.3	72.9	53.0	65.4	67.3	31.2	63.5
	2009	**63.9**	**62.6**	**51.7**	**70.2**	**..**	**62.8**	**63.8**	**63.2**	**70.0**	**76.4**	**72.4**	**70.2**	**59.1**	**63.0**	**59.8**	**65.5**	**63.5**	**85.0**	**63.4**	**57.7**	**66.1**	**34.9**	**63.3**	**69.9**	**66.5**	**44.2**	**75.4**	**58.9**	**65.7**	**67.8**	**31.6**	**63.3**
	Q1 2010	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	-	63.3	58.3	67.5	35.2	63.9	71.1	66.0	43.7	77.0	47.7	67.7	66.5	32.8	63.1
	Q2 2010	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	-	63.4	58.4	65.0	35.2	64.1	69.8	65.9	47.5	77.7	45.9	70.0	67.7	31.2	63.6
	Q3 2010	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	-	64.1	55.5	67.0	31.1	63.1	69.7	65.6	57.3	77.7	43.6	62.8	68.4	31.4	63.3
	Q4 2010	65.7	66.0	55.2	69.1	72.8	..	63.4	62.2	66.2	72.7	71.7	62.5	59.9	63.6	62.2	62.7	62.2	-	65.0	56.3	67.5	32.6	62.5	68.6	67.4	49.9	79.3	50.0	65.0	66.4	34.1	64.0
	2010	**64.2**	**64.7**	**54.5**	**70.3**	**73.0**	**..**	**62.1**	**62.4**	**68.2**	**73.4**	**74.5**	**65.4**	**59.2**	**63.7**	**62.2**	**67.4**	**62.2**	**83.7**	**63.9**	**57.1**	**66.8**	**33.6**	**63.0**	**69.7**	**66.2**	**49.1**	**77.9**	**46.8**	**66.3**	**67.3**	**32.4**	**63.5**
	Q1 2011	65.7	65.0	51.1	68.9	71.7	..	62.5	62.7	67.3	73.2	71.0	61.4	60.8	64.1	62.2	61.2	62.0	-	64.5	58.2	70.3	36.4	63.6	70.6	67.8	52.5	78.9	53.5	64.4	67.8	32.1	62.4
	Q2 2011	65.6	63.8	53.7	69.2	71.9	..	60.2	64.2	68.4	74.7	72.0	65.5	60.2	63.9	61.2	60.8	63.8	-	64.6	58.5	67.8	38.0	61.7	72.2	69.0	59.3	80.7	-	64.2	68.8	29.8	62.2
	Q3 2011	65.6	64.1	51.0	70.3	72.8	..	59.7	64.6	70.2	73.2	75.0	66.0	59.3	65.2	60.0	59.1	63.6	-	63.8	55.6	65.4	44.2	61.1	72.3	68.7	62.0	78.5	60.0	61.5	68.9	30.5	62.5
	Q4 2011	65.0	65.6	52.4	69.8	73.3	..	60.5	63.3	67.3	72.6	71.9	67.2	59.0	64.0	61.3	62.0	63.1	-	64.2	58.0	64.8	46.8	63.0	72.3	68.7	54.2	79.9	64.3	62.5	68.2	32.4	63.4
	2011	**65.5**	**64.6**	**52.1**	**69.6**	**72.4**	**64.7**	**60.7**	**63.7**	**68.3**	**73.4**	**72.5**	**65.1**	**59.8**	**64.3**	**61.2**	**60.8**	**63.1**	**83.6**	**64.3**	**57.6**	**67.0**	**41.4**	**62.4**	**71.9**	**68.6**	**56.8**	**79.5**	**59.2**	**63.1**	**68.4**	**31.2**	**62.6**
	Q1 2012	65.1	65.0	51.6	68.9	73.7	..	60.8	63.1	67.8	73.8	72.3	67.0	59.6	62.5	60.9	61.6	63.2	-	..	59.2	67.7	43.0	63.2	70.5	70.3	53.4	79.4	64.8	63.4	68.0	37.2	62.6
	Q2 2012	65.3	64.4	52.5	70.7	73.8	..	61.3	64.9	68.3	73.3	72.4	70.3	59.4	63.1	61.0	65.3	64.1	-	..	59.1	67.8	46.6	63.4	72.8	70.2	61.5	80.1	61.7	63.7	69.8	39.5	62.4
	Q3 2012	65.6	63.8	53.3	71.4	74.0	..	61.9	64.3	69.0	72.7	73.2	69.2	59.1	64.6	62.7	65.6	63.8	-	..	57.5	70.1	45.2	64.6	71.6	70.1	62.8	80.4	66.6	66.7	68.8	35.9	62.3
	Q4 2012	65.5	63.8	54.5	71.1	74.8	..	61.8	64.9	65.3	73.6	70.0	67.7	58.4	65.3	63.0	68.1	61.9	-	..	59.7	69.4	45.7	63.4	69.6	70.3	58.4	78.7	69.0	64.7	68.1	37.2	62.8
	2012	**65.4**	**64.2**	**53.0**	**70.5**	**74.1**	**..**	**61.5**	**64.3**	**67.6**	**73.4**	**72.0**	**68.5**	**59.1**	**63.9**	**61.9**	**65.1**	**63.2**	**84.1**	**..**	**58.9**	**68.7**	**45.1**	**63.7**	**71.1**	**70.3**	**58.5**	**79.7**	**65.7**	**64.6**	**68.9**	**37.4**	**62.5**
	Q1 2013	66.1	65.0	54.6	70.7	74.5	..	61.3	64.0	67.4	74.5	76.1	67.5	57.9	65.3	63.7	69.3	62.7	-	..	60.7	69.2	43.1	62.2	69.7	..	54.7	77.7	-	59.7	68.4	38.4	62.3
	Q2 2013	66.1	64.6	52.1	71.4	74.8	..	65.3	64.8	69.5	73.7	75.4	71.4	57.9	65.3	64.5	64.6	63.6	-	..	59.6	70.3	39.8	62.4	71.2	..	62.6	78.3	65.3	64.6	70.4	40.2	61.9
	Q3 2013	66.2	65.7	54.6	71.7	74.7	..	65.2	65.3	68.2	72.8	72.5	67.8	57.7	65.6	66.0	64.7	64.1	-	..	57.6	70.5	43.6	64.0	73.0	..	64.4	77.9	67.7	62.4	70.1	37.3	62.7
	Q4 2013	65.5	65.4	54.3	70.0	74.8	..	67.0	63.8	68.1	72.9	71.4	67.8	59.4	65.9	64.7	67.8	62.8	-	..	60.2	67.7	41.2	63.8	71.2	..	60.9	77.2	65.1	62.4	69.1	33.4	61.6
	2013	**66.0**	**65.2**	**53.9**	**70.9**	**74.7**	**..**	**64.7**	**64.5**	**68.3**	**73.5**	**73.9**	**68.6**	**58.2**	**65.5**	**64.7**	**66.6**	**63.3**	**84.3**	**..**	**59.5**	**69.4**	**41.9**	**63.1**	**71.3**	**..**	**60.5**	**77.8**	**66.9**	**62.3**	**69.5**	**37.3**	**62.1**

Note: 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*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157963

Chapter 3

Managing labour migration: Smart policies to support economic growth[1]

This chapter provides a systematic and comparative overview of labour migration management, identifying key elements which can help policy makers match concrete measures to overarching objectives. It discusses how the landscape for labour migration policy is changing, due to both structural factors and the breakdown of traditional categories, posing new challenges for policy makers. Labour migration policy can be used to achieve different and sometimes competing goals, and the chapter discusses inherent trade-offs in balancing these policy objectives. Achieving labour migration policy objectives involves the use of tools, and the chapter discusses many instruments comprising the policy toolbox, from well-known and broad tools such as numerical limits to detailed selection and ranking criteria. The role and applicability of shortage occupation lists is discussed. Tools are matched to objectives, and the conditions under which the tool may be appropriate, as well as potential shortcomings, are identified. The chapter underlines the importance of flexibility and discusses how to apply these tools to maintain a dynamic management system to react to changes. The infrastructure needs of a management system are identified, and possible solutions in the case of limited resources are listed.

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.

Key policy findings

Migration increasingly contributes to the population and workforce in OECD countries.

Over the period 2002-12 migration accounted, on average, for 59% of population growth across the OECD, although variations were considerable from country to country. How migration will continue to contribute to workforce growth in the future is a key question.

Although most immigrants do not come to work…

Labour migration is a common feature of all OECD economies. Even in the depths of the economic crisis, many workers were recruited from abroad – about 600 000 annually. Yet labour migrants represent no more than one-third of all permanent migration, and much less in most OECD countries – about 13% outside Europe. Even considering the roughly two million temporary workers entering OECD countries each year, most migration comes through other channels.

… labour migration is where policymakers are held most accountable.

To a considerable extent, labour migration policy is the public face of migration policy, since it is where choices are most visible and the channel over which governments have the most control. There is growing demand from the public for migration management and for clarity in communication from policymakers. While better information systems and statistics mean that more information than ever before is available about the magnitude and characteristics of migration flows, it also means more scrutiny from public opinion and greater scope for evaluation. Policy makers need to get facts across and explain policy decisions.

It is harder than ever to get labour migration policy right.

The rapidly changing economic conditions and skills needs of today's labour market complicate efforts by policymakers to get labour migration policy right. Doing so requires a more smoothly functioning labour market, fewer unfilled vacancies, better skills matching, and less irregular migration. Public opinion often keenly focuses on migration, putting pressure on policy makers to ensure that the return to labour migration is visible and that risks are mitigated.

Labour migration is expected to address many different goals…

Most OECD countries do not have huge manpower shortages on the horizon. What they do have is skills mismatches and specific labour needs. While the role that migration is meant to play in the labour market varies enormously from one country to another, it can contribute to economic growth everywhere, and "better" labour migration remains a shared aspiration. While no one expects migration to reverse population ageing, labour migration is expected to support innovation and the development of knowledge-based societies, and to address certain shortages related to the changing make-up of the workforce.

… even as traditional policy distinctions have blurred.

Traditional distinctions which have guided migration policies for decades have become less helpful. For instance, it is difficult to categorise migrants into basic skill groups – high and low – when designing migration policies for today's labour markets, where the skills required and tasks performed are becoming increasingly complex. Identifying and verifying skills across borders have also proven increasingly tricky. Similarly, it is hard to distinguish between temporary and permanent migration systems. Demand- and supply-driven admission (i.e. where employers and governments choose, respectively) have merged, making most systems a sort of hybrid. Further, many OECD countries receive more immigrant workers through family and humanitarian channels than through classic labour migration, over which they have more discretionary control. In European countries, the free movement of people for reasons of employment often dwarfs other labour migration flows, complicating efforts to target policy. Finally, while governments can, in theory, choose who enters, increasingly their pool of candidates is determined by the choices of other actors, whose criteria may not support the same policy objectives.

Despite the complexity, a successful policy response can be made.

The experience of OECD member countries yields insights into ways of better managing labour migration for economic growth, while addressing the changing, increasingly complex policy landscape. Fundamental policy elements and proven good practice will help manage labour migration better regardless of the political, economic and social settings.

Start with a clear labour migration framework and objectives, address possible trade-offs…

Although labour migration is primarily about meeting the needs of employers, it sits at the nexus of a number of different objectives: short-term labour needs, long-term demographic and labour force development, wider economic development, investment and trade policy, sector-specific policy, innovation and productivity, and development co-operation – to name but a few. One objective may suggest measures which run counter to another one, requiring an assessment of the trade-offs and promoting coherence across policy domains.

… and ensure there is policy coherence.

Policy actors in areas related to migration should, at all times, co-ordinate to ensure policy coherence, especially with relation to domestic education and training. While overall labour migration brings benefits, not all groups benefit equally. Some may even be negatively affected, which requires compensatory policies.

Make sure policies are informed by in-depth knowledge of the labour market and its needs.

Management of labour migration requires a clear understanding of how the labour market is evolving. Such understanding is important for regulating temporary migration for short-term needs and planning longer-term labour migration. Long- and short-term needs, in turn, require an understanding of how – in which regions, sectors, and occupations – demand and supply are changing, and what longer-term labour market prospects are likely.

Adapt visa categories to today's realities.

Many migrants go through multiple status changes once in the host country. Most of those with permanent residence rights were previously temporary. Yet permanent status is no guarantee that they will stay. Visa categories need to reflect the realities of today. Status change criteria should be clarified from the beginning so that employers and migrants understand the pathways to and requirements for transition to permanent residence and naturalisation. Countries should ensure that their statistical systems capture status changes and monitor how different programmes contribute to temporary and permanent stay.

The policy toolbox for meeting these goals contains both old and new elements.

Once a country has drawn up its migration policy framework it has a number of tools it can use to achieve the objectives it has set. Some tools will have been tried and tested, and others will be recent innovations. The tools that policy makers use vary, but setting clear goals makes it easier for them not only to pick the right tools but to evaluate them and explain them to the public. Whatever migration toolbox they assemble, they should consider the key tools discussed below.

Numerical limits are appealing but susceptible to public opinion and difficult to set.

Setting caps on numbers of immigrants is a domestic employment safeguard and a powerful way to reassure public opinion. However, headline numbers may contribute to over-politicising labour migration debates and ultimately to making systems less flexible. The methods of setting numerical limits vary across countries and generally mix quantitative indicators with reviews and stakeholders' viewpoints. In some countries, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, caps are an absolute ceiling. Most

settlement countries set numerical targets that are based on long-term forecasts and processing capacity. Another downside to numerical limits is that, when demand outstrips availability, not everyone is successful, and picking winners can be difficult. Lotteries are one way to do that, but they do not select the best candidates. Rankings may be preferable, but are complex to design and manage. One solution might be the recently introduced "expression of interest" system, where eligible candidates are picked from a pool so that admissions are managed within the set limit.

Charging higher costs for international recruitments may achieve a similar safeguard effect.

Ensuring fairness in the local labour market involves making sure that not only local workers know about job vacancies but that recruiting abroad should not be employers' first choice. Higher costs, longer delays, and other obstacles can indirectly steer employers towards choosing local workers first. The fees that labour migrants and employers are charged range from zero to many thousands of dollars across OECD countries. Only a few countries, such as Israel, deliberately charge high fees to discourage employers from recruiting foreign workers. Fees do not, in fact, put employers off hiring long-term, highly paid workers. Nor does it deter them from recruiting workers where there are acute skills shortages. Although it may make sense for employers to pay more for longer-term permits, long processing times are usually more of a concern to them than fees.

Labour market tests provide a case-specific means of protecting local workers, but they are difficult to put into practice.

Labour market tests (LMTs) are another way to ensure local workers' precedence over recruits from abroad and to avert any adverse effects on the local labour market. Many countries require employers to advertise vacancies, usually with public employment services. Despite decades of experience with labour market tests, there is still debate, even controversy, over their efficiency and about how to address the trade-off between the need for prompt responses to job vacancies and the need to give locals the opportunity to see and apply for a job first. Advertising requirements are in place in most labour market tests, although the question of where to advertise and how long – and what to do if local applicants are turned down – remains controversial. Labour market tests, to be legitimate, should be designed to ensure employers make real efforts to fill positions locally and to reflect the way vacancies are effectively filled.

A shortage occupation list can focus on immediate and longer term needs.

Shortage occupation lists are useful instruments under certain circumstances. When they express short-term needs, they complement LMTs, providing the grounds for exempting employers from the tests or facilitating foreign recruitment. When their focus is on long-term needs, they provide the facts for employing migrant workers and for determining whether an application is eligible. They supply the public with evidence that

migration is targeted and not indiscriminate. Lists are, however, exposed to pressure from interest groups and may deter employers from investing in training workers for occupations where they have ready access to labour through shortage lists. Potential migrants may "game" shortage occupation lists to identify easier channels of entry. Most such risks can, however, be averted by transparent processes and the use of empirical evidence. Longer-term shortage lists should focus on occupations where there are structural shortages.

A "points-based" selection system is only as good as the parameters it includes and the weights it assigns.

Points-based selection is a feature of migration systems in around 10 OECD countries. In itself, a points-based system is simply a way to apply multiple, variously weighted criteria, rather than a guarantee of selecting or favouring the most promising candidates. Designing an efficient points system takes time and should be built on evidence that explains what makes migrants succeed in the labour market. Otherwise, a points system may not ensure migrants end up in employment, especially when it allows migrant candidates into a country without a job offer. The points-based system may, however, help further other goals, and can be used as an incentive to encourage workers to learn the language or acquire country-specific skills (either before they enter or after), if doing so improves their status or otherwise facilitates their integration.

Salary thresholds are a good proxy for skills but cannot be the only admission criteria.

When qualifications are difficult to assess or where they do not exist for a specific occupation, salary thresholds are a useful gauge of a job's skill level. However, salary thresholds, when applied together with other qualification criteria, may penalise younger workers. While salary tiers add complexity, lower thresholds for younger workers make sense. Thresholds also require follow-up to ensure that the employer has indeed paid the promised salary.

Job-search visas can be introduced competitively and gradually.

Job-search visas are a way to admit into a country talented people – especially young people – without experience or a job offer, who would otherwise not be able to enter. The experience with job-search visas has been mixed. Resource-intensive selection procedures have not always led to the selection of good candidates. It is difficult to ensure the departure of recipients of job-search visas who fail to find work. Such visas should therefore be introduced as capped pilots to test the selection criteria and outcomes. Nonetheless, a job-search visa can be a good addition to a skill-oriented labour migration policy, although it is important that both the public and the immigrants themselves understand that not all visa recipients will be successful, and those who do not find a qualifying job will have to leave the host country.

Investor programmes need oversight.

Most OECD countries have visas for investors who bring substantial capital, although evidence suggests that not all programmes yield the hoped-for benefits, especially when thresholds or requirements are low. Due diligence on the origins of funds can be particularly challenging and require considerable oversight.

International cultural exchange programmes can have significant labour market effects.

Some discretionary migration channels are not primarily designed for labour migration, but are nevertheless a sizable labour supply. Working holiday programmes and youth mobility programmes are examples. The employment component in these lightly regulated programmes has grown, especially as more origin countries are involved. As the source countries and time spent in work and on holiday changes, the cumulative impact of such programmes on labour markets, especially on local youth employment, must be monitored. International students offer another such example as most of them will be allowed to work at least part-time during their studies.

International students can be better utilised in labour migration streams.

International graduate students are an appealing source of highly skilled recruits, since they generally speak the language of the destination country and employers understand their qualifications. Not all OECD countries, however, specifically consider international students in their labour migration planning channels. Conditions are more favourable for international students than for foreign recruits in many OECD countries, but there is often room for increasing post-graduation stay rates. However, restrictions on the types of jobs which allow students to stay on could be relaxed in most OECD countries for graduates with excellent language skills or fields of study where job prospects are good and shortages noted. Clearer information about staying on after graduation could be provided prior to enrolment and before graduation to better ensure that students who are interested in remaining do not miss their chance. In light of the demand for medium-skill occupations that are hard to fill, countries with apprenticeship systems should allow potential workers to enter apprenticeship pathways with the promise of being able to stay upon completion – even if their qualifications are below those of skilled migrant programmes.

Bilateral agreements have a role to play in managing less skilled labour migration, addressing specific skills needs…

Bilateral agreements in the field of labour migration are particularly suited for temporary and less skilled migration when supply from abroad is much greater than demand, and where job requirements are less specific than in professions and trades. However, the supply-demand imbalance heightens the risk of rent seeking, increases the incentive to

overstay, and makes labour migrants vulnerable. Bilateral agreements can address those risks and improve oversight of recruitment and working conditions. They are not easy to arrange, though, and work best when negotiated with multiple partners.

… and in reducing the risk of illegal migration.

A persistent challenge in many OECD countries has been to ensure that illegal recruitment channels are controlled. The risk may be higher for the less skilled and lower wage-occupations, where there are more aspiring immigrants than jobs available and the risk of illegal employment practices is greater. Yet it also applies to other categories, including intra-corporate transfers, business visa holders, and international students who work. Bilateral agreements have been used to test selection and compliance in seasonal programmes. Temporary programmes for longer periods have also been trialled with the emphasis on key features – a large roster of approved candidates, a strong management and oversight system, and non-punitive compliance incentives. Such programmes are expensive to run, but reduce costs associated with irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreigners.

It may be necessary to regularise irregular migrants to correct past shortcomings in labour migration frameworks.

The best means to avoid irregular migration is to provide labour migration programmes that meet demand while preventing the illegal employment of foreigners. Where programmes have been unable to meet those conditions and numbers of undocumented labour migrants have ballooned, it may be necessary to regularise them along with policy reform. Regularisation is difficult to design and manage, but evidence suggests that clear rules and a realistic means of maintaining the post-regularisation legal status are successful elements. One alternative to broad one-off regularisation programmes is to grant status on the basis of a history of employment. It could slow the growth in undocumented labour migrants, especially where they fill structural gaps in the labour market.

Dynamic management means not setting mechanisms in stone.

One lesson of the crisis years is that the levers of labour migration policy can be adjusted to useful effect without necessarily forcing a reversal of the policy infrastructure. The dynamic management of migration also means discarding or modifying tools in the policy toolbox as the situation requires, while keeping a focus on the policy objectives. It is important not to set mechanisms in stone, create path dependency, or confuse the mechanism with the goal it is meant to achieve.

Evaluation and monitoring must be built into the process.

As policy experimentation leads to complex and rapidly adjusted initiatives, it may occasionally outstrip the capacity to evaluate. Indeed, many of today's labour migration programmes have not been evaluated. Once goals are set, it is important to evaluate whether a programme is achieving its goals. Investing in an evaluation and monitoring capability is vital to informing choices more effectively. In this context pilot programmes can be useful for testing whether a programme can achieve its goals and building public consensus around initiatives.

Countries should play to their unique advantages.

While all OECD countries are interested in attracting labour migrants, not all are competing for the same type or have the same benefits to offer. Yet almost all OECD countries have comparative advantages which they can leverage to attract certain migrants. Understanding the economic and non-economic factors that draw migrants can help countries target their policies towards those most likely to contribute to economic growth. Strength may lie in quality of life, gender equality, safety, education opportunities, work/life balance, language, innovation, and many other factors.

Good policy requires sound implementation and service infrastructure…

Proper rationalisation of procedures and customer-focused delivery help realise policy intent more effectively. Smart tools, adequately trained staff, well signposted information, and the means and the will to ensure compliance make the migration process work better for all actors.

… and stakeholder involvement, especially employers, educators, and intermediaries.

Compliance with regulations governing migration applies to all stakeholders. It is clearly easier to enforce, however, if rules meet stakeholders' needs. That is especially true for the principal direct beneficiaries of labour migration in destination countries – employers. Ensuring that they have a voice in the decision-making process is critical. Compliance mechanisms need also to be developed with trade unions. Similarly, recruitment agents and immigration advisers play an influential role in sustaining the supply chain and need to be included in oversight and integrity measures. While a number of OECD countries have regulated labour migration intermediaries, they are not indispensable. Transparency and simplicity can reduce the need for them.

Target groups would benefit from improving employer-worker matching.

The bulk of OECD countries admit labour migrants only, or mostly, with a job offer in hand. In countries aiming to access international talent and meet demand which cannot be satisfied locally, employers are not always active in going global. There are a number of means of doing so, and matching tools can help. Matching tools can include pools of candidates selected either with public infrastructure or through private agencies. SMEs would benefit especially from assistance in identifying candidates, since they do not have the advantages of larger firms (HR departments, economies of scale, a reputation with candidates) or multinationals (who further benefit from a shared language and existing pools of recruits). As a matter of fairness, favourable conditions for intra-company transfers should not be at the expense of efforts to support access to recruits by small firms.

Simple, transparent procedures ease the processing burden and improve equality of access.

Admission categories vary enormously from one country to another. Transparency, however, remains a criterion for evaluating systems and a benchmark for all users of the system. Clear criteria reduce refusal rates and lower costs. SMEs report the most difficulty in filling positions and benefit most from better information, orientation, and simpler processes. The involvement of intermediaries in procedures can be an indicator that the system is too complex for users.

Use technology better to improve processing times, customer service, and compliance.

The processing of migrants' applications should seek to move as many processes as possible online and collate the key information (education, occupation, region of employment, and applicants' wage data) necessary for efficiency, integrity, risk triage and analysis. The use of technology also allows applicants to track their applications and status and reduce the risk of rent-taking by private intermediaries.

Fees can be used in a more targeted way.

Migration involves high costs, but in most OECD countries they are further inflated by intermediaries. Simplifying procedures and making them more transparent can reduce the role of mediators and allow some of the associated costs to be recovered by public agencies for investment in service quality. Processing efficiency can also be supported by charging higher filing costs for paper applications, for example.

There is little justification for a labour migration backlog in today's world.

In countries where selection processes are restrictive, the large number of eligible migrants often leads to backlogs. Backlogs prevent new applications, put countries at a disadvantage in competing for workers, increase processing costs, and reduce public support for the migration system in general. Recently developed mechanisms to avoid backlogs – rankings and expressions of interest – can also be a solution to issues of fairness. When candidates have broadly similar profiles, lotteries ensure equity because all are equal in a game of chance. Participants may not necessarily support that solution.

Countries with no language basin abroad may have to provide incentives and support for labour migrants to learn their language, before or after arrival.

For many countries, language skills are the single largest barrier for businesses trying to draw on a global talent pool. For English-speaking countries, and to a lesser extent French and Spanish-speaking countries, labour migration is much facilitated by the wide pool of language speakers in origin countries. For other countries, language learning is a country-specific investment which can improve outcomes, productivity, employer satisfaction, and retention. Strong interest in migration in origin translates into a willingness to invest in language training if it enhances migration opportunities. This willingness can be leveraged to expand language knowledge prior to migration. There is a role for public involvement in supporting language infrastructure in the country of origin and helping employers arrange workplace language training once migrants have arrived.

Employer compliance mechanisms are essential, especially for employers of migrants in less skilled occupations.

Employer-driven admission is based on the conditions of employment. Review of job conditions and employer legitimacy generally occurs prior to first approval, and follow-up in many countries is less thorough. Yet tax records and more active reviews can ensure that workers are properly paid and safeguards respected. For employment in less skilled occupations, where the potential for abuse is greater, close supervision is required, including site visits. Temporary programmes – including, but not limited to, seasonal programmes – can include exit interviews and other forms of enforcement. Some countries have adopted sponsorship approval, introduced systems to favour high compliance, or worked with trusted employers.

Box 3.1. **Key policy principles for labour migration management**

Develop a clear labour migration framework

- Be aware of multiple goals, both economic and otherwise, and communicate goals and trade-offs explicitly.
- Prioritise goals and ensure policy coherence from a labour migration perspective, taking into account domestic education and training and labour market effects.
- Ensure visa categories take into account multi-step migration and the passage from temporary to permanent migration.
- Base labour migration objectives on knowledge of the labour market and its changing demands. Build flexibility into tools.

Assemble a policy toolbox that has a range of instruments for different objectives

- Design labour market tests and their complement – shortage lists – in response to how vacancies are really filled.
- Pilot job-search visas for labour migrants who do not fit into traditional categories with the knowledge that not all recipients will be successful, and that those who are not will have to leave.
- Introduce matching tools to complement the market for certain regions, occupations, and employers.
- Leverage the interest in migration in origin countries to promote language and vocational training specific to the destination country.
- Curb illegal migration by considering legal recruitment channels – including bilateral agreements and post-entry follow-up – for occupations where illegal employment is a problem.

Improve admission criteria and adopt a dynamic approach to migration management

- Use skill thresholds for migration which take into account the whole spectrum of skills.
- Use salary thresholds as a proxy for skills where other means of verification are inadequate, but fine-tune them so that they take into account age differences and other factors.
- Calibrate the points and weights in points-based systems using empirical evidence of which attributes contribute to sustainable employment and longer-term positive outcomes.
- Conduct evaluation to inform public discourse and feed results back into policy design and the choice of appropriate tools.

Modernise service infrastructure

- Rationalise procedures, focus delivery on the customer, ensure trained staff, and signpost information.
- Make pathways and chances of transition transparent and upfront for both migrants and employers.
- Where possible deploy online technologies and, over other channels, provide incentives for their use in order to reap maximum efficiency gains and minimise the burden on migrants and administrative staff.
- Charge employers and migrants proportionately for client services and use revenues to improve capability for processing and decision making.
- Ensure compliance mechanisms are in place, especially for employers dealing with vulnerable workers.

Introduction

With public opinion and a wide range of stakeholders closely scrutinising the way it is managed, labour migration is a high-stakes issue. It is no surprise, then, that most OECD countries have been adjusting, reforming, and even reformulating their migration policies at an accelerating rate.

However, policy making is difficult in today's labour migration landscape, for it is more challenging than in previous decades. The nature of labour market demand has changed, with skills mismatches now mattering more than general manpower shortages. Post-crisis labour demand has grown in some areas but remains very slack in others. Migrants cut a more diverse profile than ever before, coming from a wider range of countries and different education and skills backgrounds. In expanded free movement areas, discretionary labour migration now merely complements the larger, more fluid labour supply.

The policy environment in all OECD countries is marked by public scrutiny of migration and its outcomes. Never before has there been so much information about the number and nature of migrants, their employment choices, and outcomes. Public opinion demands greater accountability from policy choices, even as it becomes more difficult to sift through evaluations and statistics.

Most immigrants come not to work, but for family and humanitarian reasons or from freedom of movement areas. While about 600 000 permanent labour migrants arrive annually in OECD countries, they account for less than 40% of migration in European countries and for 13% in the rest of the world. Temporary labour migration – which includes seasonal workers and working holiday makers – runs at higher levels – some 2 million workers annually.

However, even if labour migration is not the largest channel, it is often the most visible. It is also the one most closely associated with policy choices, since it is directly under government control and regulation.

The management of labour migration cannot stand still in the face of structural changes in the labour market and the make-up of the working-age population, in demographic trends, and in growing competition. At the same time, not all policy changes have been successful and, given the risks of poorly managed labour migration – first and foremost, irregular immigration – it is essential that policy be based on what has proven effective.

This chapter discusses the choices facing policy makers and the solutions they have tried or are exploring for the first time. No OECD country allows completely unrestricted entry or recruitment, just as none locks its doors to international recruitment. Yet on the continuum between those two extremes, the distribution of policy settings is, unsurprisingly, very wide. The question is not so much whether more or less migration is the right choice, but what goals are appropriate for labour migration policy, and how they can be achieved while minimising risks and maximising returns.

Rather than a how-to guide for admitting foreign workers, the chapter seeks to identify the major shifts in the labour migration landscape that policy making must incorporate, the competing policy goals it must balance, and how different tools can help achieve its set objectives.

The changing landscape of labour migration

Migration to OECD countries in a context of structural change

Some structural features underlie the labour migration landscape. Although the general demographic scenario in OECD countries has changed little in the past five years, population ageing is still a concern in most European and Asian OECD countries. By 2020, retiree cohorts are projected to be, on average, 17% larger than youth cohorts across the OECD, with the gap much wider in some countries than others.

In Germany and Japan, for example, population ageing is already a driving factor in the changing labour force and behind the search for adequate activation policies for the years to come. And although it is not a major consideration in the medium term elsewhere, the general issue of demography nevertheless looms in the background.

While migration already contributes to population growth – 59% between 2002 and 2012 across the OECD – it is not a solution to population ageing, as migrants themselves age. It can, however, cushion the impact when combined with other policies. Changes in the nature of employment and labour market participation are more dynamic than those in the population and labour force (OECD, 2012c) which are relatively slower and more predictable. Not only is there now a substantial margin for increasing the employment rates of women and older people, the current downturn has also seen youth unemployment soar. Such labour market slack delays the urgency of counteracting ageing.

Another structural issue is the changing nature of skills in labour supply and demand. Demand is shifting towards more highly skilled occupations. Over the 2000s in Europe, for example, their share of employment rose by 6%, while medium- and low-skilled jobs fell by 4% and 2%, respectively. Yet expected gaps in the labour market paint an even more complex picture. Rising educational attainment among young people in OECD countries – along with shrinking youth cohorts – is yielding smaller pools of less well educated workers just at a time when the older generation with low education levels moves into retirement. In fact, trends in the last decade and projections for OECD Europe point to a surplus of low-qualified workers becoming a deficit by 2020, as their aggregate employment drops from 60 to 40 million. The opposite is true for highly qualified workers, whose total employment is forecast to rise from 49 to 78 million, with a shortfall in supply of several million. More immediately, certain occupations remain hard to fill, suggesting a persistent problem of skills mismatches.

Today's policy landscape is more complex than in the past

Migration policy has traditionally involved a series of apparently distinct choices that reflect different underlying concepts.[2] The chief distinctions separate permanent from temporary migration, labour migration from other forms, discretionary from non-discretionary control, and highly skilled from low-skilled labour. The distinctions are indeed useful. They underlie policy planning and determine migration visa categories, permit classes, and entitlements or benefits. Legislation can reflect them clearly, and regulations – e.g. duration of permits and education admission requirements – do in fact formalise them in concrete fashion.

Discretionary and non-discretionary categories are no longer so distinct

Labour migration is discretionary because, unlike other categories of migration, governments can easily regulate and restrict it. Yet migration for employment is not about

labour migrants alone. Not only are there many non-labour migrants in the labour market, non-labour flows are built into labour supply projection models in countries such as Norway and Australia. Labour migration is also a category that encompasses many different forms of migration – ranging from traditional contract and seasonal workers and selected economic migrants to intra-corporate transfers, posted workers, and even investors, entrepreneurs, and the self-employed.

In addition, countries do not always enjoy full discretion over labour migration inflows. They have little control over the free mobility of workers (discussed below), for example, while within the European Union (EU), directives have given rise to special admission criteria for categories such as researchers, highly qualified workers, and long-term residents which member countries have less scope to restrict. Similarly, trade agreements may compel countries to accept labour migrants. The United States, for example, included its H-1B visa for temporary workers (and the L-1 visa for intra-corporate transfers) in its commitments under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) in 1994. Trade agreements may also oblige countries to introduce certain permit categories.

Finally, governments have added a wide range of conditions of entry to categories such as family and humanitarian migration, even though they were traditionally considered non-discretionary. While family reunification is often rights-based, there are numerous economic and integration criteria which may now affect the ability of sponsors to bring family members into a host country.

Free mobility for employment complicates European labour migration

Expanding areas of free movement – particularly in Europe but also between Australia and New Zealand – limit room for manoeuvre in labour migration policies (OECD, 2012b). Policy makers must take into account not only the labour supply within their own borders, but within the broader freedom-of-movement area to which they belong. Flows can be substantial, both in absolute terms and relative to labour migration. In Europe, at least one-half of free movement is for employment and, in some European countries – Austria, Switzerland and Norway, for example – it far exceeds discretionary labour migration flows (Figure 3.1).[3]

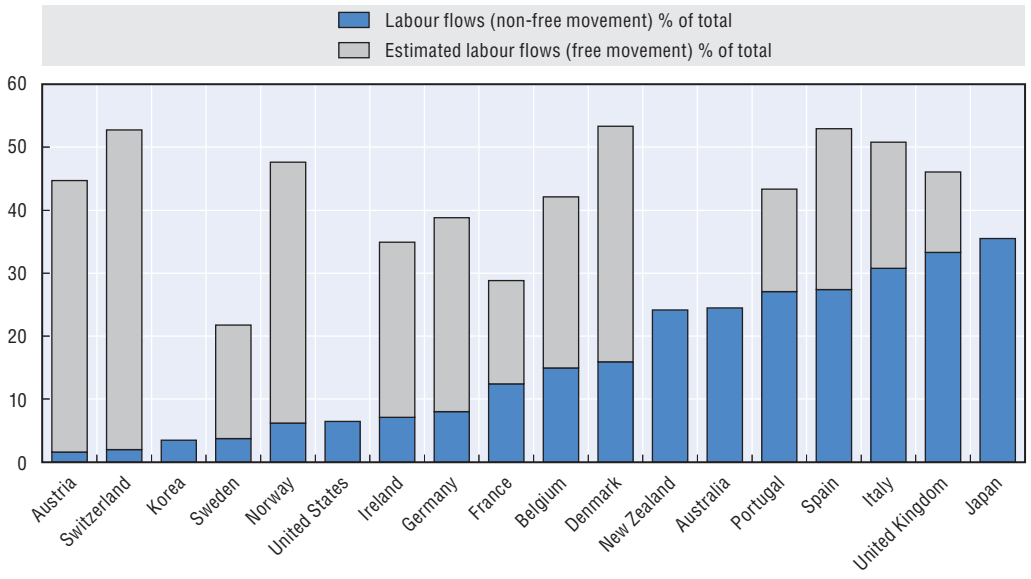
The free movement of labour is not subject to restrictions on occupation, duration or employer characteristics. In practice, it has generally filled lower- and medium-skilled occupations in most European countries. However, while it can ease labour market pressure at times of low unemployment, it can also complicate efforts to identify jobs that cannot be filled locally, since workers from anywhere in a free movement area could be recruited.

Within free mobility areas, workers face lower migration costs and few obstacles to their freedom of movement. Indeed they are more likely than other migrants to relocate when employment conditions change (Jauer et al., 2014). Yet freedom of movement for employment has shown significant shifts in a number of European countries in recent years, which have not always reflected changes in labour migration flows (Figure 3.2).

While Southern European countries and Ireland saw labour migration decline in 2012 relative to the previous five years, free movement for employment fell less steeply. In Germany, it was much higher in 2012 than in previous years, while labour migration – widely limited to employment in occupations requiring tertiary qualifications – was constant. In Sweden, where all occupations are open to both labour and free-mobility migrants, the former increased sharply, while the latter did not.

Figure 3.1. **Labour migration as a share of total migration to selected OECD destination countries, 2007-12 average**

Percentages

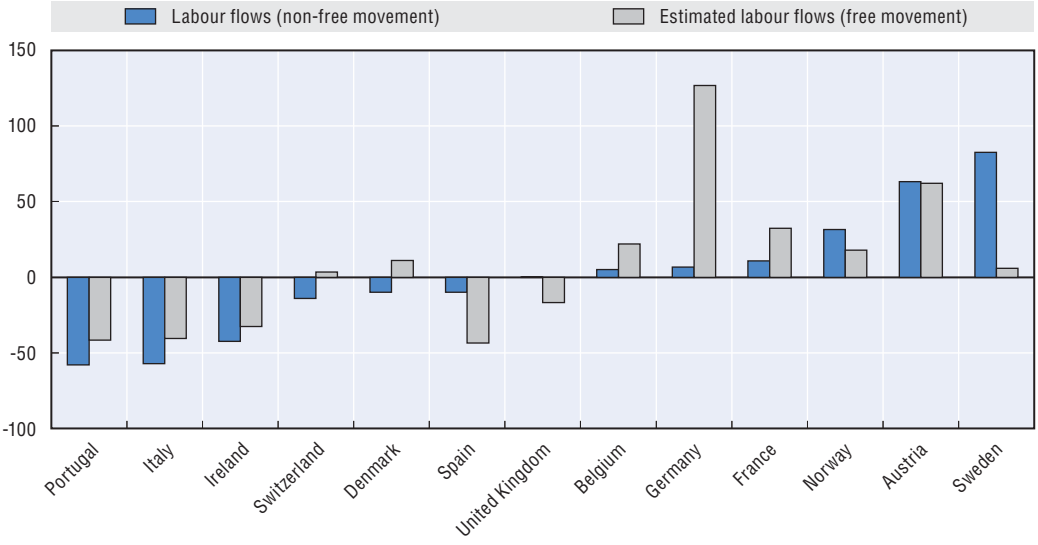


Note: Half of free movements are estimated to be employment related for EU countries. Exceptions where data are available: Sweden (52%), Denmark (65%), Switzerland (66%) and Norway (66%). For Australia and New Zealand, no estimates are available, and free movement is not shown.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157673

Figure 3.2. **Labour migration and free movement for employment, change between 2007-11 average and 2012, selected European OECD countries**

Percentages



Note: Half of free movements are estimated to be employment related for EU countries. Exceptions, where data are available, are Sweden (52%), Denmark (65%), Switzerland (66%) and Norway (66%).
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157685

Such varying trends raise the question of how to factor free movement for employment into the design and management of labour migration systems. Public opinion often does not distinguish between the two, even though policy makers have very different degrees of control over them.

The division between "high skills" and "low skills" is ill defined

The first distinction that practice has blurred is the one between highly and low-skilled migration. Skills generally lie on a continuum, and any classification into discrete skill levels is to some degree arbitrary. The skills that today's occupations require are more varied than in the past, and some contexts may call for mixes. What's more, traditional markers based on educational attainment do not work well all the time. For example, the skills sought by employers are not always conferred by tertiary-level education, and tertiary-level education is not necessarily a guarantee or proof of possessing certain skills. In short, the skills required by a job may not match those of the person doing the job, which in turn may not map directly to formal qualifications.

Skill classifications of occupations are still a relevant tool to policymakers, however. According to the 2013 OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), there is a positive correlation between the frequency of skills use in an occupation and the skills level generally associated with respondents' occupations. Workers in highly skilled occupations are more likely to utilise key information-processing skills like literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving in their jobs than those in medium-skilled positions. At the same time, literacy proficiency is positively correlated with educational attainment, with better-qualified individuals earning higher scores than their lower-qualified peers. In a nutshell, then, qualifications do reflect actual skills, and occupational skills requirements are markedly different across the board.

However, formal qualifications are less useful in indicating an individual's ability to perform specific tasks. The 2013 PIAAC survey shows that, for example, some countries (Italy, Spain, and the United States) rank much higher internationally in the proportion of 25-34-year-olds with tertiary attainment than they do in literacy and numeracy rankings for the same age group. Conversely, Japanese and Dutch 25-34-year-olds who have only completed high school tend to outperform Italian or Spanish university graduates of the same age. The survey results also suggest real differences in the relevance and quality of education in different countries, and that skills boundaries and their relationship to traditional markers or proxies are shifting.[4] This has significance for the way in which countries identify skill needs or shortages and the related immigration policies that specify qualifications in admission criteria.

It has always been more difficult to assess immigrants' skills than the qualifications and experience of natives. The difficulty affects immigrant labour market outcomes, the ability of employers to recruit from abroad, and labour migrants' opportunities to use their qualifications. One paradox is that many labour migration programmes aimed at low-skilled workers have attracted those who are highly skilled or, at least, highly educated. For example, 13.4% of "non-professional" workers in Korea's employment permit system (EPS) hiring scheme actually have tertiary qualifications.

There are therefore two challenges to labour migration policies founded on rigid skills classifications:

- Assessing skills accurately.
- Setting thresholds for highly skilled workers and limits on their low-skilled peers.

The distinction between temporary and permanent does not always reflect migrant pathways

The distinction between temporary and permanent migrants has also become increasingly blurred in practice. Effective return rates by migrants' lengths of stay are similar, regardless of whether they are granted temporary (renewable) or permanent status. Depending on the destination and period of residence being considered, international studies find that between 20% and 60% re-migrate within five years of taking up residence in a host country (OECD, 2008c). Recent findings for New Zealand confirm the trend. They reveal that around one-quarter of the country's skilled permanent migrants headed elsewhere within five years of settling (Krassoi-Peach, 2013). Retaining permanent immigrants is a growing policy concern in a number of countries.

Migrants admitted on a temporary basis, on the other hand, often stay on. Migrant numbers have been steadily increasing in most European countries, even though they offer only renewable temporary permits to first-time arrivals. In practice, they eventually grant permanent residence to temporary migrants who have stayed for an extended period and meet criteria. In Italy, in 2013, of all resident non-EU migrants who had stayed at least five years in the country, about one-half had acquired permanent status. Figures were similar for Spain. Overall, there were more than 7.2 million non-EU citizens holding long-term residence permits in European OECD countries in 2012.[5]

The high proportion of status changes within OECD countries indicate that many temporary migrants eventually acquire permanent or quasi-permanent status. In 2012 in the United States, around 89% of employment-based Green Card approvals were issued to foreigners already in the country. One-half of the principal applicants that Australia admitted permanently as skilled migrants in 2011-12, were already onshore (in the country). In 2011, under Tier 1 of the United Kingdom's points-based system for highly skilled migrants, 88% of visas and extensions were issued to main applicants already in the country (OECD, 2013c). As for New Zealand, 87% of skilled permanent migrants approved in 2012-13 were already in the country with a different status.

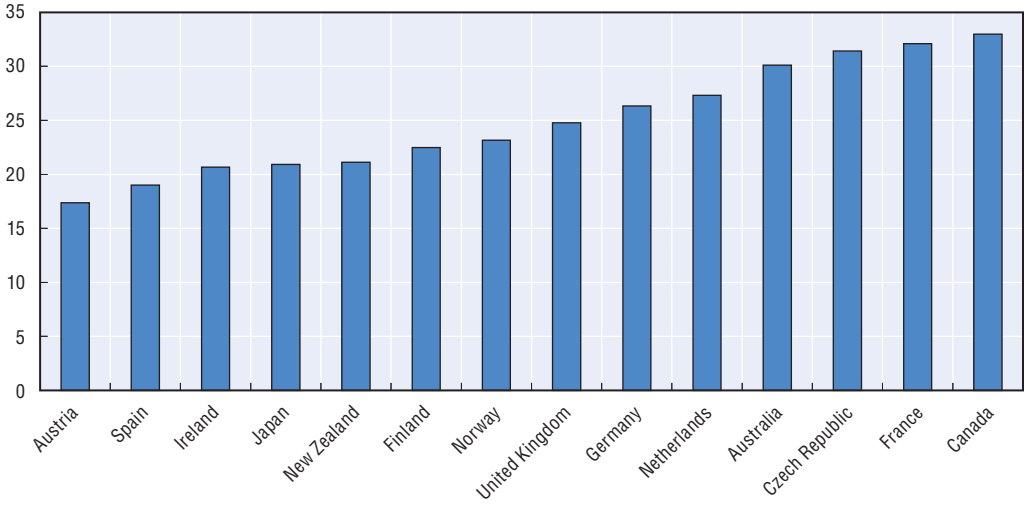
There is still a clear role for time-limited stays. These include seasonal contracts, longer-term temporary residence and intra-company transfers (ICTs). Yet the temporary-to-permanent track is an increasingly prevalent model that accounts for a growing share of permanent migrants. One example of how distinctions blur is that of two- and multiple-step migration, where migrants who first stayed on time-limited visas (students, time-limited temporary workers, even working holiday makers) then transition to permanent status, either directly or through a series of temporary visas.

Students are temporary migrants, yet many stay beyond their studies (Figure 3.3). In most countries where it is possible to work out the numbers of such students, the stay rate ranges between 20% and 30% (OECD, 2011d). And while not all end up settling permanently, they are among the migrants who are most likely to.

In sum, then, permanent and temporary status do not alone determine whether labour migrants remain. Put another way, offering permanent residence to some categories of immigrants and restricting others to temporary status does not condition whether they will stay or go.

Figure 3.3. **International students changing status and staying on in selected OECD countries, 2008 or 2009**

Percentages



Note: Data for European countries cover 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/10.1787/888933157693

Demand is a growing factor in supply-driven migration, and vice versa

In "demand-driven" migration, it is essentially the employer who decides whom to hire from abroad as labour migrants, offering them a contract which entitles them to enter and stay in a country. "Supply-driven" migration is where the host country invites or admits immigrants without a job offer. As the numbers of eager candidates are generally high, there is some selection and limiting of numbers. In practice, it is increasingly difficult to find a purely supply- or demand-driven system. Employers tend to prefer the demand side, as they can choose and sponsor their own recruits. Supply-driven migration, however, makes workers immediately available on the labour market and grants them full contractual freedom.

Supply-driven models prevailed in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the 1980s and 1990s. While the selection system is meant to pick immigration applicants likely to be successful, evaluations have revealed their faltering labour market outcomes. One of the main explanations has been the rising share of migrants selected on the basis of qualifications, but whose education and experience were obtained in a non-OECD country. As a result, countries are now placing greater emphasis on foreigners having a job in hand or on employability proven by experience in the country.

In European OECD countries and in Asia, demand-driven migration has been the rule. Yet small-scale supply-driven measures have been introduced. Denmark and the Netherlands have introduced points-based systems for issuing conditional job-search visas, while Germany has instituted a job-search visa for university graduates. The United Kingdom takes employer demand as the key criterion for admission under Tier 2 of its points-based immigration system, while also using points to rate migrants' longer-term employability and allot permits within a quota.

Such practices reflect the fact that most employers do not recruit directly from abroad, but from the foreign-born population resident in the country. The special module in the European Union's 2008 Labour Force Survey (LFS) indicates that 66.3% of foreign-born labour migrants entered without a job offer in hand, even in countries where it was a condition.[6] The same held true even for the highly educated.

To recapitulate: supply-driven systems now take into account employer demand and job offers while, on the demand side, governments have added increasingly elaborate filters to pick out workers most likely to succeed over time. Certainly, not all OECD countries have gone hybrid, but ever fewer use job offers alone as grounds for leave to enter.

The four paradoxes of migration policy

It is no surprise that the labour migration landscape has changed. Migratory flows have always shown ups and downs in response to economic, social, political and demographic conditions. Some underlying trends have long been clear – changes in population growth, for example, in OECD countries. Other developments are less predictable, such as political changes in countries of origin, the increasingly multipolar global economy, and the emergence of new occupations and engines of growth. Nonetheless, with a few exceptions, the policy driver in the past five years has not been concern over shrinking working-age populations, but specific demand for workers and rising concern over competition for global talent.

The last five years have laid bare a number of paradoxes in migration policy:

- Despite the focus of public opinion and policy makers on discretionary labour migration, it accounts for a small share of migrants going into employment.
- Although policy makers have emphasised selection from abroad and the global competition for talent, the bulk of employers recruit foreign-born workers on the domestic labour market.
- Policies focus on global, highly skilled talented incomers, yet have a hard time accurately identifying them (in part because of wide discrepancies between skills and education levels). Yet employers report demand for medium-skilled occupations.
- Temporary and permanent residence remain the main conceptual categories in the minds of policy makers. Yet changes in status have become steadily more frequent, and how to retain talented permanent migrants is a growing policy consideration.

Policy makers should bear in mind the four paradoxes when determining labour migration goals and matching instruments to them. The next section addresses precisely the issue of setting migration policy goals.

Setting and balancing goals for migration policy intervention

This section discusses the policy goals to which labour migration policy can contribute, and how policy makers may articulate and reconcile them.

Policy trade-offs in labour migration

The primary goal of labour migration is essentially to contribute to an effective labour supply and so provide economic benefits. Yet labour migration policy has an array of goals, not all economic and many linked or contrasting. As policy makers and stakeholders share some and differ over other goals, balancing them involves trade-offs and tensions – both within labour migration policy and relative to other policy objectives.

Ideally, foreign workers should complement local workers, rather than substituting or displacing them, or otherwise having an adverse impact on the labour market. In practice, perfect complementarity is hard to achieve. The policy challenge is thus to ensure a labour supply while limiting any adverse effects. Although a basic policy objective, it is a complex task.

Labour migration can contribute to some broad goals – in full or in part. For example, national and regional demographic policy helps to structure labour migration policy. Economic development aims – such as stimulating industry, innovation, and investment – help guide labour migration policy choices. Weighing the trade-offs between those choices is the policy maker's challenge.

Policy objectives may seem obvious at first glance and unfettered by any serious trade-offs. Yet trade-offs lurk. Even a core goal as straightforward as "meeting labour needs" requires that specific objectives be articulated. Is the goal of labour migration to meet specific shortages as they arise or to increase overall labour supply? The latter may mean that, even in times of slack labour markets, migration can still address the goal of contributing to future growth, innovation, or productivity. The trade-off here is, for example, to accept periods of higher unemployment in exchange for expected longer-term growth.

Similarly, an objective may be to support the expansion of talent pools. In recent years, countries have widely leveraged labour migration as a means to increase numbers of highly qualified workers, especially in the health sector, science and technology, and mathematics. The goal may draw on a perception or finding that there are too few local graduates in those disciplines. It may also assume that employers will utilise the new labour supply well. The trade-off here is to use migration instead of creating incentives for local training opportunities in order to build a skilled labour supply. A further trade-off is accepting the risk that such a supply may not be utilised as planned.

Countries that seek to meet the goal of increasing the overall labour supply rather than fill individual vacancies may apply it only to specific skills rather than to the entire skills spectrum. Such an approach is in fact in place in much of the OECD and entails confining labour migration to skilled individuals and those who boast high levels of education. The underlying assumption is that any unemployed local worker should be able to fill vacancies for low-skilled positions. The result is a trade-off between the goal of keeping low-skilled labour migration in check and supporting certain economic activities. Concern to ensure the labour supply may outweigh fears over unemployment. It is worth noting in that respect that some OECD countries with no labour migration skills thresholds have chosen not to impose them even when there are high levels of unemployment among less educated workers, both foreign- and native-born.

While labour migration is primarily about labour supply, the reverse is not true. The domestic population – and its education and training pathways – is and will remain the main source of labour in all OECD countries. The goal of delivering a labour supply guides policy choice in immigration for employment, but is also linked to the level of investment in local education, training, and upskilling. Drawing on international immigrant labour may lessen opportunities for local training and its value, and affect the goals of upskilling and coaxing local youth into certain industries.

Meeting labour demand through migration also means responding to changing labour market conditions. Labour migration may be an easy tap to loosen when the employment market is tight and to tighten when conditions change, but workers who have been allowed

into a host country do not disappear when their jobs do. The employment crisis in many OECD countries in the late 2000s saw policymakers struggle to balance the temporary, conditional nature of some labour migration schemes with the goal of not penalising migrants during a downturn that was no fault of theirs'. The solutions developed – extended job-search periods, assisted return programmes – reflected those balancing acts.

Broader economic objectives sit alongside labour migration goals, and not always easily. As migration and trade become increasingly entwined, certain kinds of immigration may be seen as factors for competitiveness and innovation. Fostering the competitiveness of an economy by opening it up to highly skilled migration exposes local firms and workers to new ideas, which in turn spawns the development of new goods, services, and processes.

Labour migration can also become the subject of bargaining between countries, especially when countries of origin seek to increase their export of labour and skills. It may well be drawn in to free trade agreements (FTAs), regional economic agreements, and security co-operation accords, regardless of actual labour market demand. For example, working-holiday and youth-mobility schemes are typically negotiated as part of bilateral relations – which include trade – with no real thought for whether they square with labour market policy goals, like protecting local employment for low-skilled workers or young people. Some countries are, however, now beginning to factor labour market impacts into negotiations.

Policy must reconcile labour migration with a raft of non-economic objectives. Commitment to the development of countries of origin, for example, is increasingly cited in relation to migration, as the competition for global talent may contradict the goal of mitigating their skills deficits. Migration policy makers often state that positive development in countries of origin is a goal, albeit one that is difficult to operationalise. Sweden has taken concrete measures, such as facilitating relocations to countries of origin without forfeiting permanent residence.

Last but not least, there is the aim of developing a well defined, robust labour migration policy while maintaining the ability to respond to the unexpected. Recent history has shown how countries fare when faced with migration shocks over which they have little discretionary control, or when geo-political turmoil produces sudden influxes of migrants. Equally, people may move abroad in large numbers in search of opportunities elsewhere. In certain East European countries, for example, native-born emigration has rewritten the labour migration policy script.

Policy makers can struggle to make all the goals and trade-offs cited here explicit. Yet, wider, better understanding of what is at stake in migration policy helps define appropriate mechanisms, bring in stakeholders, and guide change when conditions evolve. That it is difficult to set goals is evident from the sheer scarcity of explicitly stated goals in legislation. Policy intent is not always clear. Nor is it any clearer how policy mechanisms are meant to work.

Arriving at a consensus on the objectives of labour migration policy can be more difficult than negotiating measures to be undertaken to achieve those objectives. In some countries, like Sweden and Norway, parliamentary commissions or white papers explicitly state goals. In Korea, the government has its Basic Plan wherein it articulates legislative and regulatory goals. Italy, like some other OECD countries, clarifies its goals in extensive preambles to its legislation. Others do not. Immigration legislation in the United States, for example, does not include statements of objectives, although executive regulations do contain explanatory preambles.[7] The different practices reflect the political culture in

individual countries, so a general guide to policy development cannot apply to all. Nonetheless, this section seeks to explore the goals that may be set and to which labour migration policy must respond.

Labour migration policy can strictly address labour market needs…

Labour migration policy can strictly address labour market needs. To do so, however, it has to set specific labour-market goals – e.g. filling vacancies, providing a complement to the domestic workforce, or righting skill mismatches. It can also seek to meet more general objectives, such as ensuring that the working age population stays roughly the same size. Indeed, that is the objective underlying permanent residence targets in most settlement countries – which are independent of specific-sector needs and formulated to contribute to balanced demographic development. The Canadian and New Zealand migration programmes are built on that rationale.

A similar objective underlies the official German government strategy adopted, in June 2011, as a "concept for securing the skilled labour base". The five-pronged strategy sets the explicit goal of sustaining the supply of skilled workers in Germany in the medium and long term in light of the decline in the working-age population. The ensuing labour migration policy decisions were designed to achieve that goal.

The objective of labour migration policy may be more specific – to secure industries or employers access to a broader pool of labour, as in seasonal work programmes and other schemes to support industries where demand is cyclical. Similarly, occupations may be the focal point. Many countries are not self-sufficient in specialist medical personnel, and there will always be a certain structural demand for their skills. Likewise, "sunrise" industries – such as information technology or high-end engineering – may struggle to find workers in their early phases of expansion.

As well as meeting demand for certain skills, labour migration policy might seek to boost the supply of workers whose skills drive innovation in, and the strategic development of, certain sectors. One frequent focus is science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM), a set of disciplines which enjoys special treatment in the migration policies of several OECD countries: the United States, where immigrants in STEM occupations benefit from flexible post-graduation leaves of stay; Germany, where STEM goes by the acronym MINT (maths, informatics, natural sciences and technology), has given foreigners with MINT skills their own residence category and listed MINT occupations as ones with skills shortages; Japan, too, has a special permit scheme for engineers. The preference for STEM graduates may be prompted by structural needs, hotly debated in some countries. It may also spring from an interest in acquiring – or even hoarding – specialised human capital for long-term comparative advantage and supporting the general science and technology ecosystem.

All the above policy objectives explicitly seek to change the supply side of the labour market. Their aim may also be to improve compliance with labour law by reducing or preventing illegal employment.

… demographic policy…

Population ageing affects many OECD countries. While migration is nowhere seen as a solution, the longer-term objective of ensuring growth influences labour migration planning. One consideration in settlement countries is how to maintain the size of the working age population. Those countries set migration targets and draw up plans

accordingly, although they define admission criteria in light of other objectives. Conversely, demographic policy might also seek to check or maintain population growth and so curb labour migration. In 2011, the United Kingdom set a goal of reducing net migration to slow the increase in the labour force – with direct consequences for all migration channels.

… and broader economic development goals…

Over and above sustaining the labour supply and contributing to demographic growth, policy has other general economic development objectives that have little to do with the labour market. One such may be to boost trade and open up markets. Many free trade agreements contain provisions on labour migration. Among recent examples are the economic partnership agreements between Japan and the Philippines and Indonesia, for example, which incorporate clauses on mobility. The United States has also tied migration opportunities to free trade in its agreements with Singapore and Chile. New Zealand has a free trade agreement with China which, while not geared to labour market demand or supply, does contain clauses on labour migration.

Another common goal is to support the education export industry. It is particularly important where fee-paying international students make a significant contribution to the economy, whether enrolled in public or private institutions. The objective of attracting international students has a direct impact on labour migration policy in that students may often work or stay on after graduation. In countries where university enrolment is declining as numbers of young people dwindle, the objective may simply be to maintain current student levels, either in order to support the education sector or sustain the supply of university graduates.

Other objectives are more to back innovation or productivity by increasing the number of highly skilled workers. The Japanese government, for example, sets a policy objective of "encouraging highly skilled non-Japanese human resources to engage in activities in Japan", as part of its 2013 Revitalisation Strategy. In Korea, the goal of "increasing overall research capacities" has translated into a 2014 target for bigger grants to researchers from abroad.

Youth mobility is another non-economic goal. The Working Holiday Maker programmes in place in a number of OECD countries are instruments primarily to increase youth mobility (including opportunities for nationals to travel abroad), raise a country's profile internationally, and create goodwill. Such programmes can make substantial contributions to the labour market – as they do in Australia, New Zealand, and the United States – even though that is not their initial purpose and they are not contingent on their contribution to the labour supply.

Policies may also have the foreign-policy objective of closer co-operation in the fight against illegal migration. It is in fact a labour migration policy objective in a number of European OECD countries, especially those on the Mediterranean coast. Italy, for example, has set-asides within its labour migration (regardless of employer preferences) for countries which co-operate in stemming the flow of illegal migration.

Development objectives, too, may be formulated in such a way that they affect labour migration policy. Bilateral agreements on co-development and migration management signed by France and a number of African countries, for example, spell out such mutual goals as containing illegal migration and preventing brain drain. Such agreements have repercussions for labour migration policy in France, but are not designed with the prime objective of increasing the labour supply.

Attracting financial capital is another economic goal that can become an increasingly two-way street and prompts movements of labour to service and bolster globalised investment. OECD countries are thus embarking on programmes that combine investment and migration.

Most offer investor visas, with a recent trend towards using them to support the real estate market – whether residential, as in Portugal, Spain or Greece, or commercial, as in Korea. The suite of investor policies reflects the desire to attract financial capital that has knock-on effects from investors' human and social capital, such as business linkages, new business processes, or entrepreneurship skills. However, investment and migration are very different animals and the limited evidence to date of the impact of programmes highlights how combining them may distort market decisions and yield fewer benefits than hoped for.

... or have little to do with economics

Many OECD countries harbour the goal of embracing far-flung national communities and/or their descendants. Measures to include co-ethnic communities from outside national boundaries can also affect labour migration policies:

- Finland has long offered preferential treatment to foreign nationals of Finnish extraction wishing to immigrate.
- Italy's labour immigration legislation incorporates a quota of South Americans of Italian origin.
- Korea grants extended work permits to foreign citizens of Korean origin.
- Germany grants favourable migration conditions to ethnic Germans living in East European countries.
- Greece admitted a large number of Pontian Greeks in the 1990s.
- In the 1990s, Japan opened up recruitment in less-skilled occupations for South Americans of Japanese descent.
- Israel proactively encourages Jews abroad to migrate to Israel. In the absence of a permanent labour migration stream, recruitment efforts focus on candidates who meet this ethnic preference.

Public support in destination countries for such programmes has traditionally been strong and draws on solidarity or a sense of belonging.

An additional non-economic goal affecting labour migration policy may be to maintain respect for certain rights. In countries where a right to family life is broadly interpreted, for example, temporary labour migration programmes which restrict family reunification are constrained in terms of duration.

Development co-operation is another non-economic aim. For example, for scholarships or grants for international students from developing countries enrolling in university in developed economies, the thinking behind such subsidies has been that students will return home with their newly formed human capital as a kind of development assistance. This can constrain the possibility to recruit them as labour migrants, and a number of OECD countries denied students who have benefited from this form of "aid" leave to remain, even when they found employment. A case in point was Norway until the early 2000s. Some countries still require students who are awarded scholarships to have the approval of their country of origin before they can receive a post-study residence permit.[8]

Political economy of labour migration policy reform

The previous section identified a number of different labour migration policy goals and discussed the importance of policy makers clarifying which ones they pursue. In the end, it is up to them to set and prioritise goals and decide what to trade off. This section examines how they do that.

There is nothing unusual about assigning different overall goals to migration policy. Political parties often express their migration policy objectives in campaigning documents, identifying broad areas, and making sweeping promises. Governments, too, may issue official statements that encompass different policy areas and achievements. The challenge is to identify and tackle trade-offs.

There are several steps to meeting the coherence challenge. The first is to make goals explicit, then to articulate the logic of policy intervention. However, even clearly articulated goals are not, in themselves, any guarantee of coherence with the instruments used to achieve them.

Mechanisms for identifying and reconciling diverging objectives can be found. They require inter-ministerial co-ordination and the involvement of different stakeholders through consultation phases, hearings, and the drafting of policy planning documents – "white papers", "green papers", "basic plans", etc. All that is a political task, but trade-offs themselves should be made as explicit and evidence-based as possible. Such a requirement is especially important when it comes to migration, where economic objectives with different horizons must be reconciled with other goals. While politicians, their staff and stakeholders may well know what is being traded off when they hammer out deals or draw up different-coloured papers, the terms of a trade-off are rarely made explicit. When parties which lost out are not identified, it is difficult to compensate them.

Public opinion may tend toward restrictiveness

The political decision-making process is affected by a wide range of factors and actors. Labour migration interest groups press governments for greater immigrant inflows. Yet, as governments themselves share the objective of economic growth – one of the main benchmarks against which electorates judge them – most are sensitive to business concerns about migration's impact on growth (Boswell, 2013).

The very few comparative international surveys on perceptions of labour migration suggest that economic arguments for labour migration are given greater weight by public opinion in countries that were historically built on immigration and now implement selective policies. In one example, there was a high level of support in 2012 for all immigration categories in Australia,[9] with the public most favourable towards skilled migrants. The Department of Citizenship and Immigration Canada has found that a majority – albeit a shrinking one – of Canadian respondents said they felt immigration was having a positive effect on the economy. Yet opinion surveys within most OECD countries reveal that people tend to take a negative view of the economic and cultural impact of migration, disapprove policies to increase migratory flows (OECD, 2010), and express a preference for less, rather than more, migration.

Overall, public opinion on migration favours limits. One survey, the Transatlantic Trends Survey in 2013, reveals that over one-half of the public in the United Kingdom and many European countries believe that the number of immigrants in their country is an issue.

The default political stance in most OECD countries is broadly in line with public opinion – i.e. to keep in place restrictive measures on labour and other forms of migration. Policy changes can therefore be difficult to promote, as many European countries have demonstrated (Boswell, 2013). Nonetheless, despite public aversion to migration as a whole, perceptions of labour migration are different and, when it is specifically described as migration for employment, opposition tends to weaken.

Political parties support policy changes linked to economic growth

In most OECD countries, there is broad political consensus that government's overarching goal should be economic growth, that labour migration should meet the needs of the labour market, and that managing it should seek to further the economy and business. At times, governments may struggle to strike a balance between economic objectives – which may point to recruitment from abroad – with public opposition to migration.[10] One means to strike a balance is through mechanisms within their migration management systems. But policy makers can also adopt political stances and speak out on the economic impact of labour migration in order to justify policy changes in legislation that affect the magnitude and characteristics of labour migration flows.

Regardless of circumstances and the direction of proposed reform, policy makers need to make a strong case for change. It requires calculating and understanding the impact of reform, acknowledging the costs of inaction, and recognising winners and losers – since the latter will have to be compensated, albeit not indefinitely.

Countries that reformed labour migration policy and made it more liberal in recent years were those where there was a strong case made for change and a broad consensus. Cases in point are Spain, Sweden and, in the 2000s, the United Kingdom. Consensus also enabled Germany's move to open up to labour migration, although the negative sentiment associated with the guest-worker programmes of the 1960s confined it to skilled immigrants.[11]

Institutional arrangements affect policy design and delivery

The political economy of labour migration policy regards not only parties but the institutional organisation of migration management. The seat of immigration policy – itself a result of political choice – affects the priorities and decisions made in policy administration, which is the job of different ministries, depending on the country. In some OECD members, responsibility is split between ministries, while in others the portfolio may change over time.

Where the seat of migration management is located reflects and influences its priorities. A labour ministry will have a more employment-slanted perspective, a department of justice will stress issues of law and order, and an independent migration ministry may well focus primarily on border security. The importance of migration policy is reflected in government bodies' standing: a migration minister may be cabinet-ranked in some administrations, in others he or she may be a junior minister or undersecretary. And there might be no ministry at all tasked with migration, which may be assigned to a department or division within another ministry.

Canada considers "nation building" as tied to immigration and citizenship, which it starts promoting as soon as migrants with permanent residence arrive. The emergence of a ministry that manages immigration, integration, the naturalisation process, and citizens' civic duties and rights mirrors the nation-building project (van Selm, 2005). In Spain, the

employment ministry has chiefly administered migration since the mid-2000s as it did in New Zealand, where immigration was long the duty of the Department of Labour until the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment took charge. Spain and New Zealand are examples of the approach that puts immigration planning in a labour- and economy-related perspective.

Institutional configurations reflect domestic contexts and the approaches and backgrounds of the personnel responsible for implementing policy. There is no single one-size-fits-all solution.

Migrants are also important actors

Against a backdrop of political economy dynamics and domestic institutional set-ups, the objectives and choices of migrants themselves make them key actors. While intentions may not match destinations, they are important gauges of wanderlust. In 2010-12, the Gallup World Poll found that 13% of the adults surveyed – equivalent to 630 million people – said they would like to leave their country and move somewhere else permanently. That high figure nonetheless was down on the 16% of respondents who expressed their desire to migrate in 2008-09.[12]

OECD countries were the most popular destinations. The United States came top with nearly one-fifth of would-be migrants naming it as their desired future residence. With an additional estimated 46 million (7.3%) saying they would like to relocate to Canada, North America stood out as the most desirable region in the world. The best of the rest of popular destinations were European. Seven per cent of those who wished to live elsewhere – 42 million people – cited the United Kingdom, 5% chose France, while 4.5% wished to relocate to Germany. Outside Europe, 4% named Australia as their destination of choice and 4.5% Saudi Arabia.

In summary, setting labour migration goals is an exercise fraught with difficulty but essential to implementing policy. Unlike other policy areas which have clear benchmarks and goals – like health and employment policy – labour migration is about more than quantity and quality. The core goal of labour migration policy is still to meet labour needs that cannot be satisfied domestically while ensuring that the domestic workforce is not adversely affected. That goal, however, must compete with other policy goals. Articulating them explicitly will help in choosing the tools that will help achieve them.

The policy toolbox for achieving labour migration policy goals

Policy tools translate policy goals into practice. This part of the chapter describes some of them – standard regulatory measures, market-type instruments, and information tools – then looks at how to use them effectively.[13] It concludes with a discussion of tools' pros and cons, drawing on country experience, and suggests where and under what conditions they are applicable.

The policy toolbox

Numerical limits

Numerical limits are an integral part of many managed migration policy regimes (Table 3.A1.1). They come in many forms – quotas, targets, ceilings, caps, etc. They reflect different policy objectives: a minimum that should be attained (target), an upper limit that cannot be exceeded (ceiling, cap), or a pre-established number or proportion (quota).

Different controls for different objectives. The nature of a numerical limit depends on the objective. Caps and quotas, for example, ensure that entries do not exceed a certain threshold, generally so as to safeguard local employment and labour market conditions. Limits may also be set to meet the needs of specific industries or a country of origin's development objectives. Limits are a way to control migrant flows as a safeguard when governments introduce new policies of which they are unsure. They enable countries to match numbers of cases to processing capacity, even though they may lead to backlogs in the case of oversubscription. And finally, a limit is a number that signals political control over labour migration.

Targets are used primarily to manage permanent residence streams in settlement countries. Australia and Canada base their targets on planning levels. Setting them involves factoring in:

- Social, demographic and economic trends.
- Government migration and population policies.
- Expected demand for skilled labour.
- Estimated demand for family reunification places.
- Net overseas migration levels.

New Zealand's residence target, in place and unchanged since 2000, takes into account natural growth and high net migration outflows.[14] Some targets are shorter-term: in 2011, the United Kingdom targeted the reduction of net migration to the "tens of thousands".

Caps may be stated in legislation. The United States' employment-based permanent visas for skilled workers have been enshrined in legislation since 1990: no more than 140 000 individuals are admitted annually, which includes accompanying dependents.

However, ceilings or caps can be benchmarked to the size of the labour market or population in order to contain any adverse effect on the domestic labour market. Estonia sets its quotas with reference to the total population: in 2013, the quota was 0.075% of the country's permanent population, i.e. 1 000 people.[15]

Norway caps the number of skilled workers it admits – 5 000 each year from 2011 to 2013. Above that limit, a labour market test applies. Switzerland caps the number of both long-term and short-term work permits it issues to labour migrants.[16]

Many seasonal and time-limited programmes are capped, especially where supply is potentially so large it could distort the labour market or undermine compliance measures. That is the principle behind the H-2B programme in the United States, where legislation sets an annual ceiling of 66 000.[17] Israel and Korea both cap their multi-year temporary worker programmes. Israel sets a stock cap to control the aggregate number of immigrant workers in the country at any time, while Korea puts a quota on new admissions. Annual caps on seasonal workers are the practice in Italy, Norway and Spain.

There are many models for setting limits. Numeric limits are determined through a mix of political and bureaucratic processes, but are generally subject to periodic review and revision based on labour market data and consultation with stakeholders (Chaloff, 2014). As already noted, numbers are sometimes set in legislation. Most countries, however, establish them through annual, non-legislative processes.

Using estimates of demand to set limits is no straightforward task. There are several reasons, chief among which are the frequent unreliability of vacancy or hiring data and the rapidity of change in demand. Most countries, however, base their limits, at least in part, on vacancy or shortage indicators and demand from employers.

In Korea, the Foreign Workers Policy Committee uses a benchmark shortage indicator drawn from a purpose-built employer survey. The survey examines employer demand by skill level and preference for Korean or foreign workers. The ratio of filled to unfilled vacancies for foreign workers is taken as the shortage indicator. Israel allocates permits to each sector. It determines the number through inter-ministerial consultation with substantial input from industry interests (OECD; 2010 and 2013). In Greece, from 2014, a joint ministerial decision establishes overall biannual "volumes of admission" by occupation and region through a consultation procedure.

Controls can be combined and targeted. Ceilings and caps may also extend to nationalities and sector- and firm-level limits. Italy is one example of a country which has set aside capped quotas for certain nationalities, sectors, occupations, and provinces. Countries with which the government has signed bilateral agreements or has on-going co-operation arrangements receive set-asides, while certain sectors – primarily domestic work – receive a share, too. Each province is also issued a quota, which it must then divide according to nationality and, sometimes, occupation in order to meet employer demand.

Other countries also use firm-related limits. In Korea, the Foreign Workers Policy Committee sets overall ceilings on non-professional workers and reserves individual quotas for employers. The quotas are ratios of foreign workers to insured Korean workers in a firm. The committee then allocates foreign workers to employers on the basis of criteria like past compliance and need. Chile and Turkey apply firm-level limits, 15% and 20% respectively, although exemptions apply.

In Israel, the government sets ceilings for work permits in two sectors – agriculture and construction – but quotas are allocated to employers in the sector by a Ministry of Agriculture formula. For example, in 2010, every employer was given a set number out of the 26 000 agricultural workers allowed that year.

Italy's seasonal work programme sets annual limits on foreign workers – from 80 000 annually in 2006-10, it was gradually lowered to 15 000 in 2014. New Zealand sets aside up to 8 000 vacancies (according to estimates of peak seasonal demand) as part of its Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme in the horticulture and wine-growing industries. It also gives preferential treatment to workers from select Pacific island states who account for at least 50% of seasonal recruits. Australia, too, has a seasonal worker programme (SWP) with 12 000 places over four years to 2016, chiefly for nationals of select Pacific countries.[18] All the countries above cap their quotas at below 0.1% of the total population. The United States applies a country quota within its ceiling on employment-based visas: no more than 7% of all employment-based visas may be issued to any one country.

Dealing with over- and under-subscription. The very concept of a limit means the rejection of excess demand – from employers wishing to recruit and workers to migrate. Oversubscription can be a challenge as economic conditions change and demand fluctuates, which raises the practical issue of determining who gets to go through the selection process. Generally, applicants are notified in advance of an appropriate time

window within which to apply. All things being equal, everyone meeting policy criteria should stand the same chance of being chosen. However, in practice, some form of ranking criteria needs to be used.

To address oversubscription, settlement countries (New Zealand and Australia, and Canada from 2015) use a points-based system (PBS) and its extension, the so-called "expression of interest". The pass mark can be shifted according to demand and when supply exceeds the set number of places (see below). Tier 2 of the United Kingdom's 5-tier visa system for skilled non-EU citizens with a job offer has a monthly allotment. If exceeded, applicants are ranked according to the nature of the job – shortage occupations take precedence over PhD-level occupations which come before other occupations – and the prospective salary.

In the United States and Italy, the system is "first in, first served". Applications are filed by date then processed in that order. The United States applies a lottery system to determine processing order when the H-1B cap is exceeded within the first week. New Zealand also uses a lottery to choose candidates for its Samoan Quota and Pacific Access permanent residency programmes. When the family migration cap is reached in Australia, applicants are put in a queue for visa grant consideration the following year, subject to places becoming available. Queues can lead to lengthy processing backlogs, so some countries limit the time validity of applications.

Where there is excess demand, another response is to apply more stringent requirements to overflow applications. Norway requires skilled workers to take its labour market test when the quota is exhausted.

Limits or targets can, of course, also be undersubscribed. That may, in fact, be the very intention of policy and some limits, like Hungary's, have never been reached. Under-subscription, however, can pose problems, especially if a public commitment has been made to attract a certain number of migrants. That was what happened with Germany's "green card" for IT workers in the mid-2000s, where the low visa take-up undermined shortage claims and raised questions as to how attractive the scheme was to labour migrants. Responses to under-subscription have included transferring the left-over visas into the following year's annual quotas or into another visa category. In fact, whether unused places can be rolled over is a separate policy question. In the United States, unfilled places from any of the five permanent labour migration streams are added to streams where there is excess demand.

An alternative method proposed by some economists – but in practice used nowhere – is to auction work permits (Freeman, 2006). Auctions as market-based instruments may achieve efficiency gains, but making them work in practice is problematic. For instance, they require clear rules for identifying the number of visas for a given time period and determining reservation price. This in itself can be counter-productive because, instead of rationalising supply, it might lead to supply being fixed.

Numerical limits may also serve the broader political purposes of participative democracy and the assertion of governance. In principle, the process of setting quotas involves consultations with a wide range of stakeholders to ensure political legitimacy (Ruhs, 2005). Efforts to build consensus – with the social partners in Ireland, for example, or the public in Canada – reflect a political will to build consensus or at least participation into the process.

Points-based systems for skilled migrants

Points-based systems (PBSs) give points to requirements deemed essential to successful labour market integration and settlement. Points are awarded for qualifications, skills, language proficiency, age, experience, and even wages (Table 3.1). The points that work-permit applicants accrue determine if they are suitable for selection and enable scores to be balanced against each other. The system was first developed with a supply focus for migrants to Canada, Australia and New Zealand in order to select skilled migrants with transferable skills and long term employability – which were difficult to capture with a single criterion. For decades, the PBS was the main tool of discretionary migration control and remains so in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. In recent years, other countries have adapted it to their own ends, while the countries that first used it have reworked it substantially.

Common criteria with differential emphasis. The earliest PBSs sought to identify highly skilled immigrants by awarding more points to higher levels of education, relevant work experience, and local language proficiency. There was no precise identification of skills. Age was a standard criterion from the start since it is a known determinant of economic and fiscal contribution over time. It is also an indicator of potential contribution to population growth.

Besides meeting absolute minimum standards of health and character, some criteria are mandatory even before an applicant scores any points. They include language proficiency (Canada, New Zealand), a job offer in the host country (the United Kingdom and Austria), wages (the United Kingdom requires salaries of at least GBP 20 000) and maximum age.[19] In Australia a skills assessment is now compulsory for primary visa applicants before they apply under any PBS scheme. Countries also insist on prior registration for occupations where such licensing is mandatory.

Korea recently introduced its own PBS as a minor component in its overall system. It is designed to give fast-track residence to immigrants already in the country rather than those seeking to enter. Japan also introduced a PBS in 2012 to support highly skilled migration.

Points systems differ significantly. Academic qualifications stand out across all systems as a key requirement. The only exception is the United Kingdom's "General" category in its Tier 2 visa application. How general qualifications are scored varies. Although scores range from 22% in Quebec to 86% in the Netherlands, they generally lie somewhere between 25% and 50%-plus. While some countries award extra points for qualifications gained in the destination country, particularly Australia which gives them between 23% and 38% in the General Skilled Migration visa requirement, most rate foreign and domestic qualifications as equivalent. A few countries, like Korea and Japan, require mandatory minimum qualification levels.

The next most widely used standard criterion is language proficiency, which accounts for up to 30% of an applicant's total score – in line with the overwhelming evidence that language proficiency is a determinant of successful labour market outcomes. New Zealand awards it no points because it considers language a prerequisite for reaching the threshold criteria. Australia insists on a minimum "competence" level and, though it does not award points for that level, higher levels grant more points. Likewise Canada stipulates an eligibility threshold then scores proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Table 3.1. **Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, as a percentage of the pass mark, 2014**

Characteristic	Austria		Denmark	Japan	Netherlands	United Kingdom	Australia	Canada			Korea	New Zealand
	Tier 1; highly-qualified	Tier 2; key worker or shortage occupation				Tier 2; general (employer-sponsored)	General skilled migration	Federal	Quebec (single)	Quebec (with spouse)		
	Temporary admission, renewable						Permanent admission					
Requirement of job offer?	No	Yes	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		**0***				28*	**0**		0-29	0-25		**0**
Qualified for/job offer in a shortage or growth occupation		**0***	10			63*		**0***				10-40
Previous work experience												
Work experience (in general)	3-29*	4-20**	5	**7-21**				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	14*	8-20**	5-10*		14		8-31		2-15*	2-13*		5-25
Academic qualifications												
Academic qualification (in general)	29-57**	40-60	30-80	**29-43**	71-86		15-31*	7-37	**4-22**	**3-19**	**31-44**	50-55
Additional points for academic qualification in country or region	7-14		5-10*	7	**0*-14**		23-38*	7	2-15*	2-13*		5-10
Additional points for academic qualification at top6Hranked university			5-15		**0***							
Language												
Language ability in first language	7-14	20-30	5-25	14	14*	**14**	**0-31**	1-24	0-29	0-25	**12.5-25**	**0**
Language ability in second language			5-10				8	1-12	0-11	0-10		
Age	14-29	30-40	**10-15**	**7-21**	**14**		**0-38**	**3-15**	**0-29**	**0-25**	**22.5-31**	**5-30**
Financial requirements												
Sufficient funds for initial period			**0**			**14**						
Previous salary	29-43**	**0**										
Current salary				**14-57**		**31-69**					**6.25-12.5**	

Table 3.1. **Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, as a percentage of the pass mark, 2014** *(cont.)*

Characteristic	Austria		Denmark	Japan	Netherlands	United Kingdom	Australia	Canada			Korea	New Zealand
	Tier 1; highly-qualified	Tier 2; key worker or shortage occupation				Tier 2; general (employer-sponsored)	General skilled migration	Federal	Quebec (single)	Quebec (with spouse)		
	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**	**100**	**100**

Note: Asterisks denote */**/*** 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 score is higher than the pass mark, percentages add up to more than 100%. In all countries in the table, temporary admission is generally renewable if the applicant has a job.

Denmark: A maximum of 105 points may be awarded for academic qualification. Language skills can be proven in either one Nordic language, German or English. Five bonus points are given for Danish language skills. A maximum of 15 points may be awarded for country/region-specific work or educational experience.

Canada/Federal: All country/region-specific criteria also apply to spouses/partners. The country/region-specific points and academic qualifications of partners and spouses may not exceed 10 points out of the required 67.

Canada/Quebec: The maximum number of points for work/study/family in Quebec is altogether 8 points out of a required total of 55 for single applicants and 63 for applicants who bring their partners or spouses.

Austria: In the Highly-Qualified Scheme research activity scores extra academic qualifications points. In the 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 a shortage occupation or a labour market test is required. In the United Kingdom, the latter requirement does not apply to graduates from British universities and to jobs where earnings exceed GBP 150 000. Both categories are also unrestricted, while a monthly cap applies to other (restricted) categories. To determine admission within the capped limit, candidates are ranked by the number of points they score. In New Zealand and Australia, candidates who score the pass mark submit an Expression of Interest and are then sorted by their scores and invited to apply.

Source: OECD Secretariat.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157970

Some countries do not have the luxury of a language widely spoken outside their borders, so recognise a second language (usually English). Two examples are Denmark and Austria. Canada, though, has the advantage of two languages that are spoken by a large number of people outside the country and awards points for both.

The United Kingdom, Japan and Korea are the only three systems that score salary, with the first two weighting the score highly as a proxy for labour market integration.[20]

Work experience, too, counts, with some systems awarding extra points for experience in the destination country or in specific occupations. Reflecting the shift to demand-driven policies, a prior job offer is becoming mandatory, as in the United Kingdom's Tier 2 visa requirement. New Zealand gives job offer points a high 50% weighting. Consequently most applicants already on temporary status score well on the experience criterion.

Bonus points are also awarded for criteria such as jobs in remote areas, skilled and shortage occupations, qualifications in select disciplines, and close family ties. Extra points may also be awarded to applicants whose partner has a job offer and, as in Canada and New Zealand, for socio-demographic characteristics that point to a family unit's potential as economic contributors. In the case of Canada's regional programmes, points are awarded for the personal impression that an applicant's readiness for integration makes. Austria has bonus points specifically for professional athletes and sports coaches.

Overall points systems have two chief focuses: the labour market and settlement. Although most countries consider applicants' labour market potential, the Canadian federal system and the province of Quebec look at adaptability and settlement. Both systems are expected, however, to shift towards a greater focus on labour demand from 2015.

Recalibrating points-based systems can be difficult. PBSs are not set in stone. They are constantly evolving, and the challenge is to design the points system that ultimately delivers the best labour market outcomes. Points are assigned according to the host country's migration-related objectives and on evidence of how the migrant applicant's attributes contribute to achieving those objectives.

Monitoring and research on the outcomes of migrants admitted through PBSs in a number of countries have shown that labour market outcomes are not always positive. One piece of Canadian research has suggested using a hybrid method that combines an actuarial approach along with employer preference[21] and the Express Entry system (i.e. EoI) currently under development, is based on a combination of factors that predict employment earnings.

Consequently, PBSs have changed over time, adding new criteria and scoring differentially. Points are awarded for a job offer or an actual job, for host-country qualifications and experience (though research from New Zealand shows they yield no differential gains), local language proficiency, and wages earned in the host-country or country of origin. Australia also awards extra points to visa applicants whose nominated occupation is on the Migration Occupations in Demand List. However, in 2012, it also lowered the new visa pass mark from 65 to 60 to encourage interest in migration from a broader range of people with the skills and attributes needed in Australia.

Recent changes in Canadian selection criteria in 2013 include more points for younger applicants and greater language proficiency. Canada has also ushered in an Educational Credential Assessment (ECA) so that the education points awarded reflect foreign credentials' true value in Canada. New Zealand removed the points allocated to vocational qualifications in preference for higher tertiary qualifications.

In other cases, points-based systems have been adjusted because of low uptake. Japan, for example, loosened its stringent PBS criteria to that end in 2014.

Dealing with oversubscription. PBSs that are not purely job-oriented often attract large numbers of applicants, since anyone can apply theoretically. However, evaluating each application, even cursorily, leads to administrative overburden and backlogs. One solution to this is the Expression of Interest (EoI) model, which relieves administrative personnel of having to review all applications.

Under the EoI model, applicants who meet the self-assessed qualifying cut-off mark and threshold requirements submit an expression of interest for consideration. EoIs are placed in a pool and ranked against each other. Those which reach a pre-approved level automatically receive an invitation to apply, while to those who fall short – between the qualifying mark and the pre-approved level – invitations are issued according to demand and the criteria for that period. If numbers of EoIs exceed the quota for one round, they can be considered in the next round depending on how long the EoI is valid.

New Zealand first introduced the EoI model in 2003, followed by Australia in 2012 (Box 3.2). It was viewed as a second-step selection mechanism within the PBS that enabled

Box 3.2. **How Expression of Interest (EoI) and Invitation to Apply (ITA) models work**

The Expression of Interest (EoI) system was introduced in New Zealand in 2003. It was followed by Australia in 2012, with Canada poised to launch its own version in 2015. Although the two Australasian systems are broadly similar, some key differences exist. New Zealand applicants can apply both online and using paper forms. Applicants in Australia have to do so via the SkillSelect online portal which, however, registered employers can access to seek suitable migrants directly. The Skilled Migrant Category is the only New Zealand visa category served by the EoI system while in Australia it covers the sub-classes, Skilled Independent, Skilled Nominated and Business Innovation. (New Zealand has a PBS for its Entrepreneur visa but applicants do not have to undergo an EoI process, which may reflect the smaller numbers coming through.)

As for processing, SkillSelect system sorts all Skilled Independent sub-class applications without any staff input, while scores of above 140 points in New Zealand trigger an auto-pass. The rest of the applicants go through a second-order sorting that prioritises on criteria such as job offers. In other words, the system does not automatically continue sorting. The Australian Skilled Nominated stream, though, involves assessment by state or territory.

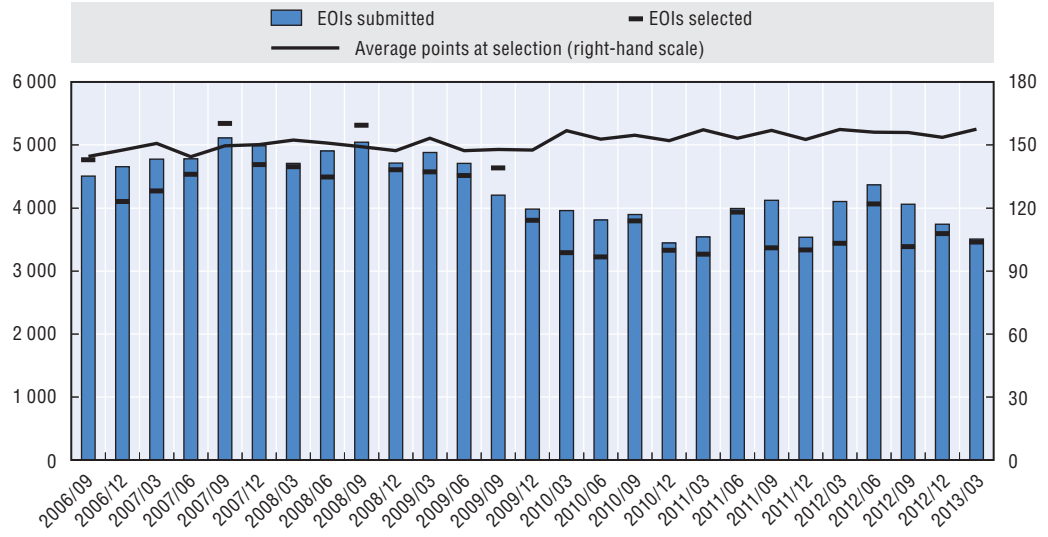
Selection in New Zealand is based on criteria relevant on the date when the residence application is made – not on the date when the EoI was filed or the application drawn from the EoI pool, to ensure control over selectivity. In practice, however, successful invitations to apply (ITAs) typically progress even when criteria have changed. Furthermore, an EoI's validity is six months, while Australia leaves it open for up to two years with applicants having the option of improving their scores if circumstances change. On the other hand, the NZ system provides temporary 9-month Skilled Migrant Category (SMC) Job Search visa to those who have not made the cut-off but are assessed as having potential. System transparency via periodical publication of pass marks and numbers selected means applicants have a sense of their chances of being invited to apply and gaining admission.

EoIs have noticeably shortened processing times in both countries. Because Australia has multiple visa application streams, it uses a ranking system for processing with the regional stream being assigned number one priority. As for outcomes from both systems, principal applicants appear to be faring well. Oversubscription to PBS selection systems continues in Australia and in countries without EoI (e.g. Canada and the United Kingdom).

greater control over the selection process. Canada plans to implement its Express Entry EoI model in order to attract the best and brightest candidates and to address backlogs in the selection system resulting from the requirement to process every application accepted.

New Zealand has eliminated its pre-EoI oversubscription problem by deciding to examine only those applications that score the pass mark. Most are actually approved. The country then had to grapple with a new issue – that of a fall in numbers of applications (Figure 3.4) prompted by dwindling labour market demand.[22] The dilemma was to take few immigrants or to lower the pass mark and take lower-scoring applicants. New Zealand chose the first option.

Figure 3.4. **Expression of interest submitted and selected, New Zealand, 2006-13**



Source: Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, New Zealand.

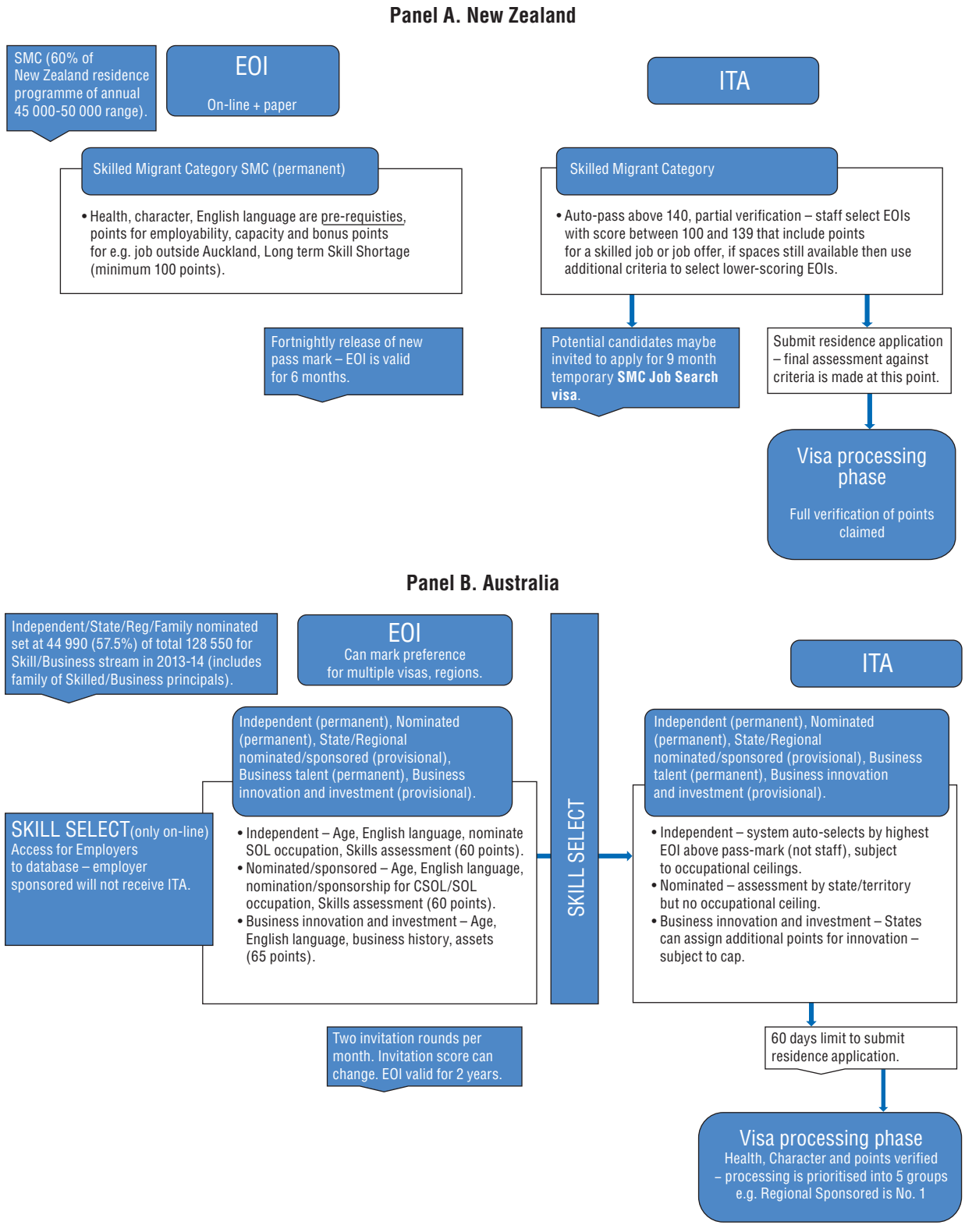
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157703

The PBS can be used with multiple pathways. When originally introduced, PBSs generally used an "automatic" pass mark above which all applications had to be processed or approved. Where PBSs are used in conjunction with overall targets, applications that stand no chance are weeded out with quotas and floating pass-marks so as to maintain minimum immigration standards.

Because they rank each and every applicant, PBSs allows countries to build up reserve pools of applicants who miss out on a threshold or initial quota. In the event of oversubscription, pool thresholds can be raised to the pass mark, which is Australia's current practice.

PBSs can also be used to group applications into second tiers. New Zealand has a second-tier group comprising candidates who have scored the pass mark, but do not meet other criteria, such as having a skilled job offer. Applicants in this situation are interviewed to determine their settlement prospects. If they are thought to have the right potential, they may be offered a Skilled Migrant Job Search visa (Figure 3.5, Panel A). It grants them nine months to find skilled employment which qualifies them for permanent residence. The Netherlands, Denmark, and Austria issue similar job-search permits on the basis of PBS performance. They offer only temporary residence but include provisions for transitioning to permanent leave to stay.

Figure 3.5. **Expression of Interest Systems (EoI) make ITA**



As PBSs identify applicants who are eligible to work, they can be linked to job vacancy registers so that employers can pick from a pool of pre-approved workers. Australia's electronic SkillSelect portal allows PBS applicants to match their skills to the needs of employers who signed into the system (Figure 3.5, Panel B).

Although PBSs were originally developed as a supply-side tool, there is no reason why they should not incorporate demand – or even, as in Japan, be exclusively demand-oriented. The evidence to date on labour migrant outcomes underlines how stepping into a job on arrival has positive effects on skills matching and employability (Box 3.2).

Incorporating a regional dimension into selection and admission

There are, in many OECD countries, wide labour market disparities between regions, with some experiencing more acute labour shortages than others. Traditionally, labour migration to settlement countries has been disproportionately to metropolitan areas, where labour markets are larger and networks better consolidated. Indeed, the drawing power of networks and urban agglomerations can run counter to targeted migration policies meant to attract newcomers to regions. Australia and Canada have given regions a role in picking labour migrants, although they have to contend with the challenge of appealing to migrants who have access to an entire country's labour market. Spain, for example, has responded by requiring labour migrants who are admitted to fill a job vacancy to stay in the region for at least the first year.

Labour market tests are a key part of labour migration frameworks

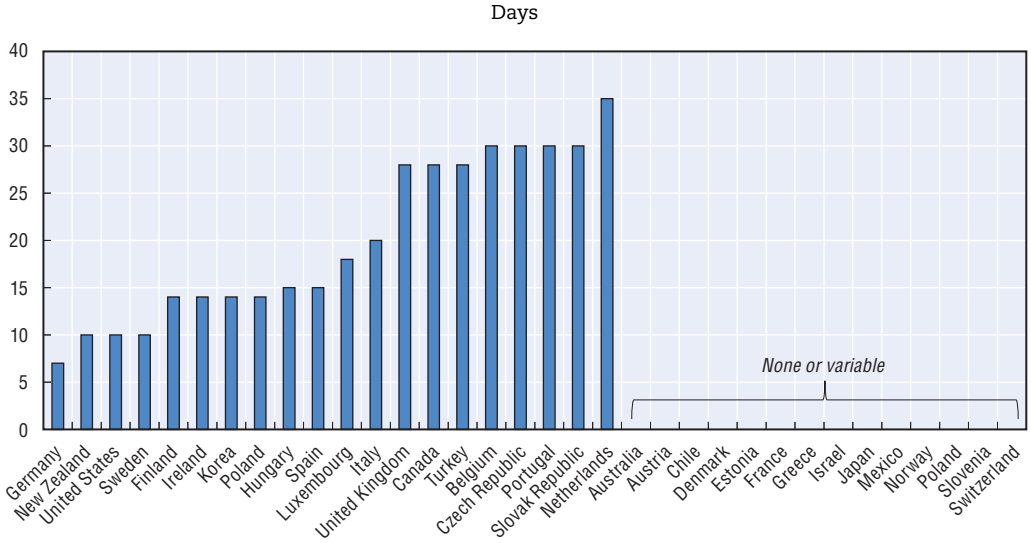
Protecting the jobs and working conditions of host-country workers is a prime concern pretty much everywhere. One of the chief regulatory tools for ensuring that labour migration does not impair local workers' prospects or situations is the labour market test (LMT).

The LMT dates back at least 60 years and was codified as early as 1953 by the Manpower Committee of the OEEC,[23] which opened member states to labour migration "as soon as it [was] established that suitable labour, national or foreign, forming part of its regular labour force, [was] not available within the country for the employment in question". Variously called a "labour market test" or "opinion", the LMT assesses whether a job could be done by an available home-grown worker, whether citizen or resident. Procedures and criteria vary across countries (see Table 3.A1.2), but are generally designed to ensure that jobs are advertised locally and that employers are in good faith when they claim they must recruit from abroad.

LMT processes and requirement varies. The first step is widely to advertise a vacancy with the public employment service (PES) or, for some jobs, with the national or regional visa processing agency. Once the position has been advertised for a set time, it is opened up to migrant recruitment or the employer receives authorisation to hire from abroad. The OEEC set the job advertising time at one month, with an additional month possible.[24] Currently, it can be anywhere between 10 days in some countries to 35 days in, for example, the Netherlands. Some countries have no statutory limit, and respond in due time (Figure 3.6).

LMTs may require European countries in the European Employment Service (EURES) to list vacancies with the national PES as well as the EURES network, though PESs often do automatically transfer them. Many countries require employers to pay for job advertisements, with varying criteria attached to their duration, choice of media channels,

Figure 3.6. **Duration of the labour market test for various types of labour migration permits, 2013**



Notes: Where countries have varying durations for different visa/permits, the lower end of the range is used. For instance Germany takes up to 14 days for seasonal work, Spanish Seasonal Work takes 25 days and Finland 2-4 weeks for low-skill work. In some instances, numbers denote the average days used in practice as in New Zealand. Austria, Australia, Denmark and Switzerland have no fixed duration. Estonia, Greece, Israel, Japan and Mexico have no LMT.
Source: OECD Secretariat.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157728

geographical coverage, and actual descriptive content. For instance, Ireland, in addition to the PES/EURES listing, requires a vacancy to be advertised in a national newspaper for at least three days and in either a local newspaper or job website for three days. Countries may also stipulate how a job is advertised to ensure it actually reaches and encourages local workers to apply. In the United States, employers wishing to hire a foreign worker through H-2 temporary work programmes must advertise in two Sunday newspapers,[25] while Canada requires jobs to be listed for four weeks with the PES and through two media.

Employers are required to demonstrate they are seeking to fill vacancies, though the burden of proof varies according to country and to programme. Additional evidence for local recruitment efforts may include labour market research, attendance at jobs fairs, interview records, and rejection letters. In Spain, the PES evaluates applications and requires employers to justify any rejection of candidates sent for interviews. In Korea, employers wishing to recruit non-professional foreign workers through the Employment Permit Scheme must explain their inability to fill positions locally. In New Zealand an employer's "genuine attempts" to recruit include assessing the number of local candidates who applied and were interviewed.

In addition to the LMT, further assessment includes checking if a job offer is "reasonable" insofar as it matches the conditions of a similar job for a host-country worker (comparable wages, working hours, duties, etc.). For wages, this would typically mean considering the market or prevailing rate for the specific occupation and whether it is in line with the average wage. In the United States, such checks, called "labour certifications", are conducted automatically online. In Canada, the wage offered is reviewed and compared to the prevailing wage paid to Canadians (i.e. the median hourly wage paid in an occupation and specific geographical area).

Generally the final decision to authorise the recruitment of foreign workers comes from the PES or equivalent body. In some countries – like Germany, New Zealand, and Sweden – the decision is made by the immigration agency in consultation with the relevant PES agencies or, where their advice is non-binding, the social partners. In Sweden, the Swedish Migration Board encourages employers to seek the opinion of the relevant trade union, although it is not binding. Similarly, union consultation and involvement in job seeking is a positive factor in reviewing applications. In New Zealand, the Labour Market Check (LMC), by which advice is sought from the Work and Income office (the country's PES), is a component in the Labour Market Test. LMC results are factored in when determining whether an LMT has been duly performed, but are not the only or final determinant of approval. Officers also consider the employer's needs and efforts to recruit – whether the position requires special skills, evidence of attempts to hire New Zealanders, and any other relevant information when making a decision.

There are exemptions to the LMT. A job may be exempted if it is on a shortage list, meets certain thresholds (e.g. minimum wage levels or qualifications), or falls into certain categories. Intra-company transferees, for example, usually have the LMT waived. In some cases it is waived for employers with sponsor status or who have prior approval for overseas recruitment. Exemptions can also affect the period of validity of a visa or work permit, as well as whether it will be automatically renewed or whether a candidate will have to apply afresh when it expires.

Issues in applying the labour market test. As a means of managing labour migration, several countries use LMTs in conjunction with shortage lists (Table 3.2) and across all skill levels. The United States uses them extensively across categories, with some listed occupations exempted. Norway uses LMTs when its quota for highly skilled workers is exhausted.

One issue with the LMT is that it further lengthens the process of deciding whether to allow the use of a migrant worker. And where countries exercise discretionary control, it may be applied unevenly by different officials and regions, so raising the issue of quality assurance and fairness of assessments. Such issues can be further compounded by conflicting views between a PES and employers on the "availability", "suitability" or "willingness" of candidates on the unemployment register to fill vacancies.

Determining prevailing, average/median, or market wage rates is not straightforward, and raises the question of regulating the market rate rather than letting the market determine the rate. There may also be integrity issues, such as whether an employer has inflated a job description and shown preferences for foreign workers, particularly in certain occupations and sectors. A toothless or token LMT cannot counteract such risks.

If an LMT's rejection rates are low, which often is the case in times of growth or tight labour markets, the LMT may effectively become nominal. Both Sweden and Finland have moved away from requiring LMTs, while Canada and Australia have, on the contrary, further tightened reviews. In late 2013, Canada imposed new requirements on LMTs for more detailed information and closer scrutiny of job advertising content criteria. Australia, which had given up its LMT in favour of minimum salary levels, revived it in its Skilled Temporary Work programme in late 2013. It does, however, incorporate exemptions.[26] By contrast, high rejection rates can be a further disincentive for employers, especially during periods of labour market slack.

Table 3.2. **Use of shortage list and labour market tests in OECD countries, 2014**

	Shortage List	Labout market tests
Australia	✓	✓
Austria	✓	✓
Belgium	✓	
Canada	✓	✓
Chile		
Czech Republic		✓
Denmark	✓	
Estonia		
Finland	✓	✓
France	✓	✓
Germany	✓	✓
Greece	✓	✓
Ireland	✓	✓
Israel		
Italy		
Japan		
Korea		✓
Luxembourg		✓
Mexico		
Netherlands	✓	✓
New Zealand	✓	✓
Norway		✓
Poland		✓
Portugal	✓	✓
Slovak Republic		✓
Slovenia		✓
Spain	✓	✓
Sweden		✓
Switzerland		✓
Turkey		✓
United Kingdom	✓	✓
United States	✓	✓

Source: OECD Secretariat.

While LMTs can help ensure that employers effectively attempt to recruit locally before looking abroad, their processing resources and delays mean they come at a cost. Total processing time for visa applications can be affected by LMT processing times, increasing the length of time a company has to wait before the worker it needs steps into the job. While such delays may actually encourage employers to prioritise local recruitment, they can be a thorn in their side in the event of labour shortage. This is one of the main reasons why shortage occupations have been added to exemptions.

Shortage and occupation lists

A shortage occupation list is a tool used primarily alongside LMTs for protecting the domestic workforce from being displaced or replaced by migrant workers. Inclusion on shortage lists denotes an occupation in demand. Such lists either exempt employers from going through individual labour market tests or make it otherwise easier for employers to employ foreign workers. As a tool the lists are slightly less extensively used than LMTs (Table 3.2).

Shortage lists typically identify those occupations in demand in the short term and are at times used interchangeably with occupation lists. The Spanish hard-to-fill-jobs catalogue is oriented towards immediate shortages. Lists like the Australian Skilled Occupation List (SOL) or the New Zealand Long-term Skill Shortage List (LTSSL) generally refer to occupations in demand over the medium term that express a structural need.

The function of a shortage list. By removing individual labour market testing, the list in one sense becomes a variant of the LMT or acts as a blanket LMT approval applied to individual occupations for a defined period. In fact, the lists are usually – but not always – a consequence of the LMT process and the need to accelerate the processing of applicants for certain occupations.

Evolving criteria and process. Shortage lists draw on objective criteria that are generally built on vacancy rates (OECD, 2008a). In practice, they incorporate quantitative and qualitative factors: labour supply-and-demand trends, the availability of local workers (who include regular migrants in the country), the duration of vacancies, unemployment rates by sector, the ratio of vacancies to unemployment rates or job seekers, and consultation with social partners and key experts (see Table 3.A1.3).

France's shortage list contains jobs for which the ratio of the unemployed to vacancies is one or less for at least one year. Spain uses a similar formula, although the PES then discusses the jobs on the list at a regional and national level with the social partners. In the United Kingdom, the Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) uses a more detailed algorithm, with 12 vacancy, wage and employment indicators as parameters. The MAC then takes into account qualitative evidence ranging from training data to stakeholder testimony. The Swedish shortage list draws on the National Occupational Barometer, a general orientation index that uses vacancies reported by local PES offices. New Zealand, where there is no administrative data on the ratio of the unemployed to vacancies or the average vacancy duration, uses a number of indicators. It takes long training times and the number of years an occupation is on the shortage list as indicators of long-term shortage.

In 2014 Greece passed a new law that requires "volumes of admission" to be established every two years. The numbers of and criteria for admissions are determined through a consultation procedure that brings together the social partners (the Economic and Social Council of Greece) and actors who have good knowledge of the local labour market (the Regions' Directorates for Development, employers' unions and the Manpower Employment Organisation). Determining labour force needs involves taking into account, among other factors, the national economic interest, the supply of labour from the domestically available labour force (Greek and EU citizens and third-country nationals legally residing in Greece), and the unemployment rate per economic sector. Employers can then submit applications that "invite" non-EU workers to apply for jobs identified as shortage occupations.

Where shortage lists cater to the demand for high-level skills, they are linked to specific occupations in national occupation classification systems and their corresponding qualification and experience requirements. For highly skilled occupations, the requirement is a trade-related, vocational, or university degree of three years and above. Lists will also specify where registration or licensing is required. National occupation classification systems vary in their specifics: Spain, Canada, and the United Kingdom use 4 digits, France 5, and New Zealand and Australia the 6-digit ISCO system.[27] Experience is seldom considered a substitute for qualifications.

Usually local, regional and national government agencies whose mandate is the labour market, such as the PES, help compile shortage lists in consultation with employers and trade unions. In some instances, it is the job of statutory bodies, like in the United Kingdom. Some countries use more extended-phase processes. New Zealand's MBIE makes a public call for nominated occupations to be added, removed, or kept on the list. It then produces a preliminary evidence report on the selected occupations which it completes with a final round of consultations.

The frequency of list review periods varies between once every 6 months and up to two years. More frequent revisions are exceptions: New Zealand's skills shortage list for the earthquake-hit Canterbury area or Spain's hard-to-fill jobs catalogue are revised quarterly. There are also some much less regular revisions: the United States' Schedule A shortage occupation list was drawn up in 2005 and has not been modified since, while the German EU Blue Card shortage list enshrines occupations in legislation.

Different applications of the lists. Lists serve different purposes. Some, for example, cut across the entire skills spectrum. In France, Germany, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the settlement countries, they are confined to jobs requiring specific skills, while in Finland they mainly include certain low-skilled jobs. Irrespective of the skills level, however, many countries use lists for their temporary worker admission programmes. Examples include the Danish Positive List, the Belgian general lists of "bottleneck" occupations, the Finnish and Swedish occupational barometers, France's shortage list, Greece's "volumes of admission", Germany's Positive List, Spain's "hard-to-fill job catalogue", and New Zealand's Immediate Skill Shortage List.

The occupational lists that reflect medium- to long-term demand are the Long-Term Skills Shortages List (LTSSL) of New Zealand, Australia's SOL, Canada's Eligible Occupations List (EOL), and the United Kingdom's Shortage Occupation (SOL). All are aimed at independent, highly skilled workers and usually offer direct pathways to permanent residence. In Austria, Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom (Tier 2), nominating a shortage occupation or having worked in it is a boon under the points-based system. In New Zealand applicants can claim bonus points for any occupation on the LTSSL.[28] The United Kingdom structures its PBS so that under Tier 2, priority is given to migrants who arrive via the shortage occupation list.

Lists are linked to numerical immigration controls through overall and sub-group quotas with built-in provisions for adjustment to changing priorities and demand. Australia has occupational ceilings for those arriving through permanent residence routes, as does Canada. The idea is that no occupational group dominates entries and there is an even distribution of migrant workers across the occupational groups.

Lists can also be specific to regions or industrial sectors, as in the settlement countries that have regional or provincial lists. The US uses a shortage list (Schedule A) for its employer driven EB2 and EB3 programmes. Lists may also be tied to bilateral agreements, as in France, as a way of encouraging labour mobility from countries with historical ties and common language. Sweden uses shortage lists only to allow within-country changes of status.

Some countries draw up "ineligibles lists" that specifically exclude migrants from certain occupations. Examples are Portugal, Ireland, and France, although they do not use them extensively and Portugal never. The possibility was actually entertained in 1953 as

part of the OEEC Manpower Committee's decision which allowed states to apply exceptions to recruitment or set caps on migrants in specific industries and occupations. Canada introduced a "negative list" in 2013 for its Canadian Experience Class (CEC) programme.

How extensive and detailed lists are depends on what the objectives behind them are – whether it is to meet permanent migration or temporary worker demands and, more importantly, at what skills levels. The list may cover few occupations. In 2008, the United Kingdom's Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) list spanned occupations which accounted for a mere 2.5% of employment, while contemporaneous Spanish and French lists applied to jobs with an even smaller share of employment (OECD, 2011d).

Identifying shortages in the labour market that can be addressed through labour migration may have an effect on training policy. In several countries, migration and training are explicitly linked, with the labour migration system subsidising training and training focusing on occupations where recruitment is often from abroad (Box 3.3).

Box 3.3. **A training link to migration policy**

Where temporary labour migration is perceived as meeting needs which cannot be met locally, admission may be tied to the provision of training to local workers in order to reduce future recourse to migration.

In the United States, the H-1B programme requires employers to contribute to a training fund. Grants from the fund provide much-needed skills training in high-growth industries like healthcare and information technology. The overall idea is to keep Americans employed in jobs that pay well, to sustain training programmes targeted to occupations in demand, and to reduce American dependence on foreign labour. Grants are distributed nationally without consideration of metro areas which request the highest number of H-1B visas.

In Israel, in the early 2010s, the government subsidised training courses for local workers so that they could fill specific construction jobs which had been filled by temporary work schemes.

Australia expects sponsors whom they approve to invest in training and make an effort to employ local workers. The country also requires that employers should devote no less than 2.5% of their annual budgets to training. Similarly, a consideration in New Zealand's labour market test is whether employers provide training programmes for local workers.

Concerns along the same lines have been voiced about shortage occupation lists facilitating international recruitment. A "sunset clause" placing a time limit on the shortage-list recruitment period has been considered in the United Kingdom* and in New Zealand to prevent disinvestment in local training by employers who may get used to easy access to international recruitment.

Recently, however, lists have been tightened as some of the less skilled occupations have been removed so reducing the overall number of occupations. But providing advance notice of impending changes to key stakeholders and clients has been a further step. The example of a sunset clause for occupational groups in skill shortage lists is an example of how to give advance warning to employers, training providers, local trainees, and foreign workers so that they can adjust to the new regime.

* Migration Advisory Committee, 2013.

Challenges in using shortage lists. Even allowing for data limitations, there is no universal consensus on the definition of a skills shortage. Accordingly, the methodology appears to be moving towards mixed methods that use multiple indicators and qualitative factors, including consensus, to determine shortage occupations. Overall, the use of lists is spreading, even though they are becoming increasingly selective and scaling back. Most have seen reductions in numbers of occupations and a shift in their nature from trades to professional occupations. Caps and quotas have been strengthened and requirements – like qualifications, experience, and wages – have become more stringent for occupations on the list. Canada caps the number of labour migrants admitted as part of all its occupational allotments, but is also moving away from shortage occupation lists with its new Express Entry PBS which it will usher in 2015.

Still, shortage lists do offer advantages. They are tighter and more consistent than individual decentralised labour market tests carried out across various offices. However, they are only periodically reviewed and so may not be responsive to addressing shortages. Governments must therefore choose between investing in decentralised individual or centralised mass assessments of shortage occupations and the certainty they afford migrants and employers of faster processing.

Lists are visible, mirror demand, are revised, and signal that labour migration is focused on specific occupations. Further, they can be used to reflect medium- to long-term demand for occupations by linking with and drawing on education, training, and workforce planning. They can also serve the more strategic purpose of linking with other policy objectives (as do Australia's SOL and CSOL occupational lists, Canada's SOL, and Germany's "job monitor"). Lists can also help international students wishing to work in a host country after graduating there to identify fields of study with employment prospects. As for employers, because they can use lists to identify occupations that afford immediate or eventual residence, they are able to offer more reliable packages to foreign workers.

On the downside, lists where some occupations appear persistently for long stretches may have unintentionally adverse impacts, like lack of investment in local training or path dependency. One response is to introduce a sunset clause that time-limits occupations to a set number of years or cycles.

Another concern is that list finalisation processes may introduce an element of discretionary control, exposing processes to interest and stakeholder groups who plead the cause of keeping or removing certain occupations. To some extent, the United Kingdom has countered that eventuality through a statutory body that compiles lists with the aim of offering independent advice.

Lists may be targeted by would-be migrants looking for the simplest means of access. That risk was one reason for Australia making changes to its lists. It removed occupations like hairdressing for which the relatively low qualification criteria had led to large numbers of applications. Similar considerations prompted Canada to review provincial lists admitting temporary workers in the 2000s.

Finally, lists may simply not play a major role in determining labour migration flows. Denmark's Positive List, for example, accounts for less than 2% of admissions. In the year to September 2012, the United Kingdom issued only 1 400 out-of-country certificates of sponsorship for shortage occupations, a fraction of the total. In such cases, it is legitimate to wonder whether producing lists is a worthwhile exercise when efficiency gains are so meagre. This is in contrast to countries where most inflows are under the shortage list. For

example, since 2008-09, of all the temporary workers in the Essential Skills category admitted into New Zealand, one-third boasted skills that were on the shortage list, while a few permanent migrants claimed bonus points for occupations on the LTSSL. In Sweden, half of labour migrants were in occupations on the shortage list, even though the list was not the grounds for entry (OECD, 2011b).

Where it is too difficult to identify skilled occupations, or where occupations are so unusual as to defy classification or merit inclusion on a list, wage thresholds may be used as a proxy for skills. They are the criterion underlying the EU Blue Card Directive, which sets a wage threshold of 1.5 times the average national salary, with the option of 1.2 for occupations where there is an identified shortage. Germany and Norway also used wage thresholds, although both have discontinued them. In Denmark, most labour migrants are admitted through a channel which uses a minimum wage as a main criterion. New Zealand requires migrant applicants to earn a minimum base salary of NZD 45 000 under its LTSSL-related work-to-residence policy, which accounts for a tiny share of all temporary work visas. Its Skilled Migrant Category permanent residence visa also has a salary threshold, in addition to qualifications and work experience or, for a small number of semi-skilled occupations (Skills Level 3), work experience alone.[29]

Services for employers

Critically, employer-driven migration requires employers and migrant workers to share information and negotiate. Governments help mediate in ways that complement the interaction that takes place through labour market channels. In this sense their role is to generally facilitate labour markets.

Job fairs. Job fairs are a key forum for providing and seeking information and matching employers with employees. A number of countries stage them to give employers and prospective migrant workers an opportunity to meet face to face. They are particularly widespread in countries with proactive labour migration policies that set targets, like the settlement countries. But many other OECD countries hold them in attempts to offset their regional or occupation labour shortages, and representatives from industry, regions, and local communities attend in order to pitch themselves to migrant workers.

The Destination Canada Job Fair affords Canadian employers access to workers with a wide variety of skills in French-speaking countries like Belgium, Tunisia, and France. The Canadian Embassy in Paris and Brussels presents to pre-screened participants Canada's diversity and the opportunities it offers for working temporarily or settling permanently. Representatives of Canada's provinces, territories, and Francophone communities take part. Employers seeking to meet demand in specific sectors such as hospitality, translation, IT, multimedia, etc. can register directly on the Destination Canada website.

Canada's Settlement Program also funds employment-related interventions delivered by community organisations to help newcomers connect with local businesses, understand the Canadian labour market, and seize opportunities to work in their field of expertise. Such initiatives may focus on specific sectors of the labour market and can also take place through an online platform.

Immigration New Zealand (OECD, 2014) stages recruitment fairs in the main countries of origin. They are a chance for interested candidates to make visa queries and obtain information about living and working in New Zealand. Employer representatives are often

present. Similarly, the Australian immigration department attends skilled migration events (e.g. Australian Futures) around the world, though chiefly in Europe, to provide information on migration options and skills requirements.

The European EURES network also regularly holds job fairs where employers have the opportunity to meet applicants from other EU countries. They present their company, the jobs available, the qualifications they are looking for and may even take the opportunity of conducting job interviews. In Germany, for example, the foreign branch of the Employment Agency, ZAV – originally created to place unemployed Germans abroad – has expanded its incomer services, organising recruitment fairs for German employers in co-operation with local employment agencies in EU countries only (OECD, 2013b). Norway's public employment service also draws on the EURES network to arrange job fairs for specific occupations in other countries in the European Economic Area (EEA). In Japan, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare recently started supporting businesses by organising job fairs for international graduates to foster in-country campus recruitment.

Job matching. Job fairs are limited in scope and serve to target specific sector or occupation-related needs. On the other hand, governments also create virtual marketplaces that take advantage of digital online technologies through web portals and databases where employers and migrants can advertise vacancies and submit CVs to enable faster matching. Governments are not competing with private recruitment agencies and matching services in this way, since they are only gatekeepers who determine which labour migrants are admitted.

Australia's SkillSelect is an electronic system where skilled workers and business people interested in migrating to Australia have been able to submit their details and expressions of interest (EoIs) since 2012. They may then be contacted and nominated for skilled visas by Australian employers or state and territory governments, or the Australian government may ask them to lodge a visa application. Migrants who submit EoIs may also indicate that they would like to be contacted directly by employers with registered access to SkillSelect. Equally they can choose to go no further with the EoI process.

Immigration New Zealand's employer website incorporates a database called SkillFinder. Employers can search it for individuals – by occupation, academic qualification, residence, and years of experience – who have stated their interest in working and living in New Zealand. SkillFinder and its matching tool helps employers looking to fill an occupation that is highly skilled[30] or is on skills shortage lists to find candidates who meet accredited employer requirements. When employers locate a potential worker, SkillFinder emails him or her. Migrants have to register on Immigration New Zealand's website (NewZealandNow) if they want to be in the SkillFinder database. However, unlike the Australian SkillSelect system, there is no prior screening of skills that meet immigration requirements. That is the next step.

WorkinDenmark is an Internet portal that includes a job-and-CV bank for highly skilled individuals. Employers can view posted CVs but need to be registered to access candidates' contact details. WorkinDenmark is a one-stop shop that also combines other services for migrants and employers described in greater detail in the last part of this chapter. The Czech Republic's PES lists vacancies which employers have shown interest in filling from abroad as well as locally. For professional migrants already legally in the country and entitled to work, Canada's SkillsInternational.ca website provides a searchable database of qualified applicants. An employment preparation agency screens applicants for work in a field related to their education and experience.

EURES, the European Job Mobility Portal, advertises job vacancies from 31 European countries, CVs from interested candidates, and guidance on recruiting migrants. It is supported by PES and EURES advisors in European countries and regions. Confined to the EU, it matches employers and less skilled workers. Bilateral agreements also incorporate similar matching provisions (see below).

Outreach. Incorporating labour migration into human resource strategies would usually be expected to be an employer initiative. Some outreach schemes may now get them thinking about it. One example is the Australian Outreach Officers Network for three different stakeholder groups – regions, industries, and national unions. The Outreach Officers are posted out or operate from departmental offices and provide information about skilled migrant recruitment, immigration options for managing skill shortages, employer obligations, and migrant worker rights. In Japan, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has started organising fairs, and developed a manual to explain to companies how to bring high skilled foreigners with non-Japanese qualifications into their business operations. Similar initiatives can be found in a number of European countries.

Employer sponsorship and accreditation

In the first instance the rationale behind sponsorship is to shift the burden of compliance towards the employer and emphasise the importance of local recruitment. In the case of seasonal workers, a vulnerable group, it is also to protect them by monitoring employers.

The sponsorship approach is aimed at mostly medium-sized and large companies that require a number of workers over a period of time and have the scale and systems in place to manage their accredited status. Its appeal and utility for smaller employers may be limited. Still, few countries use the approach. Where the LMT process is well established and easy to manage, pre-approval may not be an efficiency gain.

Because skill matching and recruitment are so important, some countries have devised sponsorship measures to afford employers more efficient access to the workers they need (Table 3.3). Sponsorship status in this regard involves employers meeting specific policy thresholds relating to their ability to recruit responsibly and manage overseas workers rather than sponsoring specific jobs or workers. Criteria used include employers' past annual recruitment numbers, human resource and training systems, history of compliance with employment and immigration laws, and efforts to recruit and train local workers. By tying these requirements to the employer, the United Kingdom – where sponsorship lies at the heart of the PBS – aims to improve compliance with its immigration system and reduce abuse. Compliance is also a factor in Korea's temporary labour migration system, which allows employers to take on workers on the strength of their past employment practices.

Qualification for sponsorship may be restricted to large-scale users of programmes. In New Zealand approved sponsors can involve discussions with social partners and other government agencies. In Sweden, certification occurs only if an employer requires at least 25 non-EU workers a year.

Once they have been granted an accreditation or sponsor status, employers are free to recruit overseas workers. In New Zealand the employer has to renew accreditation every year, while employers in the United Kingdom are rated either A or B. A-rated employers meet all requirements, while those who are B-rated must roll out time-limited action plans to acquire the A rating or lose their sponsor status. In New Zealand there are no caps on the number of foreign workers an accredited employer may hire. The United Kingdom

Table 3.3. **Employer sponsorship certificates and pre-sponsorship**

	Provision	Criteria	Duration
Australia	**Sponsorship accreditation** may be afforded to employers who meet the requirements to become a Standard Business Sponsor for the subclass 457 programme and have additional characteristics. Accredited sponsors receive priority processing of all nomination and visa applications.	In addition to Standard Business Sponsorship criteria, the following characteristics are required to be afforded accredited status: • Historically have a high volume of decision-ready applications (low rejection rate). • Record of compliance with relevant laws. • Be a government, publicly-listed or high-turnover company. • Active continuous sponsor for three years, with at least 30 visas granted in previous year. • Ensure Australian workers comprise at least 75% of workforce in Australia.	**6 years** (double the normal duration of subclass 457 sponsor status)
	Seasonal Worker Programme	• Agreement between Department of Employment and Employer, followed by sponsorship process.	
New Zealand	**Accredited employers:** pre-approved to recruit migrant workers for skilled work (no labour market test). Also grants benefits to worker who can gain a resident visa after working for two years.	• Financially viable. • Committed to training and employing New Zealanders. • Demonstrate attempts to recruit (and if appropriate, train) New Zealanders for the vacancy. • Sound human resource and workplace policies and practices; • Check out with agencies, relevant unions and other employee representatives; • Salary and full-time requirement.	**12 months**
United Kingdom	**Sponsor licence** allows an employer to be a sponsor of a worker under Tier 2 or 5 of the points-based system. Benefits: Sponsors of Tier 2 and 5 can avail a "premier" or "SME+" service (for additional fee) to avail individualised service. However, there is no exemption from labour market test.	• A legitimate organisation working within the law in the United Kingdom. • No reasons to believe that they are a threat to immigration control or that the organisation will not meet its sponsorship duties. • Sponsors are also awarded a sponsor rating (A or B), evaluated by looking at organisation's processes and human resource practices. If there are significant doubts, a B rating is awarded. B-rated sponsors must qualify for A-rating within a certain period or lose their sponsorship ability. • Migrants meet set thresholds and criteria for admission e.g. annual wages of GBP 20 300 for Tie 2 General Skills and a cap of 20 700.	**4 years**

practices an overall annual cap on the Tier 2 General Skills visa under which most non-EU temporary workers enter. Individual employers therefore receive a set number of sponsorship certificates (Table 3.3). Canada, Australia, and New Zealand use similar processes to approve employer sponsorship of seasonal workers.

In all cases, individual migrants (barring seasonal workers) must meet all the conditions (experience, qualifications, and wage thresholds related to the occupations) required of the labour migration channel.

Employer approval or accreditation is a sunk administrative cost – and often fee-paying. However, its subsequent benefits make it attractive. New Zealand waives the LMT for employers who have been granted pre-approval to recruit migrant workers. In Australia, the validity of sponsorship is doubled to six years for employers who gain accreditation, which requires meeting additional conditions such as a turnover of AUD 4 Million, past recruitment non-approval rates of less than 3%, and at least 30 skilled temporary workers recruited in the past 12 months. Such employers enjoy priority processing. The United Kingdom waives the self-supporting requirement for Tier 5 temporary workers if an A-rated sponsor certifies that they will not claim public funds during their stay. For an additional fee, A-rated sponsoring

employers can benefit from individualised services. In New Zealand, immigration instructions also allow an employer to support a potential employee's application for a work or residence visa by offering a job that meets relevant policy criteria. A skilled migrant who works for an accredited employer in New Zealand can apply for a visa in the Talent Work Category which may lead to residence.

Changing pathways to permanent migration

The term "permanent" denotes a status that the host country considers is for the long term. It may not turn out to be so in practice, of course, because intentions change (Lemaitre et al., 2007). Permanent does not mean that a person is necessarily granted unlimited leave to stay, but rather that he/she is on a "migration track" that normally leads to permanent residence in the host country. Permanent or permanent-type migrants could include people admitted with a permit of limited duration that is more or less indefinitely renewable, or people entering a country because they enjoy freedom of movement (e.g. EU citizens within the European Union). Long-term EU residents receive a permanent residence permit that is standard in all EU countries, valid for at least five years, and automatically renewable.

In settlement countries, immediate permanent migration was meant to facilitate a one-step move where migrants transitioned directly into permanent residence after meeting policy thresholds and criteria – whether under traditional points-based systems or other requirements, like the Green Card in the United States. Outside settlement countries, immediate permanent residence for labour migrants existed in only a few cases – e.g. indefinite leave to remain in the United Kingdom and permanent residence for the highly skilled under the pre-2008 Swedish system and in Germany. Some countries grant immediate permanent residence to other categories, e.g. through co-ethnic programmes as in Israel.

Permanent residence typically confers entitlements not granted to temporary permit holders. They include the eligibility to apply for citizenship, access to social security and health services, eligibility for citizenship of children born after arrival in the host country, and the right to vote. In settlement countries very little separates the entitlements enjoyed by a long-term permanent resident from those of a citizen.

One-step permanent migration still exists in traditional settlement countries, but is by no means the rule – in practice or in policy:

- In the United States, 89% of employment-based Green Card approvals in 2012 were for people already in the country.
- In the United Kingdom, under Tier 1 of the PBS for highly skilled migrants, 75 200 visas and extensions were issued for main applicants in 2011. Of those 88% were already in the country (OECD, 2013c).
- In 2011-12, half of all skilled migrants who acquired permanent residence in Australia were already onshore. Of permanent residents who arrived through the family stream 28% were also already onshore.
- In 2012-13 in New Zealand, most skilled permanent migrants were already in the country under a different status – 87% of principal applicants in the Skilled Migrant Category were approved onshore.

The changes in settlement countries reflect policy. Less-than-positive labour market outcomes of previous one-step permanent migrants led to PBS prioritising experience in the country as a better way of minimising labour market risks for migrants and host countries. In non-settlement countries, two-step permanent migration has long been the default, but growing importance is accorded to facilitating temporary-to-permanent transitions to both attract and retain skills. Permanent migration also continues to be relevant, however, because migrants seek a sense of certainty and belonging that enables them to make long-term investment decisions, all of which countries explicitly or otherwise use in their bids to attract and retain talent.

Different criteria for residence. Pathways and options to permanent residence from work or study or from study to work to residence usually involve consideration of: a) the total period of time spent in the destination country for work and/or study; and b) whether migrants meet prescribed conditions, such as an offer of permanent employment, wage and skill levels, and language proficiency.

Permanent residence is offered to both low-skilled and highly skilled workers. For those with low skills the deciding factor is having held a work permit for an uninterrupted period of time, which may vary between two years in Canada to ten years in Greece. Foreign nationals who arrive under the live-in care-giver programme in Canada may be eligible to apply for permanent residence if they have had the following work experience: 24 months or 3 900 hours of authorised full-time employment completed within a minimum of 22 months and acquired within four years of the migrant's date of arrival. Canada also offers residence to lower-skilled workers through its Provincial Nominee Class visa. With the exception of Poland, residence also provides pathways to naturalisation.

As for highly skilled workers, those holding United Kingdom Tier-1 or Tier-2 visas or US employment-based visas are eligible for permanent residence after five years.[31] The usual duration required in EU Blue Card schemes is five years, though German Blue Card holders may apply after two if they demonstrate working knowledge of German. Similarly, Korea stipulates five years, with the longest length of time being in Japan, where it is ten years. In the settlement countries (other than the United States), permanent residence is immediate, although indefinite permanent residence is granted after three years of stay.

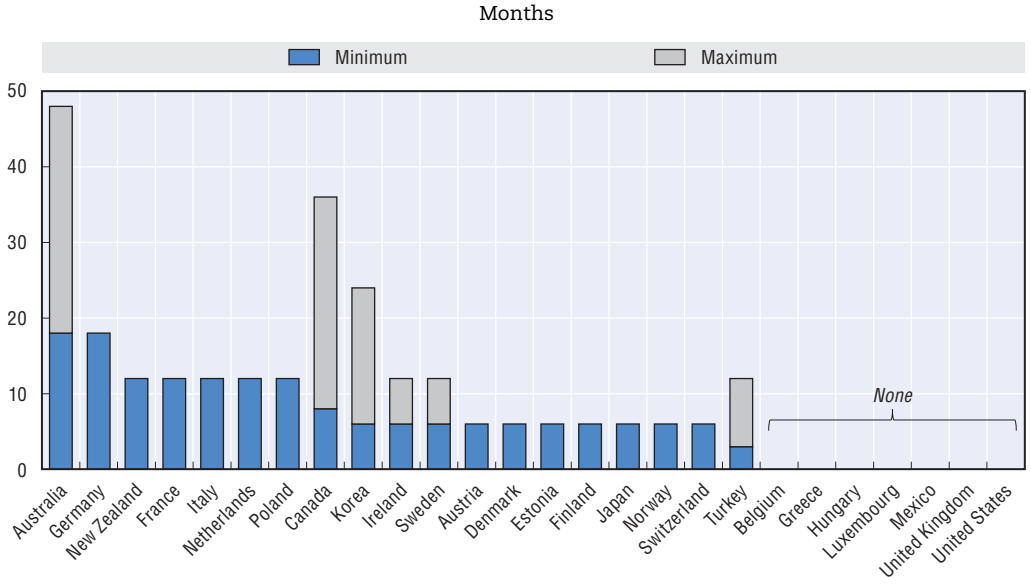
Besides duration, other conditions may attach to the acquisition of permanent residence. In Europe they often include language proficiency and civic integration, though meeting such requirements is sometimes facilitated for labour migrants and their family members.

Some settlement countries have built a multi-step process into residence pathways for labour migrants. The New Zealand Work to Residence visas (for those overseas) and the Australian Employer Sponsored and Regional Nominated visas are examples of pathways that lead gradually to residence. They are provisional visas that bring eligibility for permanent residence after two years. For example, in New Zealand the associated conditions are having the offer of a job that lasts 24 months, is on the long-term skills shortage list, is in the category of exceptional talent in the arts, culture or sports, or is sponsored by an employer at a specified minimum salary level. In Australia migrants must also undergo skills assessments and meet language standards and, where applicable, should have resided in a province for two years. In the case of Canada, the Canadian Experience Class (CEC) provides a pathway for applicants who have held a job in Canada for 12 months and meet language standards. Under the new Express Entry system, the CEC has no provision for an occupational filter.

A few OECD countries – such as Australia, Austria, Denmark, Germany and New Zealand – allow in immigrants without employment in search of a job (see below). Exceptions to job search visas that subsequently convert directly to residence are the nine-month-long New Zealand Silver Fern visa and its twin the Silver Fern Practical Experience visa (up to two years) for young people aged 20-35. Denmark's Green Card is valid for up to three years (subject to scoring over 100 points for educational level, language skills, work experience, adaptability, and age). Both are supply-driven options, though for New Zealand, residence is granted only if an applicant meets all the requirements for a Skilled Migrant Category visa.[32] The Danish Green Card, on the other hand, can be renewed.

Post-study job-search and work experience admission. International students are an attractive proposition for many countries as they generate revenue, help establish cultural and economic ties, and are a potential source of supplementary labour and prospective skilled workers. In this regard many OECD countries allow university students to look for a job on completion of their tertiary-level studies. It is a particularly appealing prospect when they have studied and worked part-time in the country and are familiar with its institutions, language, and workplace culture and expectations. Duration varies between six months in countries like Norway, Slovenia, Switzerland, Denmark, and Finland to one year in Japan and the Netherlands, two in Korea, and up to three in Canada.[33] In Australia students with doctorates can work for as long as four years (Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7. **Duration of job-search periods for post-graduate schemes in different OECD countries, 2014**



Source: Secretariat analysis.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157734

However, many other countries have no special provisions for staying on, and graduates must use the existing labour migration channels if they are to find qualifying employment. That is the case in Belgium, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Israel, Portugal, Spain and Sweden, the United Kingdom[34] and the United States. In Sweden, unusually, foreign students enjoy ease of access to the labour market during their studies and, if they do find work, may switch to work status even before they complete their studies.

Settlement countries (with the exception of the United States), along with Korea and Slovenia place no restrictions on the type of employment or hours worked during the job-search period, while Japan allows part-time work of up to 28 hours per week. In most countries (apart from Italy), however, work permits are issued only if job-search permits lead to students finding jobs that match their qualifications. In this respect, definitions of "matching criteria" can be quite strict when it comes to the level of education and subject matter of qualifications.[35]

Post-study work experience visas are another potential pathway to residence. Australia proposes a number of such schemes:

- The Post Study Work Stream is open to overseas students who have recently graduated with an eligible higher education degree from an Australian educational institution.
- The Australian Temporary Graduate Visa allows recent graduates to gain work experience in Australia.
- The Graduate Work Stream is open to graduates with an eligible qualification that relates to an occupation considered in demand in the Australian labour market.

In Canada, graduates of a Canadian post-secondary educational institution with one year of post-graduate full-time work experience in the country may apply for a CEC visa. It affords a transition pathway from temporary to permanent residence. If New Zealand employers can offer a graduate a long-term skilled job relevant to his or her qualification, he or she can apply for an employer-assisted post-study Work visa. Its duration is two to three years for occupations requiring registration and may afford the opportunity to apply for residence under the skilled migration policy.

The United States offers post-study stay extensions of up to 12 months (extended to 29 months for STEM graduates) for Optional Practical Training (OPT). It is not, however, linked to a job-search pathway that leads to automatic residence. It makes it easier, though, for employers to recruit student visa holders with skills that are much in demand, and gives them a chance to retain them by sponsoring them for an H-1B visa (Specialty Occupation). The extended period for STEM graduates is meant to allow employers two opportunities to file an application to sponsor the graduate the capped H-1B visa, since in practice filing is held once a year. Ireland's Third-Level Graduate Scheme allows non-EEA graduates of Irish institutions (excluding language students) to look for a job and/or work for up to 12 months. However, anyone who has been a student for more than seven years is ineligible.

Patterns of transition towards permanent residence have gradually evolved as migrants are increasingly able to change status while they are in the host country – something that almost all OECD countries allow students and labour immigrants to do. The challenge, however, is to offer incentives to migrant groups for whom the gradual transition to permanent residence, together with any associated delays, makes for an insecure, precarious existence that can be difficult to cope with. Such predicaments prompt questions over long-term permanent residency and the role it will continue to play in labour migration.

Most OECD countries allow international students to work during their studies (Table 3.A1.4). The right to work can influence their post-study careers, but it also raises a number of issues (Box 3.4).

Box 3.4. **International students and work rights**

Most countries allow international students some level of access to the labour market that is contingent on their course level and duration. In this way countries may attract students, as working helps them offset travel and study costs to some extent, while ensuring that their primary purpose remains higher education. It also gives students much valued exposure to the local labour market and new networks. And for some countries it brings additional revenue to educational institutions and is part of a strategy to drive export education. Students who work also form a skills pool from which employers may recruit future workers and residents. They are also an attractive way for countries to market their education industry.

However, there may be issues for students who do not have a clear understanding of the law and their rights (e.g. minimum wage levels and employment contracts). And matters are compounded if students are unwilling to complain because the balance of power rests with employers or because regulating agencies are unable to monitor their employment properly. Indeed, there is no easy way to identify international student workers, calculate weekly or aggregate hours worked, or check on the employers of migrant students.* A further factor is the adverse impact on the labour market. When there is a heavy concentration of unregulated international students, they may displace local workers, especially young ones, or depress wages.

* See ILO (2010).

Some countries have reflected on their overall international student recruitment approaches and made a number of policy changes. These include improved provision of information, more closely targeted compliance measures, and partnering with established tertiary education providers to ensure system integrity and on-going monitoring.

What happens when temporary labour migrants are unemployed. One principle of temporary labour migration is that migrants will leave when their jobs disappear. With the consolidation of pathways from temporary to permanent migration, spells of unemployment can interrupt the pathway. However, as unemployment rose during the recent financial and economic crisis in a number of OECD countries, the expected outflow of labour migrants did not happen. Policy reactions differed. European countries like Italy and Spain relaxed the conditions for migrants to maintain their status in order to enable them to seek work or to renew their permits even if their employment fell below the income or hours threshold previously required. Other OECD countries, especially those with strict limits on less skilled labour migration, maintained their criteria.

Some countries implemented programmes to encourage migrants with legal status to return to their countries of origin, although target populations and conditions varied. Spain introduced a scheme called "Accrued Payment for Foreigners Returning to Non-Community Countries". It offered non-EU foreigners holding work permits the chance to take up their unemployment benefits as a lump sum on the condition that they should not return for three years. Between 2008 and 2010, about 12 000 applications were approved, although a larger number, who had exhausted their unemployment entitlements, applied for a separate repatriation assistance programme. Most of the hundreds of thousands of potential beneficiaries remained in Spain.

In Japan some 20 000 foreigners accepted financial assistance under a return-migration scheme active until May 2009. It was for unemployed foreigners – including permanent residents – who had come from South America with a visa for people of Japanese origin and pre-arranged employment. However, as participants were not allowed to come back to Japan under the same visa arrangement, the number of Brazilians and Peruvians of Japanese origin leaving without taking advantage of the scheme was twice as high as those who participated. In 2013, Japan lifted those re-entry restrictions for former beneficiaries of the return scheme with a one-year job offer in hand.

In 2009 the Czech Republic, too, introduced a voluntary return plan for temporary workers who had lost their jobs. Those that relocated were awarded a cash payment and given travel costs. Several thousand labour migrants left the country, although it is unclear how many would have gone anyway, and many more remained.

The examples show how difficult it is, in times of slack demand, to enforce the departure of temporary labour migrants who are contemplating a pathway to permanent residence.

How to make a country more attractive: Rolling out the red carpet

Existing research on the determinants of labour migration does not yield an unequivocal list of the factors affecting skilled migrants' decisions to move or choose one destination over another. Migration patterns certainly suggest that job opportunities and wages, shared language, proximity, and existing channels promote migration flows. Policy, too, plays a role, but it is difficult to identify a single policy as a determinant.

Countries tend to provide sets of policy measures to attract skilled workers – advantages and rights – that may include family migration, access to permanent residence, etc. The rationale is that migrants' choice of destination and desire to stay in a host country are influenced by measures that make their move worthwhile. The number of advantages provided, how soon after arrival they are extended to migrants, and whether they take into account other policies, such as education or tax settings, could also play a role in migration decisions. Taken together, these policy measures could be called "red carpet treatment".

The "red carpet treatment" draws on key elements from the migration framework as well as other relevant policy domains. The extent to which an integrated or inter-connected set of policies is available also reflects a host country's attitude. Policies offer a number of perks that can constitute a red carpet, whether offered as a formal package or perceived as one.

The first perk is the promise of permanent residence (both long-term stays and indefinite leave to remain), attractive to migrants for the certainty it offers and the access to public services such as health, education and social security that it provides. Almost all countries propose permanent residence, especially for highly skilled migrants. Some, like the settlement countries, offer provisional permanent residence straightaway, with long-term permanent residence established after three years.

Pathways to permanent residence from temporary work or study can be a major incentive, as suggested by the changing pattern of migration that comprises two or even three steps (from study to work to residence). The approach is proactive compared to the default residence setting that usually comprises a time-limited period of working or residence. An essential aspect is the upfront provision of explicit residence pathways with

clear milestones and requirements. Signposted pathways to permanent residence for workers are not always provided, even when provisions are actually in place. The settlement countries promote "provisional" visas by highlighting that they can lead to residence.

A second perk central to attracting and retaining migrants is family reunification. Most workers – other than those on limited duration temporary work such as seasonal work – are allowed to bring families (accompanying spouses and dependents) on specific conditions, such as meeting income thresholds. Where permanent residence has been gained, policies in settlement countries and a few others also have provisions for sponsoring non-accompanying family members such as adult children and parents.

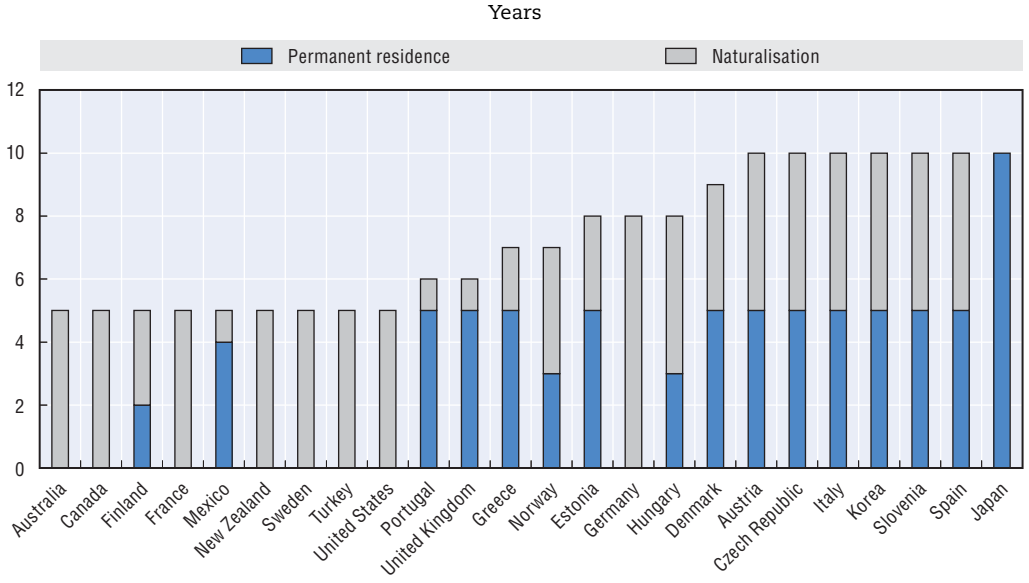
If families are to be effectively integrated they need to have access to the labour market. Unrestricted access to employment is available to most family members coming to join workers, usually highly skilled ones. A few countries insist on family members applying for a separate work permit, and the United States, Korea, and Japan all restrict the employment of skilled workers' spouses.

A "red carpet" may mean smoothing the path to permanent residence. Permanent residence criteria, like language tests, can discourage skilled migrants. However, they are requirements in many European countries (e.g. Sweden, Italy, and Denmark which has introduced a points system). Besides language proficiency, understanding of the host country's culture and society is a condition in Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom. Those requirements, too, may put off migrants. In settlement countries, such as Canada and Australia, the integration measures kick in with naturalisation, although language thresholds are screened for selection and admission. Japan and Korea both reduce permanent residence waiting times for certain highly qualified migrants on the basis of a PBS. In the United States, the time it takes to actually secure a permanent residence visa (Green Card) for employment depends on three criteria: the application filing date, priority preferences, and country of citizenship.

A further perk is the prospect of naturalisation. Long-term residents have invested time in the country and naturalisation should therefore normally flow from permanent residence.[36] Eligibility for naturalisation depends on the time a migrant has been in a country since obtaining long-term or indefinite leave to remain (Figure 3.8). That time varies between five years in the settlement countries, the Czech Republic, France, Sweden and Turkey, to up to ten in Austria, Belgium, Italy, Slovenia, and Spain. There are exceptions. For instance, in Germany permanent residence is generally obtained after five years and naturalisation after eight. However, permanent residence may be granted immediately to highly qualified researchers and university professors, while the residence requirement for naturalisation may be cut by one to two years for individuals judged to have a high integration capacity.

Fiscal advantages can be offered. Several countries offer tax concessions to specific groups of highly skilled workers. In Belgium, for example, the state grants a 75% exemption from wage-withholding taxation to temporary and permanent foreign migrants if they are research workers. Italy gives such migrants a 90% exemption from personal income tax on earned income for three years, while Sweden offers a 25% tax and social security contribution exemption. Switzerland allows foreign migrants – if they keep their temporary status – to deduct migration-related costs from their tax burden.

Figure 3.8. **Eligibility for permanent residence and naturalisation for "high skilled" labour migrants in different OECD countries, 2014**



Note: "High skilled" follows national definition; in the absence of specific categories, general criteria for labour migrants (work permit holders) are used. In France, naturalisation eligibility starts after 5 years of residence even though in practice citizenship grant may take longer.
Source: OECD Secretariat analysis.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157748

Migrants in Australia and New Zealand do not have to pay income tax on foreign-sourced income for up to four years and in Canada for up to five years. The measure addresses concerns that the taxation of capital income may affect migration decisions (OECD, 2011c) and it appears that income tax rates can influence the choice of location. An evaluation of the effects of income tax on the international migration and earnings of top earners using a Danish preferential tax scheme for foreigners showed the scheme did indeed double the number of highly paid foreigners in Denmark relative to slightly less well paid ineligible foreigners (Kleven et al., 2013).

Finally, there is the red carpet treatment where potential migrants are regarded as clients. They are courted and plied with premium services to facilitate their migration process. In practice, it is rare for public services to provide the kind of procedural and relocation assistance offered by private services. In Germany, the Hamburg Welcome Centre provides a free, comprehensive information and advice service and, for in-depth advice and solutions to particular problems, clients are referred to the relevant contact partners. A 2014 pilot scheme in the United Kingdom, the "GREAT Club", provides an invitation-only and personalised visa service programme for high-level executives. Individual employees of selected firms are offered their own immigration account manager who helps them through the immigration process, as they must nevertheless comply with all the standard requirements and formalities.

The mixed success of the job-search visa

Job search visas for a set period of time are meant to make a destination country more attractive. They are an alternative channel for employers to meet potential foreign workers face-to-face and a chance for migrants to take an investment risk and reconnoitre the

labour market. They are also a managed policy risk for migrants who do not meet other policy criteria but whose skills may well be required in the labour market. Put simply, job-search visas are a supply option with time limitations.

In-country status changes from tourist visas to work permits may be a form of job-search permit, especially between countries which have no visa requirements. Norway and Germany allow in-country issuance of a work permit while Sweden does the same for shortage occupations. The main beneficiaries are countries where there are no visa requirements. As most OECD countries allow visa-free travel to and from each other, the measures favour intra-OECD mobility in practice.

Job-search visas have been tried out in several countries – in the Netherlands, Denmark, New Zealand, Austria, Australia, and Germany – with different criteria and conditions attaching to eligibility, the right to work, and the duration of the job-seeking period. Austria, Denmark and the Netherlands use a PBS to assess job-search visa candidates, while Norway actually discontinued its job-search visa because of difficulty identifying the migrants most likely to succeed. The Netherlands offers a one-year search period under restrictive conditions and job-seeking visa holders may not work during that time.

New Zealand introduced the Silver Fern Visa to allow young people – including those who do not qualify for the mainstream admission system – to find skilled work. They are given nine months to do so. They may then transition to the Silver Fern Work Experience Visa that opens a pathway to permanent residence. With an annual limit of 300 places, the scheme is tightly managed.

One fundamental question about job-search visas is whether the recipients eventually find employment and, if not, whether they leave as they are supposed to. Evidence is mixed. In the United Kingdom, evidence of Tier 1 points-based system outcomes is contradictory. A survey in 2009 found that 70% were in skilled employment, but an analysis of occupations the following year revealed that fewer than half were in jobs which would qualify for one of the existing skilled migrant programmes (UKBA, 2010).

In Denmark, flows have been substantial, but evaluation indicates that far fewer find qualifying jobs. An evaluation in 2010 found that of all Green Card recipients in 2008-09, 27% never entered Denmark, and of those who did, 30% found skilled employment, 42% were in unskilled employment, and the remainder unemployed (Ramboll, 2010).[37] In the Netherlands the number of permits issued to applicants from abroad in the first two years of the programme, 2009 and 2010, was low – about 40. Less than-half of those found jobs that allowed them to qualify for the skilled migrant programme. In Norway, the share transitioning to skilled work permits was less than one in four.

Finally, job-search visas may also be offered not on the basis of skills, but of individual guarantees by current residents. Italy had such a visa in 1998-2001. Many of the recipients were sponsored by resident foreigners, but there is no evidence that their outcomes were different from labour migrants entering under other streams.

Where job-search programmes require an applicant to find a qualifying job in order to remain in the country, the fact that few qualify is not a major concern if they return home. Nonetheless, all the programmes were designed to select candidates with a high probability of labour market success. The fact that so few find qualified jobs suggests a problem with selection criteria. It is hard to pinpoint why it is difficult to choose candidates likely to be successful. The problem may lie with admission procedures (e.g. poor screening in consulates or fraudulent documents) or with the labour market (low demand for

foreign-trained workers). It may also lie in the reluctance of employers to hire migrants with foreign credentials and – in some cases – limited language proficiency. The poor economic conditions during the period covered may also be a factor.

Even if such issues could be solved, the job-search visa may not actually be an ideal solution to matching employers and employees across borders. In many OECD countries citizens from visa-free countries are still able to stay three to six months and search for a job. Few appear to do so, though, which suggests that migrants view the option as risky or unattractive.

International agreements – multilateral, regional and bilateral

A number of countries have international migration agreements which can be both public and private goods.[38] The advantage of such agreements is that they can achieve specific policy objectives that general systemic policy settings cannot.

Overall bilateral arrangements between origin and destination countries are a relatively diffuse form of international co-operation, particularly for seasonal workers, and those with low and medium skills. Instances of collaboration between two destination countries are rarer. Since the 1950s, groups of select countries have banded together to facilitate labour mobility among their members. Regional arrangements, such as EU directives, help with harmonising entry arrangements, access to privileges, and mobility across member states for non-EU citizens.

Regional co-operation for labour mobility. Countries that share close geographical, historical, political, and economic ties have liberalised access to their labour markets for each others' nationals to different degrees (OECD, 2012b). The EU's *acquis*, in particular, recognise that mobility rights have economic and social benefits for individuals and for member states, reducing skills mismatches, addressing unemployment, and supporting growth at EU level. Those benefits are reflected in the rights of EU citizens and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the member states.

The EU *acquis* also offer a framework for understanding subsequent facilitations in intra-European mobility targeted at various categories of non-EU nationals, such as long-term residents, highly skilled workers, Blue Card holders, researchers, students, and posted workers (EMN, 2013). For non-EU nationals, measures have been adopted at the EU level. They include the Long Term Residents Directive (LTRD) designed to bring the status of longer-term residents closer to that of EU citizens, and the Family Reunification Directive (FRD), which promotes harmonised family reunion as an aid to integration.

On the other hand, the Trans-Tasman Travel Agreement between Australia and New Zealand is not a binding bilateral treaty. It acts, rather, as a string of procedures in the immigration policies of both countries (APC and NZPC, 2012). The arrangement is part of the wider Closer Economic Relations Agreement between both countries and is meant to facilitate the free movement of people, capital, goods, and services.

Other examples of regional mobility come in the context of regional trade and economic integration agreements. Free trade areas, however, function at a lower level of regional economic integration than common markets. They have provisions that facilitate mobility between signatory countries and access to each others' markets for certain groups of workers – e.g. traders, service providers, intra-company transferees, business visitors and, in some cases, selected categories of professionals. Those workers do not usually, however, enjoy immigration rights.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Canada, Mexico and the United States has been in force since 1 January 1994. The agreement creates a stream of temporary immigration between the NAFTA signatory countries that facilitates access to specific occupations in local labour markets for qualified professionals who may be nationals of any of the three NAFTA members.

Special NAFTA visas (Treaty NAFTA, or TN, visas) may be issued to nationals of Canada, Mexico and the United States, provided that they have the offer of a job that is one of the professional occupations listed in the Treaty,[39] that they can prove that they possess the required qualifications and professional experience for the job, and that they do not intend to establish permanent residence in the country. NAFTA nationals qualifying under the TN stream are exempted from labour market tests and need not re-qualify under the host country's certification standards. Special NAFTA visas are temporary and are valid for no more than three years and, although indefinitely renewable, do not confer permanent immigration rights.

Free trade agreements (FTAs) increasingly incorporate labour mobility, which becomes an important aspect of negotiations to finalise FTAs. The Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations (PACER) Plus Two is a proposed trade, development, and economic co-operation agreement currently being negotiated by the 13 Pacific Forum Island Countries (FICs) plus Australia and New Zealand. The Pacific island governments are pushing in the current PACER Plus free trade negotiations for firm commitments by Australia and New Zealand to provide greater access to their labour markets in exchange for the removal of tariffs on goods and services.[40]

Another significant FTA in Asia-Pacific region is the 2010 ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Area (AANZFTA) agreement that incorporates migration-linked concessions, including the movement of intra-company transferees and independent service providers.

A wide variety of bilateral arrangements. Many bilateral arrangements typically cover the movements of seasonal, guest and holiday workers between the countries that are party to such agreements. Bilateral agreements can take the form of treaties, travel agreements, memorandums of understanding or even inter-agency agreements between government agencies. The objectives are multiple – cultural, social, and economic.

Working holiday visas are generally the result of formal treaties or agreements between countries which, on a reciprocal basis, place caps or quotas on the annual numbers of each others' nationals who are entitled to such visas. While the rationale behind the visas is cultural and social in nature, they appear to produce a large supplementary source of labour and may therefore have economic implications. The Working Holiday Maker visa programme, for instance, plays an important role in the Australian labour force (Tan and Lester, 2012).

The cumulative impact of such schemes can be a concern if flows become substantial and are concentrated in specific local areas (OECD, 2014a). The Summer Work Travel scheme in the United States involves an average of more than 100 000 participants annually. While the make-up of such flows and the average time spent between work and holiday varies over time and by country of origin, working holiday schemes are also becoming a channel, in some countries, for temporary workers.[41] In New Zealand, almost one in five first-time approvals in 2011-12 went to people who had previously held working holiday visas (OECD, 2014a).

Bilaterally organised seasonal programmes, designed to help specific sectors with seasonal demand for workers, also have other purposes, such as ensuring the protection of vulnerable workers and addressing development goals and ethical concerns in countries of origin.

The OECD country where bilateral agreements account for the highest number of workers is Korea. It has signed accords with 15 countries for recruiting non-professional workers and currently employs more than 240 000 such foreign workers. The agreements, which have been operating since 2004, govern the selection of workers, with the countries of origin responsible for preparing a roster of candidates who have passed a basic Korean language test. From the roster, employers choose workers who they provide with additional training and support throughout their stay in Korea. The programme has been successful in reducing costs for migrants and ensuring their working conditions are good. Relative to the trainee programme it replaced, overstay is low, although it does remain an issue.

European bilateral arrangements also cover vocational training and the filling of vacancies in shortage occupations. Italy, for example, has attempted for a number of years to shift its labour migration channels to recruitment based on training in the country of origin. Accordingly, it sets aside a quota within its migration programme for training scheme graduates and funds training programmes. In practice, employers have not made much use of this channel, and while courses have been organised in countries of origin, the number of labour migrants has been in the hundreds, rather than the thousands anticipated in the visa allocation (OECD, 2014b).

Maximising non-labour migration

A substantial proportion of migrant inflows are people who have not been explicitly selected and admitted on the strength of their labour market attributes. Family formation migrants, whether accompanying their immediate family or subsequently joining them, stem from labour migration. On the other hand, other streams of non-labour immigration, such as humanitarian migrants and students, are independent.

Spillover or derived migration accounts for a sizeable proportion of total admission quotas. In the case of permanent migration, countries tend to manage such flows on an annual basis because of the fiscal considerations involved. In the United States, employment-based visas account for about 20% of annual admissions while the family category accounts for 40%. In New Zealand, the residence programme is split between Business/Skills, Family-sponsored and International/Humanitarian migration. Australia shows a similar distribution, although there is a separate planning level for the humanitarian stream.[42]

While the right to family reunification is granted to many migrants – whether labour or other, permanent or temporary – the question arises as to how to maximise contribution from the whole family as an economic or migratory unit. This is an area for integration, yet there is some leeway for policy criteria, too. On the face of it, self-selection usually helps address some of the issue. Skilled migrants also tend to select partners from within similar socio-economic groups, a pattern known as "assortative mating".

The labour market outcomes for secondary applicants or spouses compare well to those of the average native or migrant in some settlement countries. In Australia, partner migrants coming through the family stream experienced participation rates of 73% at 12 months.[43] The Longitudinal Immigration Survey in New Zealand showed how skilled

secondary migrants saw big improvements in labour force participation rates over six and 36 months after gaining permanent residence. The increase was from 67% to 74%. Skilled secondary migrants also experienced the largest increases in median income over three waves of interviews, reflecting an increase in the number of such migrants in paid work.[44]

If an accompanying family is a multiplier of the effects of labour migration, what policy measures can be applied to maximise such benefits? There are limits to the criteria and thresholds that can be applied to family migrants, as there is no explicit labour objective attached to them. However, language acquisition is fundamental to family adjustment and many countries accordingly set language levels or charge for language learning – by, for example, requiring the pre-purchase of language tuition for parents and children who will not otherwise meet the criteria for permanent migration. Some destinations (e.g. Quebec) build in incentives by allocating bonus points in the PBS for a spouse's qualifications or job offers, and favour family units where both adults have language skills.

Addressing irregular migration

A number of OECD countries have substantial irregular migrant populations in their labour force, often with high employment rates. Irregular labour migration occurs when effective channels are not in place to meet labour demand and measures to prevent the illegal employment of foreigners are inadequate. Border enforcement cannot prevent illegal overstay, while the enforcement of labour laws within the country will never completely eliminate irregular employment. Although both kinds of enforcement are necessary, it may be advisable to regularise undocumented labour migrants in conjunction with policy changes in order to address employer demand and improve compliance. The advantages of regularisation are improved compliance with labour law, increased fiscal contributions, and greater use of migrant skills as career mobility is enhanced.

Regularisation in the absence of structural policy change that addresses the root causes of the growth in irregular sections of population is no solution. Yet carefully designed regularisation can ensure that beneficiaries do not slip back into an irregular status. Temporary migrants can be allowed to stay under temporary programmes. Korea, for example, allowed overstaying trainees to transfer into its new work permit system when the latter was introduced. Italy and Spain rolled out several employment-based regularisation programmes in the 2000s. Italy granted temporary permits. But because so many beneficiaries did not hold formal employment contracts allowing them to renew their permits, they eventually fell back into the cycle of undocumented status. Spain instituted a mechanism whereby irregular migrants obtain permits on the basis of demonstrable employment and contribution to local life, attested by certification from the local government.

Integrity measures

Immigration requires a range of regulatory obligations from all stakeholders, especially workers and employers. Non-compliance with regulations governing employment conditions can have adverse consequences for workers, employers, and the overall labour market. Policy regimes, therefore, use a range of mechanisms to ensure that all players play by the rules, penalising defaulters but also using incentives to promote mutually beneficial outcomes.

Withholds. Withholds are a way of holding back a financial sum to ensure that a party to a contractual agreement fulfils his or her side of the bargain – specifically that temporary workers depart at the end of their contract period. In Israel, the government holds on to one-fifth of a temporary worker's earning which it then hands over as a lump sum when the worker leaves the country legally and within the terms of his or her visa. The practice has the advantage of encouraging workers to return home at the end of their spell of work.

A withhold, however, requires that the net wage remains above the minimum wage and is sufficient for living expenses.[45] Migrants can also be encouraged to go home by provisions stipulating that a portion of their wage earnings will be paid directly to their home country.[46] A drawback of withholds is that they penalise workers who are unable to abide by their visa conditions through no fault of their own – through employer fraud or abuse, for example. Withholds are thus ill-suited for systems where workers' mobility is restricted and they can easily slide into irregular status.

Bonds. Bonds, too, are an incentive that can be redeemed upon fulfilling a condition. In New Zealand, a secondary or dependent permanent migrant who fails to meet language thresholds has to pay a substantial sum of money that he or she can recoup as a bond on a sliding time scale – the sooner a migrant meets a certain language level, the higher the amount he or she can claim back.[47]

Bonds have also been discussed as a guarantee against overstay, with migrants forfeiting a deposit if they outstay their visa. But such a measure would pose serious problems, such as having to build up deposits to a deterrent level. Nowhere has it been implemented.

Accreditations, sponsoring, rating systems. Systems of accreditation, sponsorship and rating entail employers undertaking to meet employment and immigration compliance standards. Those who demonstrate systems and histories of proven compliance with relevant immigration and employment laws are offered a status that exempts them from normal regulatory procedures. For example, an accredited company in New Zealand does not have to put its vacancies through the individual LMT as long as it meets a minimum salary threshold. In contrast, the employer and sponsor rating system in the United Kingdom is mandatory and offers no such advantages.[48]

Repeat entry. Repeat entry (as opposed to multiple entry visa) is one tool that may apply when overstay is a significant concern for both host and origin countries. Guaranteeing workers a future season for which they can return if they have met the conditions of the work visa (and satisfied their employer) can mitigate issues over overstay. To some extent, repeat entry is a tacit recognition of so-called circular migration, with alternating periods of labour migration and employment at home.

Preferential tax rates. Examples of preferential tax rates are tax-free thresholds for certain labour migrants, as in working holiday schemes and seasonal worker programmes. They have often been used, like provisions for tax refunds at the end of the fiscal year, once the migrant has returned home. A less coercive approach might be to allow migrants, upon their return home, to recover all or part of the contributions they have made to unemployment insurance and old-age security programmes – even if they are not eligible for benefits under those programmes due to insufficient periods of contribution (OECD, 2008a).

Cost recovery. Under cost recovery in OECD countries like Korea, Italy, New Zealand, and Australia, the employer must undertake to foot the bill in the event of an expulsion order. However, it is questionable whether employers have the means to verify, much less guarantee, that the migrant will leave at the end of his or her contract. It is just as doubtful whether the employer requirement can be enforced (OECD, 2008a).

Cost-sharing. When employers undertake to share costs for seasonal workers – for example, a portion of travel expenditure – it adds to the cost wedge involved in recruiting from overseas. Employers also have to pay for going through accreditation processes, a further cost designed to act as a deterrent from employing foreign labour when local workers are available. The sharing of costs, however, also works as an incentive for workers (and sending communities) to participate in seasonal work, as it cuts the fixed costs of entry and means less reason to overstay.

Foreign-worker levies. Foreign-worker levies are a salary-based tax on the employment of foreigners, and are used in a number of non-OECD countries to discourage employment of foreign workers. The only OECD country to use it is Israel, where fees are the highest among all OECD countries, at 10%-15% of an agricultural or construction worker's salary. The levy has been unsuccessful in achieving its policy goal, as real wages paid to foreign workers remain well below those paid to Israelis (OECD, 2013d). The combination of high rents that employers obtain and low compliance enforcement have prevented levies from functioning properly.

Estonia does not levy a charge but requires that employers pay to a worker a premium that is 24% of the average wage for the worker's occupation.

Summary of the policy toolbox

Surveying the range of tools used across the OECD reveals that most are of a regulatory nature and few are incentive- or price-based. Most instruments also seem to have universal coverage: the same ones are used across skill streams and applied to temporary and permanent migrants alike. There are exceptions, however. One is the PBS, which seeks to sort highly skilled migrant applicants and select the best.

Over time, certain tools have become prevalent. They include labour market testing, skills shortage lists, and numerical limits. Others, like job-search visas, are less widely used because of the risks involved and the poor outcomes to date. The collective experience of these tools suggests that no single one may be used in isolation, and that a policy mix within the labour migration framework may work to varying effect in a number of different contexts.

The pros and cons of the different policy tools discussed are set out in Table 3.4, along with the indications as to where they might best be used.

Making the tools work

The discussion so far has examined the policy tools for a labour migration management system. It has looked at what they are and how they function and explored their technical appropriateness. While policy choices are, in a sense, substitutable – in that any means could be used to achieve any end – the usefulness and attractiveness of policy instruments are heavily context-dependent.

Table 3.4. **Summary of the migration policy toolbox**

Tool	Advantages	Disadvantages
Labour market test	• Ensure that jobs are offered locally, demonstrate no local supply. • Employers understand job search techniques.	• Easy to distort (job description). • Often no standardised testing within country, PES may not actually be real location for matching. • Beyond nominal listings, difficult to enforce. • Requires administrative machinery to be effective, which imposes delays and costs.
Salary threshold	• Simple. • Means to proxy skills when no other indicators exist or when recognition is difficult. • Easy to explain to public.	• Subject to fraud, difficult to verify post-entry, pegging to occupation requires good data, can be controversial for public opinion because easy to point to anomalies. • It appears to regulated the market rate.
Shortage list	• Easy to explain to public and labour supply chain, can have short and medium term demand focus, exempts use of individual LMT, can be combined with other tools such as quotas.	• Possibly inappropriate for unskilled occupations. • Complicated to develop. • Difficult to assess experience component. • Subject to interest group lobbying. • Frequency of revision affects responsiveness to demand. • Risk of negative incentives for training local workers.
Numerical limits	• Can be based on planning levels. • Sends public a message of political control. • Allows planning processing capacity. • Clearly signals that access to migrant labour is not open-ended, so employers maintain local recruitment and development.	• Difficult to define means for setting limits. • Potentially inflexible. • Potentially unfair. • Subject to political pressure. • Can lead to backlogs or waiting list.
Multi-step migration	• Testing period for integration. • Allows both migrant and country to “try before buy”.	• Leaves migrants in precarious status. • Can delay family reunification. • Potentially less attractive in global competition for talent. • Increases administrative complexity (managing status changes) for both migrant and public authorities.
Bilateral agreements	• Reduce costs, ensure quality and quantity for specific sector or occupation, incorporate development objectives, reduce overstay. • Achieve foreign policy, cultural and social objectives. • Adds to supplementary labour force. • Increase youth mobility.	• Unfair to privilege specific countries, employer preference may be for different nationalities or specific groups. • May be signed without regard to real labour market. • For circular programme, first movers are prime beneficiaries (for origin country). • High administrative oversight costs. • Cumulative impact of uncapped agreements on the labour market may be negative (e.g. negative impact of working holiday makers).
Employer sponsorship and pre-approval	• Accelerates recruitment process. • Increases and rewards compliance.	• Favours current and larger users of migrant labour. • Processes/costs may discourage some employers, administratively complex. • Requires monitoring and good information.
Points based system	• Ensuring minimum human capital and settlement criteria while meeting current demand and long term employability. • Takes entire family into account. • Hybrid systems adapt to demand and supply orientations. • Linked to limits. • Prompts positive self-selection.	• Post-entry retention not assured. • Requires investment in ongoing evaluation to recalibrate points criteria. • Complex for migrants. • Verification of skills is cumbersome. • If linked to target, threshold varies with demand.
Services for employers (job fairs, web portals for matching, specialist staff)	• Filling or complementing gaps that the market cannot provide. • May be less expensive than private recruitment services for public sector employment (e.g. health care). • Government services signal public support.	• Direct government involvement in matching may not be allowed. • Represents government subsidy to employers to hire from abroad. • Competes with private services. • Coverage is limited. • May be expensive.
Providing a “Red Carpet” for selected migrants	• Appropriate for global competition for talent. • Signals a welcoming host country. • Allows added effect of spousal employment.	• Many determinants are unrelated to migration decision making. • Public opinion may be against subsidies for recruitment from abroad. • Institutional culture may not be client-oriented.
Job search visa	• Retaining a supply side option with limited time duration, helps overcome matching from afar.	• Selection criteria difficult to identify and need to be revised based on experience. • Matching and skills verification can be difficult. • Few qualify, so managing return of unsuccessful migrant job seekers .
(Dis-)incentives (withholds, bonds, sponsor or trusted partner status, repeat entry)	• Reduces overstay. • Uses market measures to increase compliance from employers and migrants.	• High costs of managing administration and enforcement. • Risk of penalising migrants in the case of employer non-compliance, and vice versa.

In times of budget constraints and personnel reduction, for example, it may make sense to focus on industry and various third parties, using more incentive-based instruments and different forms of self-regulation, rather than have the public sector take on additional tasks. The emergence of "trusted partnerships", or systems for accrediting employers, have come about over the past few years – partly in response to the need to better target the oversight provided by stretched public authorities and inspectorates.

Public opinion may also be the driving force behind the choice of some instruments rather than others – particularly when there are calls for more restrictive approaches to selection and admission. The idea of numerical control in a demand-driven policy is a strong signal to the public that the government controls the numbers of foreign workers it is allowing into the country (Chaloff, 2014). The re-introduction and strengthening of labour market tests in Australia[49] and Canada in 2013, for example, was partly influenced by public concern over temporary work programmes.

The trend towards shortage lists, for example, shows how technical exercises have been wedded to consultation phases in order to build consensus and reduce political conflict. The public consultation phase used by Canada as one element in setting its annual planning levels is another example. The increasing use of advisory committees in policy development reflects the use of network-type instruments in a complex decision-making environment where much information is ambivalent.

Institutional infrastructure and the culture of the country also affect the applicability and attractiveness of certain tools. For example, the relationship of citizens and users to public administration can determine the success of some tools. Tools requiring substantial discretion by individual civil servants in evaluating applications, for example, work best where they develop expertise and where strong integrity measures are in place to prevent corruption. No tool can be chosen without considering the prevailing national practices of implementation – i.e. the social norms guiding behaviour in the public sector (Linder and Peters, 1990).

Managing flexibility amidst constraints

The ability to show policy flexibility and agility is essential for adapting to changes in the policy environment. While doing nothing is a legitimate policy option in some cases, in many others the opportunity costs of inaction or deferred action could be high. Flexibility serves many purposes – to seize emergent opportunities, manage unexpected events and shocks, or make mid-course corrections.

Institutional arrangements can be facilitators or barriers. The flexibility of policy is related to the level of legislation into which policies are written (law, regulations, instructions, etc.), the frequency and speed at which legislative changes can be introduced, and the related machinery of government for policy making and delivery.

In the United States, for example, some of the most important aspects of labour migration programmes are written into legislation, giving them less flexibility to respond to changing market conditions or technology. Shortage lists, for example, are set in statute. Other institutional characteristics can make change more complex, but still achievable. Canada has introduced a number of changes, some through legislative amendment, although it must reckon with a prescriptive constitution, independent provinces, and a strong judiciary which has overturned various legal changes.

Limits to flexibility can also come from rigid administrative systems. In many countries, policy changes can happen only at certain times of the year for cost-related or administrative reasons. IT infrastructure may also be a limit. The capacity of institutions to adapt to changes needs to be taken into account, since ambitious reforms may be hamstrung by limited capacity or an unrealistic timeframe for realisation.

Moving with change, seizing opportunities. Policy flexibility signals the ability to change instruments and, at times, objectives. The growing shift towards demand-oriented permanent migration is an example of learning from outcomes and being able to shift the means to achieve the same ends. Similarly, re-introducing new forms of supply channels such as job-search visas is an example of the willingness to experiment with alternative tools, albeit on a limited scale.

Policy experimentation can involve looking to seize opportunities to trial new concepts. Major infrastructure investment may call for special permits to be issued or conditions adjusted. Italy created a channel for construction workers for an international exposition, for example, and Japan has planned additional options for recruiting foreign construction workers through the 2020 Olympic Games. Two initiatives were taken in New Zealand in the wake of the 2011 Canterbury earthquakes, which required a significant rebuild. One was to extend work rights to international students in limited duration language courses so as to attract students to language providers in the region. The second was to set up a Canterbury skills and employment hub to provide job-matching, information-sharing, and immigration facilitation services, with a dedicated team of skills brokers. The hub helps employers access international labour markets through a streamlined immigration process.[50]

National policy can also build on local initiatives. One example is the New Scotland Initiative, a regional scheme to attract international skills for mitigating a regional demographic issue. While it was not set up as a pilot, the concept was mainstreamed across the United Kingdom and subsequently integrated into one of the tiers of the country's Points-Based System.

Agility appears to be the exception. No policy, even one with self-correcting measures, can run on autopilot. Sweden's purely demand-driven system, for example, was introduced in 2008 to reflect real demand, but required adjustments to procedures in 2012 to prevent abuse of the system. Australia's subclass 457 visa (for skilled temporary workers) has historically paralleled changes in demand. Yet, even tighter requirements have been introduced to ease the adverse impacts on domestic workers and possible misuse of the system. One response in many countries has been to create monitoring and advisory bodies, such as migration directorates or advisory councils. The ever more frequent appearance of such bodies indicates increased policy activity.

Overall, pilot programmes (Box 3.5) may be a way to assess the validity of a new policy approach before scaling it up to the national level.

Consultation and continuous improvement

Public consultation in migration policy making appears more widely used when identifying skill shortages. Public consultation can take different forms: in Sweden, stakeholder meetings; in Italy, a cap-setting process; in Slovenia, a tri-partite consultative body. Other examples of measures developed through public consultation include France's

Box 3.5. **Pilot programmes and periodic reviews: Learning what to keep, modify or stop altogether**

Good practice postulates that the full-scale introduction of new policies and delivery mechanisms should, wherever possible, be preceded by closely monitored pilots. Phased introductions help not only to inform implementation, but to identify and prevent unintended consequences. A pilot is an important first stage in regular, longer-term policy monitoring and evaluation.

Migration policy has seen a number of pilots, some of which were later mainstreamed. Both Australia and New Zealand trialled their seasonal worker programmes. At the beginning of 2009, the Netherlands introduced a programme (the "Regeling Hoogopgeleiden") that allows recent graduates of highly ranked universities abroad to spend up to a year searching for work on the Dutch labour market. An evaluation of the programme after two years concluded that its uptake had remained disappointingly low. Yet it argued that it could be expected to increase and that even a small number of highly skilled migrants were valuable. Ultimately, the programme was continued and uptake has been rising considerably.

Some pilots have served to show that projects should not be mainstreamed. One example is the Czech Republic's "Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers" pilot, 2003-10. Another was the "Dutch Bluebirds" pilot for circular migration from South Africa which, although it closed prematurely, provided valuable lessons. A pilot that reveals a policy to be flawed or ineffective should be viewed as a success rather than a failure, as it has helped to avert a potentially larger political and/or financial embarrassment. In this sense even truncated pilot programmes can be worthwhile.

A number of countries have introduced regular or specific reviews of the outcomes of labour migration programmes. Canada regularly conducts such reviews and evaluations. Evaluating programme progress and reporting on results are meant to provide senior managers with evidence-based information to improve programming, shape new policies and programmes, and ensure value for money. Evaluation studies consider a programme's on-going need, intended outcomes, and whether there are alternative, more cost-effective ways to meet objectives.

The United Kingdom created its Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) in 2008 to advise on the make-up of the shortage occupation list. Its remit has since expanded to looking at specific policy issues on non-EU labour immigration. Issues include the impact of non-EU migration and means for imposing limits on migration.* The MAC-style approach to informing government migration policy was among the first of its kind anywhere in the world and is a model that is now being considered or adopted by other countries. In July 2012, Australia set up the Ministerial Advisory Council on Skilled Migration (MACSM) with a remit to provide the Australian government with expert advice on the role of skilled migration in the Australian economy. Ireland and Canada have followed suit. Finally, as part of proposed immigration reform in the United States, a government-funded Bureau of Immigration and Labour Market Research that conducts monitoring and analysis would have been created.

* *www.ukba.homeoffice.gov.uk/sitecontent/documents/aboutus/workingwithus/mac/role-mac.*

finalisation of its shortage lists, MAC's bottom-up consultation for the Shortage Occupation List, and the New Zealand public submissions and consultations for the Essential Skills in Demand List.

Other areas of consultation are determining planning levels and even integration measures. Canada has a strong tradition of consultation across various policy issues. In late 2012, the immigration agency, Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC), held consultations with Canadian employers on building the EoI system – a commitment made in the Economic Action Plan 2012. Similarly public consultation has occurred to some extent for setting CIC's annual Immigration Levels Planning. The United Kingdom Home Office undertakes full consultation on significant issues, such as (recently) the principles and measures included in the fees and charges proposals of the Immigration Bill 2013.

There are few instances of more joined-up and innovative policy-making practices, although the emergence of the New Zealand seasonal work programme is one (Box 3.6).

Box 3.6. **Policy co-production and participatory policy-making processes**

The value of public participation can be viewed through an instrumental lens – as a tool for increasing public trust and confidence, gathering evidence on complex issues that technical analyses may not discover, and a way of limiting risk and finding partners to implement complex solutions.

The New Zealand Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme is the result of a joined-up policy production process (New Zealand Department of Labour, 2010). The impetus for joined-up government intervention in the horticulture and wine-growing labour markets came from several policy agencies: Labour, Economic Development, Social Development, Agriculture and Forestry, Trade and Enterprise, and the Inland Revenue Department. Problems with seasonal labour supply and compliance led to the formation of the Horticulture and Viticulture Seasonal Working Group, which was styled as a partnership between industry, government, and other organisations. The working group sought to integrate the concerns and on-going initiatives of multiple government agencies and lobbying by different industry groups, working to shift control away from contractors, who had become central, but under-scrutinised and largely unregulated players, in both industries. The working group subsequently developed the Medium-Long-Term Horticulture and Viticulture Seasonal Labour Strategy, from which the RSE Policy eventually emerged. The policy was thus a part of the broader strategy to address systemic seasonal labour market issues.

More specifically the Seasonal Labour Strategy was developed through systems analysis and action learning processes, involving time-intensive iterative sessions with government agencies, industry actors, and union representatives. While the payoff can be significant for robust policy making, the huge up-front investment in such learning exercises can deter some agencies from considering such approaches especially in constrained times.

Feedback loops: Monitoring, research and evidence in policy making. The different feedback arrangements in place across OECD countries reflect their different accountability and learning priorities. Such variety of arrangements is the result of many factors, not least the evaluative culture and organisational learning in public sector environments. Legislative or ministerial requirements may impose routine evaluation and reporting on new and established policy initiatives.The capacity and capability for undertaking such work also determine what kind of arrangements are put in place. Further, the nature of funding available for evaluating and reporting, whether one-off allocations or from portfolio budget

baselines, can also influence such evidence collation. Longitudinal surveys, after all, are expensive to run. Where there is a link to routine performance reporting, dedicated funding is more likely.

The role of evaluations, while significant, can vary both in scope and the way in which they are utilised for further change. They can focus on the wider economic and, at time, social impacts of immigration, as well on specific policy and programmes like the skilled visa stream or the operational efficiency of handling visas. Many settlement countries undertake periodic evaluations – examples are Canada's on-going evaluation work programme or the programme reviews by the United States Government Accountability Office (GAO).

The United Kingdom Home office undertakes evaluation and research while the Migration Advisory Committee provides independent advice and evaluation-type reviews of overarching policy streams rather than individual service-level programmes. Systematic evidence collation can also come through other mechanisms such as the Swedish Independent Parliamentary Committee report or Norway's white paper on refugee and migration policy. The Netherlands, like many other countries, undertakes mostly one-off evaluation – especially when introducing a new policy accompanied by a directive for officials to evaluate and report back.

Having arrangements for systematic feedback helps in knowing what policy outcomes are being achieved and how well they meet intended objectives. Such on-going information should, however, be linked to appropriate policy changes, corrections or enhancements, for both agencies and governments.

Beyond monitoring flows and stocks: Forecasting. Some OECD countries undertake systematic forecasts of labour demand and supply and estimate the potential role of migration factors in the equation. One example is the model used by Statistics Norway. Its 2013 analysis modelled the demand and supply of labour by educational level to 2030, yielding a forecast of surplus and shortage for each level. The model builds in a level of net immigration comparable to that seen in the late 2000s – about 40 000 annually – and applies the education distribution of immigrants from that period, most of whom were from within the EEA. The work and its findings were not directly related to migration policy, however.

In Australia, since 2010, the Department of Immigration and Border Protection (DIBP) has developed a short-term forecasting model of net migration arrivals and departures over a four-year horizon. Revised quarterly, they are published on the department's website.[51] The model offers the advantage of forecasting the consequences on population growth of the rise in numbers of temporary visas – especially among international students – so allowing the governments to factor such effects into policy design. Such modelling was not available in the mid-2000s, when population growth from migration was inaccurately forecast.

New Zealand carries out bi-annual econometric forecasting of visa volumes to inform residence planning and budget management. Australia and Canada, too, adjust their permanent residence targets on an annual basis, drawing upon forecasting tools and other information like varying labour market conditions (OECD 2014a). In Germany, a Federal Employment Agency forecast of skilled labour shortages quantified needs for skilled migrants, taking into account the limits of upskilling and participation increases (OECD, 2013b).

In summary, policy makers have at their disposal a wide range of increasingly sophisticated tools to achieve their policy goals. Not all institutional settings are capable of using them to their full potential, or even appropriately. It is important not to confuse the tool with the objective it is supposed to achieve. Further, simple tools may also be the most effective, especially when matched with efficient migration infrastructure.

Building a migration management infrastructure

In migration, as in other policy areas, implementation matters and can determine the success of any policy in achieving its goal. The ability to realise policy goals depends on the capacity for delivery. Capacity, in turn, hinges on the human and capital resources, processes, and practices involved. There is, however, no single ideal labour migration management infrastructure.

Sound policy settings are a necessary condition, but not in themselves sufficient to realise intended policy outcomes. Policy objectives often require a range of operational and/or service delivery infrastructure and programmes to achieve their intent. Service delivery can, in the rush of policy making, become an afterthought rather than a priority. Furthermore, well designed service support becomes more important as countries increasingly consider "active" immigration policies (Chaloff and Lemaître, 2009) that aim at enhancing the attractiveness of admission policies.

Effective engagement with migrants and employers, two key users of immigration services, is essential to how migration policy works in practice. Studies of employers in a number of countries have found that they are frustrated by the burdensome processes and bureaucracy they endure in recruiting migrant workers (MBIE, 2013). As a result, they use agents or other channels. Migrants, too, have concerns with cumbersome procedures.

While improvements to processing address such barriers to migration, they also reflect the general sharpening of administrative machinery in many countries, which is prompted by changing economic conditions and greater emphasis on public sector efficiency and value for money.

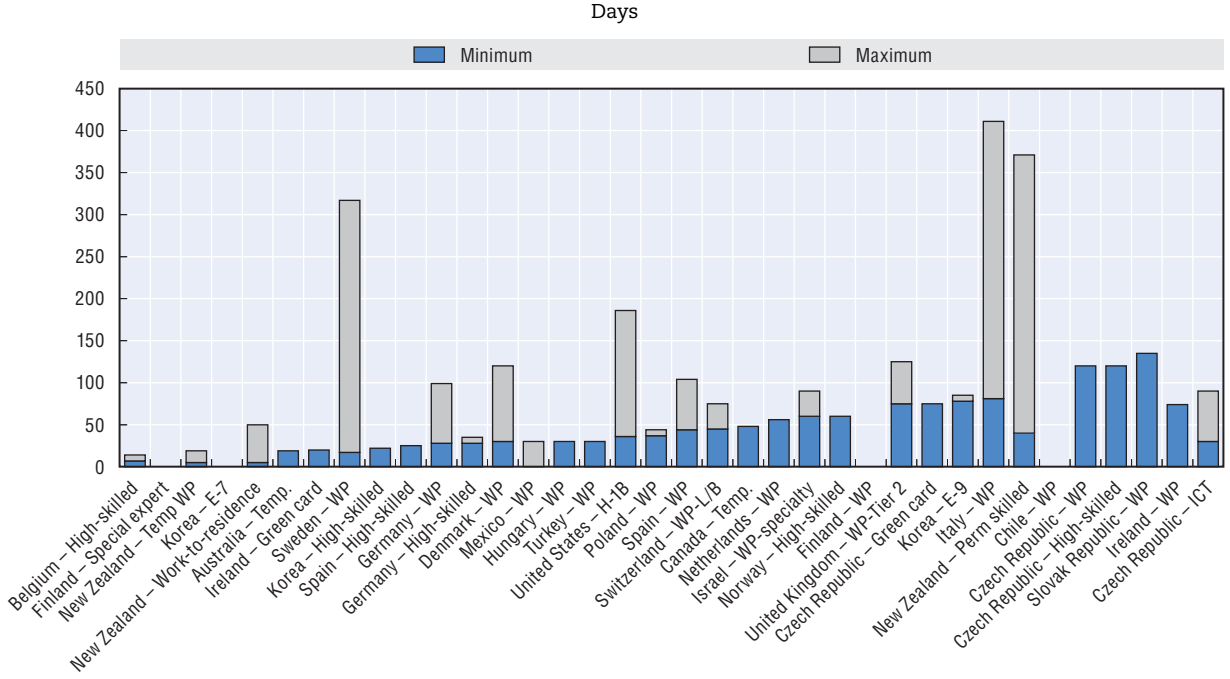
Improving processing channels

One means of improving system efficiency is through faster processing. A system characterised by significant delays or backlogs is an incentive to bypass official channels or hire before approval is granted. A cross-country comparison of how long it takes to process highly skilled immigrants (Figure 3.9) shows significant variations in the shortest and the longest times.

Against this background there is a growing trend towards online submission and outsourcing visa application acceptance as part of customer focus and efficiency (Box 3.7).

A number of countries are moving online as a way of increasing efficiency, cutting down backlogs, and responding better to client needs. Part of the rationale for online submissions is that case officers can spend more time on decision making than on paper work. Examples of online submission include the United Kingdom's system, Australia's SkillSelect, New Zealand's Immigration Global Management System (IGMS), (CIC Online in Canada), the United States' DS-160 Non-immigrant Visa Electronic Application, and systems in Sweden. In Sweden the online processing of applications takes four weeks, half the time it takes paper applications (OECD, 2011b). One reason is that online applications must be formally complete, so no time is wasted with incomplete ones. The United Kingdom charges higher fees for paper applications to discourage them, while Italy accepts applications online only.[52]

Figure 3.9. **Processing times for work permits, various categories, 2014 or latest**



Source: OECD Secretariat.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157753

Box 3.7. **Customer/client satisfaction surveys and reviews**

A number of OECD countries benchmark their service channels and processes by measuring indicators like efficiency and client satisfaction. Clients may be the migrants themselves, their employers, or even their representatives (agents, lawyers, etc.). In the United States, a customer survey evaluated key aspects of the E-Verify programme such as registration, tutorials, ease of use, technical assistance, and customer service. It compared the score on the American Customer Satisfaction Index scale with the government's overall score.[1] Since 2013, migrants applying for a visa from outside, as well as inside, the United Kingdom have been responding to a customer satisfaction survey. After they receive a decision on their visa application, they are sent an email that invites them to answer a questionnaire via a web link.[2] Australia uses market research approaches to understand the needs and target services of client groups.[3]

Managing customer satisfaction involves going beyond service delivery into wider organisational functions and quality control frameworks. Some countries also focus on quality assurance, i.e. the "integrity or accuracy" of final immigration decisions, to ensure they are correct, consistent, and robust and to minimise the number of wrong decisions. The United Kingdom, for instance, set a target of 98% of correct decisions for Tier 4 visa applications and runs quality control checks on a sample of decisions to monitor performance and identify common errors and training needs.[4] New Zealand targeted 90% of accurate decisions. Every quarter, a sample of visa decisions is audited for quality.

1. See USCIS (2014).
2. *www.gov.uk/government/news/new-customer-satisfaction-survey*.
3. *www.immi.gov.au/about/department/cep/*.
4. See UKBA (2012).

Systems boast varying levels of functionality. In Canada the "check your application status" tool allows some CIC clients to securely view the status of their immigration and/or citizenship application(s) online. Australia's SkillSelect rules engine determines who gets invited to apply (through the PBS), so reducing the time it takes to process a visa application. SkillSelect also helps address regional skills shortages by asking would-be migrants if they are willing to live and work in regional Australia. Employers and state and territory governments can then use online tools to pluck out those applicants who say "yes".

New digital and web-based technology allows processing platforms to give migrants a better sense of the application status. A number of countries track their processing times as part of internal performance management, but also to obtain feedback from migrants and employers on service standards (Box 3.7).

The joint Australian and Canadian "e-medical system" processes admission-related medical requirements like health certificates. The two countries co-developed the system which can be used to process medical examinations. In 2012 and 2013, the system was rolled out to approximately 100 locations globally, widening access to the online processing of bills of health, with consequent speed and efficiency benefits. More than 100 000 Australian cases were processed during its first six months of operation, with more than 72% of them being auto-cleared, i.e. with no manual intervention required and results available in minutes.[53]

Fast-tracking processes

Fast-track processes allow some migration categories, employers or individuals to benefit from faster processing, either because their applications are handled as a matter of priority or because they do not have to go through certain stages.

Some are trusted employers. For example, Australia's migration policy, which focuses on the country's regions Australia, uses regional certifying bodies (e.g. regional economic development agencies or chambers of commerce) to certify employer nominations and requests. Sweden certifies good employers, usually large organisations, with the Swedish Migration Board, which can reduce the turnaround time for work and residence permits from up to seven months to seven calendar days. Intra-company transferees in some countries may also be fast-tracked.

Other fast-tracking processes are sector- or occupation-specific. One example comes from Ireland, which introduced arrangements in June 2010 in response to a shortage of doctors. Non-EEA doctors offered employment in the Irish public health system were exempted from the need to hold a work permit. This provision ended in 2014.

New Zealand is currently trialling a new skills hub in Canterbury that will help fast-track immigrant admissions when employers cannot source local workers to fill their vacancies. This system of "front loading", where the labour market test is conducted at an earlier stage in the process, may be replicated nationwide if found to work well.

In other cases, fast-tracking comes at a price. The United States offers Premium Processing Services for employers who file applications to sponsor a migrant on a non-immigrant, temporary employment visa which guarantees processing within 15 calendar days. Similar services are offered in the United Kingdom.

There is, however, concern that while fast-tracked processes do help employers recruit foreign workers, particularly temporary migrants, they are generally not accessible to SMEs. Such firms may not have the funds or the need for intra-company transfers or may not submit a high enough volume of applications to reach fast-tracked status (IOM, 2012).

Dedicated staff resources

The case manager model, where applicant migrants and employers have a single point of contact, is not widespread in migration systems, although some cases have been cited above. More common are information and orientation resources.

Scotland introduced its "Fresh Talent Initiative" in response to its declining population and skills. A key aspect was establishing and running the Relocation Advisory Service, an advice centre for those interested in moving to or staying on in Scotland. It targeted particular groups, e.g. universities and international students. Similarly, New Zealand relationship managers provide services to employers in need of migrant workers, while liaison officials manage investor clients. Some services may be outsourced (see Box 3.8).

Box 3.8. **Outsourcing migration business processes**

As more people than ever are on the move for multiple reasons, destination countries are gearing up to meet both increased caseload volumes and wider geographical coverage by outsourcing the administrative functions of visa processing. With immigration branches and diplomatic missions around the world, often with fewer resources, countries are moving away from brick-and-mortar business models and turning to visa application centres (VACs) as the front office of immigration agencies. The United States, the United Kingdom, Denmark, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand have been using VACs for some time.

Tendering an application to a VAC ensures that all the associated administrative formalities are completed to a high standard and in a timely manner that minimises rejection rates or re-submissions. One key rationale is to reduce the administrative burden on staff and improve the quality of visa decision making itself.

Service providers typically carry out the administrative tasks for most visa categories (barring residence applications).The following are the main tasks undertaken by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) for Australia when operating VACs: client information, receiving applications, data capture, fee receipt, passport/visa return, and reporting. VACs have no say in decision making or any influence whatsoever on the outcome of an application. Administrative support can also include collecting biometric information (BLS International does this for Denmark). However, over time the scaling up of secure online submissions via IT platforms will make for greater efficiency in managing application submissions.

Providers must be capable of respecting privacy and confidentiality. Since VACs tend to work on at least a cost-recovery basis, if not for profit, applicant costs may rise and fees need to be stated in tenders. Similar service outsourcing trends can also be seen in appointment booking services, for example, to shield consulates from being overwhelmed with telephone calls.

Simplifying procedures

Procedural complexities can overwhelm migrants and employers and add to the costs of migration. The number of steps in the work permit application procedure varies across countries. In Norway, for example, the procedure is through a single two-page form submitted to a single authority. However, most countries require applicants to interact with different government departments or go through procedures that involve a number of agencies.

One possible strategy is to rationalise the issuing of separate work and residence permits. The EU "single permit" directive was designed to simplify and harmonise the rules currently applicable in EU states, and create a more efficient procedure both for non-EU nationals and their employers. The directive (EC Directive 2011/98/EU) requires EU member countries to implement a single application procedure for initial, amended, and renewal permit applications. Not only does the directive designate a single authority, it also sets out a four-month period for adjudication from submission time. Member countries remain free to require separate labour market testing requirements.[54]

The single permit is for both residence and work. The permit must be in a card format and contain a variety of security and biometric features, such as the holder's fingerprints and a digital photograph. They may include additional information related to the holder's employment status, such as his or her employer's name and address, place and type of work, working hours, and/or remuneration. Other than the single permit, member states may not require any additional permits as proof of the entitlement to work.

Holders of single permits will be entitled to freely access and reside in any part of the EU member state that issued their permit, though they will be allowed to work only at the location and for the employer if specified in their permit. Single permit holders will generally be entitled to the same rights as EU nationals with regard to working conditions, labour organisation, education and vocational training, recognition of qualifications and degrees, and tax benefits.

The single residence permit clarifies employment eligibility. Separate work and stay documents can be complex for employers to understand. That is one reason why the United States, where dozens of documents can attest employment eligibility, has introduced its web-based E-Verify system for employers.

One-stop shops to improve co-ordination and client experience

There is a wide range of information services for migrants relating to work and living in OECD countries. However, there are few instances of one-stop shops that connect migrants to the many non-migration services that they may need.

Portugal's High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI) connects migrants to permits services, the police, healthcare, schools, etc. (OECD, 2008b). One of ACIDI's special features is the presence of 30 intercultural mediators in the offices of Portugal's Services for Foreigners and Border Control (SEF), but who nevertheless remain employees of the main immigrant support groups. ACIDI also has a highly flexible delivery approach that includes buses to proximity services in areas with high migrant concentrations, weekend hours, and online documentation.

The WorkinDenmark initiative includes an Internet portal, service centres in three of Denmark's largest cities, and a job and CV bank for highly skilled individuals. Employers can view migrants' posted CVs but need to be registered to access their contact details. Services offered to employers include: finding appropriate candidates, a hotline service and, more importantly, a single point of contact for both employers and migrants that supplies information on residence permits, social security numbers, health insurance cards, authorisations, taxation, etc. The same service also assists with settlement, job seeking for spouses, and facilitating the return home when stays are temporary.

The Norwegian police, the Directorate of Immigration, the Tax Directorate, and the labour inspection authorities have established joint service centres in three cities for foreign workers. The centres serve EEA citizens on Norwegian job contracts and citizens from outside the EEA who have received offers of employment and are applying for specialist work permits. The centres also serve family members of both migrant categories. At the service centre workers or their employers can apply for the following: first-time work and residence permits and renewals, tax deduction cards, personal identification numbers (or temporary tax numbers), and entry in the Norwegian Population Register.

Setting the optimum fee structure

Fees depend on how administrative services are priced and funded. In a "cost recovery/user pays" model the migrant bears a substantial cost. It is usually intended to cover the administrative costs of processing visas and managing compliance.

In most cases, visa fees account for only a little of total migration costs. Nonetheless, there is wide variation in fees applied (Figure 3.10) and for low-wage workers with short-term stays fees can soak up a significant portion of their expected return to labour migration. Excessive costs can deter potential migrants and a reasonable expectation is that fees and associated costs should be only a small proportion of average earnings and that high fees should not add to existing system inefficiencies.

Most fees do not depend on migrants' earnings – only in France and Israel are they related to wages. France charges the worker EUR 70 and levies from the employer 60% of one month's salary, which can be up to 2.5 times the minimum wage. The highest fee is USD 4 500 for a worker earning a monthly salary of more than USD 7 700. The fee for construction workers in Israel is USD 4 500 for admission into the country and a 15% levy on gross wages every month. The idea in Israel is to deter employers from hiring overseas workers, as the country uses none of the local labour safeguard mechanisms applied in other OECD countries (OECD, 2013d).

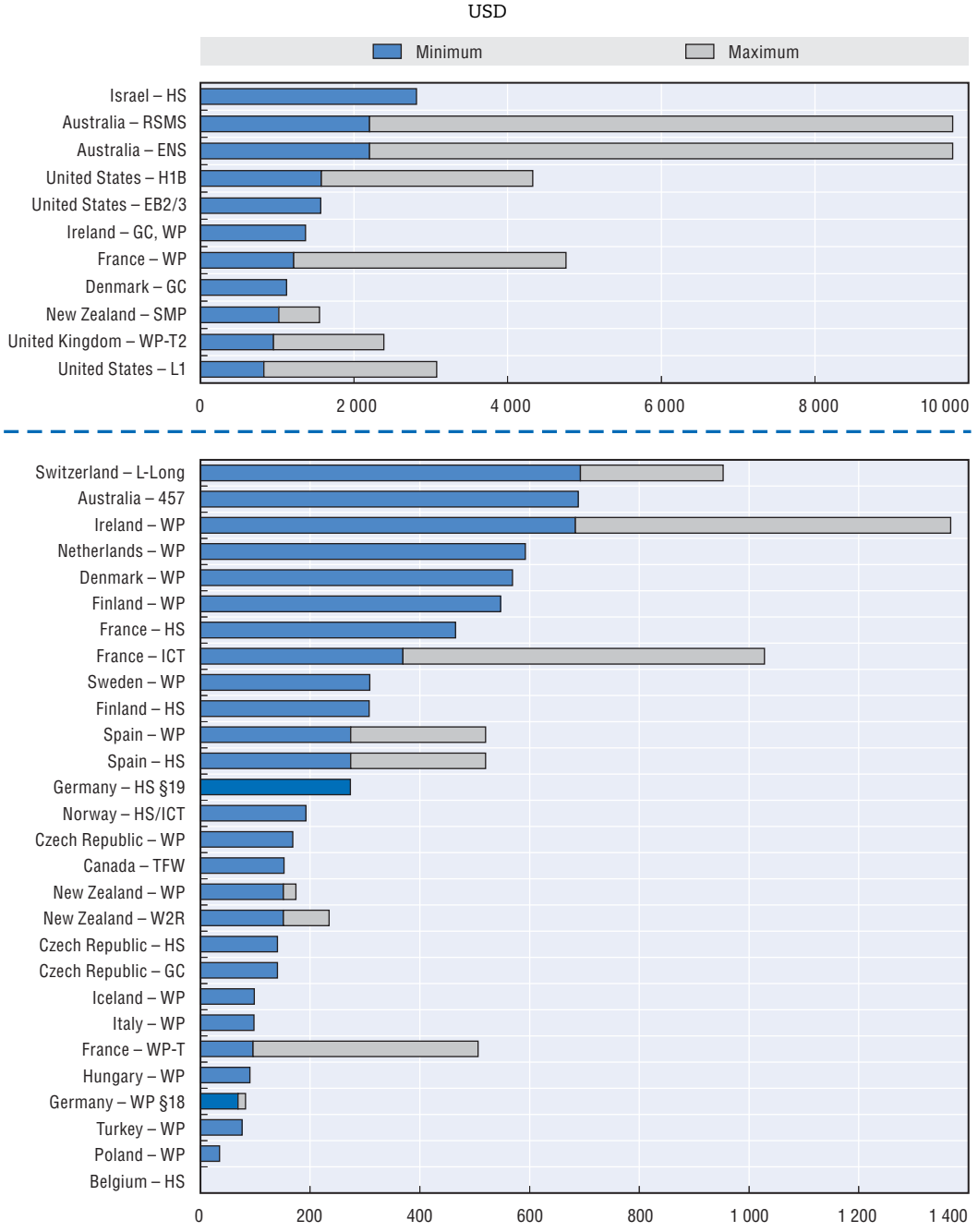
Among skilled workers, there is no evidence that migrants are sensitive to fee price movements. Other categories, such as temporary workers, low-skilled workers and international students, may be more sensitive. In this regard, Australia and the United Kingdom have undertaken exercises to estimate the elasticity of demand.

In some instances, an overall pricing strategy goes beyond the cost of permit, as in Australia. From July 2013, an additional applicant charge was introduced, as were a non-Internet application charge and a temporary application charge. Australia provides an upfront visa pricing estimator for migrants to check total prices at the outset of the process.

Deciding whether to regulate private actors

In the migration supply chain, several actors are involved in getting migrant workers from origin to destination countries, and even assisting them in status changes within borders. These third-party actors may be immigration advisers, recruitment agents and accredited employers. They may both help match jobs and workers and steer migrants and their families through cumbersome administrative systems and processes. Intermediaries in the migration process exist in all OECD countries, with varying degree of regulation. In some countries, they are integrated into the migration process. In others, they are seen as external or superfluous actors and their intervention unacknowledged.

Figure 3.10. **Government-applied fees for obtaining work visas and permits, 2014**



Note: Exchange rate as of March 2014.
Source: OECD Secretariat.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157763

Labour supply can outstrip demand and the bargaining position of migrants, especially the lower-skilled ones, can be weak. Accordingly, governments use a number of tools to regulate these intermediaries and other third-party actors (see Box 3.9). The rationale for "pre-screening" such actors through some sort of certifying process is to prevent the exploitation of migrants, maintain a level playing field for all intermediaries,

Box 3.9. **Regulating intermediaries – immigration advisers and recruitment agents**

There are several actors along the migration supply chain whom states may attempt to regulate for a number of reasons. Immigration advisers and recruitment agents are two of the key actors, with the latter sometimes operating on the fringes of immigration advice as well. Both advisors and agents fill gaps caused by information complexity and asymmetry – immigration laws can be cumbersome even for skilled migrants and job matching in a distant and different labour market difficult or even impossible without an intermediary.

In principle, a licensed immigration adviser or lawyer has specialised expertise in a given immigration system and, more importantly, is regulated by a code of conduct that sets out the required standards of professional and ethical behaviour. This affords protection to migrants or employers if services are found wanting. In the event of a complaint, there are processes for redress outside of legal channels and, when this fails, arbitration mechanisms are available.

Such non-state intermediaries play an important role in mediating and handling labour migration procedures in most countries. Some, such as Canada (Immigration Consultants of Canada Regulatory Council), the United Kingdom (Office of the Immigration Services Commissioner), New Zealand (Immigration Advisers Authority), and Australia (Office of the Migration Agents Registration Authority) have well established regulatory regimes in place. These bodies perform license certification and offer training. Advisers need to demonstrate competence in several areas including immigration law and running businesses. They are subject to a code of conduct that covers ethical issues and conflicts of interest.

Typical issues with immigration advice include regulating advisors based overseas, soliciting for business, misleading advertisements relating to visa options, and overcharging. Lawyers tend to be outside the regime. In some cases, regulation applies within the legal profession as well. In the United States, only an attorney or an accredited representative working for an organisation recognised by the Board of Immigration Appeals may give legal advice.

Different set of issues arise with recruitment agents. They include placement fees, invisible deductions, and abuse of low-skilled workers that add to issues of exploitation and overstay. The migrant labour recruitment industry is far more complex to regulate. The insidious issue of overcharging (above what is permitted legally) is generally dealt with through Convention 181 of the International Labour Organisation that provides a framework for national governments in regulating private recruitment agents.

There are some examples of attempts to legislate, such as the California Transparency in Supply Chains Act, which requires companies to report publicly on their efforts to prevent human trafficking in their supply chains.* New Zealand regulates recruitment agents in the way it manages its seasonal worker programmes and through inter-agency agreements with sending countries.

* See Klett (2013).

and to shift the burden of compliance from the public authorities to private stakeholders. The key question is the nature and form of regulation and how governments manage it through incentives and disincentives, including periodic monitoring.

Assessing qualifications and skills

Qualifications and skills mismatch are widespread in most OECD countries. They are difficult to address in general and even more so for migrants who obtained their qualifications and skills in different educational and labour market settings. If the human capital that migrants bring is not to be wasted, host countries must prioritise assessment of their qualifications and skills.

Cross-national assessment is a resource-intensive task that has to marshal information on the specifics of national labour markets and skills and occupational classification systems. It is also an area with an elevated risk of fraud and potentially large efficiency gains for international collaboration. Another complex aspect of international assessment is regulated professions where registration is generally performed by professional bodies to rigorous standards. This is especially true in the health sector. Then come trade bodies and vocational education.

One example of multilateral co-operation comes in the shape of the National Academic Recognition and Information Centres (NARIC), which share information about origin country education. The NARIC centres provide information about studies in the countries of the European Union and EEA. They work with the European Network of National Information Centres (ENIC) established by the Council of Europe and UNESCO. There is one in each country. However, there is currently no multilateral entity that verifies non-EU qualifications, although a few countries have developed specific assessment systems.

In 2004, Denmark established regional knowledge centres for the assessment of the skills and qualifications of immigrants – a joint project by the Ministry of Employment and the social partners. Assessments are generally conducted in workplace situations in companies, with participants being given "competence cards" that match their skills to labour market needs. The centres also assist immigrants in actually finding jobs in line with their skills (OECD, 2007).

Starting in May 2013, all migrants applying for admission to Canada under its Federal Skilled Worker Program (FSWP) must obtain an Educational Credential Assessment (ECA) of their completed foreign educational credentials. Designated organisations, which include professional bodies, evaluate degrees and transcripts before confirming their validity and determining their equivalence to a Canadian credential.

Recently Australia set up a system of assessing skills for migration purposes.[55] Under the system, the ability of skilled migrants to work in their nominated occupation at the required skills level is assessed before a decision is made on their visa application. The assessment authority – a statutory body – attempts to relate qualifications and experience to standards set out under the Australian Qualifications Framework. For some registered occupations the skills assessment simply takes the form of evidence of the registration required to practice the occupation in question in Australia (e.g. medicine or law). For others, the registration or licensing process comes on top of the skills assessment process.

Ensuring fairness in policy criteria and procedural practices

Access to international migration is not fairly distributed between all employers. SMEs, for example, experience labour shortages, just as large businesses do, yet cannot draw so easily on international recruitment. Big employers enjoy economies of scale and the chance to develop specialised recruitment channels and staff in-house. Equal access to the migration system and lower overheads for SMEs is a reasonable objective. But it may be difficult to operationalise.

Nor is there much fairness when it comes to migrants themselves. If there was, all qualifying migrants with identical qualifications would stand an equal chance of obtaining a work permit. Yet, the equity principle does not operate in the selection of seasonal workers. Employers show a preference for the same employees to return, while origin countries seek to rotate migration opportunities across communities and regions. The result is an apparent trade-off between equity and efficiency.

Similarly, selection may favour certain nationalities. Indian nationals, for example, dominate recipients of the United States H-1B visa for skilled workers, primarily in IT-related occupations. This is in contrast to the longer waiting list for their transition to permanent residence, since employment-based visas are country-capped, which disproportionately penalises larger countries and those with many temporary-visa holders. Other countries – like Italy, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia – also place ceilings on occupations or countries of origin so that no one dominates the rest.

The first-in, first-served principle may not in itself be an issue in the acceptance of applications for work categories with a quota or cap. But it can arbitrarily cut some applicants out of the selection process, as in the Italian selection procedure where on-line filing times mean that successful applicants are separated from the unlucky ones by only the thinnest of time margins. A fairer solution might be a reasonable window of time within which migrants submit their applications, followed by a lottery or ballot with the lucky ones being drawn from the hat, as is the practice for the H-1B visa.

Building compliance mechanisms

Countries use a number of mechanisms in order to ensure compliance with the law. They range from deterrents and penalties to facilitating tools. Most countries levy fines or apply other penalties to deter employers from recruiting and retaining illegal workers. Employer sanctions are a relatively recent addition to labour and immigration laws – since the mid-1970s in most of Western Europe, the late 1980s in the United States, and since 1997 in the United Kingdom (Martin and Miller, 2001). Periodic inspections are a basic tool. However, they depend on the capacity to deliver robust monitoring with adequate coverage and on how well administrative and judicial systems function.

Illegal hiring has always been an area of concern in compliance with immigration laws. The European Directive 2009/52/EC institutes minimum levels of sanctions and measures against employers for illegally retaining non-EU nationals. The European Parliament recently issued a non-binding resolution that calls for greater enforcement of EU directives on employer compliance and sanctions. The resolution specifically calls for more worksite inspections, greater regional co-operation among government enforcement agencies, and the creation of centralised compliance monitoring mechanisms.

ICT and web-based applications are proactive information tools, which in theory make it inexcusable not to know worker status. New Zealand, Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom, for example, have web-based systems in place. Visa Entitlement Verification Online (VEVO), is an Australian online service that gives visa holders, employers, and other registered organisations access to visa entitlements and status information. Similarly, in the United States the USCIS's e-Verify system is an online resource for employers to check the employment eligibility of migrant workers.

Australia's Dob-in Service encourages community members and the public to anonymously report on individuals and employers whom they suspect of falling foul of immigration laws and being in the country illegally.[56]

Compliance issues are also addressed through educational tools such as clearly posted explanatory information on web portals. The United States' Unit I-9 Central, named after the employment eligibility form for new hires, is designed to afford employers and employees access to resources, tips and guidance for better understanding the form and filling it in properly. It includes samples of acceptable I-9 documents, information on penalties and employee rights, and a link for customer support.

The overall trend suggests that countries are more serious than ever about tightening up on employers who evade their obligations.

Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed labour migration policy issues and practices in OECD countries, stating the case for a migration management system with clear goals, a range of policy tools, and a dynamic, modern infrastructure.

Judging a labour migration management system is difficult, because there is no single indicator for success. And yet public opinion continuously asks whether it is working, and not always in purely labour market terms. Because policy makers have more control over labour migration than other forms of migration, they are held accountable for its outcomes. Nonetheless, public opinion is not always aware of the distinction between the different kinds of migration.

Still, compared with a decade ago, policy makers can draw on much broader, deeper knowledge of what makes labour migration – and labour migrants – successful. Many policy instruments have been experimented across the OECD countries, demonstrating that different tools and approaches are effective and fit for purpose in different contexts. Improved data collection paints a fuller picture of labour migrants' longer-term outcomes across countries and in changing economic circumstances. While each OECD country faces specific challenges, all can make better use of labour migration to meet those challenges. Smarter labour migration management means going beyond the traditional categories and distinctions.

With no absolute benchmark for success, it is the task of the political process to set goals for labour migration policies bearing in mind the trade-offs between what is beneficial to the wider public, the economy, and the interests of specific groups and migrants themselves.

However, some questions persist. How can policy makers best attract, select, and retain migrants? Should they limit numbers of migrants in certain categories? If so, how? And which categories? What are the likely labour market outcomes and impacts of those selected and family members who accompany them?

No single policy design will solve all those questions in all countries. The tools discussed in this chapter show the growing sophistication of the options available today. The proliferation of the Points-Based System and how it has evolved to include the Expression of Interest is one example of how countries are thinking about managing numbers and sustaining quality by exercising greater selectivity. Clearly EoI is not easy, nor is a points-based system suited for all, as not all countries yet know which labour migrants will be best suited to their labour markets. Long-standing tools such as a labour market test or skills shortage lists continue to evolve as criteria and processes are modified. They are not, in the end, the only ways to safeguard local labour markets.

Today's policy tools are better able to respond to the needs of multiple actors, but the question of which actors should have priority is one which can be decided only in national contexts. For example, employers are often the principal beneficiaries of labour migration. But their key role as gatekeepers of the labour market must be balanced against their compliance obligations. Here, new arrangements at industry or individual employer level, such as quotas or fast-track channels, have been matched with new forms of oversight. Other tools such as matching services or red carpet treatment for migrant workers also serve employers, although what employers must offer in exchange is another question.

Further, good policy is not just about clear goals and appropriate tools. It also needs to be implemented properly. Rationalisation procedures and customer-focused delivery can achieve better policy outcomes. In this regard, smart new technology, adequately trained staff, and well signposted information makes the whole migration process work better for key actors.

Finally, feedback mechanisms are one government infrastructure investment that can pay off. Incorporating evaluation and monitoring into a feedback loop in the policy development cycle enables countries to manage policy settings dynamically and to step away from the policies that do not work. Whether evaluation, research, and monitoring are in-house, external, or collaborative, it is critical that they should inform and provide accountability.

In the end, labour migration policy cannot stand still. It needs to evolve and factor in evidence of what works and what does not. And, as economic conditions and labour market contexts undergo changes, policy makers need to be able to explain those changes to public opinion. That task is greatly facilitated when there are clear goals, appropriate tools and safeguards, dynamic management, and sound infrastructure. If they are in place, OECD countries stand to gain more from the labour migrants whom they choose to admit in the future.

Notes

1. This chapter was prepared by Jonathan Chaloff (OECD) and Sankar Ramasamy (OECD).
2. These concepts are explained in depth in (OECD, 2009) – see Box II.1, pp. 95-96.
3. There is free movement of citizens between Australia and New Zealand under the Trans-Tasman Travel Agreement but the share of employment may be smaller relative to other motives.
4. While formal qualifications are a close proxy of skills, the two are not the same, for a number of reasons (OECD, 2013a). First, qualifications only reflect skills learnt in formal education and certified training. Second, at each qualification level, student performance varies significantly, as do fields of study. Evidence from surveys that seek to measure skills has also shown that the performance of education systems varies greatly across countries. Third, skills learnt on the job through labour market experience are not measured. And finally, some of the skills reflected in formal qualifications may deteriorate over time if unused or not kept up-to-date.
5. The issuance of a permanent permit after five years residence is the principle enshrined in the EU Long Term Residents Directive (Directive 2003/109/EC) although not all long-term residents hold this particular permit, even in countries covered by the directive.
6. Countries covered in this module were AUT, BEL, CHE, DEU, ESP, FRA, GBR, GRC, IRL, LUX, NLD, NOR, PRT, SWE. The definition of "labour migrant" was based on self-reporting, rather than actual permit category.
7. The 2013 draft legislation which passed the US Senate (S. 744), at 1 200 pages long, included a short statement of the goals of "maintain and secure … borders, and to keep our country safe and prosperous… to harness the power of [immigrant] tradition in a balanced way that secures a more prosperous future for America".

8. Some examples include the Commonwealth Shared Scholarship Scheme of the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DfID), which requires students to promise to return home, and the Development Scholarships in New Zealand, whose recipients promise in writing to return home.
9. See the Scanlon Foundation Mapping Social Cohesion Survey.
10. This is what Boswell (2013) describes as "liberal constraint", where public opinion imposes a restrictive approach, and liberal economic goals and institutional requirements (such as treaties or court rulings) push for less restriction.
11. The guestworker programmes played a prominent role in meeting post-war German labour demand, mainly in manufacturing. It came to a halt with the oil price shock, and subsequently many workers settled permanently in Germany (OECD, 2013b). The economic contribution of guestworkers and the success of the programme have been somewhat obscured since then.
12. These results are based on a rolling average of Gallup interviews with about 500 000 adults in 154 countries between 2010 and 2012. Those countries represent more than 98% of the world's adult population. Despite the decline in desire to migrate, the net gainers would remain the Americas, Europe, and the Middle East and North Africa, and the net losers sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. See Gallup's Potential Net Migration Index (PNMI).
13. The simplest mechanism is to leave this completely unregulated, and allow the inflow of foreign workers to be determined exclusively by employers' demand for foreign workers, so that migration reflects an "unplanned aggregate of firm-wise decisions" (Bhagwati et al., 1984). In practice, this is never the case. Even where policy tools play a minimal regulatory role, they still provide substantial state control over labour migration.
14. More recently the New Zealand annual permanent residence point target (45 000) changed to a three-year guideline range (135 000-150 000) to increase flexibility in meeting annual targets in the face of cyclical fluctuations in demand.
15. Estonia phases in distribution of the quota – half every six month.
16. Limits are set to long- and short term employment permits issued for periods exceeding four months. It has also applied quarterly limits during transitional phases of its free circulation agreement with the EU, covering citizens of newly acceding EU countries.
17. The cap is introduced in six-monthly periods, with half reserved for the first semester, and unused visas carried over to the second semester.
18. The SWP allocates 10 450 places to horticulture between 1 July 2012 and 30 June 2016 and 1 550 places to trial industries of aquaculture, cane, cotton and tourism over the three years to 30 June 2015.
19. In Canada, no points are awarded after the age of 46, though workers aged 47 or older will continue to be eligible for the programme.
20. Japan initially used only income earned in Japan, but later extended it to include foreign-earned salary.
21. There are limits to modelling, however, due to the availability of data and ethical and legal considerations around potential discriminatory policies if factors such as nationality come to the fore.
22. Since points allocated to a job offer have a higher weighting, and are mandatory criteria, the EoI system favours those with a job in hand, most of whom are already in New Zealand through its temporary labour migration programmes. A smaller pool of temporary workers translated into fewer applications under the EoI system.
23. OEEC Council Decision 1953-251-Final.
24. "Suitable labour shall be deemed not to be available within the country if no suitable applicant has been found within the period of one month, at the latest, after the employer has both notified the vacancy in question to the employment service or any other service recognised officially as competent in the matter, and has also made known his intention to apply for a permit to employ a foreign worker if suitable labour is not forthcoming within the country, always provided that the employer has taken such other steps as are customary in the case of the kind in question to try and fill the vacancy." Member states could apply to extend this period for up to two months. Member states could also apply exceptions to recruitment or set caps for specific industries and occupations.
25. Even if technology has largely obviated Sunday newspaper listings, this requirement remains.
26. ANZSCO Skill Levels 1 and 2 occupations (except engineers and nurses) and international obligations.

27. Some countries do not use codes, although in these cases shortage occupations are still defined narrowly.
28. In practice, few skilled migrants actually do, as most gain the pass-mark with points for a job or job offer.
29. Part C of the Skilled Occupation List as per the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO).
30. Skill Levels 1-3 of the ANZSCO classification system
31. However, issuance of Green Cards in the United States varies in actual time taken because of the backlog and resulting queue and processing prioritisation.
32. Including the Expression of Interest (EoI) process.
33. The Australian PGWPP allows students who have graduated from a participating Canadian post-secondary institution to gain valuable Canadian work experience. The PGWPP helps graduates qualify for permanent residence in Canada through the Canadian Experience Class (CEC).
34. The United Kingdom's Tier-1 Post Study Work closed in 2012.
35. Very strict definitions used in France from 2010 were loosened in 2012.
36. Not all immigrants naturalise even when eligible. Take-up can vary depending on destination and origin country policies towards dual citizenship and the economic status of the origin country (OECD, 2010).
37. In both the Danish and the United Kingdom's reviews, Pakistani nationals, one of the main groups using the high-skilled visa, had high shares of employment in unskilled jobs (79% and 80% respectively). Indian nationals were more successful in the United Kingdom (half in skilled employment), but not in Denmark (71% in unskilled jobs). Chinese nationals, by contrast, had a high rate of skilled employment in Denmark (73%).
38. One framework identifies three levels of migration governance and co-operation – multilateral, regional and bilateral or unilateral – and hypothesises that multilateral serves public good, regional helps club good, and bilateral private good. See OECD (2012b) for discussion of migration as an international public good.
39. The list of NAFTA-recognised occupations can be modified over time based on the parties' agreement. It currently comprises 63 occupations, including accountants, engineers, management consultants, technicians, physicians, nurses and college teachers. Minimum education requirements and alternative credentials for each occupation are specified. At least a baccalaureate degree is required for almost all the occupations listed.
40. See DFAT (2013).
41. Australia has made representations to include specific sectors (e.g. as part of the regional work experience) that will then allow such visitors to extend their stay by 12 months to work in the specific industry and help address regional shortages.
42. Larsen, G. (2013).
43. See Smith et al. (2012).
44. See New Zealand Department of Labour (2012b).
45. While withholds also represent a form of forced saving, they could merely reduce remittances.
46. For example, the Bracero programme under which more than 4.5 million Mexican workers were recruited into US agriculture between 1942 and 1964 required that 10% of workers' wages be withheld until after they returned to Mexico.
47. This has now been replaced with a fixed pre-paid levy.
48. Immigration agencies can also borrow ratings provided by other agencies. New Zealand uses the rating of tertiary education providers by the New Zealand Qualification Authority (NZQA) as a quality marker for extending work rights to certain international students. For instance, an education provider in Canterbury must hold a Category One status under the NZQA's External Evaluation Review (EER) quality assurance system or should be a university.
49. Temporary Work (Skilled) (subclass 457) includes exemptions for ANZSCO Skill Levels 1 and 2 (except engineers and nurses) and international obligations.

50. If this streamlined process works well, there is a policy intention to extend the approach across the country.

51. *www.immi.gov.au/media/publications/statistics/*.

52. Paper-based renewals in Italy are now handled by the post office rather than through police stations, although an in-person appointment is still necessary.

53. See DIAC (2013).

54. EU states are free to determine whether applications for their single permit will be submitted directly by third-country nationals or through their employers. EU states are free to determine whether applications will be submitted from abroad or in country. EU states are allowed to retain separate visa application procedures for the initial entry of third-country nationals.

55. *www.immi.gov.au/asri/*.

56. The United Kingdom has experimented information campaigns aimed at over-stayers and undocumented foreigners, through billboards and text messages encouraging departure, although these were judged unsuccessful.

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ANNEX 3.A1

Labour migration policy tables

Table 3.A1.1. **Numerical limits**

	Numerical limit	Purpose	How much of total migration does the quota cover	Quota – most recent	How determined
Australia	Targets	Permanent – ensure stability of working age population.	Almost all permanent.	240 000-265 000 per annum	Annual planning of levels.
	Cap + quota	Caps for seasonal programmes with quotas for industries.	Small percentage of temporary flows.	12 000 over 4 years (2012-16).	Bilateral agreements/MoU.
Austria	Ceiling/cap	Temporary workers – limit percentage of labour supply.	Most non-EU labour permits issued.		The total number of work permits is capped (Federal State quotas) so that the number of employed and unemployed foreigners does not exceed 8% of the total dependent labour supply (291 000 for 2010). In some special cases, a work permit can be granted by the governor beyond this quota up to a limit of 9% of the labour supply.
Canada	Targets + sub-caps	Permanent – several factors including absorptive capacity.	Almost all permanent.	240 000-265 000 per annum.	Annual planning is an elaborate process that includes public consultation plus projections, etc.
		Sub-caps for occupations.	Small share.	500 per occupation (now ended).	
	Quotas	Quotas for International Experience Canada (IEC), Canada's youth mobility programme.	About 30% of temporary foreign entries annually.	Global cap for 2014 is 68 500, Quotas for all bilateral partner countries except Australia (e.g. France 14 000, Ireland 10 700, Japan 6 500, the United Kingdom 5 350).	Annual planning for global cap; annual negotiation for individual partner country quotas.
Chile	Limit per employer		Almost all labour migration.		
Estonia	Quotas	Limit percentage of population.	Only non-EU labour migration.	About 1 000.	After consultation with relevant bodies, a government regulation is issued and the minister may set quotas.
Germany	Quotas	For contracted workers.	Non-EU only.	19 400 contracted workers (2011).	Bilateral agreements.

Table 3.A1.1. **Numerical limits** *(cont.)*

	Numerical limit	Purpose	How much of total migration does the quota cover	Quota – most recent	How determined
Greece	Numbers identified as per anticipated need (10% increase possible as a contingency measure).	The volumes of admission is similar to an anticipated shortage list for the following two years.	Non-EU only.	Maximum of 10 456 job posts in 2014 (729 for dependent employment, 8 074 for seasonal employment and 1 653 in the fishery sector) (pre-2014 procedure).	Joint Ministerial Decision (JMD) – Volumes of Admission drawn up every second year by region and speciality. The number of residence permits for the purpose of employment established through a consultation procedure involving national and local social partners, the PES and government bodies. Factors considered include the national economic interest; supply from the legal available labour force and sector unemployment rates.
Hungary	Cap	Safeguard against excess demand.	Only non-EU labour migration. About 40% of non-EU applications in 2012, 34% in 2013.	85 000 (2012).	The minister responsible for labour affairs – in consensus with other ministers concerned – sets the highest number of work permits (including the number of TCNs employed on the basis of an EU Blue Card) to be issued to TCNs. This quota may not exceed the average monthly sum of the requested workers reported during the previous year. Published in the Hungarian Official Gazette each year before 1 February.
Israel	Stock caps by industry	Low skilled workers, allocated to industries.	100%. All temporary foreign workers in these industries are subject to caps.	27 000 (agriculture), 6 000 (construction).	Lobbying by interest groups, relevant ministries decide.
Italy	Cap + quotas	Overall cap plus quotas allocated via bilateral agreements.	Only non-EU labour migration. Caps and quotas apply to all non-EU labour migration.	15 000 (seasonal 2014); most recent cap for contract work of about 103 580 (2010), quotas for nationalities and for care workers.	Nationalities allocated according to bilateral agreements, sectors by negotiation.
Japan	Quota	Bilateral working holiday agreements.	Negligible.	E.g. 250 for Hong Kong, China (2014).	
Korea	Stock cap for ethnic Koreans on H-2 visas		All H-2s are cap-subject.	303 000 for working visit stock quota.	Overall cap set by Cabinet, employer quotas allocated by Foreign Workers Policy Committee.
	Annual entry cap and quota per industry	Cap for admitting temporary foreign workers annually by industry, plus a set-aside for returning workers.	All E-9s are cap-subject.	62 000 for E-9 non-professional (10 000 returns) in 2013.	Overall cap set by Cabinet, employer quotas allocated by Foreign Workers Policy Committee.
New Zealand	Planning range	3-year target range to accommodate annual fluctuations in order to maintain working age population.	Plan applies to almost all permanent admissions.	135 000-150 000.	Residence programme numbers set by cabinet.
	Caps + (soft quota), quotas	Seasonal workers (preference for some source states), WHS agreements.	All seasonal workers are subject. However WHMs are largely uncapped.	RSE 8 000 per annum; WHS 49 000 (2013).	Bilateral agreements for WHS, and inter-agency agreements with Pacific seasonal work origin countries.
Norway	Quota + exemption	Quota for seasonal workers and highly skilled workers – for latter LMT applies beyond the quota.	Most non-EU labour migrants, excluding those similar to ICTs.	5 000 (skilled) and 2 000 (seasonal) in 2013.	For skilled workers, the Ministry of Labour makes proposal to Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Industry. For seasonal work in the agriculture and forestry industry the Directorate of Labour and Welfare stipulates a quota.

Table 3.A1.1. **Numerical limits** *(cont.)*

	Numerical limit	Purpose	How much of total migration does the quota cover	Quota – most recent	How determined
Portugal	Cap	Low-skilled workers.	All non-EU labour migrants.		An overall quota is fixed for third-country national workers in Portugal every year, based on the annual estimates of the needs of the labour market established by the Cabinet after reports from the Permanent Council for Social Co-ordination and the Ministry for Labour and Social Solidarity.
Slovenia	Total cap and sector quotas		Only non EU labour migration.		No decree since 2010. Proposed by the Minister for Labour and set annually. It takes into account fluctuations and conditions of the labour market. The quota may never exceed 5% of the actively working population in the country, on an annual basis.
Spain	Quotas for anonymous recruitment (seasonal and contract)	Collective management of contracts in origin countries.	Since 2008, very small share of inflows.		A ministerial decree with the list of occupations offered in the *Collective Management of Contracts in the Country of Origin* is published yearly. It considers the information on the national employment situation collected by the Autonomic Employment Services. The final proposal is discussed within the Tripartite Labour Commission of Immigration and by the Inter-ministerial Commission for Aliens.
Switzerland	Cap (in addition to LMT)	Regulating access to the labour market.		(2013) 3 500 B permits for longer than 1 year + 500 (EU/EFTA service providers) 5 000 L permits (4 months to 1 year) + 3 000 (EU/EFTA service providers).	Quotas are determined annually by the government, taking into account the needs of the economy and the situation of the labour market. It shall first consult the cantons and the social partners.
Turkey	Limit per employer – percentage of local workers			20% limit per firm – most of the 24 200 work permits issued in 2011.	By regulation. Exemptions are in place.
United Kingdom	Policy target	To limit overall net migration.		Below 100 000.	MAC advises, Cabinet sets limits.
	Annual programme limits	Quota for Tier 2 skilled workers.	Small share of Tier 2, since most are cap-exempt ICTs and others	20 700 (April 2013-March 2014).	
		Quota for short-term work schemes (phased out in 2013), working holiday schemes.	Working holiday schemes and specific industries subject to cap.	WHS 54 500 (2013), industry-specific quotas 3 500 (2007).	
United States	Cap to temporary specialty workers.	H-1B Cap.	All H-1B.	33 000 per 6 months (66 000 annually).	Set in legislation (1990 and subsequent).
	Cap for short-term non-agricultural workers	H-2B Cap.	All H-2B.	65 000 plus 20 000 with a Master's Degree from a US University.	
	Annual limit to permanent entries for employment (EB Green Cards)	EB-1, EB-2, E-B3 Caps. Country limit (7%) to prevent over-representation. Includes accompanying family.	100% of permanent labour migration, about 14% of all permanent migration.	140 000 annually, with cascading priority.	

Table 3.A1.2. **Labour market test processes in OECD countries**

	Agency responsible	LMT Process	Duration of advertising requirements	Exemptions
Australia ***Seasonal Worker Program (416)***	Department of Employment.	Department of Immigration and Border Protection (DIBP) confirms seasonal demand in negotiation with industry and has fixed a quota for 4 years to 2016.		
Temporary Work (Skilled) (subclass 457)	Department of Immigration and Border Protection (DIBP).	Sponsors for subclass 457 provide information about all advertising/other recruitment efforts taken in the preceding twelve months. They include locations and dates of recruitment activities; geographic target audience; outcome of the recruitment such as the number of applications received, number of applicants hired, and the general reasons why other candidates were not selected.	No fixed period.	ANZSCO Skill Levels 1 and 2 occupations (except engineers and nurses) and international obligations.
Austria ***Seasonal Worker Programme*** ***RWR card***	PES – *Service für Unternehmen* (Service for Companies).	The labour market test (*Arbeitsmarktprüfung*) must show that there is no Austrian or eligible non-Austrian worker registered with the Austrian Migration Services available for the job.	No fixed period, but in practice 2-3 weeks.	
Canada ***Temporary Foreign Worker Program – includes: Seasonal Agricultural Worker Program; Live-in Caregivers; and, Lower-Skilled Worker Streams.***	Employment and Social Development Canada (ESDC)/Service Canada.	Labour Market Opinion (LMO) is mandatory. It encompasses an assessment of expected impact on the labour market – a review of wages, occupation and working conditions, and advertising efforts. In most cases the employer must seek Canadians/permanent residents through the Canada Job Bank before receiving a LMO. The advertisement must be posted and accessible to the general public for the duration of LMO processing. In addition, 2 types of advertising (e.g. local newspaper, magazines, monster.ca) must be used for 4 weeks.	Minimum 4 weeks.	Variations in the advertising period and a number of alternative advertising methods exist for some occupations such as agriculture worker.
Federal Skilled Worker Programme		For migrants arriving through the arranged employment stream, the sponsoring employer requires a LMO. The job offer must be permanent, non-seasonal, and full-time – National Occupational Classification, Type 0 or A position – and have wages and working conditions comparable to those offered to Canadians working in the same occupation.		Advertising/LMO exemptions are possible for some entertainment and film-related occupations, international student degree courses, or international-agreement-related occupations, e.g. NAFTA.
Czech Republic ***Green Card – Type C*** ***Green Card – A and B,*** ***EU Blue Card***	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Industry and Trade.	The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs maintains a register of vacancies lodged by employers. The Ministry of Industry and Trade declares it open to migrants when it is not filled by a citizen of the Czech Republic or the EU within 30 days.	30 days.	
Finland ***Residence permit***	Labour Office.	Labour Office collects information on working contract details, (wages, collective agreement, working hours, etc.). The labour office makes a partial decision where it determines the professional field or fields, salary level, relevant collective agreement, type of the permit (temporary or permanent) and the validity of the permit (normally first permit is for one year).	14-28 days.	
France ***Seasonal Worker Programme*** ***Temporary Work Permit for Salariés (Salaried Worker)***	PES.	Publication with the public employment service or through private channels. Employer must submit application to the Department of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training Service for a discretionary review of professional qualifications, contract wage and conditions, technological and commercial added value, and to determine whether the job could be performed by a resident.		Shortage Occupation List, skills and talent criteria or EU Blue Card.
Germany ***Residence permit for temporary employment***	Local PES/ZAV.	PES checks conditions of offer and then decides to list a vacancy.	7-14 days.	Shortage occupations.

Table 3.A1.2. **Labour market test processes in OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Agency responsible	LMT Process	Duration of advertising requirements	Exemptions
Greece ***Residence permit for purpose of work***	Service for Foreigners and Migration of the Decentralised Administration approves employer application "inviting" specific third-country national (TCN) workers.	There is no individual labour market test. Employers have to "invite" an employee from the pool of occupations identified through a centrally managed Volumes of Admission process and subject to satisfying the criteria set for that occupation.	..	The Volumes of Admission system is similar to an anticipated shortage list valid for 2 years.
Hungary ***Work permit/seasonal work permit*** ***EU Blue card***	PES.	Employer must advertise the job through the employment centre of the district where the business is located, by filling in and submitting a data sheet and a "demand for labour" reporting sheet.	15 days.	
Ireland ***Work Permit***	Department of Social Protection. Employment Services.	Listing in the FAS/EURES system for 2 weeks and advertisements in national press for 3 days – advertisement in local newspaper is optional, showing that the positions could not be filled from within the EEA/EU.	3-14 days.	Highly Skilled Occupations List, Ineligibles List.
Italy ***Seasonal Programme Work Permit (open and fix term contracts)***	PES.	Listing with public employment service for 20 days – positive opinion of provincial labour and police office required. In the absence of response, approval is automatic. If the PES proposes local candidates, employers may reject them by confirming their intention to recruit from abroad.	20 days.	
Korea ***Non-professional employment (E-9)***	PES.	In principle at least 14 days of recruitment efforts (through public employment service); or 7 days in exceptional cases (a. participation in Job Festival; b. job placement through employment service centres or regional governments; c. when the employer conducts a job interview after posting a vacancy and d. when employers advertise vacancies in newspapers, magazines or broadcast media for at least 3 days).	In principle at least 14 days; 7 days in exceptional cases.	
Luxembourg ***Travailleur salarié (Salaried Worker)*** ***Travailleur salarié transféré/détaché (Intra-company Transferee or Posted Salaried Worker)***	PES (ADEM).	Job must be submitted to the public employment service (ADEM). If no candidates are registered, the application may be approved after a 3-week period.	18 days.	Researchers, posted workers, athletes.
Netherlands ***Labour Migrant Work Permit***	PES (*WERKbedrijf – UWV*).	The employer must notify the Dutch employment agency of vacancy and conduct recruitment to determine whether there are qualified and available workers in the EEA labour market. Employers must advertise the vacant position for at least five weeks through standard recruitment channels, such as Dutch newspapers, professional or trade journals, online job boards, or placement agencies.	5 weeks.	Intra-company transferees who receive an annual salary of at least EUR 50 000.
New Zealand ***Recognised Seasonal Employer*** ***Essential Skills*** ***Essential Skills in Demand***	Immigration New Zealand.	Employers must make "a genuine attempt" (such as advertising and the use of a recruiting company) to recruit suitable resident workers. The application is rejected if suitable workers are available, but not "prepared to do the work on the terms and conditions proposed by the employer", or if the employer could "readily train" residents. Involves seeking advice from industry representatives and the appropriate New Zealand government agencies to determine current skill shortages. Generally for less skilled jobs, a Labour Market Check (LMC) is performed as part of the LMT.	No fixed period – 10 days in practice.	Skills Shortage List, Accredited Employer, Approval in Principle Employers.
Norway ***Seasonal Work Programme Skilled Worker (ARBDTAKFAGORD)***	PES (NAV).	LMA (labour market assessment) applies when there is no set quota, or when the quota (for the agriculture and forestry industry and for skilled workers) has been filled. The Labour and Welfare Service (NAV) carry out the LMT (guidelines issued by the Directorate of Labour and Welfare).	..	LMA required only when quota is filled. So far, only applied for non-agricultural/ forestry seasonal workers and holiday replacements.

Table 3.A1.2. **Labour market test processes in OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Agency responsible	LMT Process	Duration of advertising requirements	Exemptions
Poland ***Work Permit***	PES.	Regional employment service authorises an employer company once it has advertised with the public employment services and local media. Duration maximum 14 days for decision by Starosta (local labour office) if local unemployed or job seekers are available. Otherwise, 7 days.	14 days.	Work in the list of occupations which are in high demand; work as a domestic worker or a care-giver from a country bordering Poland.
Portugal ***Residence Visa/Work Permit/Seasonal Temporary stay work***	PES.	Regional employment service issues authorisation once an employer has advertised vacancy with public employment services and local media.	30 days.	
Slovak Republic	Office of Labour, Social Affairs and the Family.	Advertised by local public employment office, website, information board, EURES portal.	30 days.	Posted workers, workers defined by WTO rules, clerical workers, etc.
Slovenia ***Work Permit***	PES.	Employers must register the job vacancy before submitting an application for the issuance of a work permit. The PES has 8 working days to notify the employer of appropriate registered unemployed. The PES may consider if the employment of a foreign national adversely affects the Slovenian labour market.	30 days.	Provisions for shortage occupation list, scientists, teachers, etc.
Spain ***Seasonal Work*** ***EU Blue Card***	PES.	Job must be listed with the public employment services for 25 days, and employers must interview candidates sent by the public employment service, although they may reject them.	25 days.	Shortage list occupations governed by collective management of contracts agreements with the countries of origin or the Catalogue of Hard-to Fill Jobs.
Sweden ***Work Permit***	PES (*Arbetsformedlingen*).	Vacancies should be advertised for 10 days with the public employment services (automatic listing with EURES).	10 days.	
Switzerland ***Residence Permit***	PES.	No time limit specified for listing with Cantonal Public Employment Service, EURES or other channels, other than taking steps within a "reasonable time". Federal Office for Migration must also approve the request.		Intra-company transferees, high-level executives and investors, service, au pairs, sportspeople.
Turkey ***Work Permit***	PES.	The public employment service has 4 weeks to find a suitable candidate in Turkey before approving the work permit application.	28 days.	
United Kingdom ***Sector Based Scheme (SBS)*** ***Tier 2 Skilled worker***	PES.	Resident Labour Market Test (RLMT) – employers must advertise for EEA workers, submit proof of advertisement within past 6 months, supply information on applicants and selection process, and justify not hiring applicants. Since 2009 employers are required to advertise through Jobcentre Plus and at least one other medium. Employers are free to select media outlet but must follow specific requirements for the medium chosen.	28 days – either consecutively or in separate periods of no less than 7 days.	Intra-company transfers.
United States ***H2-A, H2-B***	Department of Labor.	Employers should pre-file vacancies by filing a job order no more than 120 calendar days prior to their date of need with the State Workforce Agency (SWA). The job order must be open for a minimum of 10 days. Employers should advertise positions in two print media outlets, one of which must be a Sunday newspaper. The job order and the print advertisement must contain specific information that includes working hours and days, expected start and end dates of employment, etc.	10 days.	

Table 3.A1.3. **Shortage lists: Characteristics**

Country (visa category)	Name	Role	Agency	Process/criteria	Classification	Number of occupations	Revision frequency
Australia ***Points Tested Skilled Migration*** ***Nominated Skilled Migration*** ***Temporary Work (Skilled) (subclass 457)***	Skilled Occupation List (SOL) and Consolidated Sponsored Occupation list (CSOL).	It is not a shortage list and determines occupations eligible for the medium- and long term needs of the Australian economy to be met by training, education and migration. Applicants for residence must nominate an occupation though no points are awarded. Applicants must nominate an occupation from the SOL or CSOL if nominated by a state or territory government, subclass 457, etc. All state and regional lists were brought under the consolidated list in 2012.	Policy oversight of SOL by DIBP with advice from AWPA (Australian Workforce and Productivi ty Agency).	Labour market, education and training, economic, demographic and migration data, and advice from a number of departments, annual consultation on submissions by industry, unions, trade, etc.	Australia New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO) skill levels 1-3 at the 6-digit level.	2013 SOL has 188 occupations and CSOL has over 658.	Annual.
Austria ***Red White Red Card***	Fachkräfteverordnung.	Nominating any shortage occupations is one option for meeting the minimum points requirement of 50/75 for the RWR Card.	Ministry of Labour.	The social partners draft the list of shortage occupations based on the unemployed to vacancy ratio and objectifiable shortage indicators (e.g. increased training activities of employers; above average wage development in respective sector). The list must then be approved by the Federal Minister of Labour in consultation with the Federal Minister of Science, Research and Economics.	AMS-Classification – 4 digit.	RWR card has 18 occupations.	Annual.
Belgium ***B-Permit***	Bottleneck list.	To grant work permits flexibly to EU citizens in transitional periods (not for third country nationals).	PES.	Each of the 3 regional public employment services draw up the list for labour migration purposes from their general lists of "bottleneck" occupations (e.g. secretary, sales person), regardless of the sectors (e.g. healthcare sector) to which they belong.	ISCO categories 6 to 8.		
Canada ***Federal Skilled Worker Programme, Federal Skilled Trades Worker programme***	Eligible Occupations List.	The EOL reflects the short-term and longer-term needs of the economy. Nominating an occupation on the list is one option for skilled migration. Also, points are awarded for experience in that occupation.	CIC – Immigration and Citizenship.	Consultation with several actors, including provinces and territories, employers and other federal departments, e.g. Employment and Social Development Canada.	Canadian National Occupation Classification List (NOC); levels O, A, B.	EOL – 24	Annual

Table 3.A1.3. **Shortage lists: Characteristics** *(cont.)*

Country (visa category)	Name	Role	Agency	Process/criteria	Classification	Number of occupations	Revision frequency
Denmark ***Positive List Work Permit***	Positive List.	The Positive List of occupations –generally masters level – in healthcare, science, management, architecture and engineering, law, etc. Foreign nationals hired within professional fields with a lack of well-qualified manpower on the list have easier access to a residence and work permit.	Danish Agency for Labour Retention and International Recruitment.	Based on surveys showing sectors with a structural lack of workforce.	The minimum educational level required for a position on the Positive List is a professional bachelor's degree.	Currently 31 occupations.	Twice a year – January and July.
Finland ***Residence Permit for an Occupational Barometer Employed Person***	Occupational Barometer.	The Occupational Barometer presents a view of the development of the labour market situation in the coming half year. It has multiple uses which include planning for immigration.	TE Offices (Employment and Economic Development Offices).	Shows a forecast of shortage and surplus occupations in the 15 regions.			Annual.
France ***Temporary Work Permit for Salariés (Salaried Workers)***	Shortage Occupations.	Shortage occupations are registered in a government list or negotiated through bilateral agreements. Workers filling shortage Occupations may be exempted from LMT.	Ministries of Justice and the Interior.	Co-ordination between different ministries and trade unions or negotiated through bilateral agreements. The method relies on indicators of labour supply and demand. Includes data from the French Employment Agency (Pôle Emploi), taking into account threshold and regional criteria.		Currently 30 occupations for third-country nationals and several which are specific to bilateral arrangements.	
Germany ***Temporarily Restricted Residence Permit for the purpose of employment, EU Blue Card***	Positive list. EU Blue Card shortage occupations.	To provide exemptions from the Labour market test.	Ministry of Labour.	Criteria such as: average vacancy duration at least 40% above the average of all occupations; an increase in average vacancy duration of at least 10 days over the preceding reference period; and ratio of fewer than 3 unemployed workers to vacancies than 3:1 seeking a job in that occupation per vacancy at a national level. Criteria should also take into consideration qualitative factors.	ISCO classification system (for the Blue Card: 21, 221, 25).	The Positive list has 18 categories. The EU Blue Card shortage occupation categories are fixed. There are 58.	Every 6 months.

Table 3.A1.3. **Shortage lists: Characteristics** *(cont.)*

Country (visa category)	Name	Role	Agency	Process/criteria	Classification	Number of occupations	Revision frequency
Greece ***Residence Permit for Employment***	Volumes of Admission.	The Volumes of Admission system works like an anticipated shortage list of occupations (by region and speciality) for the following 2 years.	Joint Ministerial Decision (JMD).	From 2014 the JMD establishes the number of Volumes of Admission occupations and criteria through consultation involving the social partners and actors with good knowledge of the local labour market. Labour force needs are also determined on the basis of the interests of national economy; the available (legal) labour force supply; and the unemployment rates per economic sector.			Revised every second year (last quarter).
Ireland ***Green Card Employment Permit***	High Skills Occupations List. Ineligibles List.	The High Skills Occupations List is exempted from labour market test. Work permits cannot be issued for occupations in "Ineligible Categories of Employment for Employment Permits".		Remuneration between EUR 30 000 and 59 999 for any job on the High Skills Occupations List. The list is identified in the *National Skills Bulletin* released by Forfas (National Board for Jobs, Enterprise and Innovation) and from data in the *Vacancy Overview Annual Report*.	Broad occupation groups with several job titles under each.	Broad occupational groups (7).	Biannual.
New Zealand ***Skilled Migrant Category (SMC)*** ***Work to Residence*** ***Temporary work*** ***Essential Skills***	Long Term Skills Shortage List LTSSL, Immediate Skill Shortage List (ISSL), Canterbury Skill Shortage List (CSSL).	Applicants in occupations in shortage included in LTSSL will be granted bonus points for SMC or obtain work-to-residence visa. For ISSL and CSSL the applicants are exempted from the LMT. In the 2012 review a sunset clause was added for a few occupations.	Immigration New Zealand.	Call for proposals and occupation nominations from the industry. The Ministry then assesses and selects the occupations to be reviewed and produces a *Preliminary Indicator Evidence Report* (PIER). There is a final call for submissions of occupations selected for review followed by wider sector consultations on occupations.	Australia New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO), levels 1-3 at the 6-digit level.	LTSSL 102, ISSL 94, CSSL 37.	The LTSSL and ISSL are reviewed annually and CSSL every quarter.
Portugal ***Residence visa/ Temporary Stay permit***	Exclusion List (not shortage list) but seldom used.						
Spain ***Work Permit***	Catalogue of Hard-to-fill Positions for the General Regime.	Exempts employers from a labour market test.	*Servicio Público de Empleo Estatal.*	PES authorities use regional unemployment and job vacancy data and consult the Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration, which includes social partners, to draw up a list of potential shortage occupations at the regional level.		Regional lists vary in number. In Q3/2014, for example, 20 occupations for Asturias and Madrid, 2 in Navarra, and none in many others.	Revised quarterly.

Table 3.A1.3. **Shortage lists: Characteristics** *(cont.)*

Country (visa category)	Name	Role	Agency	Process/criteria	Classification	Number of occupations	Revision frequency
United Kingdom ***Tier 2 Skilled worker***	Skill Shortage Occupation List (SOL).	Exemption for Tier 2 visas from Resident Labour Market Test, given priority in the annual limit, exempted from earnings threshold at settlement.	Migration Advisory Committee (MAC).	3-stage process based on wage, vacancy and employment data, and on stakeholder consultation.	Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) 2010.	30 on the SOL, and 2 for the Scottish List.	Partial review every six months and full-scale review every two years.
United States ***Employment Based Immigrants visa EB-2, EB-3***	Schedule A Occupations.	The DOL pre-certifies certain shortage occupations which include physical therapists and professional nurses (Group I) and certain categories of people of exceptional ability in the sciences or arts and persons of exceptional ability in the performing arts (Group II). This list provides exemption from the standard recruitment process or LMT.	Department of Labor.				Last amended in 2005.

Table 3.A1.4. **International students – associated rules and procedures**

	Hours per week permitted for work	Job is linked to course of study Y/N	Automatic authorisation of work rights Y/N	Monitoring of student by education provider Y/N	Mandatory reporting to authorities by education provider Y/N	Right to family re-unification Y/N
Australia	40 hours per fortnight (general) – unlimited for post-graduate and above	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Austria	10 initially, 20 after first year	N	N			Y
Belgium	20	Y	N	Y		Y
Canada	20	N	Y (for on-campus, from 2014 for off-campus)	Y	Y	Y
Chile	0		N			
Czech Republic	30 days in a year	Y	N			Y
Denmark	15 (full time in summer)	N	Y			Y
Estonia	Not defined – "as long as working does not affect studies"	N	Y			Y
Finland	25 (full time in summer)	N	Y	Y	N	Y
France	18.5	N	Y	Y	N	Y
Germany	18.5 (120 days per annum)	N	Y			Y
Greece	20		Y	Y		Y
Hungary	24		Y			Y
Ireland	20	N	Y			N
Israel	0	-	-	Y		Y
Italy	20, annual limit of 1 040 hours	-	Y	Y	N	Y
Japan	28		N	Y	Y	Y
Korea	20		N	Y	Y	Y
Luxembourg	10 (open to non post-grad/doctoral students after 2 semesters)		Y			Y
Mexico	20	Y	N	Y		Y
Netherlands	10 (full time in summer)		N		N	Y
New Zealand	20 (higher courses)	N	Y	Y	N (except Trusted Partner Universities from 2014)	Y
Norway	20 (full-time over holidays)		N (authorised when employment would not interfere with study progress)	N	N	Y
Poland	Full time during holidays		Y during holiday, require authorisation during year, subject to LMT			
Portugal	Y		N	Y	N	Y
Slovak Republic	10		Y (up to 10 hours weekly)			
Slovenia			Y	N		Y
Spain	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y
Sweden	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y
Switzerland	15	N	N	Y – University must attest that work will not affect study	N	Y
Turkey	24 (after first year)	N	N (requires work permit)			N
United Kingdom	20	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
United States	20 (full time during vacation)	N	Y (except for off-campus)	Y	Y (SEVIS)	Y

Chapter 4

Country notes: Recent changes in migration movements and policies

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.

Australia

Permanent migration under Australia's Migration and Humanitarian Programmes rose by 7.7% in 2012-13 with 214 000 visas issued. There were 190 000 places under the Migration Programme, 20 000 under the Humanitarian Programme and an additional 4 000 places, as recommended by the Expert Panel on Asylum Seekers, under the Family Stream. The Skill Stream accounted for about two-thirds of the Migration Programme visas issued, with the remainder issued through the Family Stream except for a small number (0.4%) granted under the Special Eligibility category.

India again led the Migration Programme, with 40 100 individuals (21.1% of the total), a 38.0% increase over the previous year. China (27 300) and the United Kingdom (21 700) followed. In addition, 41 200 New Zealand citizens entered Australia as permanent settlers under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement.

Demand for Temporary Work (Skilled) (subclass 457) visas increased with grants up by 1.0% to 126 400 in 2012-13, although several top countries (South Africa, the United States and the United Kingdom) saw fewer recipients. India replaced the United Kingdom as the top origin country. Changes to the programme in July 2013 strengthened skills assessments, increased English language requirements and, for the majority of occupations, required sponsors to demonstrate that there was a genuine skilled vacancy. The compliance and enforcement framework was also enhanced.

The Working Holiday Maker Programme increased by 15.8% in 2012-13 to 258 250 visas granted. Australia's 28th reciprocal working holiday arrangement commenced April 2013 with Uruguay. An agreement was signed with Greece in May 2014.

International Student visa numbers have grown over the last two years, reaching 259 300 in 2012-13, a 2.5% increase on the previous year, but still 18.9% below the record in 2008-09. Numbers continued to rise in 2013-14. Two changes to the Student visa programme were implemented in March and April 2013. The first was to allow recent higher education graduates the opportunity to work for up to four years in Australia, under the Temporary Graduate (subclass 485) visa. The second was to allow individual circumstances to be taken into account in deciding whether to withdraw visas from students who have breached their visa conditions.

An estimated 62 700 people whose temporary visas had expired or been cancelled were living illegally in Australia in June 2013, a 3.0% increase on the previous year.

A total of 123 400 people were granted Australian citizenship in 2012-13. This was an increase of 46.6% from 2011-12 and the highest number since 2006-07.

There was a notable increase in the Humanitarian Programme in 2012-13. The number of visas granted under the offshore resettlement component of the programme rose by 86.6% on the previous year to 12 500. Iraq and Afghanistan were the top countries. A further 7 500 visa grants were made under the onshore protection component for those who entered Australia either as illegal maritime arrivals (led by nationals of Afghanistan and Iran) or by air on a valid visa then claimed asylum (principally, from Pakistan and Iran). The number of illegal maritime arrivals reached record highs in 2012-13 – climbing to over 20 000 annually – before falling sharply in late 2013.

The visa application process, particularly for those applying for temporary visas, was simplified during 2013. The number of Temporary Work visas was reduced from 17 to 8, and the number of Visitor visas from 11 to 4. A new Temporary Work (Short Stay Activity) (subclass 400) visa was introduced to allow short-term highly specialised non-ongoing work to be carried out in Australia. In 2014, streamlined visa processing arrangements were extended to students enrolled in Bachelor (or higher) degree courses at low immigration risk non-university providers. It is intended that this will be extended in 2015 to include advanced diploma level courses as well.

A new Seasonal Worker Programme, beginning in July 2012, replaced the Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme, with 3 000 visa issues in the first year. The programme builds on the pilot's economic development objectives for the Pacific and Timor-Leste, while assisting Australian employers who cannot source local labour in selected industries. The number of visa places is capped at 12 000 over four years (2012-16), with most visas issued to those working in the horticulture industry.

In December 2012, the Government announced a pilot community sponsorship programme of 500 places under the Humanitarian Programme. This aims to provide a more supportive settlement environment for new humanitarian entrants, enabling a smoother transition from resettlement, through to education, work experience and employment.

For further information

www.immi.gov.au.

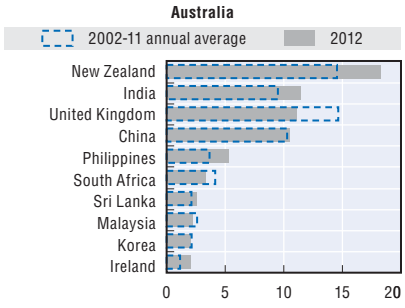
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRALIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.6	8.1	9.4	10.7	7.3	9.6	242.4
Outflows	0.5	1.4	1.4	..	..	1.4	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	56.2	59.7	25.6	24.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	112.3	124.6	51.1	50.9
Humanitarian	14.0	13.8	6.4	5.6
Free movements	34.6	44.3	15.7	18.1
Others	2.5	2.7	1.1	1.1
Total	219.5	245.1	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	116.7	126.2	125.1	175.6
Trainees	7.0	3.5	3.8	4.9
Working holiday makers	104.4	185.5	214.6	167.5
Seasonal workers	..	0.4	1.6	0.1
Intra-company transfers	..	8.2	10.1	6.4
Other temporary workers	71.6	106.2	141.0	116.3

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.3	*15 786*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.3	14.3	13.6	17.6	13.0	15.1	*400*
Natural increase	6.3	6.5	6.7	7.1	6.1	6.9	*162*
Net migration	5.8	6.7	8.2	10.5	6.4	10.7	*238*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	23.2	24.4	27.0	27.3	24.1	26.3	*6 209*
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	*83 698*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	..	79.9	78.9	78.4	79.2	79.7
Foreign-born men	..	74.6	79.3	78.5	73.7	78.1
Native-born women	..	67.0	68.8	68.8	66.3	68.9
Foreign-born women	..	58.0	61.9	61.4	56.5	60.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	..	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.5	4.8
Foreign-born men	..	5.2	4.6	4.9	5.7	5.0
Native-born women	..	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.5	4.9
Foreign-born women	..	5.5	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	1.8	3.0	3.6	2.6	3.4	2.7	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	0.6	1.5	2.1	1.0	2.1	0.9	*43 060*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	3.4	1.7	1.2	2.3	2.1	*11 347*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.3	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.5	4.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158010

Austria

In 2012, the total inflow of foreign nationals to Austria increased to 125 600 persons, which represented a 13% increase compared to the previous year. The outflows increased as well, albeit at a more modest rate of 2.2% (or 74 400 persons). The net immigration of foreign nationals in 2012 reached 51 200 persons, slightly more than in 2011. The increased net inflow of migrants was likely a consequence of the free mobility within the EEA combined with the relatively favourable economic situation in Austria. GDP growth of 2.7% achieved in 2011 slowed down to 0.9% in 2012 in the wake of the economic recession in the euro area; however, the economic growth remained well above the euro area average (-0.6%) mainly due to export growth and investments in public infrastructure and housing. Excluding Austrians, more than a half (63%) of the immigration flows to Austria came from the EU/EEA countries. Inflows from Southern Europe and the EU8 gained importance as did inflows from more distant origins, in particular Iran, the Russian Federation and Afghanistan.

In 2013, these trends continued, with higher inflows and lower outflows. Net migration of foreigners rose to 60 700. Immigration flows from EU/EEA countries accounted for 64% of all inflows. Immigration from the EU8 and Southern European countries continued to rise, albeit to a lesser degree than in 2012. Inflows from Croatia more than doubled and inflows from Bosnia and Herzegovina increased by over 20%. Where flows from Afghanistan declined, inflows from Syria almost doubled.

Family migration accounted for the bulk of Austrian permanent immigration from outside the EU. A large share of third country nationals entered outside the quota system (i.e. as family members of Austrians or EEA-citizens). The total inflow of permanent immigrants from third countries in 2013 was 17 900 persons. Among these about one-fifth (3 900 permits) entered under a quota (mainly as family members of third country national settled in Austria), while 78% entered outside the quota. The main grounds for immigration of third-country nationals to Austria are family reunification to Austrians or EEA-citizens, work (on the basis of the Red-White-Red cards introduced in 2011), or humanitarian grounds.

In addition to permanent (settlement) permits, the Federal Ministry of Interior issues temporary residence permits for the purpose of study, temporary work and business activities, including services mobility (GATS mode 4) or on humanitarian grounds. In the course of 2013, 8 600 such temporary residence permits were issued for the first time (about the same number as in the previous year), and 16 500 permits were extended (4% more than in 2012).

In July 2011, the quota system for skilled third-country nationals was phased out and replaced by a points-based system, under which Red-White-Red (RWR) cards are issued for work in the first year of settlement and "RWR Plus Card" are granted for family members and for work beyond the first year. Simultaneously the EU Blue Card was introduced (for work in the first two years of settlement). This reorientation of migration policy produced a change in the composition of the status of migrants from third countries. The number of permanent residence permits increased, and the number of residence permits for relatives declined in favour of the holders of RWR Plus Cards. The introduction of RWR and EU Blue Cards has seen the number of incoming skilled migrants double, to almost 1 300 in 2013. This, however, is less than was expected, since studies accompanying the introduction of the RWR Card estimated an increase in the annual inflow of skilled labour of up to 5 000 persons by 2015 and 8 000 by 2030. To increase inflows, a legislative amendment enabling employers to file the application on behalf of applicants in Austria came into effect as of April 2013.

The number of asylum seekers has been rising year on year since 2008 (with the exception of 2010). The total inflow of asylum seekers in 2012 reached 17 400 persons, which was 2 300 persons (or 21%) more than in the year 2011. The top three countries of origin among asylum seekers in Austria were Afghanistan, the Russian Federation and Pakistan.

In 2013 the Austrian Council of Ministers initiated a reform of the naturalisation legislation. The proposed amendments reduce the waiting period for naturalisation from ten to six years for foreigners who can prove a high degree of integration in an economic, social or cultural respect.

For further information

www.bmi.gv.at
www.bmask.gv.at
www.migration.gv.at/en
www.statistik.at/web_en/statistics/population/index.html.

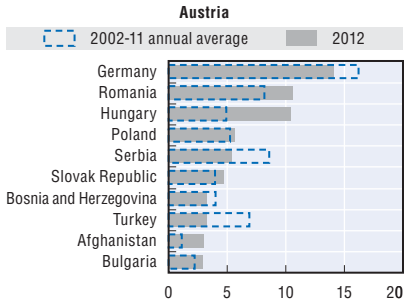
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	8.2	11.9	13.1	14.9	11.4	11.6	125.6
Outflows	5.5	6.1	8.7	8.8	6.1	7.8	74.4

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	1.0	1.2	1.7	1.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	12.5	10.6	21.3	15.8
Humanitarian	6.4	4.1	11.0	6.1
Free movements	38.2	50.9	65.5	75.9
Others	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4
Total	58.4	67.1	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	3.2	4.6	4.6	3.4
Trainees	0.4	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	11.4	8.2	..	10.8
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.2	..	0.1
Other temporary workers	6.3	2.9	..	2.7

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.3	2.7	1.7	2.1	3.2	1.6	*17 413*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	6.4	4.6	5.2	5.4	3.8	*44*
Natural increase	0.2	0.4	0.2	-0.1	0.3	0.2	*0*
Net migration	2.2	5.4	4.2	5.2	4.7	3.7	*44*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.5	14.5	16.0	16.2	14.3	15.5	*1 365*
Foreign population	8.8	9.7	11.3	11.9	9.5	10.6	*1 004*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	3.5	4.5	0.7	0.7	4.7	1.0	*7 043*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.2	76.2	78.3	78.4	75.6	78.5
Foreign-born men	76.1	71.1	75.0	75.2	72.5	74.2
Native-born women	59.8	63.5	68.2	69.2	62.5	67.7
Foreign-born women	58.4	54.2	59.2	59.3	56.3	57.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.3	3.9	3.3	3.5	4.1	3.4
Foreign-born men	8.7	10.8	8.0	8.7	10.3	8.6
Native-born women	4.2	4.6	3.5	3.7	4.3	3.7
Foreign-born women	7.2	10.5	8.3	7.7	9.0	8.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	2.4	2.8	0.9	2.2	1.2	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.4	1.7	2.5	0.4	1.7	0.9	*43 273*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.5	2.2	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.1	*4 183*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	3.5	5.2	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158025

Belgium

The number of foreigners in Belgium has been increasing since the year 2002. In 2012, 123 000 persons immigrated to Belgium – about 9 000 persons fewer than in 2011. Among them 89% (110 000) were foreign nationals. Two-thirds of immigrants in 2012 were EU nationals, principally from France (13 300) and Romania (11 200). The decline in migration between 2011 and 2012 was due to lower flows from non-EU countries. The number of emigrants increased in 2012 to 84 100 persons – by 3 500 persons more than in 2011. Among emigrants, 60 000 (71%) were foreign nationals.

As of the end of 2013, 1.2 million foreign nationals lived in Belgium, up 3.9% in two years. The Belgian population grew more slowly (0.7% in 2012-13). The net migration balance of foreigners was positive in 2012, but 18% lower than the previous years (50 100 persons), while that of national population was negative (a net outflow of 11 100 persons). The foreign-born population in 2012 reached 1 689 500 persons, i.e. 15.2% of the total population (up from 14.9% in 2011).

Most foreign residents in Belgium in 2012 were EU nationals (805 108 persons, or 67% of total foreign population). The principal nationalities of foreign residents were Italian (157 400 persons), French (153 400 persons) and Dutch (144 000 persons). The largest increase was in the number of Romanian nationals, which rose 20% in 2012 to reach 50 900.

Work permits were, in 2012, issued to third-country nationals and to nationals of Romania and Bulgaria. In 2012, more than 15 200 first permits for employment were issued, close to the 2011 figure, although about 40% fewer than in 2008. Nationals of Romania and Bulgaria received more than half of first work permits issued in 2012 (6 300 and 2 100, respectively). Other major countries of origin amongst the first permit recipients were India (1 700) and Morocco (840). Foreigners whose primary reason for stay in Belgium is not employment-related may receive type C permits, which grant work authorisation. 27 500 C-permits (first and renewals) were issued in 2012. Furthermore, 8 600 work permits (first and renewals) were issued in 2012 to highly skilled workers. More than half of the permits for highly skilled workers were issued to Indians (2 800 persons), Japanese (1 100 persons), and nationals of the United States (900 persons).

Data from the National Institute for the Social Security of the Self-employed indicate indicate that 22 200 foreigners (and 71 000 Belgian nationals) started independent employment in Belgium in 2012. These included 6 400 Romanians, 2 800 Bulgarians and 1 900 Poles.

The labour force participation rate in 2012 was higher for foreigners (72.1%) than for Belgian nationals (70.1%). While women had lower activity rates than men in both groups, the gender gap was much more pronounced for the foreigners than for Belgian nationals (24 percentage points and 10 percentage points, respectively). The unemployment rate was much higher for foreigners (16.3%) than for Belgian nationals (9.9%). Women constituted almost 43% of the unemployed foreigners and 49.1% of the unemployed nationals.

Belgium granted nationality in 2012 to 38 600 persons (compared with 29 800 persons in 2011). The majority of naturalised citizens in 2012 originated from Morocco (7 900 persons), followed by Italy (3 200 persons) and Turkey (2 500 persons). New amendments to naturalisation legislation that came into force in January 2013 involved a tightening of the eligibility conditions.

First issuances of family migration permits totalled 31 000 in 2012. These numbers have fallen 28% from the 2009 level, with most of the steady decline due to fewer cases of family reunification by Belgian nationals. After four years of increases, the Office for Foreigners registered 21 500 asylum requests submitted in 2012 (covering approximately 27 400 persons), 16% fewer than in the previous year. In 2013, the number fell again, to 15 840 applications. A new asylum law adopted in September 2013 changed the asylum application procedure to shorten its duration, increase the quality of assessment and prevent multiple requests in unfounded cases.

The EU Directive on sanctions against employers (2009/52/EC) came into force in Belgium on March 2013. Belgium decided to apply transitional labour market restrictions until 2015 on nationals of Croatia following its accession to the EU.

Finally, under institutional reforms, economic migration policy was decentralised from the federal to regional level, from 1 July 2014.

For further information

www.emploi.belgique.be
www.ibz.be
https://dofi.ibz.be/
www.statbel.fgov.be
www.cgra.be
www.fedasil.be.

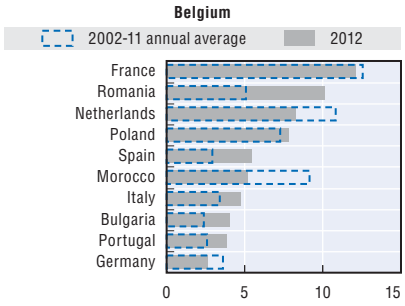
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

BELGIUM

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.6	7.4	10.7	9.9	7.1	9.9	110.0
Outflows	3.5	3.7	5.1	5.4	3.5	4.4	59.9

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	9.0	9.1	14.5	15.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	23.0	18.3	37.2	31.0
Humanitarian	2.9	3.0	4.6	5.2
Free movements	27.0	28.5	43.6	48.4
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	61.8	58.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	0.2	0.2	0.3
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	2.7	6.3	10.1	10.8
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	2.8	6.3	6.1	8.2

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	4.2	1.5	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.6	*18 525*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.4	6.3	10.2	8.5	4.8	8.2	*94*
Natural increase	1.1	1.6	2.3	2.1	1.1	2.1	*23*
Net migration	1.3	4.7	7.9	6.5	3.6	6.0	*72*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.3	12.1	14.9	15.2	11.8	14.0	*1 690*
Foreign population	8.4	8.6	10.6	10.7	8.5	9.8	*1 195*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	6.9	3.6	2.7	3.3	4.1	3.2	*38 612*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	70.8	69.3	68.2	68.2	69.0	68.7
Foreign-born men	62.2	61.2	61.3	60.0	59.8	61.9
Native-born women	53.8	56.0	59.1	59.4	54.7	58.3
Foreign-born women	37.3	39.7	44.4	44.5	39.1	43.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.2	6.5	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.9
Foreign-born men	14.7	15.7	15.5	17.6	16.2	15.8
Native-born women	7.4	8.4	6.0	5.9	7.5	6.8
Foreign-born women	17.5	18.9	14.6	15.9	17.6	16.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	1.8	1.8	-0.1	2.0	1.0	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.4	1.2	0.9	-0.8	1.5	0.2	*40 031*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.0	1.4	1.4	0.2	0.7	1.1	*4 636*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	7.0	8.4	7.2	7.6	8.1	7.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158031

Bulgaria

Bulgaria remained in recession through 2012 and into 2013. Economic contraction and persistent high unemployment remain an incentive for emigration, albeit at a lower level than in the past. Official external migration figures (which only include persons who have declared address changes from or to a foreign address) captured about 8 200 immigrants in 2012 and 10 500 immigrants in 2013, with net migration of -650 in 2012 and +650 in 2013. Actual figures are much higher. However, return migration from abroad also remains low, even if Bulgaria's emigrant population is concentrated in Spain and Greece, where the employment situation remains bleak, and in the United Kingdom. On 1 January 2014 the transitional restrictions on Bulgarian migrants in the EU expired; there is no evidence that this has led to substantially larger outflows to those countries which had previously imposed labour market restrictions.

Although the foreign population in Bulgaria comprises only 0.6% of the population, the inflow of immigrants tripled in 2012 and doubled in 2013, to reach about 13 000 in 2013. Most immigrants were from the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Turkey. The increase in these flows was reflected in a rise in labour migration, which was dominated by highly skilled workers, engineers and technical staff. In the IT sector in particular, the EU "Blue Card", introduced in 2011, was used for this category.

More than 10 000 foreigners were naturalised in Bulgaria in 2012, mostly on the grounds of Bulgarian origin. This was fewer than the record number in 2011 (18 500).

The number of foreign students, which has been rising steadily, continued to increase. From 10 300 in academic year 2010/11, the number increased to 11 100 in 2011/12 and 11 400 in 2012/13.

Asylum has historically been a limited phenomenon in Bulgaria. For example, as recently as 2011, there were only 900 applicants. This has changed significantly with the crisis in Syria and the arrival of an unprecedented inflow along the border with Turkey. In 2013, 11 000 individuals arrived in the space of just a few months. Asylum applications totalled 7 100 in 2013, and 2 900 in the first five months of 2014. Over 2013-14, of those applications which were decided, 37% were granted refugee status and 56% humanitarian status.

Bulgarian institutions and the public were caught unprepared (especially as information about immigration and refugee policy had not been developed over the preceding decade) and the new arrivals met a relatively unwelcoming environment. Reception policies were not in place, nor did the system have the capacity to deal with a large number of asylum applications. Integration measures are being defined. Measures which have been undertaken include building reception centres for up to 4 000 people and emergency housing for up to 5 000. Among the integration measures, Bulgaria held the first job fair for Syrian refugees.

In the policy domain, efforts to develop a more restrictive policy in light of the large number of border crossers is balanced with the need to relax entry requirements for businesses and tourists in order to favour economic recovery.

The bilateral agreement for construction workers in Israel, concluded in January 2012, continues to be implemented.

For further information

www.nsi.bg/en
www.aref.government.bg
www.government.bg/cgi%20-bin/e-cms/vi%20s%20/vis.pl?s=001&p=0136&g.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

BULGARIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.5	2.0	3.0	..	1.9	..	..
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
	2011	**2012**	**2011**	**2012**
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	..	..	..	..

Temporary migration	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2007-11**
Thousands				
International students	2.1	..	..	3.1
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	0.6	..	..	0.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	*1 229*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-5.1	-5.5	-7.8	-5.7	-10.9	-5.6	*-42*
Natural increase	-5.1	-5.5	-4.6	-5.1	-5.6	-4.5	*-37*
Net migration	0.0	0.0	-3.2	-0.7	-5.3	-1.1	*-5*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	56.1	61.7	61.3	61.3	58.4	65.2
Foreign-born men	..	..	..	..	..	..
Native-born women	47.2	47.4	55.7	56.6	51.1	57.5
Foreign-born women	..	..	..	..	..	..
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	16.8	12.3	12.5	13.7	13.1	8.5
Foreign-born men	..	..	..	..	..	..
Native-born women	15.9	15.0	10.1	10.8	12.4	7.9
Foreign-born women	..	..	..	..	..	..

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.7	6.4	1.8	..	6.0	1.9	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..	*15 828*
Employment (level in thousands)	..	2.0	-3.4	..	2.9	-1.0	..
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.4	10.1	11.2	..	12.6	8.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158042

Canada

Canada admitted 257 900 new permanent residents in 2012, equivalent to about 0.7% of the resident population and close to the average since 2006.

Canada sets annual targets for the total admission of permanent residents and by single categories; its overall planned admission range for 2012 was 240 000-265 000, consistent with the previous year. In 2012, admissions under each class were within the planned range and the share of different classes was similar to that of previous years. 62.4% of 2012 admissions were economic immigrants (including spouse/partner and dependants), 25.2% were in the family reunification category, and 12.4% were protected persons and other immigrants.

Within classes, there are notable shifts. The share of family class immigrants increased by 15% from 2011 to 2012 (from 56 400 admissions to 65 000) as a result of accelerated processing of applications, following a temporary pause on the intake of new sponsorship applications for parents and grandparents. The number of all other categories increased slightly except for refugees where there were 17% fewer admissions in 2012 (23 000 refugees). While Canada's planning range for government-assisted refugees was 7 500 in 2012, it admitted 5 400 due in part to the crisis in Syria and to difficulty reaching other refugee populations for security reasons.

China (12.8%), the Philippines (12.7%), and India (11.2%) continue to be the leading origin countries for permanent residents to Canada. The Philippines (16.9%) was the leading origin for economic migrants, China (17.5%) for family migrants and Haiti (7.6%) for refugees.

Immigrants continue to be well qualified: in 2012, 42% (68 000) of permanent residents between 25 and 64 years of age had completed tertiary education.

Canada has seen significant growth in temporary migration, which is more demand-driven than permanent resident admissions. In 2012, 318 300 new temporary foreign workers and international students were admitted, a 10.2% increase from 2011, with increases in both temporary foreign workers (213 600) and international students (81 100, as well as 23 700 students at secondary or lower level). 26 500 Seasonal Agricultural Workers came to Canada to work in 2012, with Mexico and Jamaica accounting for 67% and 24% respectively of total admissions.

The number of naturalisations in 2012 (113 200) was lower than in 2011 (181 300), due to greater scrutiny when verifying applicants' eligibility for citizenship and to anti-fraud measures. Naturalisations increased again in 2013 (128 900) due to faster processing of applications and additional programme funding.

Canada passed comprehensive legislative changes to the Citizenship Act in June 2014, with the aim of increasing programme efficiency, strengthening programme integrity, as well as reinforcing the value of Canadian citizenship.

Canada will be launching a new application management system in January 2015. Express Entry is designed to ensure a steady supply of skilled workers ready to begin employment in Canada and help supplement the Canadian workforce where there are skills shortages. To support strong admissions in 2014 and 2015, Canada began accepting applications under new caps for the Federal Skilled Worker Programme, the Federal Skilled Trades Program, and the Canadian Experience Class in the spring of 2014.

The Start-up Visa Programme, launched in 2013, welcomed the first successful applicants in 2014. The programme brings together Canadian venture capital funds, angel investors and business incubators with entrepreneurs from abroad. The Federal Investor and Entrepreneur programmes were terminated in June 2014.

New International Student Programme regulations came into effect in 2014, requiring international students to be enrolled at a designated learning institution, in addition to actively pursuing a course or programme of study.

As part of the Action Plan for Faster Family Reunification, the government undertook a review of the Parent and Grandparent Programme with a view to reducing application backlogs and lengthy wait times, and making the Programme more fiscally sustainable over the long term. Since the launch of the Action Plan, the backlog and wait times have been reduced, and new sponsorship criteria (in effect from 2014) ensure that families have the financial means to support those they sponsor.

A comprehensive overhaul of the Temporary Foreign Worker Programme was announced in June 2014. This includes using wage levels instead of national occupational classification as the main criteria, a new comprehensive and rigorous Labour Market Impact Assessment (LMIA) process, and caps on low-wage temporary foreign workers. LMIA exemptions have been consolidated in an International Mobility Program. Both programmes will have stronger employer enforcement and tougher penalties made possible through either new compliance fees or higher user fees.

For further information

www.cic.gc.ca.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

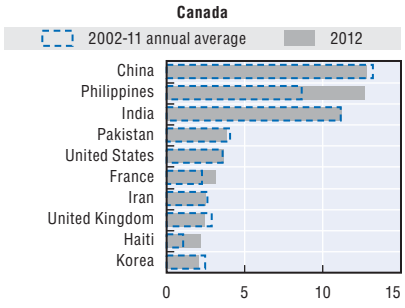
CANADA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.4	8.1	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.5	257.9
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	64.4	68.3	25.9	26.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	148.2	157.6	59.6	61.1
Humanitarian	36.1	32.0	14.5	12.4
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Total	248.7	257.9	100.0	100.0

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	56.7	77.2	81.1	69.0
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	28.0	54.9	59.1	44.8
Seasonal workers	20.3	24.5	25.4	24.5
Intra-company transfers	6.8	13.5	13.6	11.4
Other temporary workers	62.4	86.9	103.3	91.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.9	*20 223*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	9.7	9.9	11.9	..	9.8	11.5	..
Natural increase	3.6	3.5	3.8	..	3.5	4.0	..
Net migration	6.5	7.0	7.1	..	6.9	7.5	..

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	17.4	18.7	19.6	19.8	18.4	19.6	*6 914*
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	*113 150*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	77.4	..	75.0	75.0	..	75.0
Foreign-born men	77.0	..	75.1	76.1	..	75.3
Native-born women	66.0	..	70.6	70.6	..	70.8
Foreign-born women	59.6	..	63.0	64.5	..	63.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.7	..	7.8	7.6	..	8.1
Foreign-born men	6.1	..	8.4	8.3	..	9.0
Native-born women	6.2	..	6.4	6.4	..	6.2
Foreign-born women	8.7	..	9.5	8.6	..	9.2

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	8.1	3.2	2.5	1.7	2.7	1.3	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	7.1	2.2	1.5	0.6	1.7	0.1	*41 773*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.5	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.9	1.1	*17 509*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.8	6.7	7.5	7.3	7.1	7.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158051

Chile

Migration inflows to Chile started to increase towards the end of the 1990s and continued to grow, in particular during the last decade. The total number of issued residence permits doubled between 2002 and 2012. More than 127 000 permits were granted in 2012 (including 100 100 temporary and 27 300 permanent residence permits), 33% more than during the previous year. Permits further increased to 158 000 in 2013 (132 100 temporary and 26 000 permanent). Migration inflows in 2012 corresponded to about 0.6% of the resident population.

According to estimates by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Immigration of the Ministry of Interior, the stock of foreign residents permanently living in Chile in 2012 reached more than 415 000 people (representing nearly 2.5% of the total population), and further increased to 441 500 in late 2013. More than two thirds (74%) of the foreign residents came from Latin America, mainly from Peru (38%), Argentina (15%), Bolivia (8%), Ecuador (5%) and Colombia (5%).

About 70% of temporary permits in 2013 went to nationals of just three countries: Peru (39 300) Bolivia (26 900) and Colombia (26 600). Countries of origin which have seen recent sharp increases include Spain (from 2 400 temporary permits in 2012 to 4 900 in 2013), Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Most new arrivals from these countries hold temporary residence permits.

The number of visas granted has been also steadily increasing over the decade. In 2012, 105 000 visas were issued, which was three times more than in 2003. Among visa recipients in 2012, the top three countries of origin were Peru (38 600 persons), Colombia (17 800 persons), and Bolivia (13 600 persons).

While migration in the 1990s was characterised by a high share of women and working-age immigrants, the gender gap has recently shrunk, and the immigration flows in 2011 and 2012 were balanced in terms of gender. In 2012, only 3% of temporary residence permits were granted for purposes of study, while 45% residence permits were granted to temporary visa holders, and 53% permits were issued to the holders of work contract visas.

In October 2012, Chile held its first local elections with voluntary suffrage and automatic registration, in which nearly 125 000 foreigners were entitled to vote. In July 2012 the first anti-discrimination law was published in Chile.

During 2013, the Chilean government implemented the Citizen Survey on Discrimination, which was aimed at awareness-raising and obtaining information on local practices of discrimination. In December 2013, twenty public and civil institutions that constitute the Intersectoral Working Party against Human Trafficking adopted an intersectoral agreement on the implementation of National Plan Against Human Trafficking "Chile Says No to Human Trafficking".

In the policy domain, several years of discussion led to the presentation by the executive of an Immigration Bill to the National Congress in June 2013. Following elections in March 2014 and a change in government, revisions are planned to the previous Bill. The government programme has established a migration policy based on the implementation of international instruments ratified by Chile on the rights of migrants; the development of an active government role in actions relating to humanitarian resettlement; promotion of regular residence; protection of victims of trafficking and the generation of thematic initiatives that link migration and development; and seeking to improve the conditions of migrant workers in Chile.

The government is examining changes to current legislation to support integration of immigrants, to increase the rights-based approach to migration policy and to take into account regional integration processes involving Chile. Interagency co-ordination and capacity are expected to be addressed, as is the strengthening of regional and municipal authorities where immigrants are concentrated.

For further information

www.extranjeria.gov.cl
www.minrel.gov.cl
www.interior.gov.cl.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

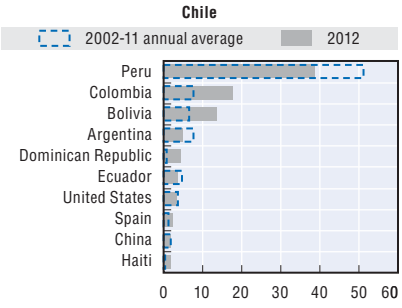
CHILE

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.2	2.3	4.4	5.7	2.2	4.1	100.1
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	..	..	..	..

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*168*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.2	10.4	9.0	8.8	10.7	9.6	*154*
Natural increase	11.6	9.7	8.7	8.7	10.0	9.3	*151*
Net migration	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	*4*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	1.5	..	..	1.4	..	..
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	1.5	..	..	1.4	..	*1 225*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	..	..	70.7	..	..	69.7
Foreign-born men	..	..	79.3	..	..	76.5
Native-born women	..	..	44.1	..	..	42.5
Foreign-born women	..	..	59.7	..	..	58.6
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	..	..	6.7	..	..	8.0
Foreign-born men	..	..	3.9	..	..	5.5
Native-born women	..	..	10.0	..	..	11.4
Foreign-born women	..	..	7.7	..	..	8.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	6.8	6.2	5.8	5.4	5.1	3.8	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.4	5.0	4.9	4.4	3.9	2.8	*21 120*
Employment (level in thousands)	..	3.8	5.0	..	2.8	3.6	..
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	9.7	9.2	7.1	6.4	9.3	8.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158065

Czech Republic

After three years of steady decline, migration into the Czech Republic picked up in 2012, as the total number of immigrants reached more than 30 000 persons, an annual increase of about 34%. Emigrants numbered close to 20 000 persons, approximately at the same level as in 2011. The resulting net migration of 10 000 persons was about 40% lower than in 2011. The difference in net migration between 2012 and 2011 can be partially attributed to change in the monitoring system: migration statistics were transferred in mid-2013 from the population register to a specific information system on foreigners. The main nationalities among immigrants were Ukrainian, Slovak and Russian. Nationals of Viet Nam, Germany and the United States also represented a sizeable group and growing numbers among immigrants. Net migration accounted for almost all (96%) of the population increase in the Czech Republic in 2012. Figures for 2013 indicate that immigration remained at the same level, while emigration increased to about 30 000, yielding negative net migration. There was negative net migration of Ukrainians (about -7 000) and of Czechs (-2 000).

The stock of foreigners with residence permits in the Czech Republic increased modestly (by less than 1 percentage point), to reach 438 000 persons or 4.2% of the total population in 2012 and continued in this trend in 2013 with 441 000 persons. The total stock of foreign population thus reached the pre-crisis level in 2012 and since then has been slowly increasing. Nationals of EU member countries represented more than one-third of the foreign population in 2013 (174 000 persons) with its share consistently increasing since 2010. A growing share of foreigners hold permanent residence permits, significantly among non-EU member countries (with annual increase more than 12% in 2013). Three nationalities – Ukraine, the Slovak Republic and Viet Nam – accounted for almost 60% of all foreign residents in the Czech Republic in 2013 with nationals from Ukraine annually decreasing, Slovak nationals annually increasing and nationals of Viet Nam at a stable level.

About 700 persons applied for asylum with the Czech authorities in 2013. Although the rate of decline in the number of applications slowed considerably in recent years, the year of 2013 recorded the lowest number of applications for international protection in the history of the Czech Republic. The main origin country for asylum seekers in the Czech Republic continues to be Ukraine, followed by Syria, the Russian Federation and Viet Nam. In 2013 about 100 persons received refugee status and about 250 persons received complementary protection almost doubling since the previous year. Applicants came mainly from Ukraine, Syria and the Russian Federation, while the successful applicants were mainly from Syria, Belarus, and Myanmar.

In 2012 the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs adopted new rules aimed at reducing low-skilled labour immigration: limits were imposed on the issuance of work permits to non-EU member country nationals (mainly for job vacancies with qualification requirements below full secondary education). These rules were lifted in 2013. Due to the change in the registration system of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, figures on foreign employment since 2012 are based on estimates; however it is likely that the post-crisis trend of a substantial share of foreign workers switching into self-employment has been decreasing since 2012. The annual average of self-employed was about 6% lower in 2013 than a year earlier. The increasing share of long-term visa applicants under the study category continued in 2013, when students represented almost 50% of long-term visa applicants and 40% of those applying for long-term residence permit.

A simplified procedure for the processing of work and residence permits was introduced in the Czech Republic in 2009 in the framework of the national Green Card system. The Green Card system ended in 2014 with the transposition of the EU "Single Permit" Directive (2011/98/EC). The single permit, an "Employee Card", has been issued from late June 2014. Along with the Employee Card another single permit, an EU Blue Card for highly skilled non-EU foreigners has been in introduced in January 2012. In the course of 2013, more than 160 persons received Blue Cards, about half of them from the Russian Federation and Ukraine.

Changes in the naturalisation law took effect in 2014, allowing dual citizenship.

For further information

www.mvcr.cz
www.czso.cz/
http://portal.mpsv.cz/sz/zahr_zam.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

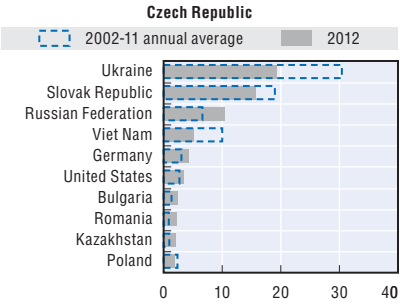
CZECH REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.4	5.7	2.2	2.9	5.4	5.3	30.3
Outflows	0.0	2.1	0.5	1.9	3.0	1.0	20.0

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	22.6	30.3	..	..

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	4.4	..	..	5.8
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.9	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.1	*753*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-1.1	3.0	2.5	1.8	-0.3	5.4	*19*
Natural increase	-1.8	-0.6	1.0	0.2	-1.3	0.9	*2*
Net migration	0.6	3.5	1.5	1.6	1.0	4.5	*17*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	4.2	5.1	6.4	..	5.0	6.3	..
Foreign population	2.0	2.7	4.1	4.1	2.6	4.1	*436*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	3.6	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.4	0.4	*2 036*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.1	73.3	73.7	74.5	73.3	74.3
Foreign-born men	..	71.0	79.6	79.5	67.7	77.6
Native-born women	56.8	56.4	57.2	58.3	56.7	57.0
Foreign-born women	..	51.3	53.9	54.6	50.9	56.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.4	6.4	5.8	6.0	6.2	5.2
Foreign-born men	..	9.7	7.1	7.3	10.3	6.7
Native-born women	10.6	9.7	7.9	8.2	9.2	7.3
Foreign-born women	..	15.8	10.0	11.2	14.4	10.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.2	6.8	1.8	-1.0	4.9	1.7	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.3	6.5	2.0	-1.1	4.8	1.3	*26 985*
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.6	1.6	-0.2	0.4	0.6	0.2	*4 891*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.8	7.9	6.7	7.0	7.7	6.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158077

Denmark

In January 2014, immigrants and their descendants in Denmark numbered 626 100, up 25 000 from one year earlier, comprising 11.1% of the overall population. Persons of Turkish origin constituted the largest group, 9.8% of immigrants and their descendants, followed by Poles (5.8%), Germans and Iraqis (5.1% and 4.9% respectively). At the top of the list of groups with the highest population growth during 2012 and 2013 are those of Romanian origin (13% increase in 2012 and 12% in 2013), then those of Polish origin (10% annually) and of Syrian origin (5% in 2012 and 8% in 2013).

During 2013 Denmark received 59 300 immigrants and dependants while 30 300 left, resulting in a 26.6% increase in net inflow, to 29 000 compared with the previous year. The inflow of persons with Danish origin was 19 000, slightly more than in 2012; outflow was 18 000, slightly higher than in 2012, resulting in their net immigration rising to 900. Persons of Polish or Romanian background were the groups experiencing the highest net migration to Denmark in 2013, while in 2012 it had been Romanian, Polish and Lithuanian.

The number of residence permits granted had been steadily falling, from 70 300 in 2008 to 56 000 in 2012, mainly because fewer study and work permits were granted. In 2013 the number of residence permits increased to 64 600 permits. 50% of residence permits went to EU/EEA citizens in 2013. 18% of permits were for study purposes, 18% for work, 8% for family reunion and 6% for asylum. Within all these categories there was an increase in the number of permits from 2012 to 2013.

In both 2011 and 2012 the number of family reunification permits to spouses/partners was lower than in previous years: in 2011, 2 200 permits were granted, and in 2012 the number was 2 400. In 2013 the number of family reunification permits to spouses/partners, however, returned to its pre-2011 levels, with about 3 700 permits granted. Family reunification permits granted to spouses/partners of Danish or Nordic nationals constitute by far the largest proportion.

The number of asylum and related permits increased from 1 100 in 2006 to 3 900 in 2013. About a third of these permits were given to persons of Syrian nationality.

In May 2013, new legislation was introduced offering new opportunities for asylum seekers to take up employment and residence outside of the refugee centres after six months if certain conditions are met. These rules have resulted in a strengthening of the range of activities and educational courses offered to asylum seekers at different stages of the asylum procedure.

New guidelines for naturalisation were introduced in May 2013. Applicants will now have to pass the Danish Level 2 Examination, or its equivalent and must also take and pass a new citizenship test, which includes aspects of everyday life and the active political life faced by citizens in a modern society; the test will be held twice a year from June 2014.

In May 2013 the Parliament adopted an amendment to the Integration Act comprising of two elements. The overall goal of the amendment was to enhance the integration efforts towards newcomers. From July 2013 municipalities are obliged to – as soon as possible and within 3 months after the migrant's arrival in the municipality – offer an integration plan for newly arrived refugees and family re-unified persons and a medical screening for newly arrived refugees and their family members. The object of the integration plan is to ensure better interdisciplinary co-ordination of all integration efforts concerning migrants and their families.

The Government presented an amendment to the Aliens Act in January 2014. Its purpose is to ensure that a residence permit issued on the basis of marriage is not revoked if the spouse residing in Denmark dies. The foreigner must, however, have shown a will to be integrated into Danish society. According to the current rules a foreigner who has lived in Denmark only for a short period of time will often not be considered to have sufficient ties with Danish society, that the residence permit will not be revoked if the spouse dies. The amendment entered into force in February 2014.

For further information

www.ast.dk
www.sm.dk
www.justitsministeriet.dk/
www.newtodenmark.dk
www.workindenmark.dk.

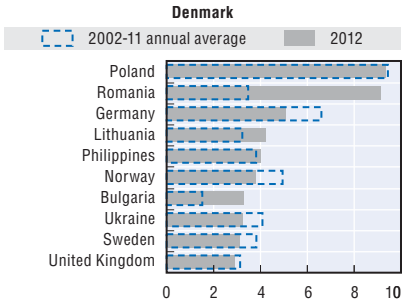
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

DENMARK

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.3	3.7	6.2	5.0	3.8	6.1	35.5
Outflows	2.6	3.0	4.8	4.1	3.0	4.4	29.1

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	6.4	5.9	15.6	13.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	5.8	6.1	13.9	14.0
Humanitarian	2.2	2.6	5.4	5.9
Free movements	23.5	25.3	56.9	57.7
Others	3.3	3.9	8.1	9.0
Total	41.3	43.8	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	6.9	5.8	6.2	6.2
Trainees	1.9	1.5	1.4	2.3
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.7

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.4	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.7	0.6	*6 186*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	3.6	3.0	5.1	4.0	2.9	5.8	*22*
Natural increase	1.7	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.5	*6*
Net migration	1.7	1.2	4.1	3.0	1.4	4.3	*16*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	5.8	6.5	7.9	8.2	6.4	7.5	*456*
Foreign population	4.8	5.0	6.4	6.7	5.0	6.0	*375*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	7.3	3.8	1.1	0.0	4.2	1.4	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	81.5	80.3	77.1	76.3	80.9	79.3
Foreign-born men	65.8	72.1	66.1	66.1	68.4	69.8
Native-born women	73.2	72.9	72.3	72.0	73.2	73.8
Foreign-born women	53.9	55.6	58.1	56.8	55.0	59.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.7	4.3	7.2	7.1	4.1	5.4
Foreign-born men	11.1	8.3	13.8	13.4	11.0	11.3
Native-born women	4.9	5.1	6.5	6.6	4.8	4.9
Foreign-born women	6.6	9.9	15.1	15.9	9.8	11.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.5	2.4	1.1	-0.4	1.8	-0.5	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.2	2.1	0.7	-0.7	1.5	-1.0	*41 945*
Employment (level in thousands)	-1.2	0.5	-0.1	-0.5	0.5	-0.7	*2 689*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.3	4.8	7.6	7.5	4.8	5.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158082

Estonia

According to the Population Registry, the population of Estonia continued a longstanding decline in 2013, reaching 1.35 million by 1 January 2014, down 0.3% in a yearly comparison. Registered foreign residents represented about 15.7% of the total registered population. 85.3% of foreign residents were either citizens of the Russian Federation (6.9% of the total) or had undetermined citizenship (6.5% of the total). Despite a 2.2% total decline in these two groups during 2013, the share of foreign residents in the total population remained stable, as the number of EU citizens increased by 14.5%. EU citizens numbered 20 600 by the end of 2013, with 3 400 EU citizens newly resident in Estonia. The main nationalities of EU citizens were Finnish (5 700) comprising 27% of all EU citizens, followed by Latvian (3 300) and Lithuanian (2 000).

Police and Border Guard Board data indicate a falling number of applications and issuances for residence permits. On 1 January 2014, there were 197 400 valid residence permits (174 800 long term resident residence permits and 22 600 temporary residence permits) compared with 201 400 a year earlier. The decline in Russian citizens and people with undetermined citizenship explains the 2% drop. EU citizens are not subject to a permit regime, but have three months to register their place of residence in the Estonian population register, which grants them the right of residence in the country for five years. In the first ten months of 2013, 3 100 EU citizens registered as temporary residents and 400 citizens of the EU registrated their right of permanent residence.

Family migration was the main reason for granting temporary permits to non-EU citizens over the last two years (1 285 permits issued in 2013), followed by employment (860). 680 permits were issued for studies, a 24% increase on 2012.

In 2013, 1 300 people naturalised, compared with 1 340 in 2012. 84% previously had undetermined citizenship. The Estonian government aims to continue reducing the number of people with undetermined citizenship and its efforts to integrate non-citizens. Special attention will be given to the facilitation of naturalisation among children with undetermined citizenship. A new draft Strategy of Integration and Social Cohesion in Estonia "*Lõimuv Eesti 2020*" was submitted for public consultation in 2014.

The number of asylum seekers has been rising since 2011, although Estonia has few asylum seekers relative to other EU countries. In 2013, 100 asylum applications were made, compared with 80 in 2012. In 2013 many of the applicants for asylum were filed after they had been apprehended while illegally crossing the Estonian-Russian border intending to reach other EU member states. In 2012 more than half of the applicants were from Georgia while in 2013 Viet Nam was the main origin.

From October 2013, changes to the Act on Granting International Protection to Aliens came into force which allow the possibility of detaining asylum seekers during the application procedure, subject to court approval and in specific cases.

In September 2013, amendments to the Aliens Act were implemented to simplify residence in Estonia for highly skilled specialists, scientists and students. The changes allow family members to accompany them at entry. Short-term employment for specialists, scientists and teachers may be registered within one day under an accelerated procedure. Top specialists are those who have acquired appropriate professional training in any field, with a contract with an Estonian-registered employer for professional work at twice the Estonian annual average gross monthly salary.

Students may now work while studying, with no limitation, although to keep their residence permit they must continue studying full time. A six-month extension is possible after graduation to seek work. For international students with an Estonian Bachelors, Masters or Doctoral degree, no salary threshold or labour market test applies to applications for a residence permit for employment.

Other changes to the Aliens Act in 2013 make it possible for a foreigner to arrive in Estonia with a visa and start the residence permit application process while already working or studying in the country.

Under an amendment to the Aliens Act, foreign nationals granted a residence permit or whose residence permit has been extended enter a welcome programme, to be established by a regulation of the Minister of the Interior. The objective of the welcome programme is to support the integration of new arrivals by acquainting them with the functioning of the state and society, organisation of daily life, working, studying and family life, and to promote acquiring basic Estonian language skills. The programme will be implemented in 2015.

For further information

www.politsei.ee/en/.

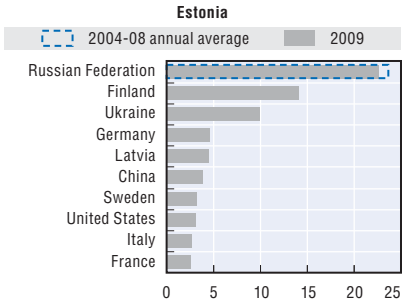
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ESTONIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	..	0.7	1.3	0.8	..	1.3	1.1
Outflows	..	0.5	0.5	0.3	..	0.4	0.4

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	*77*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-3.7	-2.1	0.0	-0.4	-3.3	-0.7	*-1*
Natural increase	-3.9	-2.2	0.0	-0.4	-3.4	-0.7	*-1*
Net migration	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	*0*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	18.1	16.9	15.8	..	17.3	16.2	..
Foreign population	20.8	18.9	16.4	16.3	19.1	16.6	*217*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	2.7	0.7	0.6	2.0	1.0	*1 339*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	62.0	65.7	67.3	69.5	66.4	67.3
Foreign-born men	70.2	72.9	69.6	70.7	71.7	71.6
Native-born women	56.9	61.3	63.4	64.7	60.1	63.4
Foreign-born women	57.4	65.2	58.8	63.6	62.9	65.1
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	15.3	8.9	13.1	10.8	9.4	12.2
Foreign-born men	13.4	9.3	15.6	14.9	11.4	13.5
Native-born women	11.8	6.3	11.2	9.2	7.6	8.9
Foreign-born women	11.1	11.7	18.1	11.4	11.4	12.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	10.0	8.9	9.6	3.9	7.9	0.3	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	10.5	9.1	9.5	4.0	8.3	0.3	*23 783*
Employment (level in thousands)	-1.2	2.2	6.8	2.5	2.3	-1.0	*625*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	13.6	7.9	12.4	10.1	8.8	10.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158095

Finland

The number of foreigners living in Finland in September 2013 increased by 6.8% over the previous year to 205 250, about 3.5% of the population. The largest groups were, as in preceeding years, Estonians (43 400), Russians (30 700) and Swedes (8 500). An estimated 130 000 foreigners work in Finland, about 80 000 permanently. The top foreign nationalities working permanently in Finland are from Estonia, the Russian Federation, Sweden, China, Thailand and Germany. Temporary workers, estimated at 50 000, are mainly from Estonia and other EU countries close to Finland. It appears that cross border commuting has been increasing.

The number migrating to Finland in 2012 was the largest since Finland became independent in 1917: 31 300 immigrants, 1 800 more than in 2011. Foreign nationals accounted for 23 300, 14% more than the year before. The main immigrating groups were from Estonia (6 040) and the Russian Federation (3 050), followed by China (750), Thailand (590) and Iraq (580). Net immigration contributed twice as much to population increase in 2012 as births, and net migration of foreigners corresponded to 0.4% of the population, a record level. Statistics for 2013 indicate a further 2% rise in migration, to 31 900.

Residence permit applications from individuals outside EU/EEA-countries fell by 10% from 2011 to 2012, to 21 260. Applications in 2013 were at a similar level. The most common grounds continues to be family ties, representing 42% of all applicants in 2012 and constituting most of the increase. Study accounted for 28% and employment for 27%. In 2012 there were 6 020 applications of foreign students from outside the EU/EEA, an increase of 4% on the previous year. Russians (1 260) and Chinese (850) were the main groups. Migration from within the EU increased to about 10 300 thousand in 2012, from 7 100 in 2010.

The number seeking asylum in Finland in 2012 (3 130) was similar to the previous year (3 090). In 2013 an increase in the early part of the year tapered off and the final figures were 3 230. The largest origin country by far in 2012 was Iraq (840 applications in 2012, 820 in 2013). Refugee status or some other residence permit was accorded to 42% of all processed applicants in 2012.

The Government decided to increase the Syrian refugee quota for 2014 by 300 persons, to 500. This brings the total standard quota agreed with UNHCR, normally 750, to 1 050 for 2014.

The number of persons found to be illegally present in the country grew by approximately 10% during 2012 to 3 620; preliminary statistics for the first few months of 2013 indicate that the number continued to increase.

As a result of an amendment to the Finnish Nationality Act in 2011, the number of applications for citizenship increased by 39% in 2012 (7 870 applications). Growth continued in 2013 with 8 640 total applications. The number of successful applications from foreign citizens permanently resident in Finland doubled in 2012 to 9 090, the highest figure since Finland's independence.

The new *Future of Migration 2020 Strategy* was adopted by the Government in June 2013. As part of this, the first overall *Review of Integration* was published in October 2013. The report examines, among other things, immigrants' access to the labour market, participation in society, housing conditions, income levels and school dropout rates. The longer an immigrant has been in Finland, the closer his or her living conditions are to those of the native population. Differences among immigrant groups are nevertheless great.

Legislative amendments concerning biometric features in residence permits entered into force on 1 January 2012. Fingerprints taken for residence permit cards will be stored in a national database and the residence permit card contains a chip in which a facial image and two fingerprints of the cardholder are stored, to create a reliable link between the residence permit and its holder. At the same time, the legislative amendments to implement the EU Blue Card Directive relating to highly skilled labour came into force. The annual salary threshold for the Blue Card was set at EUR 57 700.

The EU Single Permit Directive was implemented through changes in national law and came into force in 1 January 2014. The government proposal for amendment of the Aliens Act and certain associated acts to comply with the Schengen Borders Code, the Return Directive and the EU Decision on travel documents was accepted and the changes came into force in 1.1.2014.

For further information

www.migri.fi
www.intermin.fi
www.stat.fi.

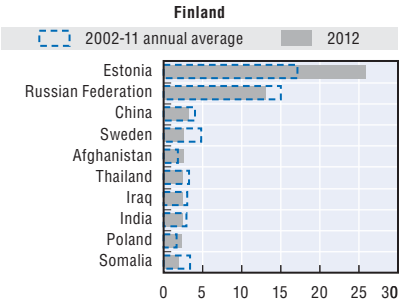
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FINLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.8	2.4	3.8	4.3	2.2	3.5	23.3
Outflows	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.7	4.2

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	1.2	1.1	5.6	4.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	7.8	7.1	38.4	30.5
Humanitarian	2.2	4.2	11.0	18.0
Free movements	8.4	10.3	41.3	44.1
Others	0.8	0.6	3.7	2.6
Total	20.4	23.3	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	5.5	5.5	4.6
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	12.2	12.0	14.0	12.5
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	6.5	9.0	8.0	10.2

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	*2 922*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	1.9	3.6	5.0	4.4	3.1	4.6	*25*
Natural increase	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.3	1.7	1.9	*7*
Net migration	0.4	1.7	3.0	3.1	1.4	2.7	*17*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.6	3.4	4.9	5.3	3.2	4.4	*285*
Foreign population	1.8	2.2	3.4	3.6	2.1	2.9	*196*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	3.4	5.2	2.7	5.0	4.4	3.1	*9 087*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	71.2	71.2	70.9	70.4	71.0	70.9
Foreign-born men	49.9	62.0	65.7	69.9	65.1	68.6
Native-born women	65.3	67.9	67.9	68.6	67.7	68.2
Foreign-born women	39.0	50.3	58.6	55.9	52.0	59.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	10.3	9.3	8.3	8.2	9.8	7.7
Foreign-born men	36.6	22.4	14.7	14.7	19.6	14.5
Native-born women	12.0	9.4	6.9	6.7	9.6	7.0
Foreign-born women	21.3	22.7	13.3	17.1	21.4	14.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.3	2.9	2.8	-1.0	3.1	0.7	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.1	2.6	2.3	-1.5	2.8	0.2	*38 389*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.1	1.5	1.1	0.4	0.6	0.3	*2 483*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	9.8	8.4	7.8	7.7	8.6	7.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158106

France

After two years of decline, permanent immigration to France from outside the EEA and Switzerland increased in 2012 to 163 000 persons (an annual increase of 6% and the highest level since 2006). The increase was mainly due to a 7% increase in admissions for family reunification. Most third-country nationals admitted to France for permanent residence in 2012 came from Africa (61%), mainly from Algeria (25 000 persons), Morocco (20 200 persons) and Tunisia (12 000 persons). Asia was the second most important region of origin (21%) led by China (7 200 persons) and Turkey (6 100 persons).

Temporary economic immigration to France, which had risen steadily since 2006, dropped in 2012 to 3 100 persons (13% lower than in 2011). The inflow of seasonal workers has been stable since 2010, and reached 6 400 persons in 2012.

The number of foreign students admitted for residence in France dropped in 2012 by 10% to 58 900 persons, although figures for 2013 suggest a slight (6%) increase. The main countries of origin of new foreign students in 2012 were China (10 100 persons), Morocco (6 000 persons), United States (3 800 persons), Algeria (3 700 persons), and Brazil (2 700 persons). The number of status changes of foreign students, stable since 2009, increased by 14% in 2012, and reached almost 17 000 cases.

In 2012, 41 000 adults applied for asylum, accompanied by 14 000 minors. The main countries of origin for asylum seekers were the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Russian Federation, Sri Lanka, Serbia or Montenegro, and China. In 2012, residence was granted to 12 000 adult foreigners on the grounds of international protection, including 2 000 persons receiving subsidiary protection. Asylum inflows increased by 9% in 2013, to 60 100 (minors included).

The number of expulsions from the French territory increased in 2012 by about 9% and reached 23 000 cases. Among these, 4 300 cases involved voluntary return assistance, almost twice as many as in 2010. A reduction in the financial contribution led to a decline in the use of voluntary return assistance in 2013.

The number of naturalisations declined in 2012 to 96 000 cases, 16% fewer than in 2011. Anticipated acquisition of nationality by minors accounted for 24 000 cases and acquisition by marriage reached 22 000 cases. Acquisition of nationality by administrative decision declined to 46 000 cases, likely due to tightened eligibility conditions and in particular stricter requirements for language examinations.

A new circular adopted in November 2012 clarified the conditions of regularisation for foreigners in an irregular situation. Temporary residence permits can also be granted to minors who became adults after at least two years of presence in France, to parents of school-attending children after at least three years of presence, and to related foreigners in an irregular situation after at least five years of presence. Residence permits for employment can be granted to those foreigners with five years presence in France, who worked for at least 30 months in the course of the previous five years on the basis of a work contract or a promise of employment.

In cases of naturalisation on the grounds of marriage, applicants must now demonstrate knowledge of the French language at B1 level. Adherence to the principles and values of the French society is also required. Successful applicants must sign a charter of rights and obligations of the French citizen. Further changes adopted in 2012 and 2013 included the introduction of regional tests administered by civil committees for assimilation composed of employees of the local administration and qualified civil society representatives.

Recent Parliamentary debates resulted in several changes in migration regulations. Immigration of skilled workers and student mobility were discussed by the Senate in April 2013 and by the National Assembly in June 2013. A report on securing the stay of foreign nationals in France was prepared in May 2013, followed by a parliamentary information report including 82 recommendations aimed at facilitating the stay of elderly foreigners in France. Following these reports, the procedure for renewing residence permit has been modified. New permits are now valid from the date of issuance, rather than the expiration date of the previous permit. Local authorities can renew permits for residents over 60 years old, or in the case of a second extension of the residence card. Several measures have also been adopted to simplify and facilitate the mobility of students.

In July 2014, the government proposed a law on immigration which aims to improve integration, make France more attractive to talents, and combating irregular migration. Different permits would be grouped under a single “talent” category. An asylum law was also proposed.

For further information

www.immigration.interieur.gouv.fr
www.ofii.fr/
www.ofpra.gouv.fr.

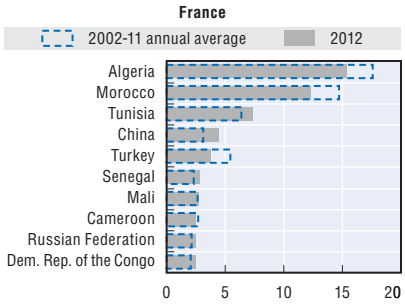
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FRANCE

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.6	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.5	163.4
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	31.0	31.4	12.9	12.1
Family (incl. accompanying family)	91.9	98.7	38.2	38.1
Humanitarian	11.6	12.0	4.8	4.6
Free movements	85.9	95.4	35.7	36.9
Others	20.2	21.4	8.4	8.3
Total	240.7	258.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	46.2	65.1	58.6	56.5
Trainees	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.6
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	16.2	6.3	6.4	10.0
Intra-company transfers	1.0	2.9	2.4	1.3
Other temporary workers	6.5	6.2	..	5.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	*55 068*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	6.9	7.1	5.3	4.4	6.9	5.3	*281*
Natural increase	4.1	4.0	4.0	3.6	4.0	4.1	*231*
Net migration	1.2	1.6	1.3	0.6	1.7	1.2	*50*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.3	11.3	11.6	..	11.1	11.6	..
Foreign population	..	5.8	6.2	6.4	..	6.1	*4 036*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	4.6	..	3.0	2.5	..	3.5	*96 088*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	68.4	69.4	68.4	68.3	69.5	68.9
Foreign-born men	65.0	67.2	65.5	66.1	66.4	66.6
Native-born women	54.9	59.7	61.3	61.4	58.8	61.2
Foreign-born women	36.9	48.2	49.8	49.6	47.9	50.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.4	7.5	8.3	8.8	7.4	7.7
Foreign-born men	16.9	12.4	14.3	15.7	13.4	13.4
Native-born women	12.1	9.0	8.9	9.6	9.3	8.5
Foreign-born women	23.8	16.8	16.6	16.3	16.6	14.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	1.8	2.0	0.0	1.7	0.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.0	1.1	1.5	-0.5	1.0	0.0	*36 206*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.6	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.6	*25 800*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.4	8.2	8.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158115

Germany

In 2013, net immigration to Germany reached about 437 000 persons, which represented a significant increase compared with previous years (in 2012, it was 370 000). According to Federal Statistical Office estimates, approximately 16.3 million persons – or 20% of the population of Germany – had a migrant background in 2012.

The number of workers from EU28 countries increased by 135 000 persons between 2011 and 2012 and by 132 000 from 2012 to 2013, representing much of the total increase of 422 000 persons which occurred between 2006 and 2013. The number of workers from third countries rose more slowly – by 37 000 in 2012 and 21 000 in 2013. At the same time, the number of socially insured and only marginally employed workers from the new EU member states (EU8) has been continuously rising since April 2011 (prior to unrestricted free movement of workers). While in April 2011 there were 227 000 such workers registered in Germany, by April 2014 their number had increased 110%, to 475 000. The vast majority of these workers were Polish nationals. In April 2014, 1.4% of the workforce comprised EU8 nationals.

The Federal Employment Agency approved a total of 60 800 work authorisations for non-EU/EFTA nationals in 2012 and 57 100 in 2013. About half were for skilled employment.

112 300 persons were naturalised in Germany in 2012 (about 5 000 more than in 2011), which corresponds to a naturalisation rate of 1.5%. The single largest country of origin was Turkey (33 200 or 30%), followed by the former Soviet Union (12 000) and former Yugoslavia (9 600). 18% originated from EU countries, 23% from Asia and 9% from Africa.

Immigration has contributed to employment growth in Germany, and labour market integration of foreign workers has improved. The number of younger foreign employees with tertiary educational qualification increased substantially in 2011 and the employment rate of foreign workers aged 20 to 64 with a vocational background increased between 2006 and 2012 from 61.6% to 68.7%. Policy efforts now focus on increasing the employment rates of particular groups (for example, the employment rate of men with a migration background was 77% in 2012 whereas the rate of women was only 60.4 %). Reducing dropout and upskilling the labour force of those with a migrant background is also an objective.

The expected decline in the population of working age adults by 2030 means that policy discussion of immigration issues often focuses on securing a skilled workforce and on migrants' labour market integration. The Federal Government's Skilled Labour Concept aims primarily to increase and further qualify the national labour force, including persons with a migration background already living in Germany. On the admission side, recent legal changes have facilitated immigration by third country nationals. A working group "Harnessing the foreign workforce potential and fostering a welcoming culture" was set up to develop measures in co-operation with representatives of business, state administration and civil society to attract qualified foreign workers to Germany and to help them integrate in the workplace and society.

A new Employment Ordinance (*Beschäftigungsverordnung*) entered into force in July 2013. Among the new provisions, employers may now recruit third-country nationals who have completed their vocational training abroad in certain occupation groups with a lack of qualified personnel in Germany. The new ordinance incorporated previously separate regulations governing labour market access of foreigners, uniting the provisions guiding the employment of all third-country nationals in Germany.

The labour market test by the Federal Employment Agency has been completely waived for university graduates in many cases, and in some cases approval from the Federal Employment Agency can be waived, which accelerates processing times.

According to the Act on Improving the Rights of Persons Entitled to International Protection and the Rights of Foreign Workers, which entered into force in September 2013, foreign family members are now granted unrestricted access to the labour market.

Access to the German labour market can generally be granted to four groups of third-country nationals: university graduates and skilled workers with certain vocational qualifications who cover the labour market needs in occupations requiring a university degree or professional formal training; persons entitled to family reunification; persons staying in Germany on humanitarian grounds, on the grounds defined by international law or political reasons; asylum seekers or persons with tolerated status. The Employment Ordinance also provides for a number of historically developed special rules for certain nationals or certain groups of persons, such as academics and executive managers.

For further information

www.bmas.bund.de
www.bmi.bund.de
www.bamf.de
www.integrationsbeauftragte.de
www.destatis.de
www.anerkennung-in-deutschland.de
www.make-it-in-germany.com.

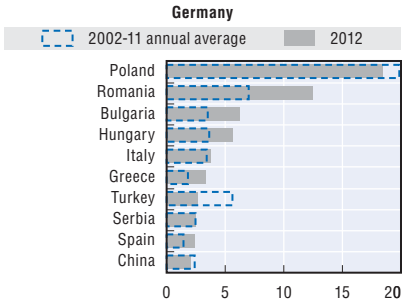
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GERMANY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.9	7.0	10.3	11.8	7.3	8.0	965.9
Outflows	6.8	5.9	6.6	7.1	6.1	6.6	578.8

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	26.1	22.1	9.0	5.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	54.0	54.8	18.6	13.7
Humanitarian	11.0	18.1	3.8	4.5
Free movements	197.5	303.0	67.9	75.8
Others	2.1	1.8	0.7	0.5
Total	290.8	399.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	55.8	72.9	79.4	62.5
Trainees	2.6	4.9	4.1	4.9
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	329.8	167.6	3.5	268.8
Intra-company transfers	3.6	7.1	7.2	5.7
Other temporary workers	63.6	33.5	24.3	34.3

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.4	*64 539*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	1.2	-0.8	-0.6	1.1	0.4	-1.7	*92*
Natural increase	-0.9	-1.8	-2.2	-2.3	-1.5	-2.0	*-190*
Net migration	2.0	1.0	1.6	3.4	1.9	0.3	*282*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	12.5	12.6	13.1	13.3	..	12.9	*10 918*
Foreign population	8.9	8.2	8.5	8.8	8.5	8.3	*7 214*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	2.5	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.5	*112 348*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.8	72.2	76.6	77.6	72.2	76.0
Foreign-born men	66.3	64.7	76.1	75.9	64.9	72.5
Native-born women	59.6	61.5	69.3	69.6	61.2	67.3
Foreign-born women	46.6	48.0	58.1	58.3	48.2	54.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.9	10.2	5.9	5.0	9.4	6.8
Foreign-born men	12.9	18.2	8.7	8.8	16.7	12.1
Native-born women	8.0	10.0	5.2	4.7	9.1	6.6
Foreign-born women	12.1	17.2	9.1	8.5	15.0	11.5

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.1	0.7	3.3	0.7	1.0	1.3	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.9	0.7	3.3	0.5	1.0	1.5	*41 098*
Employment (level in thousands)	-5.6	0.8	2.3	1.0	0.2	1.3	*39 978*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	8.0	11.3	6.0	5.5	10.1	7.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158123

Greece

Greece experienced its fourth year of deep economic recession in 2012. The situation of immigrants is an issue of concern, notably the high unemployment among immigrant workers. Unemployment for immigrant men stood at 34.5% in 2012, more than 14 percentage points higher than for native-born men. For migrant women, unemployment of 32.6% was about five points higher than for native-born women. Migration flows have fallen substantially from their pre-crisis levels.

According to the 2011 Census, there were 912 000 foreign residents in Greece. 713 000 were third-country nationals and 199 000 EU nationals, accounting respectively for 6.6% and 1.8% of total population. Foreign residents were primarily Albanians (480 000), Bulgarians (75 000), and Romanians (46 000). Interior Ministry data on residence permits capture only a part of the foreign population: at the end of 2012 there were 440 000 residence permit holders in the country. Permit data indicate that the stock of legal immigrants has been declining, since there were 600 000 resident permit holders three years earlier, at the end of 2009. However, at the end of 2013, there were 500 000 permit holders, an increase partially due to faster processing of pending applications.

Greece is one of the main points of entry into the EU and is exposed to irregular migration and inflows of asylum seekers from Asia and Africa. During the period 2009-13, most irregular migrants entered through the Greek-Turkish land border across the Evros river in the north-eastern part of Greece, and across the maritime corridor in the Aegean. The latter channel grew in the second half of 2013. Overall, from 99 000 irregular migrants apprehended at the border in 2011, the number fell to 77 000 in 2012 and 43 000 in 2013. The top five nationalities of those apprehended were Albania, Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. While few Syrians apply for asylum, their recognition rate is very high.

The Greek authorities have been scaling up migration control efforts. In 2012, the Greek Ministry of Public Order and Citizen Protection and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) concluded an agreement for voluntary repatriation of 7 000 migrants, with the support of the European Return Fund. Since 2012, the Ministry has been conducting operation "Xenios Zeus" aimed at apprehending undocumented migrants, mainly targeting public spaces such as urban centres and ports where immigrants gather. Of 65 000 persons checked during the second half of 2012, more than 4 100 were detained.

Following the reform of naturalisation procedures in 2010, foreigners' access to Greek citizenship was facilitated and, as a result, 13 500 foreigners were naturalised in 2011, 14 600 in 2012 and 20 500 in 2013.

The poor economic situation and the challenging migration situation have raised concern over social tension, possible xenophobic violence and anti-immigrant sentiment.

At the policy level, the "Immigration and Social Integration Code" was approved by Parliament in April 2014, regulating the entry, stay and social integration of third country nationals in Greece (EU nationals, refugees and asylum seekers are not covered in the Code). The law codifies previous legislation and introduces new elements to rationalise the institutional framework and simplify regulations.

The Code establishes seven categories of residence permits by purpose of stay: work or professional; temporary (a national visa provides authorisation to stay); humanitarian or exceptional; study, research, training or voluntary work; victims of trafficking; family reunification; and long duration. The Code compiles previous legislation transposing EU directives. It further consolidates the entry and residence policy for foreign real estate owners and investors.

The Code also allows residence permit renewal for settled third country nationals who have either lost their legal status or whose unemployment spells previously made them ineligible to renew their work permits.

Second-generation migrants (legal residents either born in Greece or who have completed six grades of Greek school before age 21) will now be eligible for a special five-year renewable permit. If they fulfill the above conditions except for legal residence, a transitional one-year permit may be granted.

Additional controls of undocumented stay include a prohibition for state employees (including in hospitals) to provide services to irregular migrants (except emergency situations and minors), and sanctions for those who employ or provide accommodation to irregular migrants.

In June 2014, a joint ministerial decision established categories of third country nationals who may be granted a residence permit for humanitarian reasons, including failed asylum seekers who cannot be returned to their home countries, due to objective reasons certified by the competent Authority.

For further information

www.statistics.gr
www.ypes.gr
www.ypakp.gr
www.mopocp.gov.gr
www.astynomia.gr.

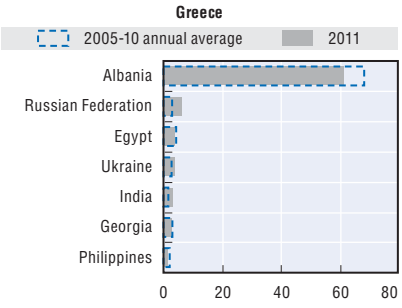
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GREECE

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	..	5.9	2.1	1.6	..	3.4	17.7
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.4	*9 577*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	3.8	0.4	-1.8	3.5	3.3	*-20*
Natural increase	-0.2	0.2	0.5	-0.4	0.0	0.6	*-5*
Net migration	2.7	3.6	-0.1	-1.3	3.5	2.7	*-15*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	6.7	6.6	..	..	*730*
Foreign population	2.8	5.0	6.8	6.9	4.6	6.7	*768*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	2.4	2.9	..	..	*21 737*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	71.3	73.5	65.5	60.9	73.1	71.3
Foreign-born men	78.1	82.6	70.0	58.4	82.7	79.1
Native-born women	41.6	45.7	44.9	41.9	45.0	47.5
Foreign-born women	45.0	50.2	47.0	41.7	49.2	49.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.5	6.2	14.4	20.1	6.2	8.1
Foreign-born men	9.5	6.7	21.5	34.5	6.5	11.8
Native-born women	17.0	15.4	21.4	27.8	14.8	15.0
Foreign-born women	21.4	15.6	23.2	32.6	16.9	16.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.5	2.3	-7.1	-7.0	4.3	-2.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.1	2.0	-6.9	-6.7	4.0	-2.4	*25 475*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.4	1.3	-6.8	-8.0	1.7	-1.6	*3 763*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	11.4	9.8	17.7	24.2	9.8	11.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158139

Hungary

Hungary has gradually become a destination country for international migrants, as well as a transit country for migration flows, mainly in the East-to-West migration corridor, although flows remain stable and limited. A substantial share of permanent immigration to Hungary is due to the resettlement of ethnic Hungarians from neighbouring countries, in particular, from Romania, Ukraine, the Slovak Republic and Serbia.

According to data of the Central Statistical Office, the foreign population in Hungary on 31 December 2012 was 141 400 persons, comprising 1.4% of the total population. This is less than the pre-2011 Census estimate of 2%. About 40% of the foreign population (more than 58 000 persons) are citizens of neighbouring countries: Romania (25%), Ukraine (8%), Serbia (3%) and the Slovak Republic (5%). Other sizeable groups of foreign nationals in Hungary are Germans (12%) and Chinese (8%). More than 40% of the foreign population lives in the capital Budapest.

As a result of the simplified naturalisation process introduced in January 2011 for ethnic Hungarians, some 550 000 persons acquired Hungarian citizenship, although most have not moved to Hungary. Under the general naturalisation procedure, 870 persons received Hungarian citizenship in 2012 (45% from Asia, 25% from non-EU Europe, 15% from the EU and 10% from Africa).

Issuance of new work permits and registrations for employment purposes has declined recently, although employment remains the main purpose of stay of foreigners in Hungary. Both in years 2012 and 2013 nearly 19 000 new foreign workers arrived to Hungary. Among them around 11 000 third-country nationals (mainly nationals of China, Viet Nam, Kosovo, Ukraine and Serbia) were employed on the basis of work permits. In addition around 8 000 new workers were employed on the basis of registrations (mainly from Romania, the Slovak Republic, Germany and the United Kingdom). In recent years, the number of agricultural seasonal workers decreased radically: to only 170 in 2012 and, in 2013, only 280 seasonal work permits were issued.

The employment rate of immigrants is somewhat higher than that of nationals. According to Labour Force Survey data, the employment rate of the foreign-born was 73.8% for men and 59.9% for women, respectively 11.5 and 8 percentage points higher than for the Hungarian-born. Labour emigration remains an issue of concern. Hungarian emigration to EU countries (mainly to Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom) has recently been growing. Labour emigration appears to be most significant among younger workers and among health professionals.

The EU Blue Card Directive, implemented in Hungary in August 2011, has seen limited take-up: only two Blue Cards were issued annually in 2012 and 2013. While the employment regime for foreigners did not substantially change, the transposition of the EU Single Permit Directive resulted in a simplified process for issuance of a joint residence and work permit, as of January 2014.

In October 2013 the Hungarian Government approved a new Migration Strategy for 2014-20. The strategy provides an overview and outlook of the Hungarian migration situation and sets concrete goals in the fields of visa policy, intra-EU migration and third-country migration, illegal migration, international protection and integration issues. The Migration Strategy also calls for the development of an Integration Strategy. Many of the planned measures are supposed to be implemented with the support of the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund of the European Union

In 2013 Hungary recorded a dramatic increase of asylum seekers, who mostly arrived at the Southern border. In 2013 18 900 persons applied for asylum in Hungary compared with 2 200 in 2012. Most of them (72.6%) arrived from Kosovo, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Algeria and Syria.

In order to handle the increase in asylum seekers, several administrative changes were introduced including the transformation of the organisational system. Capacity was expanded through development of reception facilities (e.g. in Vámosszabadi), new temporary camps, and increases in the number of social workers in reception centres.

A refugee integration system was introduced in January 2014, which aims to better integrate refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection. The integration process is based on individual integration contracts that involve a tailor-made "integration package" stipulating a set of rights, obligations and support measures (including language training, employment and housing support, etc.). Local municipalities play an essential role in the integration activities and follow-up processes.

Hungary is one of the main transit countries of illegal migration on land from the Western Balkans towards the Schengen area. As many irregular migrants are victims of human trafficking, Hungarian authorities have increased co-operation with several Western Balkan and EU countries (primarily with Austria and Serbia) and agencies (FRONTEX, EUROPOL).

For further information

www.kormany.hu/hu/belugyminiszterium
www.bmbah.hu.

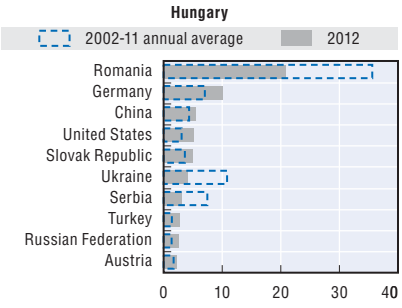
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

HUNGARY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.0	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.6	20.3
Outflows	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.0	0.3	0.5	9.9

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	*2 157*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-2.2	-2.2	-2.4	-2.6	-2.2	-2.1	*-26*
Natural increase	-3.7	-3.9	-4.1	-4.0	-3.7	-3.6	*-40*
Net migration	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.6	*14*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.9	3.3	4.8	4.3	3.2	4.2	*424*
Foreign population	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.8	*141*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	4.9	6.9	9.8	12.8	4.2	5.9	*18 379*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	62.6	63.0	61.0	62.3	63.1	61.8
Foreign-born men	69.4	72.3	71.1	73.8	72.8	72.2
Native-born women	49.4	50.9	50.5	51.9	50.6	50.4
Foreign-born women	49.8	54.3	54.7	59.9	51.4	58.3
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	7.3	7.1	11.1	11.3	6.5	9.6
Foreign-born men	3.5	3.0	8.9	9.9	2.9	6.9
Native-born women	5.8	7.4	11.0	10.7	6.3	9.5
Foreign-born women	4.8	6.4	10.1	8.0	6.8	7.9

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.2	4.0	1.6	-1.7	4.2	-0.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.5	4.2	1.9	-1.2	4.4	-0.4	*22 190*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.1	0.0	0.8	1.7	0.3	-0.6	*3 877*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.4	7.2	10.9	11.0	6.5	9.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158149

Ireland

Overall immigration registration permissions remained largely stable in 2012 with 157 800 certificates issued. The total number of foreign residents in Ireland rose slightly to 554 500 in 2013, with the single largest group of non-nationals from the EU12.

Migration in Ireland continued to be affected by the economic crisis, although with signs of a weak recovery. In the first quarter of 2013, the unemployment rate was 17.0% among non-Irish nationals and 13.1% among Irish nationals. In 2012-13 net migration remained similar to 2011 levels at -33 100. Inward migration increased slightly to almost 56 000 in the twelve months to April 2013, after declining since 2007-08. The share of immigrants from the EU12 fell sharply, from 40 to 21%. The share of returning Irish immigrants was at its lowest level in decades (28%) in 2012-13.

Emigration increased in the 12 months to April 2013 to over 89 000, mainly to the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada. Most were aged 15-44 but there was some increase in the numbers of children aged less than 14 years, suggesting more family units emigrating. In 2012-13, emigration of Irish nationals increased sharply (to over 50 000) – over half of all emigration. Citizens of the EU12 accounted for about 16% of all outflows.

Personal Public Service Numbers (national insurance) issued to foreigners, over 227 000 in 2006, fell to 73 300 in 2012 but increased to 85 600 in 2013. The overall number of employment permits fell by about 20% year-on-year in 2012, to 4 000, of which 1 100 renewals. There were steady but slow increases in Green Cards, intra-corporate transfers and training permits. A total of 4 800 persons changed status during 2012, mainly from an education status. In 2013, there were more new work permits issued (3 000) but fewer renewals (900).

A decision to end the transitional arrangements on access to the labour market for Romanian and Bulgarian nationals was announced in July 2012, with application retrospectively from January 2012. Between 2011 and 2013, issue of PPSNs to Bulgarians increased threefold to 900, those of Romanians twofold to 7 700; in contrast those to Poles increased by 14%.

Some 132 400 visa applications were submitted to Irish authorities during 2012, mostly related to entry visas (88 300) and involving nationals of India, the Russian Federation, China, Nigeria and Saudi Arabia. During 2012, 560 persons were granted "leave to remain" and 490 persons were granted Long Term Residency during the year.

A total of 16 800 first permits were issued to non-EEA national students for education reasons during 2012, mainly to citizens of Brazil, the United States, China, Korea and Malaysia. The *Education in Ireland* campaign was rolled out in a number of markets including the United States, China and the Russian Federation.

There were 960 applications for asylum in Ireland in 2012, a decrease of a quarter on the 2011 figure. Trends for 2013 show similar figures. The refugee recognition rate in 2012 was 6.6%. In addition, there were 30 grants for subsidiary protection (out of 500 applications) and a further 40 persons arrived for resettlement purposes.

Some 20 000 grants of citizenship were decided in 2012, mainly nationals of Bangladesh, China, India, Moldova and Nigeria.

The *Qualifications and Quality Assurance (Education and Training) Act 2012* was enacted in 2012 and Quality and Qualifications Ireland was subsequently established in November of the some year. It provides for the establishment of a single merged accreditation body instead of four as previously.

The *Criminal Justice (Female Genital Mutilation) Act 2012* commenced on 20 September 2012 and prohibits female genital mutilation and related offences (including an extraterritorial aspect). The *Criminal Law (Human Trafficking) (Amendment) Act 2013* came into force in August 2013 and covers trafficking for the purposes of forced begging as well as incorporating the definition of forced labour in the International Labour Organisation *Convention No. 29 on Forced Labour* (1930).

In April 2013, changes were introduced to facilitate access by skilled workers to the labour market including: broadening the Highly Skilled Occupations List, reducing the labour market needs test from eight to two weeks; and allowing certain categories of non-EEA immigration permission holders to apply for a permit whilst already legally residing in Ireland should they be offered employment in an occupation included in the Highly Skilled Occupations List.

Suspected marriages of convenience continued to attract much debate during 2012 with officials asked to draft amendments dealing with immigration-related marriages of convenience and sham marriages in a republished immigration Bill.

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) *National definition*	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	7.3	15.9	7.4	7.0	13.5	14.3	32.1
Outflows	..	..	8.4	8.9	..	9.0	40.6

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	**Thousands**		**% distribution**	
Permit based statistics (standardised)	**2011**	**2012**	**2011**	**2012**
Work	2.6	2.6	7.7	8.0
Family (incl. accompanying family)	16.5	9.6	48.9	29.9
Humanitarian	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3
Free movements	14.5	19.8	43.0	61.7
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	33.7	32.1	100.0	100.0

Temporary migration	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2007-11**
Thousands				
International students	..	4.7	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.9	1.0	0.3	0.2	1.6	0.6	*1 104*

Components of population growth	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	14.5	23.2	2.9	2.6	18.7	12.6	*12*
Natural increase	6.1	8.2	10.4	10.0	7.9	10.1	*46*
Net migration	8.4	15.0	-7.5	-7.3	10.7	2.5	*-34*

Stocks of immigrants	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level ('000) 2012**
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	8.6	12.5	16.4	..	11.7	16.6	..
Foreign population	..	..	11.7	12.0	..	12.4	*550*

Naturalisations	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	4.7	..	1.2	*25 039*

Labour market outcomes	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.8	75.8	62.3	62.3	75.5	68.5
Foreign-born men	75.2	78.9	63.9	64.2	77.2	71.6
Native-born women	53.1	58.0	55.4	55.4	56.6	57.8
Foreign-born women	54.9	57.7	54.1	53.9	56.6	57.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.4	4.5	17.8	17.8	4.6	11.9
Foreign-born men	5.5	5.9	19.8	19.4	6.1	14.1
Native-born women	4.1	3.5	10.0	10.1	3.7	6.8
Foreign-born women	6.1	6.0	14.3	14.8	5.8	10.5

Macroeconomic indicators	**2000**	**2005**	**2011**	**2012**	**Average 2002-06**	**Average 2007-11**	**Level 2012**
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	9.2	6.1	2.2	0.2	5.0	-0.5	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	7.8	3.7	1.8	-0.1	2.9	-1.9	*42 941*
Employment (level in thousands)	4.9	4.7	-1.8	-0.6	3.2	-1.9	*1 838*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.3	4.3	14.6	14.7	4.5	10.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158158

Israel

Israel identifies two major categories of foreigners who may legally reside in Israel: immigrants with Jewish origin or ties, who may immigrate permanently to Israel under the Law of Return, as well as family members of nationals, and temporary foreign workers who enter Israel legally for limited periods under a work permit.

In 2013, 16 900 people immigrated to Israel under the Law of Return (excluding returning citizens and residents), an increase of 2% over the previous year. The main countries from which immigrants arrived were the Russian Federation (24%), France (17%), United States (13%), Ukraine (11%) and Ethiopia (8%). There was a sharp increase (76%) in the number of immigrants from France. In 2014, statistics for the first trimester show continued increase in immigration from France and from Ukraine. In August 2013 the Central Bureau of Statistics estimated that between 546 000 and 578 000 Israeli citizens (both Israeli and foreign born) were living abroad.

Palestinian workers in Israel are admitted as day labourers on a permit basis. Of 46 800 Palestinians eligible for a permit to work in Israel, 41 800 were employed in September 2013, mainly in construction (64.5%), agriculture (7.6%) and industry (5.2%). A further 7 500 hold a permit for seasonal work in agriculture.

The total population of foreign nationals in Israel in June 2013 was 202 000. Most were temporary residents, asylum seekers or overstayers.

The population of foreign nationals who entered Israel under a work permit stood at 86 700 at the end of 2013, up 1.6% on the year before. 15 400 had expired permits. In 2013, care workers accounted for 57% of valid permits, agriculture 31% and construction 8%. The main origin countries of those holding work permits in 2013 were Thailand (30%), Philippines (19.7%), the former USSR (14%), India (10.5%) and Sri Lanka (6.5%). In 2012, the number of Thai workers significantly decreased (down 60%), those from the former Soviet Union rose by a third, Bulgarian numbers rose sharply thanks to implementation of a bilateral agreement within the construction sector. Overall, in contrast to 2009-11, in 2012 more workers arrived from Europe and fewer from Asia.

The population of foreigners who entered the country legally on a tourist visa but remained illegally after their visa expired was estimated at 93 000 in December 2012, of which more than half were from former Soviet Union countries.

An additional group of entrants are illegal border-crossers. During 2012 entries decreased from an average of 1 500 a month to under 100, owing to a range of enforcement measures such as long-term detention, stricter border control and the building of a fence along the Egyptian border. About two-thirds of illegal border crossers are Eritreans, and a quarter Sudanese. Israel does not deport to these countries. Instead of lodging asylum claims, most receive a form of temporary protection status, and less than 1% refugee status. Assisted repatriation involved about 2 600 individuals in 2013, and 53 000 were in Israel at the end of 2013.

No major new legislation was introduced in 2012-13 but various agreements were reached. An agreement with Moldova for the recruitment of construction workers came into operation in August 2013. Amendments during 2012-13 to previous legislation were introduced mainly related to preventing illegal border crossing.

In the course of 2012-13 the government took steps to restrict the recruitment of foreign care workers, resulting in a reversal of the trend of increasing the number of holders of permits to employ a foreign worker and to admit more workers. In consequence, due to the growing shortage of foreign care givers, the government appointed a public committee to examine the procedure of bringing new foreign care workers from abroad.

Employment of foreign workers in construction is subject to a ceiling. This ceiling has been set at 8 000 since 2009 and was supposed to be lowered from 2014 to favour Israeli employment in the sector. The Israeli government requires new recruits to come through bilateral agreements. Only two countries have so far signed such agreements, and training and selection have begun only gradually, so the number of labour migrants legally employed in the construction sector has fallen to 5 700 in 2013. Despite growing employment of Israelis and some subsidised training and employment programmes for Israelis in the sector, rising home prices have placed pressure on the government to raise the ceiling, and in June 2014 a policy reversal led to a planned increase in the ceiling to 15 000 by mid-2019.

For further information

www.piba.gov.il
www.cbs.gov.il
www.moia.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.

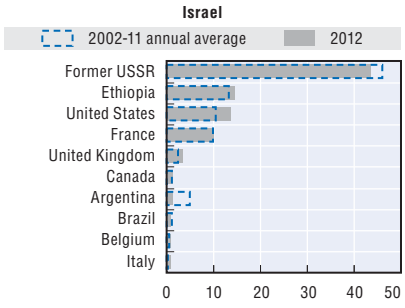
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ISRAEL

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	9.6	3.1	2.2	2.1	3.5	2.1	16.6
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.0	0.1	0.7	0.3	..	0.6	*1 999*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	37.4	28.8	..	..	29.2	..	..
Natural increase	27.7	26.4	..	..	26.9	..	..
Net migration	9.8	2.4	..	..	2.3	..	..

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	31.1	28.1	23.9	23.2	28.8	25.2	*1 835*
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	59.0	59.2	62.3	..	58.4	61.7
Foreign-born men	66.4	66.1	70.8	..	65.8	69.2
Native-born women	51.2	51.4	55.9	..	50.7	54.8
Foreign-born women	51.2	55.5	61.4	..	53.9	59.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.3	9.0	5.8	..	9.7	6.7
Foreign-born men	8.9	8.2	5.6	..	8.7	6.4
Native-born women	9.3	10.4	6.2	..	11.0	7.5
Foreign-born women	9.1	8.3	4.5	..	9.4	5.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	12.8	4.9	4.6	3.4	3.4	4.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	9.8	3.0	2.7	1.5	1.5	2.7	*31 506*
Employment (level in thousands)	11.8	3.9	3.0	3.2	2.6	3.2	*3 358*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	11.0	11.3	7.1	6.9	12.2	8.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158168

Italy

Immigration flows to Italy have been declining since the onset of the economic crisis in 2008. In 2012 the inflow of long-term residents amounted to 321 300 persons, 10% less than in 2011. Despite the recent slowdown of immigration dynamics, the share of foreign population in Italy continues to grow.

The foreign population at the end of 2012 reached 4.39 million people, which represented 7.4% of the total registered population. The foreign population is concentrated in the Central and Northern regions of the country where 86% of foreign residents live and where more than 10% of the resident population has non-Italian citizenship.

The largest group of foreign residents are from Romania, while Moroccans and Albanians lead among third-country nationals. Recent trends, however, show an increasing share of migrants from South and East Asia, who accounted for 26% of all resident permits issued in 2012.

The share of foreign population in Italy continues to grow also due to natural increase: almost 80 000 foreign children were born in Italy in 2012, which constituted 15% of all registered births. In some regions the share approached 25%.

At the end of 2012 the number of valid residence permits was 3.77 million, of which more than two million were long-term permits (under the relevant EU Directive). Entry to Italy for employment is mostly through a government quota, although some categories are exempt. In both 2011 and 2012 the quota for low-skilled foreign workers was limited to seasonal workers and certain specific categories (those trained abroad and those changing status). In 2012, 66 700 new residence permits were issued to foreign workers. Because of the absence of a new entry quota, work permits comprised only 27% of entrance visas in 2012, down from 61% only two years earlier. The duration of new work permits was also reduced (only 46% of new work permits were issued for a period longer than one year). Just over 2 000 work permits (3.1% of the total) were issued to highly-skilled foreign workers.

Family reunification was the main reason for immigration to Italy in both 2011 and 2012. The number of residence permits issued for family reunification in 2012 largely spouses (46%) and children (36%) declined to 119 700, 15% fewer than in 2011. Most are brought to Italy by a non-EU citizen sponsor.

Visa numbers followed similar trends. In 2012 the number of visas issued for the purposes of employment decreased by 34% (from 90 000 to fewer than 57 000), while visas issued for family reunification fell only 2.5%. Rising tourist flows led total visa numbers to increase 9%, to 1.87 million.

Irregular immigration towards the Italian coast, which had fallen from 62 700 in 2011 to 13 300 in 2012, jumped to 42 925 during 2013. Most irregular immigrants originate from Syria and Eritrea. In the first six months of 2014, around 63 900 arrived on the coasts, further straining the reception system and pushing the government to seek co-operation with other countries to address the inflow.

Several immigration legislation reforms were implemented by the authorities with the aim of increasing the country´s competitiveness. For example, residence permits for the purposes of study or training will be granted for the entire duration of the course of study. Upon completion of their studies in Italy, foreign students may apply for residence permit for the purposes of employment and convert their permits into work permits. Public administration jobs will be opened to certain categories of third-country nationals. A reform of visa policy has been included in the list of government priorities with the aim of attracting skilled workers and investors.

In 2013 Italy introduced an option of granting residence permits to victims of domestic violence (as previously granted to victims of human trafficking). The residence permit can be issued for a one-year period and is renewable if the conditions justifying its issuance pertain. The permit can be converted into a residence permit for the purposes of employment.

Other legislative changes concern simplification of the rules for granting nationality upon reaching the age of 18 years. An important change of the citizenship law has been under discussion that plans to introduce the principle of *ius soli temperato* (citizenship rights acquired by birth on the Italian territory, with adjustments). A National Plan against racism, xenophobia and intolerance has been drafted in the course of 2013 with the main priorities focused on the fields of employment, housing, education, security, mass-media and sports.

For further information

www.interno.it
www.istat.it
www.lavoro.gov.it/lavoro.

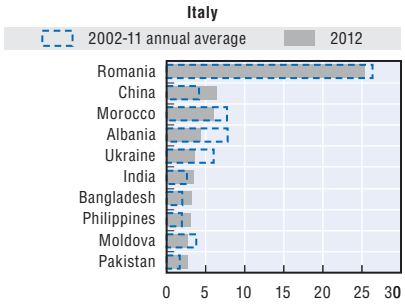
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ITALY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.4	4.8	5.9	5.4	5.2	7.3	321.3
Outflows	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.5	38.2

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	104.1	57.0	32.8	22.1
Family (incl. accompanying family)	87.0	86.0	27.4	33.3
Humanitarian	7.2	6.0	2.3	2.3
Free movements	114.2	104.4	36.0	40.4
Others	4.8	4.9	1.5	1.9
Total	317.3	258.4	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	31.7	39.9	40.2	36.7
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Seasonal workers	84.2	15.2	9.7	36.8
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.4	*17 352*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	0.7	4.9	4.7	3.2	6.2	6.3	*194*
Natural increase	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3	-0.8	-0.3	-0.2	*-47*
Net migration	0.9	5.2	5.1	4.0	6.5	6.4	*241*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	9.1	9.6	..	..	*5 696*
Foreign population	2.4	4.6	8.0	7.4	4.0	7.0	*4 388*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.4	0.9	1.3	*65 383*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	67.4	69.2	66.5	65.8	69.3	68.0
Foreign-born men	82.4	80.0	75.6	72.3	81.9	78.1
Native-born women	39.3	45.1	46.1	46.7	44.1	46.1
Foreign-born women	40.5	47.7	49.4	49.7	49.1	50.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.4	6.2	7.4	9.7	6.5	6.4
Foreign-born men	6.5	6.7	9.7	12.4	5.8	8.3
Native-born women	14.9	9.7	9.0	11.3	10.6	8.5
Foreign-born women	21.2	14.4	14.1	15.6	13.6	12.9

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.7	0.9	0.4	-2.4	1.1	-0.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.6	0.2	0.1	-2.7	0.4	-1.1	*33 469*
Employment (level in thousands)	3.7	0.7	0.3	-0.3	0.9	0.0	*22 885*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	10.0	7.7	8.4	10.7	7.9	7.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158175

Japan

The number of foreign residents in Japan at the end of 2012 was about 2 033 700, 1.6% of the total population. Of these, about 682 000 were foreign workers, of whom 124 000 worked in professional or technical fields, 309 000 were permanent residents or of Japanese descent, 108 000 were foreign students engaged in part-time jobs and 141 000 were technical interns.

Until 2012, foreign nationals staying more than 90 days in Japan were required to register with the municipal offices under the Alien Registration Act; the population of foreign residents in Japan reflects the number of those registered under the Act. However, since the alien registration system was abolished with the start of the new residency management system in July 2012, statistics now identify resident foreign nationals as "mid-to long-term residents" and "Special Permanent Residents". The number of women has consistently exceeded that of men in recent years and they now account for 55% of the total. Most are young: a quarter are in their 20s. About a third are Chinese and a quarter Koreans, whose numbers continue to fall.

About 63 500 foreign nationals entered Japan during 2012 (excluding those with re-entry permits) for the purpose of work, an increase of 22.7% from the previous year. They were accompanied by about 20 700 dependents, an increase of 13.7% from the previous year. In addition, about 68 000 people entered for training as technical interns.

In May 2013, there were 135 500 foreign students in Japan; this number has been slowly falling since its 2010 peak. The largest group was Chinese (60.4%), followed by those from Korea (11.3%), with most of the remainder from Asia. Foreign students can obtain permission to change to a work status after graduation at a regional immigration bureau. In 2012, about 11 700 foreign graduates applied for a change of status and about 11 000 of them were granted permission. About 23.5% of graduates in 2012 were able to transition to employment in Japan, while an additional 12% stayed after graduation to seek work.

In 2012, about 2 500 people applied for asylum in Japan, an increase of about 680 from the previous year. 18 applicants were recognised as refugees during the year. In addition 112 applicants were allowed to stay in Japan on humanitarian grounds. The main countries of origin of asylum seekers were Turkey, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

10 600 foreigners naturalised in 2012, about half of them Koreans and a third Chinese.

The number of foreign nationals who overstayed their legal period of stay was about 62 000 as of 1 January 2013, down 7.5% from the previous year and continuing a 20-year fall resulting from a range of measures taken by the immigration authorities, including stricter entry control and targeting illegal employment.

A new residency management system, including the issue of a residence card, was introduced in 2012. The Minister of Justice collects and holds information on residence conditions of mid- to long-term residents through: i) applications, e.g. the application for landing, for extension of the period of stay, for changes of status of residence; ii) notification of the place of residence to the Minister of Justice by municipalities; iii) notification of changes by mid- to long-term residents to the Minister of Justice; and iv) provision of information about mid-to long-term residents to the Minister of Justice from organisations to which they belong such as a school at which they study.

A points-based system to provide preferential treatment – including expanded accompanying family permission and the permission to bring domestic staff, as well as faster access to permanent residence – was introduced in May 2012. In total, about 430 individuals were recognised as highly-skilled professionals in the eleven months after the start of the system, more than half from China, although most were already in Japan. In December 2013, the system was reviewed and requirements for qualification were made less stringent.

In 2014, several new measures in the migration field were proposed as part of the Prime Minister's growth strategy. These included the utilisation of highly-skilled foreign professionals, the creation of special zones in which Japanese may hire domestic workers from abroad and the revision of Technical Internship Programs. In addition, until 2020, technical interns in the construction sector who have finished their three-year stay may continue to work in construction for up to three additional years under the "Designated Activities" status of residence.

For further information

www.immi-moj.go.jp
www.mhlw.go.jp
www8.cao.go.jp/teiju-portal/eng/index.html.

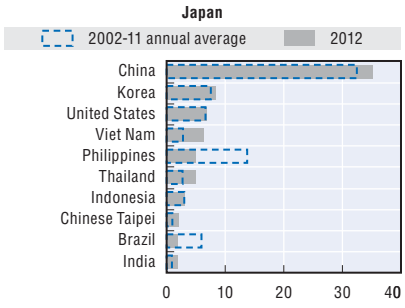
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

JAPAN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.7	2.9	2.1	2.4	2.8	2.4	303.9
Outflows	1.7	2.3	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.9	219.4

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	22.4	27.2	38.0	40.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	22.0	24.4	37.2	36.5
Humanitarian	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.2
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	14.4	15.1	24.4	22.5
Total	59.1	66.8	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	41.5	49.9	57.6	57.1
Trainees	83.3	82.3	85.9	88.9
Working holiday makers	4.7	8.5	9.5	7.0
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	4.2	5.3	6.1	6.2
Other temporary workers	110.2	35.2	44.5	42.1

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*2 545*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	..	0.4	-2.2	..	0.6	..	*-70*
Natural increase	..	0.0	-1.6	..	0.4	..	..
Net migration	..	0.0	-0.6	..	0.0	..	..

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	*2 034*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	1.0	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	*10 622*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	1.3	-0.5	1.4	1.5	0.0	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.7	1.3	-0.3	1.7	1.4	0.0	*35 317*
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.2	0.4	-0.1	-0.3	-0.1	-0.3	*62 699*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.7	4.4	4.6	4.3	4.8	4.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158180

Korea

The stock of foreign population resident in Korea for more than 90 days was 1.12 million in December 2012, equivalent to 2.2% of the total population. The number was little changed from the previous year but 25% higher than 2008. In 2013, the number rose to 1.22 million. Short-term stayers numbered 325 000 in 2012 and 357 000 in 2013. The stock of labour migrants fell by 65 400 during 2012 to 529 700, mainly due to fewer working visit (H-2) holders whose numbers fell by 64 600 as they transitioned to other status.

Since 2005, Korea has been a country with positive net migration, as negative net migration of Koreans is usually more than compensated by positive net migration of foreigners. Net migration peaked in 2011 at almost 91 000, but fell in 2012, when there was only a small difference between immigration (643 000) and emigration (636 000). The fall in net migration was due to the exit of a large cohort of temporary workers whose permits expired, combined with a slight decline in inflows. In 2013, total net migration was again positive standing at by 93 600. In 2012, 300 000 foreigners entered and 290 000 foreigners exited; in 2013, these figures were 369 000 and 269 respectively. Labour migrants accounted for 59% of the foreign inflow, family members 15% and students 14%.

Unskilled workers are admitted through bilateral agreements with 15 origin countries under the Employment Permit programme. Entries are subject to an annual quota, set at 57 000 in 2012, 62 000 in 2013 and 53 000 in 2014. Since 2012 the quota contains a reserve for certain workers to return after their maximum 58-month spell of employment (11 000 in 2012, 10 000 in 2013, and 5 600 in 2014). The stock of these workers was almost unchanged during 2012 at around 230 000; almost three-quarters of them worked in manufacturing. There were some changes in the distribution by origin country compared with December 2011: there were fewer Vietnamese (still the largest group), Filipinos and Thais, and more Cambodians in December 2013.

The number of Overseas Korean resident (F-4) visa holders rose by 52 800 in 2012 and 46 400 in 2013, to 236 000. Once granted principally to more skilled and higher-educated ethnic Koreans, it was recently opened for lower-skilled ethnic Koreans on working visit (H-2) visas. H-2 visa holders may switch if they meet certain criteria, such as an age limit, employment in rural areas or passing a test.

There were 84 700 foreign students in 2012, although the number in a degree programme decreased over the year to 64 000, while language course student numbers were stable. Chinese students accounted for 68.2% of the total.

The steady increase in the stock of marriage-based migrants over recent years continued in 2012, reaching 216 900, an increase of 5.9% over the previous year. Just under a third of these had naturalised by 2012. Two nationalities dominated: Chinese (42.5%) and Vietnamese (26.5%). The number of new marriage migrants fell from 17 000 in 2012 to 15 900 in 2013.

During 2012, 1 100 applications for asylum were filed. Of 840 cases determined during the year, 7.2% were given asylum and a further 3.7% allowed to stay on humanitarian grounds.

Based on exit data, there were 200 500 unauthorised residents (overstayers) in 2012, higher than levels in the preceding years. The rise in overstayers is related to the large number of labour migrants whose permits expired in 2012.

The main policy change was the implementation in July 2012 of the Diligent Migrant Workers Re-entry Programme. It permits unskilled migrant workers to re-enter to work for the same employer for a maximum of a further 58 months, with a six month interim departure period upon meeting three requirements: no move between employers; employment in a specified industry or in a small manufacturing firm; and having at least a one year contract after re-entry. In addition, those re-entering are exempted from the Korean language test.

More scrutiny is given to international arranged marriages. Since 2010, Korean men must participate in an international marriage guidance programme, after passing medical and criminal checks. Since April 2014, approval is granted only following an assessment of their ability to communicate. Sponsors must meet an income threshold and demonstrate adequate housing. Only one spouse may be sponsored every five years, and marriage migrants cannot sponsor another foreigner until at least three years after naturalisation.

For further information

www.eps.go.kr
http://immigration.go.kr
www.kostat.go.kr
http://kosis.kr/eng/.

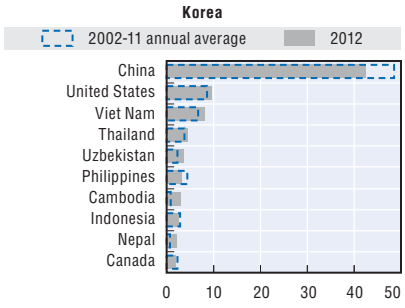
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

KOREA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.7	5.3	6.2	6.0	4.4	5.8	300.2
Outflows	1.9	5.5	4.4	5.8	3.6	4.2	290.0

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	1.5	1.4	2.6	2.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	34.4	34.6	60.4	62.3
Humanitarian	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	21.0	19.5	36.9	35.0
Total	56.9	55.6	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	9.0	15.6	15.4	15.7
Trainees	4.4	13.3	12.2	12.9
Working holiday makers	0.3	0.8	1.0	0.4
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	8.4	..	..	8.7
Other temporary workers	135.0	128.0	122.8	149.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*1 143*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	..	..	..	..	..	..	*224*
Natural increase	..	..	..	..	..	..	*217*
Net migration	..	..	..	..	..	..	*7*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	0.4	1.1	2.0	1.9	1.0	1.9	*933*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	3.5	1.8	1.3	1.9	1.9	*12 528*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	8.8	4.0	3.7	2.0	4.7	3.5	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	7.9	3.7	2.9	1.6	4.3	3.0	*29 396*
Employment (level in thousands)	4.3	1.3	1.7	1.8	1.4	0.9	*24 679*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.4	3.7	3.4	3.2	3.6	3.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158195

Latvia

In 2012, official statistics for outflows from Latvia totalled 25 200 while inflows were 12 300. In 2013, outflows fell to 22 600 and inflows fell to 8 300. In both years official net migration was thus negative, at -11 900. The total resident population at the end of 2013 was 2 million. Since 2000, more than 60% of population decline has been due to net emigration, which was negative throughout the period.

At the beginning of 2013, non-citizens of Latvia, mainly longstanding residents who migrated from other parts of the Soviet Union prior to Latvia regaining independence in 1991, comprised 14.1% (297 900) of the population. The number has been decreasing and is less than half the figure in 2000. Of the remaining foreign population of 48 700 and holding permanent residence permits, 81% were citizens of the Russian Federation.

While the number of persons holding permanent permits has gradually increased over the last decade, the number holding temporary permits declined from 14 700 in 2009 to 13 600 in 2010, before rebounding to 16 000 in 2012 and to 23 900 in 2013. Of these 8 500 were from EU/EEA countries. Citizens of the Russian Federation held 35% of temporary permits, 7.6% were from Ukraine and 6.3% from Germany.

The number of initial temporary permits issued during 2013 amounted to 7 400 including 5 000 principal applicants and 2 400 dependants. The majority of these permits were issued to citizens of the Russian Federation. There were 1 400 employment-related permits, including 1 100 principal applicants and 300 dependants. Of 3 000 investor residence permits, 1 400 were principal applicants and 1 600 dependants. A further 1 300 permits went to students and 600 for family reunion including marriages.

The number of asylum claims, which had increased sharply in 2011 to 340, declined in 2012 to 190. During 2012, 30 asylum seekers were given either refugee or humanitarian status.

Acquisition of Latvian citizenship, running at nearly 20 000 annually in 2004-06, has since declined, with 2 200 cases in 2012 and 1 700 in 2013, among these more than 90% were non-citizens of Latvia, rather than foreign nationals.

In light of the demographic impact of emigration, which is expected to be felt especially as the economy returns to growth, the Latvian government has developed a strategy to try to meet labour needs with Latvians returning from abroad. The strategy also aims to benefit from business networks with Latvians abroad, even if they do not return. An amendment to the Citizenship Law, coming into force in October 2013, allows dual citizenship as a way of maintaining ties with Latvia's diaspora. Citizens of EU, EEA and NATO member states, New Zealand, Australia and Brazil will be able to apply for Latvian citizenship and still maintain their current citizenship.

In line with an EU Directive, in 2013 the Latvian parliament also approved changes to the rules relating to the unemployed and job seekers which will allow third-country nationals with temporary residence permits to obtain the status of an unemployed person or a person seeking employment.

While putting an emphasis on return migration and co-operation with the Latvian diaspora, the government, together with non-governmental institutions, is introducing measures to facilitate the access of foreigners, such as spouses of return migrants, to the labour market and promote wider integration into society. A Return Migration Support Plan, drafted by the Ministry of Economics and adopted in July 2013, and a development planning document on co-operation with the diaspora, initiated in late 2013 by the Ministry of Foreign affairs, envisages support mechanisms for teaching the Latvian language and linking foreign professionals to Latvian networks of professionals to enable better integration into society.

In 2014 the Ministry of Culture will carry out research to evaluate the integration system for third-country nationals in Latvia, the main aim being to lower the barriers to labour market entry.

In June 2013, the Latvian and Russian governments signed an agreement to allow easier border crossing between the two states, especially for those living in border regions.

For more information

www.pmlp.lv
www.csb.gov.lv
www.emn.lv.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

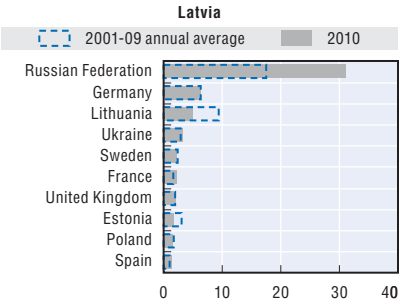
LATVIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.7	0.8	1.3	..	..	1.4	..
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	..	..	..	..

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	..	..	0.2	0.1	..	..	*189*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-7.4	-5.1	-16.0	-10.3	-6.0	-5.7	*-21*
Natural increase	-5.0	-4.9	-4.7	-4.5	-5.2	-4.1	*-9*
Net migration	-2.3	-0.2	-11.2	-5.8	-0.8	-1.6	*-12*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	18.7	..	13.4	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	24.5	..	12.6	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	61.1	65.7	61.0	64.5	66.4	64.8
Foreign-born men	60.6	76.6	65.1	63.6	71.3	68.8
Native-born women	58.6	59.4	60.4	62.0	58.9	62.0
Foreign-born women	52.5	59.7	59.0	59.6	59.5	62.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	18.5	8.2	18.9	16.1	10.2	15.2
Foreign-born men	17.8	10.8	19.4	19.4	10.5	16.2
Native-born women	13.5	8.1	13.8	13.7	9.4	11.2
Foreign-born women	21.4	16.6	16.0	18.1	11.1	12.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.7	10.1	5.5	..	9.0	-1.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..	*21 381*
Employment (level in thousands)	-2.8	1.6	-8.4	..	2.5	-4.4	..
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	13.7	9.6	16.2	..	10.4	13.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158208

Lithuania

The Lithuanian census records that on 1 March 2011 the population was 3.04 million, a decrease of 12.6% from the previous census in 2001. Around three-quarters of the decrease was accounted for by net emigration. Continuing emigration contributed to a further decline in the population, to an estimated 2.97 million in 2012 and 2.94 million in 2013. Foreigners, who numbered 33 300 in 2012 and 35 500 in 2013, comprised approximately 1.2% of the total population. Over half of all foreigners were from non-EEA countries and held permanent residence permits in Lithuania; foreign labour migrants comprised only 0.3% of the workforce, and were mainly employed as transport drivers.

Immigration increased from 16 800 in 2011 to 19 800 in 2012 and 22 000 in 2013. The increase is mostly due to the rising numbers of returning Lithuanian citizens the rise may also reflect better registration of their re-entry. In 2013, returning Lithuanian citizens constituted 86% of the total inflow, the majority coming from European countries. About 80% of foreign immigrants were from non-EEA countries. The largest group was Russian nationals (510, or 19% of all foreign immigrants in 2012 and 770, or 25% in 2013), followed by Belarussians and Ukrainians, whose share in the inflow of foreigners rose from 13% each in 2012 to 16% and 14% respectively in 2013. Around 55% of immigrants were male.

Emigration has been falling, from 53 900 in 2011 to 41 100 in 2012 and 38 800 in 2013. This is well below the peak of 83 500 in 2010. In consequence, net emigration fell from 38 300 in 2011 to 21 300 in 2012 and 16 800 in 2013, the lowest figure since 2002. However, these numbers indicate only documented/declared emigration (compared with both declared and non-declared emigration until 2010), so actual emigration might be still higher. Overall, most emigrants (79% in 2012 and 84% in 2013) went to EU countries. Among destination countries, the United Kingdom remains the leader (almost half of the total) followed by Ireland (9%), although the latter has become less prominent in recent years. Migration to Scandinavian countries, particularly Norway, has been increasing, as these countries were less affected by the economic crisis and have better labour markets and social security systems. In contrast, the proportion of outflows to the Russian Federation, Belarus and Ukraine has significantly decreased, from 16.5% in 2008 to 7% in 2013. The opening of the labour markets of Germany and Austria in 2012 appears to have had no major impact on the direction of emigration from Lithuania. Most emigrants are young: in 2013, 53% were aged 20-34.

Remittances to Lithuania, after a 16% drop in 2012, rebounded by 32% in 2013 and their magnitude relative to GDP increased from 3.6% in 2012 to 4.5% in 2013, comparable to 2011 levels.

In 2012 and 2013, only 180 people were naturalised annually, continuing the fall in most years of the last decade. In 2013, almost one third had been stateless before naturalisation and half were originally Russian, Belarussian or Ukrainian.

In 2012, 630 asylum applications were lodged in Lithuania, almost 19% more than in 2011, particularly from Georgia which accounted for half of all applications. Figures for 2013 show a decline to 400 applicants, about a third of which were from Georgians. About 20% of decisions made in 2012 granted either refugee or humanitarian status; this figure was about one-third in 2013.

The number of illegal migrants detected has risen in recent years, to 2 100 in 2012 and 1 900 in 2013, with 70% being from the Russian Federation, Belarus, Kyrgyzstan and Georgia.

Following Parliamentary elections, a new government was formed in 2012. As regards migration, the new Government Program focuses on migration management, external border control policy (prevention and control of irregular migration and combating trafficking in human beings), development of the Common European Asylum System, addressing the problem of emigration of the Lithuanian population and return of emigrant workers. In March 2013, the government established a working group to develop migration policy guidelines (approved in January 2014), with the priority being to reduce emigration by Lithuanian citizens.

In October 2013, an amendment to the Law on the Legal Status of Aliens designates a new commission which will be responsible for the integration of foreigners. This is the first such institution in Lithuania. An amendment to the Law on Citizenship in May 2013 established more favourable naturalisation conditions for stateless persons who were born in Lithuania.

For further information

www.migracija.lt
www.stat.gov.lt/en.

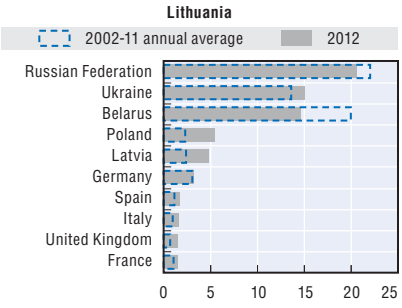
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LITHUANIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	..	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.6	2.5
Outflows	..	0.7	0.7	0.8	..	1.0	2.6

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	*526*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-7.2	-6.5	-25.7	-14.8	-4.9	-9.5	*-45*
Natural increase	-1.4	-3.9	-2.0	-2.2	-3.2	-2.8	*-7*
Net migration	-5.8	-2.6	-23.7	-12.6	-1.7	-6.7	*-38*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	7.0	..	6.4	..	..	6.5	..
Foreign population	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.8	..	1.1	*25*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	*183*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	75.6	73.8	59.9	62.1	65.2	61.9
Foreign-born men	68.5	74.5	66.8	67.5	72.6	70.0
Native-born women	33.1	33.3	60.3	61.8	59.1	60.6
Foreign-born women	39.4	40.7	58.1	62.6	59.8	62.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.0	6.5	18.3	15.5	10.2	13.5
Foreign-born men	11.6	9.3	17.0	14.6	11.9	13.1
Native-born women	6.3	8.7	12.8	11.7	10.0	9.5
Foreign-born women	10.6	11.7	20.8	15.4	16.3	13.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.6	7.8	5.9	..	8.0	1.0	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..	*23 876*
Employment (level in thousands)	-4.2	2.9	-6.5	..	2.0	-3.4	..
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.4	8.0	15.3	..	10.1	11.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158211

Luxembourg

The population of Luxembourg at the end of 2012 comprised 537 000 inhabitants, a 2.3% increase compared with the previous year. The increase by 12 200 persons was due to a positive migration balance of 10 000 persons, and a positive natural increase of 2 150 persons. The share of foreigners among total resident population reached 44.5% in 2012, a slight increase from 43% in 2011. The number of foreign citizens was larger than that of the foreign-born.

The largest group is Portuguese nationals whose share in the total population reached 16.4%, and in the foreign population 36.9%. Other top countries of origin of foreign residents in Luxembourg included France, Italy, Belgium, and Germany.

4 680 persons were naturalised in 2012, among whom 66% were residents and 34% non-residents. More than 80% of the latter lived in Luxembourg and 12% lived in France. The number of naturalisations increased due to 1 750 cases of recuperation of nationality, among them 1 420 residents.

Unemployment increased in 2012 and by end of year reached 6.2% (compared to 5.1% a year earlier). Among 355 900 salaried employees in Luxembourg, 40% were females and 44% were border commuters. The number of commuters continued to increase even during the period of economic crisis, and in 2012 reached 156 900 workers (78 400 persons residing in France, and the remainder split between Belgium and Germany.

The inflow of foreign residents in 2012 consisted of 11 130 registrations of EU nationals (led by Portuguese, French and Belgian), and of 1 270 third-country national family members of EU nationals (mainly from Brazil, Cap Verde, Montenegro and the United States). 4 390 new permits were granted in 2012 to third-country nationals, and 5 310 renewals.

The fight against illegal work and social dumping has been scaled up by the Ministry of Labour. The importance of labour market situation to the national authorities was reflected also in the creation of the national Agency for Employment Development (*Agence pour le développement de l'emploi*) in January 2012. In order to reduce illegal employment of foreigners, a "social badge" requirement was introduced for construction sites, with a pilot phase in 2013 and broader adoption expected in 2014.

In June 2013 the Government decided to condition the labour market access for Croatian nationals, who became EU citizens on 1 July 2014 (100 had received first permits in 2012). Salaried work in Luxembourg is subject to authorisation during the first year.

The number of applicants for international protection in 2012 reached 2 050 persons, majority from Serbia, Albania, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM). In 2013, the number declined to about 1 000.

At the beginning of 2013, the Government launched a regularisation campaign with the aim to regularise illegal workers who worked for at least nine consecutive months in the course of the previous twelve months. The applicants have to prove the existence of work contract for indeterminate period for 40 hours per week, and salary at the level of social minimum.

Other legislative and regulatory changes included the approval of the Readmission Agreement between the Benelux States and Kosovo and the related Implementation Protocol in May 2012; and the definition in June 2012 of eligibility conditions for granting social assistance to applicants for international protection. Three EU Directives were transposed into the national law in June 2013. (Directives 2011/95/EU, 2011/51/EU and 2011/98/EU.) Although Luxembourg already issued a single residence permit, the implementation of the Single Permit directive mandates a four-month processing time for residence permits (if no response is received, the application is considered denied). First permits are valid for a year and the field and sector of initial employment, although employer mobility is allowed. After the first year, renewals are for three years and workers are granted full labour market mobility. These were previously subject to restriction up to three years. Family members may also receive a single permit for employment.

New instruments and measures developed in the course of 2012 in the field of integration of foreigners in Luxembourg included development of national action plan for integration and fight against discrimination, development of integration contracts, and project activities aimed at the integration of third country nationals supported by the European Integration Fund. Local initiatives focused on facilitating the co-operation among communities, ministries and associations in the field of foreigners' integration, supporting the activities aimed at fighting against discrimination, and promoting diversity (for example, by launching a diversity charter [*Charte de la Diversité Lëtzebuerg*]).

For further information

www.mae.lu
www.statistiques.public.lu
www.olai.public.lu
www.men.public.lu.

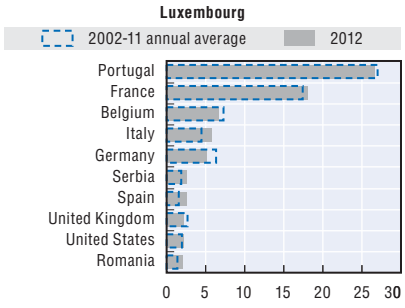
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LUXEMBOURG

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	24.7	29.6	36.9	36.6	27.6	32.9	19.4
Outflows	16.1	15.4	14.4	16.2	16.3	15.7	8.6

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.4	1.7	4.0	3.8	2.4	1.7	*2 003*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.8	17.0	24.7	23.0	14.0	19.4	*12*
Natural increase	4.3	3.9	3.5	4.0	3.6	3.8	*2*
Net migration	8.2	13.1	21.2	18.9	10.4	15.6	*10*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	33.2	36.2	41.5	42.6	35.1	39.9	*226*
Foreign population	37.7	41.1	44.3	45.0	40.2	43.7	*239*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	0.4	0.5	1.5	2.0	0.5	1.3	*4 680*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	73.4	68.9	65.9	66.4	69.5	67.8
Foreign-born men	78.0	80.2	78.2	78.8	79.8	78.1
Native-born women	46.8	50.6	53.0	54.9	49.3	52.4
Foreign-born women	55.3	58.3	61.1	63.6	57.5	61.5
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	1.5	3.0	3.0	3.5	2.5	2.7
Foreign-born men	2.4	4.1	5.0	5.4	4.0	5.4
Native-born women	3.0	4.6	4.1	3.8	4.2	4.3
Foreign-born women	3.3	7.4	8.8	7.5	7.3	7.3

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	8.5	5.3	1.9	-0.2	4.1	1.1	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	6.9	3.6	-0.4	-2.4	2.7	-0.8	*87 658*
Employment (level in thousands)	3.4	1.0	2.7	2.4	1.2	2.2	*230*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.4	4.1	5.7	6.1	3.6	5.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158221

Mexico

Permanent inflows of foreigners to Mexico in 2012 decreased to 19 500, down from 21 400 in 2011. Most migrants came from the United States (21%), Cuba (10%), Colombia (8%), Venezuela (7%) and Spain (5%).

Among permanent migrants, labour migrants accounted for 34%, more than in 2011 (30%). On the other hand, the number of inflows of family migrants went down to 7 700 in 2011, a decrease of 13% compared to 2010. Temporary migration flows were more substantial, with 40 600 new immigrants in 2012, a decline from 41 000 in 2011. The number of international students in 2011 increased 4.5% in 2011 and reached 4 800 individuals.

An estimation based on administrative data from the immigration authorities provides figures for regular residents on Temporary Residents (FM3 – non-immigrant status), Permanent Residents (FM2 – immigrant status) or foreign immigrants with permanent status (*Inmigrado*). In 2012, there were approximately 301 000 foreigners residing in Mexico with migration documents, 14.6% more than in 2009, although fewer than in 2011 (306 500).

Despite those inflows, Mexico is still one of the OECD countries with the lowest share of immigrants in the population. In 2010, there were 961 000 foreign-born residents in Mexico, around 0.9% of the population (compared with the OECD average of 13.5%).

The number of foreigners naturalising in Mexico stood at approximately 3 600 in 2012, an increase from 2 600 the previous year. About one-third were either Colombians or Cubans. Mexico is mostly a country of emigration, transit and return migration. Many Mexicans have emigrated to the United States in the past 25 years. In 2012, around 11.9 million Mexican-born were estimated to be living in the United States. Annual outflows, though, have been declining since 2006, due to the recession and increased border controls. Estimates of outflows and inflows come from the National Occupation and Employment Survey. In 2011, estimates of outflows were equivalent to 2.8 per thousand inhabitants, and 2.6 per thousand in 2012. Estimates of inflows of Mexicans from abroad – largely those returning from the United States – were at 1.8 in 2011 and 1.6 in 2012.

The number of repatriating Mexicans at the United States border declined between 2010, when it was approximately 469 000, to 2012, when it totalled 369 000. It fell further to 333 000 in 2013.

Unauthorised transit migration to the United States was estimated between at 112 000 in 2010 and 95 000 in 2011, but increased in 2012 to about 150 000. Most is from Central America. These figures are still below the mid-2000s peaks, due to economic reasons and increased vulnerability due to violence by organised crime during transit.

Remittance flows to Mexico remained are estimated to have declined in 2013. The Mexican Bank estimates that remittances flows were USD 21.9 billion in 2013, down from USD 22.4 billion in 2012.

Many Guatemalan border workers work mainly in the agriculture and services sectors in Mexico, particularly in border regions, while retaining their residency in Guatemala. In 2012, the National Institute of Migration documented 23 200 Guatemalan border workers in Mexico, down from 30 000 the previous year. A much larger number worked without authorisation, although most of these held Regional Visitor authorisations. There were 67 600 such authorisations issued in 2012, down from 74 100 in 2011.

The regulations to implement the Migration Law approved in 2011 came into force in November 2012. Important provisions of the Regulations include the governance of the National Migration Institute (INM); requirements and procedures for international mobility and assistance of foreigners in Mexican territory; the criteria, requirements, and procedures for visa issuance; protection of vulnerable groups; and assisted return of foreigners.

In 2013 the planning and consultation began for a Special Migration Programme (*Programa Especial de Migración – PEM*). Co-ordinated by the new Migratory Policy Unit, the PEM is the first instrument for planning and budgetary programming of migratory policy in Mexico. The 2014-18 PEM was published in April 2014. For the first time, it sets national priorities on migration, with five objectives, 26 strategies, 195 lines of action and 11 indicators. It articulates the different government levels programmes and activities, covering origin, transit, destination and return.

In November 2012, Mexico eliminated visa requirements for nationals of Colombia and Peru who enter Mexico as visitors or tourists. This measure was undertaken in the context of the efforts of the Pacific Alliance (*Alianza del Pacífico* – members of which are Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru), to move towards freer circulation in the Alliance. From 2013, visa requirements have been lifted for Brazilians with ordinary passports.

For further information

www3.inegi.org.mx/Sistemas/temasV2/Default.aspx?s=est&c=17484.

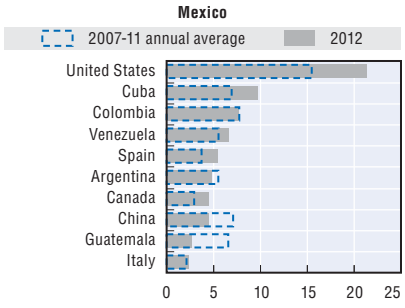
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

MEXICO

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	19.5
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	10.3	8.3	47.3	39.5
Family (incl. accompanying family)	7.7	7.4	35.7	35.3
Humanitarian	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.9
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	3.4	4.9	15.8	23.4
Total	21.7	21.0	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	5.1	4.8	5.1	5.5
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	45.5	27.6	23.3	27.6
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	41.3	41.1	39.4	38.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*811*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	12.2	11.8	12.1	11.6	12.0	12.7	*1 361*
Natural increase	18.3	16.3	13.8	13.5	16.6	14.6	*1 583*
Net migration	-6.1	-4.5	-1.8	-1.9	-4.6	-1.9	*-222*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	..	0.7	*974*
Foreign population	..	..	0.3	0.3	..	..	*296*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	1.2	..	..	*3 590*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	..	80.7	78.0	78.6	..	78.9
Foreign-born men	..	70.9	67.1	63.8	..	68.8
Native-born women	..	41.8	43.7	44.8	..	43.6
Foreign-born women	..	38.5	38.2	42.3	..	33.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	..	3.5	5.4	5.1	..	4.9
Foreign-born men	..	3.3	5.2	8.0	..	5.5
Native-born women	..	4.0	5.3	5.1	..	5.0
Foreign-born women	..	2.8	8.2	6.4	..	7.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	9.0	3.1	3.8	3.9	2.9	1.8	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.3	1.9	2.6	2.7	1.7	0.5	*16 645*
Employment (level in thousands)	7.5	0.6	2.2	3.3	2.0	1.3	*48 707*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.6	3.5	5.2	4.9	3.3	4.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158230

Netherlands

On 1 January 2013, there were 3.54 million residents in the Netherlands with at least one foreign-born parent ("non-native background"). By 1 January 2014, this number had risen to 3.59 million or 21.4% of the Dutch population. The main non-native backgrounds were Turkey (396 000 on 1 January 2014), Morocco (375 000) Indonesia (372 000), Germany (369 000), and Surinam (348 000). Since 1996 the number of those with non-native background has increased by 44%, while the rest of the population increased by 1.8%. Most of the increase was due to growing flows from Central and Eastern European and from non-Western – particularly Asian – countries. Most residents with non-native background are Dutch nationals.

158 400 immigrants entered the Netherlands in 2012, the first decline in four years. The number rose to 164 800 in 2013. 27% of the entries in 2012 were Dutch nationals. Outflows (after correction for unreported emigration) increased from 133 200 in 2011 to 144 500 in 2012 and 145 700 in 2013. Overall net migration decreased from 29 800 in 2011 to 13 900 in 2012 but rose again to 19 100 in 2013. Inflows from the new EU countries fell in 2012 but were stable in 2013. The main origin countries of new immigrants are Poland (18 600 in 2012 and 20 400 according to provisional 2013 figures) and Germany (over 8 000 annually).The largest single immigrant groups from non-Western countries came from China (more than 5 000 annually), India and Turkey (both with fewer than 4 000 annually).

First residence permits issued for employment numbered 10 900 in 2012 and 12 700 in 2013 (according to provisional figures). Highly skilled accounted for 51% of the permits in 2012 and 56% in 2013. This was due to India (1 900 highly skilled migrants in 2012 against 2 700 in 2013). The other main origins were the United States, China, Japan and the Russian Federation. Among those granted a permit for other remunerated activities (excluding researchers), the Chinese comprised 32% in 2012, but only 13% in 2013. Issuance of temporary work permits has been declining in recent years, to 10 600 in 2012 and 5 600 in January-August 2013. In 2012, one in three was for low-qualified work. The number of permits granted for study – 10 700 in both 2011 and 2012 – increased in 2013 to 12 900.

Provisional national figures for asylum claims show a rise from 13 200 in 2012 to 17 200 in 2013. In 2012, about two in five claims were approved. The largest groups of asylum seekers in 2013 were nationals of Somalia, Syria and Iraq.

The 26 000 beneficiaries of a five-year permit under the 2007 regularisation scheme became eligible for Dutch citizenship after five years, and many took the opportunity. For those who did not, the Dutch authorities sent application forms to remind them to renew.

The number of persons obtaining Dutch citizenship, 31 000 in 2012, fell to 26 000 in 2013.

A new coalition government formed at the end of 2012 had implications for immigration, integration and asylum migration policies in the Netherlands. The Coalition agreement takes a restrictive approach to migration policy and emphasises integration, taking into account society's absorption capacity. New migration policy rules introduced in June 2013 simplify the application procedure for a permit and give greater responsibility to sponsors: while they are offered fast-track processing, they are accountable for sponsored migrants.

New regulations in force from February 2013 allow unaccompanied minor asylum seekers who have stayed for five years or longer in the Netherlands – and their families – to apply for a residence permit. The grounds under which some asylum seekers are eligible for a temporary residence permit have also been changed. Fees for family reunification, study and scientific research have been lowered.

Following an amendment to the Civic Integration Act, immigrants with a residence permit must arrange and pay for their own civic integration courses from 2013.

Since October 2013, a residence permit may be granted to individuals who invest at least EUR 1.25 million in the Netherlands, if added value for the Dutch economy is generated.

After piloting shorter procedures for highly skilled migrants who come to the Netherlands for up to three months, a permanent scheme has been in place since January 2014. It demands the same minimum salary levels as the scheme for highly skilled migrants who stay longer than three months.

For further information

www.ind.nl
www.cbs.nl.

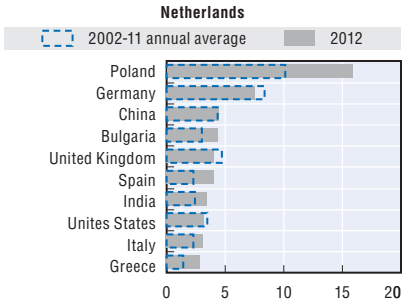
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NETHERLANDS

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	5.7	3.9	7.1	6.9	4.4	6.2	115.7
Outflows	1.3	2.9	4.2	4.8	2.8	3.5	80.8

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	11.0	8.5	10.4	8.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	22.4	19.5	21.2	20.2
Humanitarian	10.7	5.3	10.1	5.4
Free movements	61.5	63.5	58.3	65.6
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	105.6	96.8	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	10.9	11.7	11.3	10.5
Trainees	9.9	3.4	..	9.6
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	46.1	12.2	10.5	21.0

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	*9 664*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	7.7	1.8	4.9	4.5	4.3	3.9	*75*
Natural increase	4.2	3.2	2.9	2.7	3.6	3.0	*44*
Net migration	3.6	-1.4	2.0	1.8	0.7	0.9	*30*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.1	10.6	11.4	11.5	10.6	11.1	*1 928*
Foreign population	4.2	4.2	4.7	4.8	4.3	4.5	*796*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	7.7	4.1	3.8	3.9	4.5	3.9	*30 955*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	83.9	81.4	81.1	80.9	82.6	82.4
Foreign-born men	69.9	69.5	70.7	71.5	69.5	72.2
Native-born women	65.6	68.6	71.9	72.5	68.4	71.9
Foreign-born women	48.8	52.4	58.0	58.2	51.5	56.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	1.8	3.7	3.7	4.6	3.1	3.2
Foreign-born men	5.4	10.8	10.3	10.8	9.1	8.2
Native-born women	3.0	4.5	3.7	4.5	3.8	3.5
Foreign-born women	7.6	10.0	8.7	10.4	9.2	7.9

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	2.0	0.9	-1.2	1.6	0.9	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.2	1.8	0.5	-1.6	1.2	0.5	*42 495*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.4	0.6	-0.2	0.2	0.6	*8 545*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.9	5.1	4.3	5.2	4.2	3.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158249

New Zealand

In 2012/13, there were 88 200 permanent and long-term arrivals and 80 300 permanent and long-term departures, resulting in a net migration gain of 7 900 people. This follows a net migration loss of 3 200 the year before. The gain resulted from a lower annual net migration loss to Australia, accompanied by an upward trend in net migration gain with the rest of the world. Departures to Australia are expected to continue slowing as economic and labour market conditions in New Zealand improve.

Although there was a net migration gain, the number of people approved for residence in 2012/13 was down 4% from 40 400 approved in 2011/12. The main reason for this decrease was a 23% fall in approvals in the Capped Family stream as a result of changes to the Parent category and closing of the Adult Child and Sibling categories in May 2012. The Skilled/Business stream decreased by 2%, though the drop was more modest than the previous two years.

For the first time in a decade China was the primary origin country for permanent residents with 15% of all approvals in 2012/13, an increase of 7% over the year. The United Kingdom and India both contributed 13% to all residence approvals, a decrease of 14% and 2% respectively from the previous year. Other top origin countries were the Philippines (8%) and Samoa, Fiji and South Africa (5% each).

In 2013, the number of people approved to work in New Zealand under the Essential Skills Policy rose by 2% from the previous year, to 22 400. This policy facilitates the entry of temporary workers to fill shortages where suitable New Zealand citizens or residents are not available for the work offered. This was the first annual increase since the start of the global economic slowdown and reflects the growth in labour demand in the rebuilding of Canterbury.

Admissions for seasonal work, which are subject to a labour market test, increased 6% in 2012/13 from the previous year, to 9 600. Of the non-labour-market tested work visa categories, the number of temporary workers approved under the Working Holiday Schemes increased 13% and increased 5% under the Study to Work Policy. The latter policy allows applicants to obtain a work visa for 12 months or 24 months if they have completed a course or qualification in New Zealand that would qualify for points under the Skilled Migrant Category. The growth in the numbers approved under the Study to Work Policy reflects the increase in international students from India, a group that typically has a high rate of transition to paid work after study.

The total number of international students approved to study in New Zealand (64 200 students) again decreased by 7% in 2012/13. Likely factors that contributed to this decline were an unfavourable exchange rate, increased international competition for export education and the February 2011 Christchurch earthquake. The number of Chinese held steady while those from India and South Korea declined. New international students were approved to study in New Zealand in 2012/13 numbered 31 500, down 9% from 2011/12, with China the largest source country.

In 2012/13, 300 people sought asylum in New Zealand, compared with 700 a decade earlier. Sri Lanka is currently the largest source country of asylum seekers (12%), followed by Iran (11%) and Fiji (8%). A further 800 people were granted residence through the refugee quota programme.

The Immigration Amendment Act (2013) introduces a definition of a mass arrival, set as an arrival of a group of more than 30 people, and a provision to enable those who arrive as part of a mass arrival to be detained, if necessary, under a group warrant, for up to six months. It also establishes provisions that will help ensure the efficient processing of all asylum claims and subsequent appeals, not just those arriving as part of a mass arrival. Other changes to immigration instructions are intended to discourage people from attempting to reach New Zealand via a mass arrival.

Other major policy developments over 2012/13 relate to victims of workplace exploitation, exploitation of foreign fishing crew engaged by New Zealand employers or foreign chartered fishing vessels, and new labour market testing requirements in Canterbury. In late 2013, part-time work rights were granted to English language students and unlimited work rights to international PhD and Masters by research students. Two new Working Holiday Schemes were established, with Hungary and Viet Nam.

For further information

www.immigration.govt.nz/
www.dol.govt.nz/research/
www.newzealandnow.govt.nz/investing-in-nz.

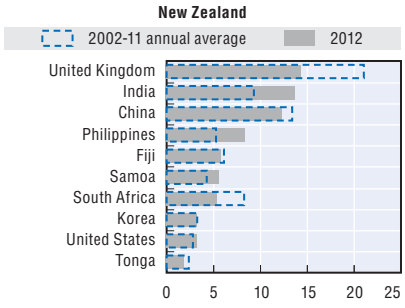
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NEW ZEALAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	9.7	13.1	9.3	8.8	11.4	10.3	39.1
Outflows	4.1	5.5	6.0	5.5	4.9	5.6	24.4

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	10.2	10.1	22.9	23.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	27.9	26.0	62.6	60.9
Humanitarian	2.7	3.0	6.2	7.1
Free movements	3.7	3.6	8.3	8.4
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	44.5	42.7	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	70.0	68.9	64.2	71.8
Trainees	1.8	1.3	1.1	1.3
Working holiday makers	29.0	45.1	50.8	41.4
Seasonal workers	2.9	7.8	8.2	8.1
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	44.2	26.8	29.0	39.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*324*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.6	11.4	6.6	6.8	12.9	9.8	*31*
Natural increase	7.7	7.5	7.0	7.0	3.6	7.9	*31*
Net migration	-2.9	1.7	-0.5	-0.2	9.3	1.8	*-1*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	17.2	20.3	23.6	24.1	19.7	22.7	*1 066*
Foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	*27 230*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	79.4	82.9	78.7	77.8	82.1	80.7
Foreign-born men	71.6	76.4	76.8	76.8	75.2	77.5
Native-born women	64.9	70.0	68.5	67.9	68.7	70.1
Foreign-born women	55.8	59.7	63.8	64.6	58.9	61.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.2	3.4	6.4	6.7	3.9	5.0
Foreign-born men	7.1	4.1	7.0	7.1	4.7	5.6
Native-born women	5.9	4.0	7.0	7.4	4.5	5.2
Foreign-born women	6.7	4.8	6.9	8.1	5.4	6.2

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.7	3.2	2.3	2.5	3.6	1.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.1	2.1	1.5	1.9	2.0	0.4	*32 117*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.9	3.0	1.6	0.5	3.0	0.8	*2 226*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.1	3.8	6.5	6.9	4.3	5.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158255

Norway

Between 2011 and 2012 the total inflow of persons to Norway decreased slightly to 78 600, although this still represented an immigration rate of almost 16 immigrants per 1 000 inhabitants. Of these, 89% were foreigners, and 45% were women. Most were from EU countries, although their share fell from 64% to 58%. Poland remained the largest origin country (11 500 new immigrants), followed by Lithuania (6 600) and Sweden (5 700). There was a significant increase in immigration from Somalia (3 600) and Eritrea (2 400). In 2012, 21 300 foreigners emigrated, 1 300 fewer than in 2011. The largest registered emigration flows in 2012 were to Sweden (6 700), Denmark (2 800) and Poland (1 400). Net immigration of foreigners rose slightly, to 48 700. The total inflow of migrants in 2013 was 3.5% below the 2012 level, at 75 800, largely because of a drop in the number of incoming EU nationals. Net migration, too, was about 15% below the 2011-12 levels.

Work remained the major reason (45% of the total) for non-Nordic immigration in 2012. Although 4 percentage points lower than in 2011, labour migration exceeded 25 000 and was at one of its highest historical levels. Close to 90% of labour migrants came from Europe, mostly from the Eastern and Central European EU states, including half from Poland. Two-thirds of Europeans, compared to only 12% of non-European nationals, were labour migrants. Family-related immigration represented 32% of non-Nordic immigration. The major groups of family immigrants were from Poland, Lithuania, Somalia, Thailand and the Philippines. Preliminary figures suggest similar levels of family immigration in 2013. The share of immigration for education, training and cultural exchange was 10% in 2012, slightly lower than in 2011. Among these were 11 600 new international students in 2012, an increase of 600 from 2011, the major origin countries being Germany, France, Spain, China, the United States, the Russian Federation and Italy.

In 2012, almost 9 800 applications for asylum were filed, 8% higher than the previous year. The number of applications increased by a further 22% in 2013, reaching 11 980. The major countries of origin were Eritrea, Somalia, Syria, Afghanistan and Sudan. The proportion granted refugee status was 54% in 2012 while it was 61% in 2013.

In 2012, 12 400 persons were naturalised, 1 900 fewer than the year before. The largest group of foreigners granted Norwegian citizenship originated from Iraq, followed by former Somalis and Afghans. The number naturalised in 2013 was slightly higher, at 13 200, and the largest groups originated from Somalia, Iraq and Afghanistan.

At the end of 2013, 633 100 immigrants and 126 100 persons born to immigrant parents were residents in Norway, representing 15% of the population. Poland was the main foreign country of birth (84 000 persons). The largest number of Norwegian-born with immigrant parents had parents from Pakistan (15 600). About 42% of immigrants had lived in Norway for fewer than five years.

Although there were no major changes in immigration policy in 2012-13, new rules were implemented to prevent abuse of au pairs by the families which employ them. A representation system was integrated into the new Law of Guardianship to ensure unaccompanied minor asylum seekers have legal representation at various stages of the asylum process. Finally, new provisions in the Immigration Act broadened the scope for coercive measures against foreigners with undocumented identity, those at risk of flight and those with a criminal record.

Several new integration policy measures were introduced in 2013, following a White Paper. A new Action Plan promotes better use of the skills of immigrants in the labour market. It features 19 measures in the fields of recognition, recruitment and entrepreneurship which are designed to improve the recognition of education and training from abroad; stimulate public and private employers to recruit more immigrants; and provide targeted information and counselling to immigrants about establishing their own company.

A multicultural competence strategy for the period 2013-17 has been introduced for all levels of employees in the education system. The aim is to better document the Norwegian skills of participants and improve the graduation rate.

A new Anti-Discrimination Act grants employees access to information regarding wages for specific colleagues when there is suspicion of wage discrimination. The prohibitions and obligations from prior legislation are included in the new act.

Finally, as part of the "Action Plan against forced marriage, female genital mutilation and severe restrictions on young people's freedom", 22 measures were introduced in 2013 focusing on preventive efforts and effective public assistance.

For further information

www.udi.no
www.ssb.no.

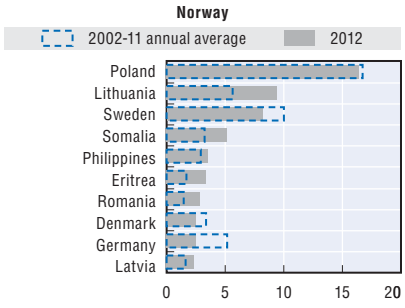
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NORWAY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	6.2	6.8	14.3	13.9	6.7	12.6	70.0
Outflows	3.3	2.7	4.6	4.2	2.9	3.8	21.3

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	3.5	4.1	5.7	6.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	12.9	12.4	21.0	20.8
Humanitarian	5.4	5.7	8.8	9.6
Free movements	39.8	37.6	64.6	62.8
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	61.6	59.9	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	4.3	7.8	8.2	6.5
Trainees	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Working holiday makers	0.1	0.1	..	0.1
Seasonal workers	1.8	2.5	3.5	2.4
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.3	..	0.4
Other temporary workers	2.1	1.7	1.8	1.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.4	1.2	1.8	1.9	2.3	2.4	*9 785*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.6	7.4	13.3	..	6.8	12.6	*32*
Natural increase	3.3	3.5	3.8	..	3.2	3.9	*18*
Net migration	2.0	3.9	9.5	..	3.6	8.7	*47*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	6.8	8.2	12.4	13.2	7.9	10.9	*664*
Foreign population	4.1	4.8	8.2	8.9	4.7	6.9	*449*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	5.3	5.9	4.0	3.0	4.6	3.8	*12 384*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	82.3	78.8	77.7	77.7	79.2	79.0
Foreign-born men	74.6	67.0	70.8	77.8	71.2	73.0
Native-born women	74.6	72.9	74.0	74.6	73.6	74.7
Foreign-born women	63.5	59.8	66.6	68.0	61.7	67.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.4	4.0	2.7	3.2	3.8	2.8
Foreign-born men	6.8	12.5	9.4	7.0	10.0	8.4
Native-born women	3.2	3.9	2.6	2.3	3.7	2.4
Foreign-born women	5.3	8.5	6.7	5.5	7.7	5.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.3	2.6	1.3	2.9	2.3	0.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.6	1.9	0.0	1.5	1.6	-0.6	*64 834*
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.2	0.7	1.4	2.0	0.8	1.5	*2 586*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	3.3	4.4	3.2	3.1	3.9	3.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158261

Poland

The inflow of permanent immigrants to Poland reached 14 600 persons in 2012, slightly lower than in the previous year (15 500 persons). About 82% of the migrants arrived from the European Union. The primary countries of origin of permanent immigrants included United Kingdom, Germany and the United States. The inflow of temporary residents in 2011 was about 66 000 persons; among them 27% were EU nationals.

In 2012 Polish GDP growth slowed to 2.0% from the 4.5% recorded in 2011, while the unemployment rate rose slightly to 10.3% in 2013. The Central Statistical Office estimated that the number of Polish citizens staying abroad for more than three months rose to 2.13 million in 2012 (compared to 2.06 million in 2011), with 637 000 in the United Kingdom and 500 000 in Germany. According to the Polish Labour Force Survey, the number of Polish temporary migrants staying abroad for more than three months as of mid-2013 reached almost 300 000 people (among them 60% were men and 90% went abroad for the purposes of employment).

More than 48 000 residence permits were issued by the Polish authorities in 2012 (13% more than in 2011), including 16% for registrations of EU nationals. 8% were permanent residence permits, and more than 70% were temporary residence permits. Permit issuance fell slightly in 2013, to about 45 000, with a similar composition. The main nationalities of recipients in 2013 were Ukraine, China, Viet Nam, Belarus, and the Russian Federation. In 2013, over 8 500 EU citizens registered as residents, with Germany the main nationality.

In 2012 more than 3 800 foreigners obtained Polish citizenship through naturalisation. Persons of Polish descent can apply for a residence visa and the so-called Polish Card (in 2011 more than 20 000 cards were granted under this repatriation scheme).

The number of asylum applications in Poland rose by 56% from 2011 to 2012, to 10 700 persons, predominantly Russians. 2013 saw a further 41% increase (to 15 200 applicants). Over 2012-13, about 290 persons were granted refugee status, 270 persons received subsidiary protection and 700 persons were granted authorisation to stay for humanitarian reasons.

In 2012 and 2013 more than 39 000 work permits were granted annually to foreign workers in Poland, only slightly fewer than the 41 000 permits issued in 2011. The main sectors of employment in 2013 were trade (18%), construction and household services (13% each). In 2012-13, the main origin of workers was Ukraine (52%), followed by China (8%), and Viet Nam (6%).

In addition, 243 000 "declarations of employer intention to entrust work to foreigners" were registered in 2012, and 236 000 in 2013. This simplified regime, applicable to nationals of Belarus, Moldova, Georgia, Ukraine and the Russian Federation, allows employment for six out of twelve consecutive months without work permits, and then to obtain a work permit without a labour market test after three months. More than 90% of workers were from Ukraine and about half were employed in agriculture. In 2014 preferential treatment was extended to Armenian nationals.

During 2013 an Inter-Ministerial Committee on Migration worked on an action plan following the 2012 strategic policy document "Migration Policy of Poland: state of play and further actions". In April 2013, a draft political document "Polish Integration Policy towards Foreigners – Assumptions and Guidelines" was submitted for public consultation by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy.

Parliamentary debate on a civil initiative bill "Return Home", supporting repatriation of Polish nationals, continued in 2013 amid government concern over its potential cost as well as conflict with the constitutional right of equal treatment for all citizens. The Council of Ministers invited municipalities to actively attract repatriates and support their integration into Polish society.

A new Act on Foreigners was approved by the Parliament and came into force in May 2014. The Act introduces a number of changes that relax the conditions of stay of foreigners in Poland, such as extending the duration of the temporary residence permit from two to three years, extending the duration of student residence permits, allowing graduates of Polish high schools to stay for up to one year to seek work in Poland, granting a one-month job search period to foreign workers upon a job loss, etc.

Further legislative changes adopted in 2012 included a regularisation, the third to be held in Poland, under which two-year residence permits were issued to more than 4 500 foreigners mainly from Ukraine, Viet Nam and Armenia. A bilateral agreement was concluded with Ukraine on harmonisation of social security systems.

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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.4	1.0	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.1	47.1
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	..	..	..	..



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	*9 167*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-0.2	-0.4	0.9	0.2	-0.5	0.2	*9*
Natural increase	0.3	-0.1	0.9	0.3	-0.1	0.6	*13*
Net migration	-0.5	-0.3	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-0.4	*- 4*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	1.8	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	..	..	0.1	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	4.4	6.8	..	..	*3 792*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	61.2	59.0	66.0	66.3	58.1	65.5
Foreign-born men	..	35.9	62.9	71.1	38.1	53.9
Native-born women	49.3	47.0	52.7	53.1	46.9	52.2
Foreign-born women	..	24.0	48.1	51.7	23.5	37.6
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	14.8	16.9	9.1	9.6	17.5	8.4
Foreign-born men	..	10.2	9.7	3.5	9.3	8.9
Native-born women	18.6	19.4	10.5	11.0	19.2	9.6
Foreign-born women	..	15.3	14.5	11.7	17.5	10.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.3	3.6	4.5	1.9	4.1	4.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.3	3.7	4.5	1.9	4.2	4.2	*22 334*
Employment (level in thousands)	-4.5	2.3	0.6	0.2	0.6	1.9	*15 591*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	16.1	17.8	9.6	10.1	18.1	8.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158276

Portugal

The total stock of foreigners in Portugal has been declining steadily since 2009 due to both the effects of the economic recession and the naturalisation of the foreign population. In 2012, it fell to 417 000, and fell further in 2013, to 401 000. Almost one in four were Brazilians.

The increased outflow of long term migrants that began with the recession has continued, with approximately 52 000 in 2012, up from 44 000 in 2011. With the inclusion of short-term emigrants, there was an estimated total outflow of 121 500 people in 2012, 96% of them Portuguese and only 4% foreigners. The scale of these outflows approach those of the intense Portuguese emigration cycle to Europe of the late 1960s and early 1970s. About 40% of emigrants in 2011-12 were aged 15-29 and over 70% were male. EU countries and Switzerland are still the dominant destinations, but non-European destinations, especially Angola, have emerged as important destinations for Portuguese emigrants.

For the first time in five years, 2012 saw the number of long-term entry visas grow, to 15 800. There was a small rise in the number of work visas issued but the main reason was the increased number of study visas (to 8 700). Education accounted for 55% of long term visas in 2012, up from 50% the year before. Brazil was the dominant country with slightly more than a third of total visas, mainly owing to a doubling of the number coming to study in 2012 (5 300) compared with 2011. Nonetheless, the Brazilian population of Portugal is declining, and fell to 13 500 in 2013. Visas to Angolans also doubled in 2012, again mainly for study. Portuguese universities are actively driving this increase in international students, through closer and more numerous institutional contacts, the development of joint degrees and the signature and implementation of bilateral agreements.

Outside the Portuguese speaking groups of foreigners, Indians and particularly Chinese received the highest number of long-term visas, mainly for work and family reasons. Among migrants from Asian countries in 2012 work motives exceeded family reasons (41 against 39%). Family reunion appears as the key reason for the relatively limited number of Long Term Visas to non-EU Eastern Europeans, suggesting that the period of labour immigration from those countries has ended.

From 2011 to 2012, the number of new Residence Permits issued in Portugal (these include persons with previous stay permits and long term visas or other situations of permanence as well as foreigners born in Portugal) continued to fall, as they have been since 2009, from 45 400 to 38 500. The decline was particularly strong among Eastern Europeans, including those from non-EU countries such as Ukraine and Moldova. On the other hand, the number of Chinese has been increasing, reaching 1 900 in 2013. The importance of family reunion, which traditionally involved more women, and more work opportunities in activities associated with a higher presence of women, has led to an increasing feminisation of the foreign inflow, to reach 52% in 2012. In 2013, 33 200 permits were issued, a further 13.7% decline.

In 2013, 30 100 foreigners applied for Portuguese nationality, slightly more than the 29 700 applicants in 2012. Most applications receive a positive outcome. Less than one in five applications was on the grounds of marriage or common law partnership with a Portuguese national. The largest groups of applicants were Brazilian (21%), Cape Verdian (16%) and Ukrainian (13%).

The number of asylum claims in 2012 increased but only to 300, mainly from Africa. The recognition rate for humanitarian status was 24%. In 2013, 500 asylum applications were received, of which 39% were filed by Syrian nationals.

A new Immigration Law in 2012 introduced a policy of "Coercive Removal" of foreigners and included measures to increase border security and extend the possibilities of discretionary action by the Foreigners and Borders Office (SEF). The SEF was granted wider latitude to prevent foreigners from entering the country and also to prolong the duration of a re-entry ban in Portugal as a result of a removal if they suspect a serious threat to the public order, public security or national security.

For further information

www.imigrante.pt
www.sef.pt
www.acidi.gov.pt.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

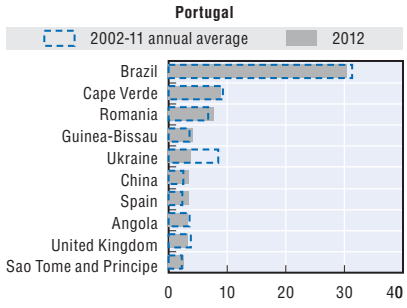
PORTUGAL

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	1.5	2.7	4.3	3.7	3.6	5.0	38.5
Outflows	0.0	0.0	..	..	0.0	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	7.3	5.9	19.7	19.3
Family (incl. accompanying family)	14.3	11.5	38.8	37.5
Humanitarian	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Free movements	12.1	9.6	32.7	31.3
Others	3.2	3.6	8.6	11.8
Total	36.9	30.7	100.0	100.0

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	4.1	6.5	8.4	5.3
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	7.7	..	..	3.9

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*299*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	6.0	3.8	-0.1	-2.9	6.0	1.3	*-30*
Natural increase	1.4	0.2	-0.4	-0.6	0.6	-0.1	*-6*
Net migration	4.6	3.6	0.4	-2.3	5.5	1.4	*-24*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	5.1	7.1	8.3	..	7.1	7.8	..
Foreign population	2.0	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.2	*417*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	0.4	0.2	..	..	0.4	4.4	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	76.2	73.1	67.9	64.6	74.5	71.0
Foreign-born men	75.5	78.1	70.7	68.5	78.3	75.9
Native-born women	60.2	61.2	59.7	58.1	61.3	61.0
Foreign-born women	65.1	67.3	66.8	64.7	66.6	66.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	3.1	7.0	12.7	16.2	5.8	9.1
Foreign-born men	6.0	8.3	18.0	20.0	7.9	11.9
Native-born women	4.9	9.1	13.3	16.0	7.7	11.0
Foreign-born women	6.9	10.4	15.9	18.8	10.0	14.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	3.9	0.8	-1.3	-3.2	0.7	0.0	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.4	0.3	-1.1	-2.8	0.2	0.0	*25 294*
Employment (level in thousands)	3.0	0.0	-2.8	-4.2	0.2	-1.3	*4 634*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.0	7.6	12.7	15.6	6.6	9.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158286

Romania

While Romania is both an origin and destination country for international migration, it remains primarily the former, with high net emigration. According to 2011 Census data provided by the National Statistical Institute, the number of Romanians residing abroad for more than 12 months was 727 000 persons while an additional 386 000 stayed abroad for less than one year. Thus, the 2011 Census data indicate a total stock of more than 1.1 million Romanian nationals abroad. However, the 2011 Census data is likely to underestimate emigration, as other estimates of the stock of Romanian emigration range as high as 3 million persons. Migration of Romanian nationals has been a source of concern for the national authorities, as the country loses young and skilled people. According to the 2011 Census data, the persons who left Romania for at least one year originated mainly from urban areas and 71% were aged between 20 and 44 years old. Most emigrants are from the Western counties (e.g. Sibiu, Timiş and Braşov). According to Census data, the main countries of residence for Romanian nationals abroad were Italy (511 000), Spain (242 000), Germany (62 000), United Kingdom (59 000) and France (45 000). Destination country figures are higher for Romanian emigration: Italy recorded more than one million Romanian residents, and Spain 918 000, at the end of 2012.

According to the General Inspectorate for Immigration, in 2012, the number of legal foreign residents in Romania reached 102 800 persons, more than half of whom (55 800 persons) were third-country nationals, mainly from Moldova (13 300 persons), Turkey (8 900 persons), and China (6 900 persons). EEA nationals numbered 46 900, led by Italians (10 700 persons), Germans (7 400 persons), and French (5 700 persons). The regional distribution of immigrants in Romania is uneven. While the capital region Bucharest attracts the largest number of immigrants, immigrants from Moldova are concentrated in the Eastern counties (such as Iaşi, Botoşani and Galaţi).

Labour migration to Romania is still relatively modest, both under the general work permit scheme and the EU Blue Card for highly-skilled workers. In 2012 the General Inspectorate for Immigration issued 2 800 work authorisations to foreign citizens. Most of them were issued to permanent workers (1 800 persons), followed by posted workers (700), athletes (200) and highly skilled workers (110). More than 400 work contracts were registered in Romania in 2012 on the basis of bilateral agreements. An additional 360 persons obtained work contracts for domestic work (housekeeping and care for the elderly) and 50 for work in hotels and restaurants. At the same time, 720 Romanians obtained a job in other EU countries with the assistance of EURES employment network in Romania (of these, Spain and Germany received 270 workers each, Denmark 110, and Finland 50). Labour emigration from Romania is, however, much more extensive than these figures suggest. In particular since, the EU accession facilitated free movement of the Romanian nationals within the EU, Romanians are among the top nationalities of foreign residents and foreign workers in many EU member states.

In 2012, the number of asylum applicants in Romania reached almost 3 000 persons, with 44% more compared to 2011. Most of the asylum seekers in 2012 came from Algeria (700), Pakistan (420) and Morocco (400). Figures from UNHCR are slightly different, but show a similar increase from 1 500 in 2011 to 2 500 in 2012, and a decline to 1 500 in 2013. Syria was the main country of origin for asylum seekers to Romania, in 2013.

Recent developments in the field of migration legislation in Romania have been driven by the need to harmonise and co-ordinate the national law with the EU legal framework, in particular in the field of residential and work regimes for EU/EEA nationals, third-country nationals, and asylum seekers. Romanian authorities have prioritised the following fields of migration policy: controlled immigration policy, prevention and fighting against irregular immigration, asylum policy, and social integration of foreigners.

Since the accession of Romania to the EU, irregular migration has become one of the main challenges on the national migration agenda. The number of migrants transiting through the Romanian territory has recently been on the rise. Furthermore, Romania as the edge of the EU and Eastern Schengen borders acquired new responsibilities in terms of management of irregular migration and human trafficking. Legislative work is thus underway with the aim of introducing legal, institutional, administrative and technical measures for the implementation of the Schengen regulations.

For further information

www.insse.ro
www.mai.gov.ro
www.ori.mai.gov.ro.

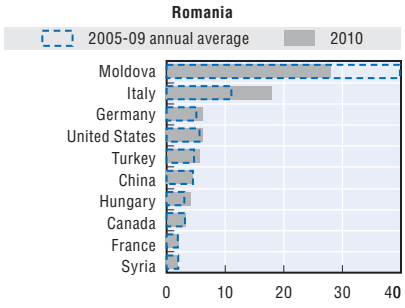
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ROMANIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.5	0.2	0.7	..	0.2	0.5	..
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	*2 511*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-1.1	-2.2	-2.3	-2.7	-7.4	-1.8	*-58*
Natural increase	-0.9	-1.9	-2.2	-2.6	-2.2	-1.8	*-55*
Net migration	-0.2	-0.3	0.0	-0.1	-5.3	-0.1	*-3*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	..	..	0.3	..	..	0.3	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	69.5	93.7	64.9	66.5	64.3	65.3
Foreign-born men	..	76.2	74.2	74.3	73.9	79.5
Native-born women	59.0	51.5	52.0	52.6	52.7	52.2
Foreign-born women	..	33.7	38.1	52.5	34.7	47.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	8.2	8.1	8.2	7.8	8.6	7.8
Foreign-born men	..	4.0	4.5	6.1	5.2	4.8
Native-born women	7.2	6.8	7.1	6.7	7.0	6.2
Foreign-born women	..	..	..	14.2	14.6	4.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	2.4	4.2	2.2	..	6.2	1.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..	*17 708*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.0	0.1	-1.1	..	-2.5	-0.3	..
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.8	7.2	7.4	..	7.4	6.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158295

Russian Federation

Migration inflows to the Russian Federation continued to rise in 2012-13. Permanent immigration to the Russian Federation in 2012 reached almost 418 000 people, 17% more than in 2011. In 2013, the number rose further to 482 000. Emigration rose from 33 500 in 2011 to 123 000 in 2012 and 182 000 in 2013. This partially reflects a change in Rosstat methodology: since 2011, temporary migrants whose residence lasts for more than nine months are included in immigration statistics and considered as emigrants when their registration period expires. Net migration to the Russian Federation was thus about 295 000 in both 2012 and 2013. Immigration has been dominated by migrants from CIS countries: Uzbekistan (21% in 2012, up from 18% in 2011), followed by Ukraine (12%), Kazakhstan (11%), Armenia (10%), Tajikistan (9%) and Kyrgyzstan (8%).

In 2012 and 2013 the Russian authorities issued about 350 000 temporary and permanent residence permits annually, one-fourth more than in 2011. The top five countries of origin accounted for two-thirds of all permits: Ukraine and Uzbekistan (about 15%), Armenia (14%), Kazakhstan (about 12%), and Tajikistan (11%). The stock of residence permit holders increased 26% in 2012, to 653 000, and a further 13% in 2013, to 740 000. Almost 96 000 persons were naturalised in 2012, and 136 000 in 2013.

Migration to the Russian Federation is largely temporary. 2.1 million temporary migrant workers entered in 2011, 2.7 million in 2012 and 2.9 million in 2013. Of these, 1.4 million received regular work permits in each year and the remainder were issued patents (licences for work in private households, issued to nationals of countries with visa-free entry).

Outside the quota system for visa-free country nationals, work permits are issued for selected professions and highly-skilled specialists. 129 000 were issued for professions in 2013, up from 44 000 in 2012. 26 000 were issued for highly-skilled specialists, up from 12 000 in 2012.

In 2012-13, CIS citizens with visa-free entry to the Russian Federation represented about 85% of work permit holders and more than 90% of all foreign workers (including patent holders). Nationals of Uzbekistan accounted for more than two in five, followed by Tajikistan, Ukraine and Kyrgyzstan. The leading nationalities for non-CIS countries among work permits were China (over 90 000), North Korea (over 30 000), and Turkey (which increased from 26 000 in 2012 to 34 000 in 2013).

The stock of foreign students at Russian universities has been recently growing, and increased by 7% during the 2012/13 academic year, to 172 000. Three quarters were citizens of CIS countries, mainly Kazakhstan (34 000), Belarus (26 000), Turkmenistan (12 000), Uzbekistan and Azerbaijan (11 000 each). Despite slightly fewer new students, China remains the main non-CIS country of origin of foreign students.

In 2012, the Russian Federation further restricted its simple naturalisation procedures under international agreements with Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Belarus, which imposed only a three-month residence requirement and the intention to become resident in the Russian Federation. Most naturalised Russians under the scheme had been temporary labour migrants. The state programme of Assistance in the Voluntary Return of Compatriots Living Abroad grew significantly. The stock of participants and their family members increased from 58 000 in 2011 to 147 000 in 2013. This repatriation programme is now the main source for naturalisation.

Recent legislation strengthened measures against illegal immigration. A three-year entry ban was introduced for overstaying foreigners and, in 2013, sanctions for fictitiously providing residence addresses for foreigners were introduced. The stay for visa-free country nationals who do not have a work permit, patent or other document of legal stay was reduced in 2013 to 90 days every 180 days. A December 2013 law stipulates introduction (from 2015) of a compulsory test of Russian language and Russian history for both residence permit applicants and temporary work permit applicants. New preferences in citizenship acquisition were introduced in April 2014 for native Russian language speakers.

From August 2014, Russian nationals are required to notify the Russian Federal Migration Service if they obtain a residence permit or naturalise in another country, unless they are taking up permanent residence abroad. Failure to report will incur financial and criminal penalties.

A draft law under discussion in 2013 would replace quota-based work permits with the patent system, simplifying hiring by employers and legal entities.

For further information

www.fms.gov.ru
www.fms.gov.ru/government_services
www.mid.ru
www.gks.ru.

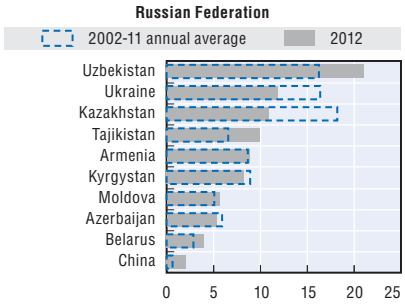
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	2.5	1.2	2.5	2.9	1.1	2.0	417.7
Outflows	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.3	122.8

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	273.0	..	66.2	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	93.9	..	22.7	..
Humanitarian	1.8	..	0.4	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	44.0	..	10.7	..
Total	412.6	0.0	100.0	..

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	35.1	..	35.4
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	2 014.0	..	1 265.2

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	*1 243*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-4.0	-5.0	..	..	-4.8	..	..
Natural increase	-6.5	-5.9	..	..	-5.7	..	..
Net migration	1.6	0.8	..	..	0.6	..	..

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	..	..	..	0.4	..	..	*621*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	19.6	..	..	..	*95 737*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	10.0	6.4	4.3	3.4	6.7	2.9	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	10.8	6.8	4.2	..	7.2	3.0	*23 504*
Employment (level in thousands)	..	1.3	1.3	0.9	1.1	0.6	*71 341*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	10.5	7.2	6.6	5.7	7.7	7.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158304

Slovak Republic

The inflow of migrants to the Slovak Republic have declined in the aftermath of the economic crisis (the inflow of foreigners halved between 2008 and 2011), while outflows were stable or slightly increasing. In 2012 the inflow of foreigners reported by the Statistical Office grew for the first time since the onset of the crisis and reached more than 5 400 persons (compared to about 4 800 persons in 2011), while the outflow was close to 2 000 persons, up slightly from 2011.

The stock of foreign residents has gradually increased to almost 68 000 persons at the end of 2012. About two thirds of foreign residents in the Slovak Republic are nationals of EU/EEA countries and more than 80% of foreign residents are of European origin. More than 25 000 foreign residents were third-country nationals, the top five nationalities being Ukrainian, Serbian, Russian, Vietnamese and Chinese.

The Slovak Republic's GDP, which contracted by 5% in 2009 and rebounded to grow 4% in 2010, has since seen decelerating growth, of 3.0% in 2011 and 1.8% in 2012. Unemployment (at 14%) and stagnant employment engender little incentive for labour migration. The total stock of foreign workers at the end of 2012 was 14 300, of which 5 200 persons were third-country nationals. According to Slovak Labour Force Survey data, the number of Slovaks working abroad declined in the course of the crisis to the low of 116 000 persons in 2011, and increased subsequently to 121 000 persons in 2012. The most popular destinations for Slovak workers abroad in 2013 were the Czech Republic (45 000 persons), Austria (29 000 persons) and Germany (10 000 persons).

The Slovak Republic recorded 730 asylum applications in 2012 and 440 in 2013, although UNHCR figures are somewhat lower (550 and 280).

Several statistical changes were made. In 2012, the registration of foreign births was changed so that children born abroad to mothers with permanent residence in the Slovak Republic are now excluded from the statistics unless they register as permanent residents. Further, the definition of migration to and from abroad was extended to include any change of the country of permanent residence, disregarding the citizenship of migrants. The methodology of recoding the numbers of new residence permits was also changed according to Directive 862/2007/EC, to include permits renewed more than three months after the expiration of the previous permit.

Following the adoption of the first national migration policy document in 2011 and the adoption of a new Act on Residence of Aliens that came into effect as of 1 January 2012, further amendments of legislation were induced by the transposition of the EU "Qualifications" Directive (2011/95/EC) and EU "Single Permit" Directive (2011/98/EC) into national legislation, these changes came into effect as of January 2014. The main changes include introduction of a more effective process for granting a single permit for work and residence purposes to third-country nationals. Applications for such permits will be filed with the Police Offices (which will be obliged to also accept incomplete applications). The granting of single permit is subject to the confirmation by the local labour office (PES). The labour market test for regular work permits has been made more restrictive, with the mandatory advertising time with the PES increased from 15 to 30 calendar days. The PES is now allowed to propose candidates whose qualifications do not exactly match the job requirements. Employers must also submit the position for a labour market test 45 days prior to permit renewal.

Intracompany transferees and secondees are now subject to additional requirements, including legalisation and translation of foreign academic degrees. A pre-approval process has been imposed, requiring employers to appear at local labour offices. A four-year limit is now imposed on intracompany transfers and secondees.

Third-country nationals who legally stay in the Slovak Republic for purposes other than employment and who are entitled to work will receive a residence permit marked "entitled to work". The single procedure will be applied also for granting the Blue Cards according to the EC Blue Card Directive. In principle, the old dual permit system (residence permit and work permit) will be maintained in the Slovak Republic only for seasonal workers and posted workers.

Further legislative and regulatory changes are aimed at achieving a more systematic approach to the integration of foreigners through improving procedures related to management of migration and integration of immigrants, guaranteeing rights and freedoms of the EU nationals and their family members, and the third-country nationals during their entry and residence in the Slovak Republic, and harmonising the regulations in the fields of residence permits and border protection.

For further information

www.minv.sk
www.employment.gov.sk.

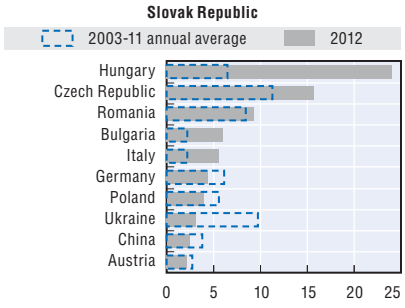
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	0.9	1.4	1.5	0.5	1.3	2.5	2.9
Outflows	..	0.2	0.4	0.4	..	0.5	2.0

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.1	1.4	0.2	*732*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	-3.7	0.8	1.9	2.2	0.4	1.7	*12*
Natural increase	0.5	0.2	1.3	1.7	0.0	0.8	*9*
Net migration	-4.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.9	*3*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	4.6	..	2.9	4.0	..	*158*
Foreign population	0.5	0.5	1.3	1.3	0.5	1.1	*73*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	6.3	0.4	0.4	..	1.2	*255*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	61.6	64.6	66.1	66.7	64.0	67.4
Foreign-born men	..	67.1	73.0	68.4	66.5	73.9
Native-born women	51.1	51.0	52.6	52.7	51.5	53.1
Foreign-born women	..	37.7	46.7	59.7	43.1	51.4
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	19.5	15.5	13.7	13.6	16.2	11.6
Foreign-born men	..	17.4	11.4	14.1	17.5	8.8
Native-born women	18.6	17.2	13.6	14.6	17.5	13.0
Foreign-born women	..	28.6	20.9	9.1	25.7	12.7

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	1.4	6.7	3.0	1.8	5.9	3.7	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.3	6.6	3.6	1.6	5.8	3.7	*25 339*
Employment (level in thousands)	-1.4	2.1	-0.1	0.6	1.6	0.1	*2 329*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	18.8	16.2	13.6	13.9	16.7	12.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158316

Slovenia

Migration flows in Slovenia have been recently on the rise. In 2012, 12 300 foreigners immigrated to the country, which was 6.7% more than in the previous year, but fell to 11 700 in 2013. Most foreign immigrants in 2012 were nationals of countries of the former Yugoslavia (74%), followed by EU nationals (17%). In 2013, about 25% were EU nationals; the increase was related to Croatia's entry in the EU in mid-2013.

Total emigration in 2012 reached 14 400 people, 19.6% higher than during 2011. Emigration levels at 14 100 were similar in 2013. While Slovenia has net positive migration of foreigners, it has a net negative migration of Slovenian citizens, with net emigration of the latter at 5 500 in 2012 and 4 400 in 2013.

Almost 22 000 new residence permits were issued to third country nationals in 2012, including 10 500 permanent residence permits and 11 700 temporary ones. Following the transposition of the EU Blue Card Directive into the national legislation in 2011, only 11 applications for the EU Blue Card have been filed.

Overall, the number of temporary residence authorisations issued in 2012 reached 48 300 (including both new and renewed permits, as well as registrations of EEA nationals). This fell slightly in 2013, to 44 800. New first-time temporary permits numbered 11 500 in 2011 and 2012, but fell to 9 100 in 2013. The share issued for reasons of employment or work fell from 57% in 2011 to 38% in 2013, while those for other motives increased.

At the end of 2012 there were 106 600 foreigners registered in Slovenia on the basis of residence permits or residence registration certificates, about 5% more than in 2011. By the end of 2013, the number had increased to 110 300. While less than 10% of the foreign population in Slovenia were EEA nationals in 2012, this share rose to 20% in 2013 with the entry of Croatia into the EU. The top five countries of origin among foreign population were neighbouring Balkan countries: Bosnia and Herzegovina (46 900), Kosovo (12 700), Croatia (10 800), the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (10 500) and Serbia (9 900). In 2013, most valid temporary permits were for the purposes of employment (about 47%), followed by family reunification permits (29%). The share of permanent residence permits among all permits increased between 2009 and 2013 from 39% to 55%.

The number of asylum applications fell from 400 in 2011 to 350 in 2012 and 300 in 2013. In 2013, the leading origin countries were Syria (23%) and Kosovo (13%). About 10% of applicants were recognised as refugees, and others (6% in 2012 and 5% in 2013) were granted subsidiary protection. At the end of 2012 there were 170 persons with international protection status in Slovenia. During the first three years, these persons are entitled to a tailor-made personal integration plan, in which 80 persons participated in 2012.

In 2012 there were 1 400 illegal border crossings detected, 56% more than the previous year. In 2013 the number of illegal border crossings was about 900, or 36% fewer than in 2012.

Integration programmes for third-country nationals, introduced in 2008, include Slovenian language courses, courses in history, culture and constitution, intercultural dialogue, facilitation of societal integration of special target groups, and awareness raising projects aimed at employers. In 2012 more than 1 500 immigrants took language courses. A new feature of integration programmes introduced in 2012 targets specific immigrant groups (e.g. courses for parents of children enrolled in elementary schools with predominantly immigrant population, programmes for societal integration of women, or minors). Other programmes targeted Slovenian employers to inform them about integration programmes for third-country nationals.

In March 2013, Slovenia concluded a bilateral agreement with Bosnia and Herzegovina regarding the employment of Bosnia and Herzegovina nationals in Slovenia. The two countries will co-operate, with Bosnia and Herzegovina reserving the possibility to suspend placement of workers whose departure might have negative effects on the labour market. Further administrative initiatives in 2012 included the creation of a new Directorate of Internal Administrative Affairs, Migration and Naturalization within the Ministry of Interior. The Directorate is composed of a Migration Office and a Naturalization Office.

In 2014, Slovenia amended its aliens act to transpose the EU Single Permit directive. From 2015, a number of changes will come into effect to simplify permit procedures. In addition to the creation of "one-stop shops" and a single procedure for permit issuance, in-country status changes will be facilitated. The time limit for permit processing has been reduced from 90 to 60 days.

For further information

www.mddsz.gov.si/en
www.mnz.gov.si/en
www.stat.si/eng
www.infotujci.si/.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

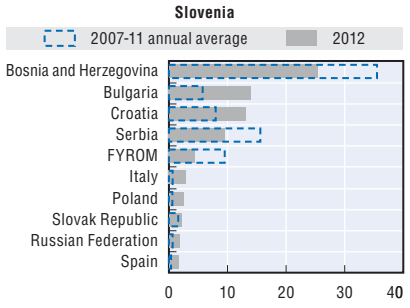
SLOVENIA

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	..	..	8.8	8.4	..	12.6	17.3
Outflows	1.0	3.3	1.0	0.8	3.2	4.7	1.7

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	..	..	..	..
Family (incl. accompanying family)	..	..	..	..
Humanitarian	..	..	..	..
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	..	..	..	..

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
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	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	4.6	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.1	*305*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	1.2	2.9	1.6	2.6	1.3	6.2	*5*
Natural increase	-0.2	-0.3	1.8	1.6	-0.6	1.2	*3*
Net migration	1.4	3.2	-0.3	1.0	1.9	4.9	*2*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	..	..	11.2	14.6	..	..	*300*
Foreign population	..	..	4.9	5.0	..	..	*103*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	#N/A	..	1.9	0.8	..	..	*768*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	66.7	70.2	67.6	67.0	69.4	70.7
Foreign-born men	66.7	72.7	68.4	71.4	69.8	71.4
Native-born women	58.2	61.3	61.6	61.0	60.2	63.1
Foreign-born women	61.3	61.6	54.3	55.2	62.1	59.6
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	6.6	6.2	8.2	8.6	5.7	5.9
Foreign-born men	10.0	6.2	9.7	8.3	6.5	7.2
Native-born women	7.1	7.1	7.8	9.1	6.8	6.2
Foreign-born women	7.9	7.8	14.0	14.5	8.7	9.0

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.3	4.0	0.7	-2.5	4.2	0.9	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.0	3.8	0.5	-2.7	4.0	0.4	*27 921*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.0	0.6	-3.1	-1.3	1.0	-0.5	*924*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.7	6.5	8.2	8.8	6.3	6.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158322

Spain

The inflow of foreigners to Spain stood at 336 100 persons in 2012, a substantial decline compared to the previous year (416 300 persons). At the same time, the outflow of foreigners increased from 317 700 in 2011 to 320 700 in 2012. The net migration flow of foreigners in 2012 remained positive at 15 500 persons, but was at its lowest level in at least a decade.

This decline is partly due to labour migration management. Hiring non-resident foreign nationals has been restricted and priority given to foreign nationals already residing in the country. The use of instruments for recruiting non-resident foreign nationals (Shortage Occupation Lists and collective management of hiring in the country of origin) has been reduced. First-time labour permits to non-EU nationals arriving from abroad have continued to decline since 2007, to 19 700 in 2010, 7 600 in 2011 and 6 000 in 2012. The main nationalities in 2012 were Peru (12%), Philippines and Colombia (9%), China (8%) and the United States (7%). A further 3 800 workers came for seasonal employment. In addition, 41 500 non-EU nationals, led by nationals of Peru and Morocco, received exceptional residence authorisation issued under exceptional circumstances.

The number of foreigners with registration certificates or valid residence cards as of 31 December 2012 reached 5.5 million. Third-country nationals accounted for about half the foreign population. The number of Spaniards emigrating abroad increased in 2012, although most emigrants were foreign-born who acquired Spanish nationality and were returning to their countries of origin. From 2009 to 2012, the stock of native-born Spaniards residing abroad increased by 40 000.

While EU nationals represented half of foreign residents in 2012, they are a larger share of inflow. From mid-2012 to mid-2013, EU nationals comprised almost 62% of the annual increase of foreign population. In 2012, Spain had the second largest number of resident EU citizens (after Germany). However, only 23% of permanent residents were EU nationals.

Irregular immigration to Spain has subsided in recent years, mainly due to the policy aimed at combating irregular immigration and co-operating with countries of origin and transit. In the Canary Islands there were 200 irregular entries in 2013 (compared with 31 600 in the peak year of 2006). Sea arrivals elsewhere have stabilised or declined (3 600 in 2012 and 3 000 in 2013). However, illegal land-border crossings from Morocco to Ceuta and Melilla increased, from 2 800 in 2012 to 4 200 in 2013.

Given the relatively high unemployment rate of foreign workers in Spain, integration policy is seen as a means for achieving social cohesion. Foreigners benefit greatly from active employment policies and special efforts are aimed at preventing irregularity.

Poor labour market conditions led the government to extend special transitional measures for Romanian citizens and to apply transitional measures for Croatian nationals following accession.

The economic crisis seems not to have caused a negative social perception of immigration. According to the 2013 Centre for Sociological Research Barometer Survey, only 2.9% of Spaniards consider immigration a problem and fewer still (0.4%) a fundamental problem. Similarly, the *Second Global Report on Findings on Social and Intercultural Coexistence in High Diversity Regions* compiled by the Community Projects section of "*La Caixa*" concluded that the economic and employment crisis did not seem to have a negative impact on the perception of cultural diversity.

Official concern that unemployment and the crisis could increase racism and xenophobia prompted the Government, in 2012 and 2013, to implement a number of awareness-raising and training actions. These included training the staff of law enforcement agencies on racism issues. Further, anti-racism training was implemented in 2013 in the fields of education and justice, the latter involving prosecutors, judges and court clerks.

In 2012 and 2013, a project on "Diversity Management in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises" was launched to study ways of handling diversity among migrants and ethnic minorities and to raise awareness of the benefits of correct cultural diversity management in small and medium-sized businesses, and to promote a positive image of the integration of migrants and ethnic minorities.

An evaluation study has been conducted to assess the immigration policy. One of the findings supported the need to adopt a special system of streamlining procedures for investors, entrepreneurs, highly qualified staff and those involved in intra-company movements seeking to enter and stay in Spain. This specific model combines the perspectives of support to business internationalisation and the promotion of economic growth based on the traditional goals of migration policy: security and employment.

For further information

http://extranjeros.empleo.gob.es/es/index.html
www.empleo.gob.es/es/estadisticas/index.htm
www.ine.es/inebmenu/mnu_migrac.htm.

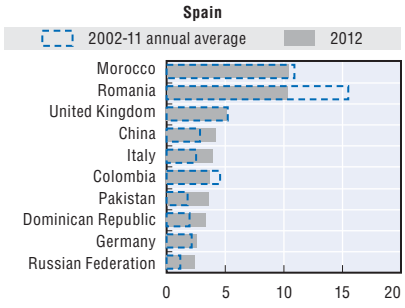
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SPAIN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	8.2	15.7	9.0	7.3	14.0	12.9	336.1
Outflows	..	1.1	6.9	6.9	1.0	6.0	320.7

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	75.9	47.5	26.1	22.6
Family (incl. accompanying family)	58.8	39.8	20.2	19.0
Humanitarian	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.2
Free movements	148.9	116.0	51.2	55.3
Others	6.5	5.9	2.2	2.8
Total	291.0	209.8	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	29.9	51.8	42.9	45.0
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	7.0	2.2	2.2	13.6
Intra-company transfers	1.2	0.8	0.9	1.0
Other temporary workers	33.8	14.6	6.7	27.8

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	*2 579*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	10.6	16.6	3.6	0.9	15.6	10.7	*43*
Natural increase	0.9	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.5	2.5	*85*
Net migration	9.7	14.8	1.3	-0.9	14.1	8.1	*-41*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	4.9	11.1	14.6	14.3	10.0	14.2	*6 618*
Foreign population	3.4	9.5	12.4	12.0	8.4	12.3	*5 520*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	1.3	1.1	2.0	2.0	1.0	1.7	*115 557*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	70.9	74.8	64.0	61.3	73.7	69.3
Foreign-born men	74.4	79.2	59.8	53.9	79.7	66.1
Native-born women	41.1	50.2	52.0	50.9	47.9	52.7
Foreign-born women	46.7	59.4	50.8	47.7	56.4	55.2
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	9.5	6.8	19.3	22.6	7.3	13.2
Foreign-born men	12.3	9.4	30.9	36.2	10.2	23.9
Native-born women	20.5	12.0	20.4	23.3	13.9	15.9
Foreign-born women	17.8	13.9	30.0	34.7	16.1	22.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.0	3.6	0.1	-1.6	3.3	0.1	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.2	1.9	-0.1	-1.7	1.7	-0.8	*31 919*
Employment (level in thousands)	5.6	4.8	-1.9	-4.5	4.0	-1.7	*17 282*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	10.8	9.2	21.6	25.0	10.0	15.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158333

Sweden

In December 2013, the Swedish population reached 9 million of which 1.5 million (15.9%) were foreign-born and about 468 000 Swedish-born with two foreign-born parents. Together these groups accounted for 21% of the total population. During 2013, the Swedish population increased by about 89 000 over the previous year. 68% of the national population increase was attributable to the inflow of foreign-born in 2013, compared with 63% in 2012.

Immigration to Sweden has been high in recent years. In 2013, immigration figures reached a new peak of 116 600 persons, up from 111 100 in 2012. This was an increase by 5% percentage points compared to the previous year. Humanitarian immigrants from Syria and Somalia accounted for about 20% of the total inflow. In 2013 emigration figures dropped by nearly 1 000 to appriximately 51 700 resulting in net migration by over 65 000.

The number of resident permits issued rose from 103 000 in 2011 to 111 100 in 2012 and 116 600 in 2013. The number of refugees and persons otherwise in need of protection, 16 700 in 2012, rose to 29 000 in 2013. The number of those with right of residence under EU/EEA agreements fell from 24 600 in 2012 to 20 700. Other changes were less dramatic. Permits on grounds of family ties fell from 40 900 to 39 800, while those for labour market reasons dropped from 19 900 to 19 300. The leading occupations for which work permits were issued were low qualified jobs within agriculture, forestry and fisheries, cleaning and catering; the second largest groups were professionals, such as computing specialists and engineers. The most common countries of origin were Thailand, India, China, Syria and Iran.

As a result of the deteriorating conflict in Syria in 2013, the Swedish Migration Board decided in September 2013 that residence permits granted on the basis of the general situation of violence in Syria should be permanent. The Migration Board, however, continues to assess each asylum application on an individual basis, for example, to establish whether there are reasons to grant refugee status.

In 2013, the Swedish Migration Board received about 54 300 asylum applications, a 24% rise on the year before (43 900, which was in turn a rise of 48% on the 2011 figure). The main origins were Syria, Stateless, Eritrea, Somalia and Afghanistan. About a third of decisions during the year were grants of asylum. The number of unaccompanied children has been growing. Unaccompanied minors comprised 3 600 claims in 2012 and 3 900 in 2013, the most common countries of origin being Afghanistan, Somalia, Syria and Eritrea.

In 2013 there were about 50 200 naturalisations. This was slightly fewer than in 2012 (51 200). The main prior nationality was Iraqi (29% in 2013).

The Swedish government is currently implementing policy changes proposed by a Parliamentary Committee on Circular Migration and Development. The Swedish Consumer Agency has been tasked with building a remittance price comparison website to improve safety and transparency and lower remittance cost. Legislative changes in force from July 2014 aim to facilitate circular migration between Sweden and third countries – and strengthen the positive developmental effects of migration.

Other legislative changes in force from August 2014 add control measures to curb abuse of the labour immigration system and to prevent exploitation of migrant workers from non-EU/EEA countries.

For the budget year 2014, the government has taken a number of initiatives to promote integration. These include a regulation that obliges new arrivals with an introduction plan to accept an appropriate job offer, changes to the rules regarding introduction allowances which reduce the lead time prior to commencing the introduction plan, and assistance in finding accommodation.

From January 2013, a review of foreign credentials has been brought under the University and Higher Education Council, which now is responsible for the assessment of foreign upper secondary school leaving certificates, and for certain qualifications in higher and tertiary education not covered elsewhere. In 2013, the agency received close to 14 000 applications, of which close to 10 000 were resolved. Applications for recognition in regulated professions are sent to other competent bodies, such as the National Board of Health and Welfare.

The government is carrying out a broad set of measures to improve school results in 2013-16. Initiatives include, extended teaching time for newly arrived pupils in primary schools, skills enhancement of teachers and principals, surveys of knowledge among new arrival pupils, improved quality of language tuition and information on free choice of school in different languages.

For further information

www.migrationsverket.se
www.scb.se.

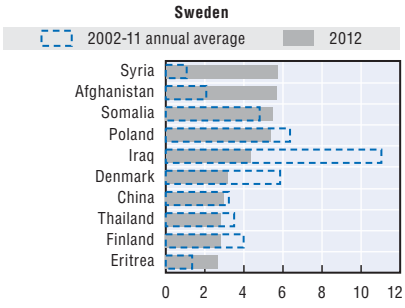
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWEDEN

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.8	5.6	8.0	8.7	6.0	8.6	82.6
Outflows	1.4	1.7	2.5	2.8	1.8	2.2	26.6

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	4.8	4.4	6.6	5.3
Family (incl. accompanying family)	27.1	33.6	37.7	41.1
Humanitarian	12.7	17.4	17.6	21.2
Free movements	27.3	26.4	38.0	32.3
Others	..	..	..	..
Total	71.8	81.7	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	10.8	10.3	13.0	14.1
Trainees	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	0.5	3.8	5.7	4.3
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	4.8	17.2	19.1	12.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.8	1.9	3.1	4.6	2.9	3.1	*43 876*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	2.5	4.0	7.1	7.7	4.5	8.0	*73*
Natural increase	-0.3	1.0	2.3	2.2	0.9	2.2	*21*
Net migration	2.8	3.0	4.8	5.4	3.6	5.8	*52*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	11.3	12.5	15.1	15.5	12.3	14.3	*1 473*
Foreign population	5.3	5.1	6.9	7.0	5.2	6.4	*667*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	8.8	7.8	5.8	7.7	7.6	5.4	*50 179*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	74.3	76.2	77.5	77.4	76.5	77.0
Foreign-born men	59.6	63.7	67.5	67.5	64.5	67.8
Native-born women	71.8	72.6	74.4	75.0	73.5	73.8
Foreign-born women	54.7	58.4	57.8	58.4	58.9	57.8
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.1	7.0	6.3	6.7	5.8	6.3
Foreign-born men	13.5	15.1	16.6	16.9	13.4	14.6
Native-born women	4.3	6.9	6.2	6.3	5.4	6.2
Foreign-born women	11.2	13.7	15.9	15.1	11.6	14.6

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	4.5	3.2	2.9	0.9	3.3	1.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	4.3	2.7	2.2	0.2	2.9	0.6	*42 022*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.4	2.3	0.6	0.4	0.9	*4 655*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.7	7.7	7.8	8.0	7.0	7.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158341

Switzerland

In 2012, 143 800 immigrants entered Switzerland with the intention of long-term stay in the country (close to the 2011 level). More than 72% of the inflow comprised EU/EEA citizens, whose share increased by 2 percentage points compared with 2011. The top countries of origin among immigrants in 2012 were Germany and Portugal, whose nationals comprised 19% and 13% respectively of the inflow. The share of Portuguese nationals increased from the previous year. Immigration by Italian nationals has also been on the rise since 2007. Among EU/EEA nationals, the main reason for immigration was employment (63.5%), while for third-country nationals it was mainly for family reunification purposes (52.4%). In 2013, total inflows increased by 8%, to 155 400.

In 2012, 65 900 foreigners de-registered their residence in Switzerland (1 800 more than in 2011), among them 71.3% were EU/EEA nationals, and 45% were in the age group between 20 and 34 years. In 2013, more than 70 000 foreigners de-registered.

At the end of 2012, the foreign population in Switzerland reached 1 825 100 persons, a 3% increase in one year. Foreigners comprised 22.8%. An increase of 3.4% was seen in 2013, bringing the foreign population to 1 886 600. The most frequent nationalities among foreign population in 2013 were Italian (16%), German (15.5%), Portuguese (13.5%) and French (5.8%).

EU/EEA nationals represented more than 90% of foreign workers admitted to Switzerland in 2012 (66 700 persons). German nationals dominated the foreign workers inflow in 2012, while during the first half of 2013 a substantial increase was observed in the share of foreign workers from Southern Europe (Portugal, Italy, Spain and Greece).

In 2012, there was a sharp increase in the number of applicants for asylum in Switzerland: 28 600 new applications were submitted, the highest level since 1999 and 27% more than in 2011, when 22 600 applications were filed. In 2013, the number declined to 21 500. The main countries of origin of asylum seekers in 2013 were Eritrea, Syria, Nigeria and Tunisia. The total number of recognised refugees in 2012 was 2 500, an approval rate of 12% – lower than the 21% approval rate in 2011. The recognition rate was above 15% in 2013. In additional recognised cases, provisory admission was granted to other asylum seekers.

The number of naturalisations in Switzerland in 2012 reached 33 500, continuing a decline that started in 2006, although the number increased to 34 300 in 2013. The main groups among those naturalised in 2013 were nationals of Italy, Germany, Kosovo and Serbia.

The number of residence permits granted to EU8 nationals rose sharply following the extension of free circulation to this group on 1 May 2011. Restrictions on the labour market access of Romanian and Bulgarian nationals will be applied until 2016. The safeguard clause applied to workers who are nationals of other EU countries expired in Spring 2014.

In the field of support to integration of foreigners, a consolidation of co-operation among the Confederation, cantons, towns and local communities continued during 2012 and 2013. Since 2014, the cantons provide support to the integration of foreigners in eight key areas that have been agreed at the Confederation level. Strategic objectives for integration efforts reflecting the local conditions have already been determined in the course of 2012. Mandatory features, based on the principle of "support and challenge" (*encourager et exiger*), will be reinforced and some of its elements incorporated into legislation.

Legislative efforts regarding naturalisation law are focused on ensuring coherence among legal regulations of the stay of foreigners and their integration obligations, including language requirements, and on the simplification and harmonisation of related procedures. The Federal Parliament adopted the new law on nationality in June 2014. The required residence period was lowered from 12 to 10 years.

A referendum carried out in June 2013 confirmed the amendments that introduced into the asylum law measures aimed against asylum seekers who undermine public order and security. The new ordinance introduced a trial stage that should allow for the evaluation of new modalities in the domain of asylum. One of the outcomes of the reform should be to accelerate asylum procedures.

On 9 February 2014, a popular initiative "Against Mass Immigration" was voted in a public referendum. The initiative calls for introducing annual caps on immigration. The Federal Council has taken steps to address the requirements of the initiative and presented a plan in June 2014. In July 2014, Switzerland presented the EU with a request to revise the Agreement on the free movement of persons. Until new legislation is in place, all current agreements remain.

For further information

www.bfm.admin.ch/bfm/en/home.html
www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/themen/01/07.html.

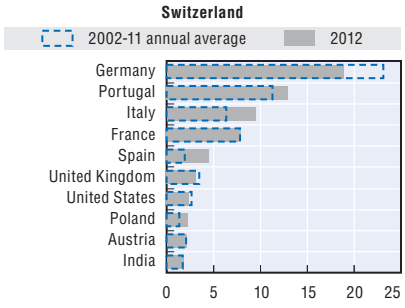
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWITZERLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	12.2	12.7	18.0	18.1	13.2	18.3	143.8
Outflows	7.8	6.7	8.1	8.3	6.7	7.6	65.9

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	2.3	2.2	1.9	1.7
Family (incl. accompanying family)	17.8	20.7	14.3	16.5
Humanitarian	5.8	4.2	4.6	3.4
Free movements	96.5	96.7	77.6	77.0
Others	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.5
Total	124.3	125.6	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	8.6	11.7	11.3	11.3
Trainees	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.1
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	101.6	92.6	90.1	93.2

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	2.5	1.4	2.5	3.3	2.2	2.0	*25 948*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	5.5	5.9	10.0	10.7	7.0	10.6	*85*
Natural increase	2.2	1.6	2.3	2.4	1.5	2.0	*19*
Net migration	3.3	4.3	7.7	8.3	5.4	8.6	*66*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	21.9	23.8	27.3	27.9	23.5	26.2	*2 218*
Foreign population	19.3	20.3	22.4	22.9	20.2	21.7	*1 825*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	2.1	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.6	2.5	*34 121*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	..	..	85.7	85.6	..	85.5
Foreign-born men	..	..	84.4	84.1	..	83.6
Native-born women	..	..	75.9	76.0	..	75.5
Foreign-born women	..	..	67.3	68.3	..	67.0
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	..	..	2.8	3.1	..	3.0
Foreign-born men	..	..	6.2	6.4	..	6.6
Native-born women	..	..	3.4	3.2	..	3.5
Foreign-born women	..	..	7.3	7.9	..	8.1

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	7.0	2.7	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.8	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	6.4	2.0	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.9	*52 586*
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	0.7	2.2	1.2	0.6	1.5	*4 513*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	2.6	4.3	4.0	4.1	3.9	3.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158352

Turkey

Turkey has recently been attracting increasing numbers of foreigners. During the past three years, the foreign population increased by approximately 90 000 people: while in 2010 there were 177 000 residence permit holders, in 2011 their number increased to 217 000 persons and by 2012 it reached 267 300 persons. Most residence permits were granted for the purposes of family reunification, a smaller share of permits was granted on the grounds of work or study. However, work-related permits have been increasing. In 2012 the Turkish authorities issued 32 250 work permits (an increase of 48% compared to the previous year), and 32 850 residence permits were granted to non-nationals as first or renewed permits for the purposes or work (nearly 30% more compared with 2011). In 2013, the number of work permits issued rose 42%, to 45 850.

Data on labour migration in Turkey are monitored and disseminated by the Ministry for Labour and Social Security. Between 2011 and 2012, the number of contract workers sent abroad by the Turkish Employment Agency (TEA) increased from 53 800 to 67 000 persons, before falling to 55 400 in 2013. Most Turkish contract workers were in the Middle East (the largest contingent in Iraq), followed by the Commonwealth of Independent States (primarily the Russian Federation).

Apprehensions of irregular migrants have been rising since 2010. The number of apprehended irregular migrants increased from 32 700 persons in 2010 to 42 800 persons in 2011, and further to 47 500 persons in 2012. Almost 60% of apprehended irregular migrants in 2012 (28 300 persons) were persons who overstayed their permitted period of residence. The top five countries of origin among these irregular migrants were the neighbouring countries: Georgia (4 300 persons), the Russian Federation (1 200 persons), Ukraine (850 persons), Romania (530 persons) and Moldova (340 persons).

The number of asylum applicants has increased, from 9 200 persons in 2010 to 16 000 persons in 2011 and to 16 700 persons in 2012. The significant increase in 2011 was mainly due to the increasing number of applicants from Iraq, whose number more than doubled between 2010 and 2011. The increase in the inflow of asylum seekers in 2012 was due to nationalities other than Iranians and Iraqis. According to UNHCR figures, Turkey has become one of the top ten receiving countries of asylum seekers in the world. Turkey has also become a transit country for most of the asylum seekers en route to Europe. In addition to individually arriving asylum seekers, Turkey also faced the mass movement of Syrians: more than 500 000 in the period between early 2011 and mid-2013.

Remittances represent a falling share of Turkish GDP. While in 2000-01 remittances constituted around 1.5% of GDP, by 2012 this fell to merely 0.1%. Most of the decline occurred between 2008 and 2010, when remittances halved to USD 830 million. The recovery – in nominal terms – in 2010 and 2011 (USD 1.05 billion and USD 975 million, respectively) was absorbed by the parallel growth of GDP.

International migration and asylum policies are influenced by the European Union membership-negotiation process. 2012 saw significant legislative developments in the field of migration management. The new framework Act on Foreigners and International Protection – under discussion – since 2010 was adopted by the Turkish Parliament in early 2013. According to the new Act, a General Directorate of Migration Management was established under the Ministry of Interior. Work permit requisites have been changed, and new permit categories will be established for investors. Negotiations on a Readmission Agreement between the European Union and Turkey on readmission of own nationals, third-country nationals and stateless persons are ongoing.

In the course of 2013 Turkey continued modernising its visa procedures by implementing on-line processing, developing biometric security measures, and modernising border crossing points. Turkey has been negotiating conclusion of a working arrangement with FRONTEX. The points of negotiation include the issues of integrated border management and the transfer of border security control from Turkish Land Forces to a civilian command. Contrary to the expectations of EC authorities, Turkey continued to liberalise its visa policies towards certain African and Asian countries. From April 2014, certain nationalities, previously eligible for visas upon arrival, must apply for an electronic visa prior to travel to Turkey.

For further information

www.iskur.gov.tr
www.turkstat.gov.tr
www.nvi.gov.tr
www.mfa.gov.tr
www.csgb.gov.tr.

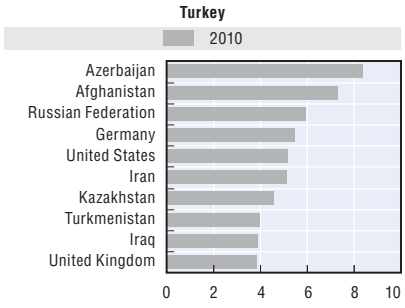
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

TURKEY

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
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	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	..	..	..	..
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	..	..	..	..
Seasonal workers	..	..	..	..
Intra-company transfers	..	..	..	..
Other temporary workers	..	..	..	..

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	*26 470*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	13.8	12.2	13.5	12.0	..	..	*90*
Natural increase	13.8	12.2	11.7	12.0	12.5	11.4	*91*
Net migration	0.0	0.0	1.8	0.0	..	..	*-2*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	2.0	..	..	..	..	..	..
Foreign population	0.4	..	..	..	..	..	..

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	..	..	..	69.2	..	62.4
Foreign-born men	..	..	..	64.0	..	53.5
Native-born women	..	..	..	28.7	..	22.7
Foreign-born women	..	..	..	32.7	..	22.7
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	..	..	..	7.8	..	10.8
Foreign-born men	..	..	..	11.0	..	11.8
Native-born women	..	..	..	9.5	..	11.3
Foreign-born women	..	..	..	12.6	..	13.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	6.8	8.4	8.8	2.1	7.2	3.7	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.3	7.1	7.4	0.8	5.9	2.4	*17 967*
Employment (level in thousands)	-2.1	2.2	6.6	2.9	0.9	3.3	*25 321*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	6.9	10.4	9.6	9.0	10.5	11.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158368

United Kingdom

The number of foreign nationals living in the United Kingdom in 2013 rose to 4.9 million, an increase of 3.2% on the year before. Foreign citizens accounted for 7.9% of the total population of the United Kingdom. Citizens of the ten new Eastern European member countries rose to 1.27 million and comprised 25.8% of all foreigners. Poles were the largest foreign group, reaching 679 000 in 2013, 13.7% of all foreign citizens. The April 2013 Labour Force Survey indicated 7.86 million foreign-born residents of the United Kingdom, comprising 12.6% of the total population of the United Kingdom.

In 2013, 212 000 more people entered than left the United Kingdom for at least a year, a 20% increase on 2012, but a reduction of one third since the peak in June 2005. Overall, the estimated number of people arriving to live in the United Kingdom for at least a year was 526 000, 28 000 more than in 2012. The outflow of 314 000 was 7 000 fewer than the year before. A net outflow of 57 000 British citizens was more than compensated for by a net inflow of 269 000 non-British. The year-on-year increase in net migration was driven by the sharp rise in flows from the EU.

Under Tier 1 ("high value workers"), 99 900 work visas and extensions of stay were granted in 2012, including dependants, although this fell by 41% in 2013 as Tier 1 was largely phased out. The majority were granted extensions of stay to remain in the United Kingdom. The largest decline was in the post-study visa category. In 2012, the number of Tier 2 visas and extensions of stay granted (main applicants) rose by 22% to 68 700, the highest total since the points-based system (PBS) was introduced. Data for 2013 show a further annual 21% rise in Tier 2. Around three-quarters of Tier 2 visas issued outside the United Kingdom in 2012 and the first half of 2013 were for intra-company transfers, which are not subject to the visa cap. Most of those issued inside the United Kingdom were for extensions for general migrants.

In 2012, there were 199 000 admissions at the border of the United Kingdom for study, accompanied by 12 000 dependants. Students entering under Tier 4 numbered 179 000. In addition, there were 299 000 student visitors coming for periods of under a year. Student visa numbers granted (including dependants) increased by 4% in 2013 to 218 800.

The number of family route visas granted has been falling in recent years, to 40 900 in 2012 and 33 700 in 2013.

The number of people granted permission to stay permanently fell 22.2% from 2011 to 129 700 (a five-year low) in 2012, before rising 18% in 2013, to 152 900. The 2013 increase was driven by increases in family-related and asylum-related grants. Provisional data for 2012 suggest that the total number of spouses and dependants was 83 800, a 17.4% reduction on 2011 and the lowest figure since 2002.

There were 194 200 grants of citizenship in 2012, a 9% increase on 2011. This rose by a further 7% to 208 100 in 2013.

Applications for asylum rose 10% in 2012 to 21 800, although the annual number of applications remains low relative to the 2002 peak. Of decisions made in 2012, a third were granted asylum, humanitarian protection, discretionary leave or another type of grant at either initial decision or appeal. Asylum applications rose by a further 8% in 2013, to 23 500.

The April 2013 LFS indicates 2.66 million foreign nationals working in the United Kingdom, comprising 9% of the total workforce, a record figure. More than a third were highly skilled, and almost four in ten worked in London. The unemployment rate for foreigners stood at 9.2%, compared with 7.6% for UK nationals.

Government policy is still to reduce net immigration to "the tens of thousands" by 2015, although progress in 2013 stalled. The major legislative development in 2013 was a new Immigration Bill. It is designed to make it easier to identify and deport illegal immigrants and make it more difficult for them to live in the United Kingdom. Also in 2013, more stringent rules relating to family migration were introduced; all applicants for settlement are now required to demonstrate knowledge of the language and life in the United Kingdom by passing the "Life in the UK" test and by presenting a speaking and listening qualification at intermediate level or above.

For further information

www.gov.uk.

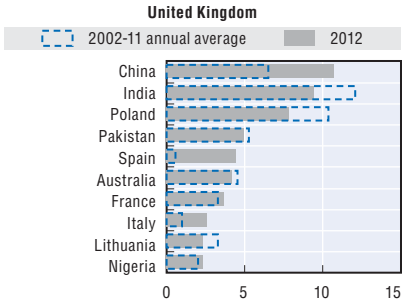
Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

UNITED KINGDOM

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	4.4	6.8	7.2	6.0	6.4	7.4	383.0
Outflows	2.3	2.6	3.0	2.6	2.5	3.2	165.0

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	114.0	111.1	35.3	38.8
Family (incl. accompanying family)	82.6	71.5	25.6	25.0
Humanitarian	13.0	11.4	4.0	4.0
Free movements	72.7	73.1	22.5	25.5
Others	40.3	18.9	12.5	6.6
Total	322.6	286.1	100.0	100.0

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	124.0	226.0	175.0	196.2
Trainees	..	..	..	..
Working holiday makers	56.6	20.7	19.6	28.3
Seasonal workers	15.7	16.3	..	18.4
Intra-company transfers	..	21.0	22.8	17.3
Other temporary workers	202.6	82.3	..	112.9

Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.5	*27 978*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	3.6	6.2	7.8	7.6	4.7	6.8	*474*
Natural increase	1.2	2.3	3.9	4.1	1.6	3.4	*256*
Net migration	2.4	3.8	3.9	3.5	3.1	3.4	*219*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	7.9	9.4	11.7	11.9	9.0	11.2	*7 588*
Foreign population	4.0	5.1	7.6	7.5	4.9	7.1	*4 788*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	3.7	5.7	3.9	4.1	4.9	4.0	*194 209*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	78.0	77.6	73.9	74.4	77.6	75.2
Foreign-born men	70.7	72.4	75.2	77.0	73.2	76.4
Native-born women	65.5	66.8	65.4	66.5	66.5	66.0
Foreign-born women	52.9	55.9	58.7	56.7	55.4	57.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	5.9	4.8	8.8	8.6	5.2	7.7
Foreign-born men	9.7	7.5	9.3	8.1	7.8	7.9
Native-born women	4.7	3.8	7.1	7.0	4.1	5.9
Foreign-born women	7.9	7.2	9.7	10.3	7.2	8.4

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	5.9	3.2	1.1	0.3	3.1	0.1	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.5	2.6	0.4	-1.2	2.6	-0.6	*34 773*
Employment (level in thousands)	1.2	1.0	0.5	1.2	0.9	0.1	*29 519*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	5.5	4.9	8.1	7.9	5.1	6.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158375

United States

United States total immigrant admissions for lawful permanent residents (LPRs) in Fiscal Year (FY) 2012 decreased by 2.9% from the previous year to 1 031 000. (All figures are for US fiscal years, October through September.) Of these, the number of LPRs who were new arrivals in 2012, 484 100, accounted for 46.9%. This is the highest share since 2003, when new arrivals accounted for 50.8% of the total. The foreign-born population residing in the United States in 2012 was 40.8 million, 13% of the total population. The main countries of birth were Mexico (28%), China (6%), India (5%) and the Philippines (5%). Together, these four countries have accounted for approximately one-third of all immigrant admissions every year over the past decade. The share of Asians among total immigrant admissions has increased over the past decade, from 34% to 42%, while the share of North American immigrant admissions fell from 36% to 32%.

In 2012, family-sponsored immigration accounted for 680 800 immigrants, or about 66% of all legal immigration to the United States, while 144 000 immigrants (14%) were employment-based, a 3.3% increase on the previous year. While employment-based LPR visas are capped at 140 000 annually, admissions may be higher since unused numbers from the previous year can be recovered, and admission may not correspond to the fiscal year of issuance.

The diversity visa programme allocates 50 000 immigrant visas annually by lottery, excluding countries with a large share of immigration to the United States. It accounted for 3.9% of total LPR inflow in 2012. The per-country limit of diversity visas in 2012 was 3 500.

The refugee ceiling was set at 76 000 for 2012. In 2012, 58 200 refugees were physically admitted during the fiscal year and 105 500 refugees, admitted at least one year previously, changed their status to that of permanent immigrant. The leading countries of origin for refugee admissions in 2012 were Bhutan, Burma, and Iraq, with the number of Iraqi refugees which peaked at 18 800 in 2009, dropping to 9 400 in 2011, then increasing to 12 200 in 2012. In 2012, 29 500 individuals were granted asylum status, and 45 000 asylees who had been in that status for more than one year were granted lawful permanent residence.

In 2012, the United States issued approximately 8.9 million non-immigrant (i.e. temporary) visas (excluding Border Crossing Cards), 18.9% more than the previous fiscal year. Mexican nationals were the main recipients (1.69 million), followed China (1.3 million), Brazil (1 million), India (582 100), and Colombia (337 300). Chinese and Brazilians received almost three times as many temporary visas as in 2007. In 2012, 486 900 academic student visas were granted, 9% more than in 2011. The number of summer work-travel participants has been falling in recent years, to 79 800 in 2012, while the number of temporary agricultural workers rose by about 10 000 from the previous two years, to 65 300.

The number of naturalisations, which peaked at 1 046 500 in 2008, dropped to 743 700 in 2009, and dropped further to below 700 000 during 2010 and 2011, but climbed to 757 400 in 2012. Mexico was the leading nationality (13.5% of all naturalisations).

In January 2011, there were approximately 11.5 million unauthorised residents in the foreign-born population who had entered the United States between 1980 and 2010. Of these, only 14% were estimated to have arrived since 2005, suggesting decreasing inflows. Mexicans represent about 59% of the estimated 2011 unauthorised population.

In the policy domain, a comprehensive immigration reform bill (S. 744) passed the Senate in 2013, but did not advance to become law. The bill contained provisions to increase and improve border security and domestic immigration enforcement, a legalisation programme for qualifying illegal immigrants, a new temporary worker programme, and reforms to family- and employment-based immigration. Several areas addressed by the bill were also addressed in separate bills introduced in the House of Representatives, although none of those bills have yet been voted on by the full House.

In November 2013, the US Department of Homeland Security announced a policy to allow unlawfully present spouses, children, and parents of military personnel and veterans to lawfully remain in the United States .This parole policy complements the "Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals" (DACA) policy, announced by DHS in June 2012, whereby people who entered the United States illegally as children and meet several key guidelines may request consideration of "deferred action" – discretionary determination to defer removal action – for a renewable two-year period. DACA allows work authorisation.

Following a 2013 US Supreme Court decision, US Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) treats same-sex marriages as legally valid for immigration purposes, if contracted in a jurisdiction where legal.

For further information

www.dhs.gov/immigration-statistics
www.foreignlaborcert.doleta.gov/
www.dol.gov/compliance/laws/comp-ina.htm.

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

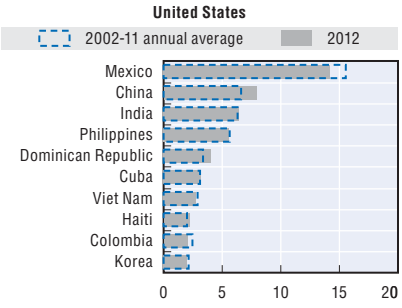
UNITED STATES

Migration flows (foreigners) *National definition*	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Inflows	3.0	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.5	1 031.6
Outflows	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Migration inflows (foreigners) by type *Permit based statistics (standardised)*	Thousands 2011	Thousands 2012	% distribution 2011	% distribution 2012
Work	65.3	65.9	6.1	6.4
Family (incl. accompanying family)	762.2	758.9	71.8	73.6
Humanitarian	168.5	150.6	15.9	14.6
Free movements	..	..	..	..
Others	65.5	55.6	6.2	5.4
Total	1 061.4	1 031.0	100.0	100.0

Temporary migration	2005	2011	2012	Average 2007-11
Thousands				
International students	237.9	447.4	486.9	360.6
Trainees	1.8	2.1	2.9	2.5
Working holiday makers	88.6	97.6	79.8	126.5
Seasonal workers	31.9	55.4	65.3	57.3
Intra-company transfers	65.5	70.7	62.4	75.8
Other temporary workers	266.1	235.0	246.9	245.7

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Inflows of asylum seekers	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	*66 101*

Components of population growth	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Per 1 000 inhabitants							
Total	10.5	9.2	7.2	..	9.2	8.3	..
Natural increase	5.7	5.7	5.0	..	5.8	5.6	*1 441*
Net migration	4.6	3.2	2.2	..	3.2	2.4	*885*

Stocks of immigrants	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level ('000) 2012
Percentage of the total population							
Foreign-born population	10.7	12.1	13.0	13.0	11.9	12.7	*40 738*
Foreign population	6.3	7.2	6.8	6.8	7.2	7.0	*21 359*

Naturalisations	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Percentage of the foreign population	4.1	2.9	3.2	3.6	2.7	3.5	*757 434*

Labour market outcomes	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11
Employment/population ratio						
Native-born men	78.5	74.9	68.4	69.3	75.0	70.8
Foreign-born men	82.4	82.7	78.1	78.5	81.6	79.7
Native-born women	68.1	65.8	61.9	62.0	65.9	63.7
Foreign-born women	58.5	57.7	56.7	56.9	57.5	57.9
Unemployment rate						
Native-born men	4.1	5.5	9.8	8.6	5.8	8.6
Foreign-born men	3.8	4.3	8.9	7.5	5.0	7.7
Native-born women	4.2	5.2	8.5	7.9	5.4	7.1
Foreign-born women	5.0	5.6	9.5	9.0	6.1	7.8

Macroeconomic indicators	2000	2005	2011	2012	Average 2002-06	Average 2007-11	Level 2012
Annual growth in %							
Real GDP	7.9	3.4	1.8	2.8	2.9	0.6	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	6.7	2.4	1.1	2.0	1.9	-0.3	*51 689*
Employment (level in thousands)	2.5	1.8	0.6	1.8	1.1	-0.6	*142 466*
Percentage of the labour force							
Unemployment	4.0	5.1	8.9	8.1	5.4	7.6	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158381

SOURCES AND NOTES OF THE COUNTRY TABLES OF CHAPTER 4

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, A.2 and B.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: 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

Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania: Eurostat. Other OECD countries and the Russian Federation: Population and Vital Statistics, OECD, 2011.

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 (see Metadata related to Tables A.4 and B.4).

Foreign population

National sources: Exact sources and notes for the OECD countries are given in the Statistical annex (Metadata related to Tables A.5. and B.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.6. and B.6). Bulgaria and Lithuania: Ministry of the Interior.

Labour market outcomes

European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, Mexico, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys (annual averages); Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); The United States: Current Population Survey.

Macroeconomic and labour market indicators

GDP growth and GDP per capita: Growth

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at the price levels and PPPs of 2005 (OECD).

GDP and GDP per capita: Level

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at current price levels and PPPs (OECD).

Employment and unemployment

OECD Employment Outlook 2013, OECD, 2013.

Statistical annex

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Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex have been provided by national correspondents of the continuous reporting system on migration 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. The continuous reporting system on migration 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. 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

- The tables provide annual series covering the period 2002-12 (or 2003-13).
- 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.

- 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.
- There is no table by nationality for the series on outflows of the foreign population (Series A.2). These statistics, as well as data by gender are available online (*www.oecd.org/migration/imo*).
- The rounding of data cells may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component cells.
- The symbol ".." used in the tables means that the data are not available.
- 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.
- Note on Cyprus 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 recognises 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".
- Note on Cyprus by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union: 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 describes 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 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 (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; and 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. **Inflows of foreign population into OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Australia											
Permanent	120.2	124.6	147.7	163.1	177.5	191.1	205.3	224.2	208.2	210.7	242.4
Temporary	240.5	244.7	261.6	289.4	321.6	368.5	420.0	474.8	467.0	504.7	..
Austria	86.1	93.3	104.2	98.0	82.9	91.5	94.4	91.7	96.9	109.9	125.6
Belgium	70.2	68.8	72.4	77.4	83.4	93.4	106.0	102.7	113.6	117.9	110.0
Canada											
Permanent	229.0	221.3	235.8	262.2	251.6	236.8	247.2	252.2	280.7	248.8	257.9
Temporary	246.6	227.2	227.1	228.5	248.6	278.0	311.5	291.5	282.0	293.2	315.9
Chile	29.9	29.8	32.1	38.1	48.5	79.4	68.4	57.1	63.9	76.3	100.1
Czech Republic	43.6	57.4	50.8	58.6	66.1	102.5	77.8	40.0	30.5	22.6	30.3
Denmark	21.5	18.4	18.7	20.1	24.0	31.4	37.0	32.0	33.4	34.6	35.5
Estonia	..	..	0.8	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.9	2.2	1.2	1.7	1.1
Finland	10.0	9.4	11.5	12.7	13.9	17.5	19.9	18.1	18.2	20.4	23.3
France	124.2	136.4	141.6	135.9	159.4	145.9	153.3	159.6	157.8	154.8	163.4
Germany	658.3	601.8	602.2	579.3	558.5	574.8	573.8	606.3	683.5	841.7	965.9
Greece	..	..	..	65.3	63.2	46.3	42.9	46.5	33.4	23.2	17.7
Hungary	18.0	19.4	22.2	25.6	23.6	22.6	35.5	25.6	23.9	22.5	20.3
Iceland	1.9	1.4	2.5	4.7	7.1	9.3	7.5	3.4	3.0	2.8	2.8
Ireland	39.9	42.4	41.8	66.1	88.9	120.4	89.7	50.7	23.9	33.7	32.1
Israel	33.6	23.3	20.9	21.2	19.3	18.1	13.7	14.6	16.6	16.9	16.6
Italy	161.9	424.9	394.8	282.8	254.6	515.2	496.5	406.7	424.5	354.3	321.3
Japan	343.8	373.9	372.0	372.3	325.6	336.6	344.5	297.1	287.1	266.9	303.9
Korea	158.9	168.9	178.5	253.7	303.0	300.4	302.2	232.8	293.1	307.2	300.2
Luxembourg	11.0	12.6	12.2	13.8	13.7	15.8	16.8	14.6	15.8	19.1	19.4
Mexico	5.8	6.9	8.5	9.2	6.9	7.2	15.9	23.9	26.2	22.0	19.5
Netherlands	86.6	73.6	65.1	63.4	67.7	80.3	103.4	104.4	110.2	118.5	115.7
New Zealand	48.8	43.4	36.2	54.1	49.8	46.9	46.9	43.6	44.3	40.8	39.1
Norway	30.8	26.8	27.9	31.4	37.4	53.5	58.8	56.7	65.1	70.8	70.0
Poland	30.2	30.3	36.9	38.5	34.2	40.6	41.8	41.3	41.1	41.3	47.1
Portugal	72.0	31.8	34.1	28.1	22.5	32.6	72.8	61.4	50.7	45.4	38.5
Russian Federation	184.6	129.1	119.2	177.2	186.4	287.0	281.6	279.9	191.7	356.5	417.7
Slovak Republic	4.8	4.6	7.9	7.7	11.3	14.8	16.5	14.4	12.7	8.2	2.9
Slovenia	..	..	..	..	..	30.5	43.8	24.1	11.2	18.0	17.3
Spain	443.1	429.5	645.8	682.7	803.0	920.5	692.2	469.3	431.3	416.3	336.1
Sweden	47.3	47.1	46.7	50.6	78.9	82.6	82.0	82.4	79.0	75.9	82.6
Switzerland	101.9	94.0	96.3	94.4	102.7	139.7	157.3	132.4	134.2	142.5	143.8
Turkey	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29.9	..	..
United Kingdom	418.0	411.0	500.0	469.0	513.0	500.0	505.0	471.0	498.0	488.0	418.0
United States											
Permanent	1 059.4	703.5	957.9	1 122.4	1 266.3	1 052.4	1 107.1	1 130.8	1 042.6	1 062.0	1 031.6
Temporary	1 282.6	1 233.4	1 299.3	1 323.5	1 457.9	1 606.9	1 617.6	1 419.2	1 517.9	1 616.8	1 675.9

Notes: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Table A.2.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158390*

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA (PERMANENT)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
New Zealand	21.6	16.4	18.7	22.4	23.8	28.3	34.5	33.0	24.4	34.6	44.3	49
India	7.6	8.2	11.3	12.8	15.2	19.8	22.7	25.3	23.5	21.9	27.9	46
United Kingdom	14.6	18.6	25.7	26.2	30.9	30.7	31.7	33.3	26.7	21.5	27.0	47
China	9.1	9.4	12.5	15.2	17.3	21.1	20.7	22.9	25.0	29.0	25.6	56
Philippines	3.4	3.6	4.4	4.8	5.4	6.1	7.1	8.9	10.3	10.7	12.8	55
South Africa	7.2	5.9	7.1	5.7	4.8	5.4	6.9	11.3	11.1	8.1	8.0	50
Sri Lanka	2.4	2.3	2.1	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8	5.3	5.8	4.9	6.1	47
Malaysia	2.6	3.9	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.9	5.0	5.4	53
Korea	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	5.0	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.0	55
Ireland	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.7	3.0	3.4	5.0	41
Viet Nam	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.0	3.3	3.9	4.8	4.8	64
Iran	0.6	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.2	2.2	2.1	3.3	4.6	43
Pakistan	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.1	4.3	45
Afghanistan	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.5	3.5	2.6	2.0	2.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	25
United States	2.6	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.3	54
Other countries	41.2	44.6	47.4	51.5	54.5	53.5	53.6	58.2	54.8	50.9	54.6	
Total	**120.2**	**124.6**	**147.7**	**163.1**	**177.5**	**191.1**	**205.3**	**224.2**	**208.2**	**210.7**	**242.4**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Germany	9.2	10.9	13.2	14.7	15.9	18.0	19.2	17.6	18.0	17.4	17.8	46
Romania	4.8	5.7	5.5	5.1	4.5	9.3	9.2	9.3	11.3	12.9	13.4	52
Hungary	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.6	4.5	5.2	5.8	6.4	9.3	13.1	49
Poland	3.0	3.4	7.0	6.8	5.7	5.3	4.4	3.8	4.0	6.4	7.1	41
Serbia	9.9	10.5	11.6	11.7	7.4	6.4	6.1	4.6	7.2	6.1	6.8	44
Slovak Republic	2.5	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.3	6.0	55
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4.9	5.4	5.4	4.6	3.2	3.0	2.9	2.4	2.5	3.9	4.1	42
Turkey	11.3	10.4	8.2	7.7	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.7	4.3	3.8	4.1	41
Afghanistan	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.4	1.3	2.9	3.8	20
Bulgaria	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	2.2	2.5	2.6	3.1	3.2	3.6	50
Russian Federation	1.8	4.0	6.8	4.0	2.5	2.2	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.6	3.4	56
Italy	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.3	3.1	40
Iran	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.3	2.4	46
Croatia	3.8	3.4	3.3	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	45
Slovenia	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.9	36
Other countries	36.9	39.2	42.7	40.2	30.7	24.7	24.9	26.5	26.1	29.2	33.2	
Total	**86.1**	**93.3**	**104.2**	**98.0**	**82.9**	**91.5**	**94.4**	**91.7**	**96.9**	**109.9**	**125.6**	**45**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
France	8.1	8.2	9.5	10.4	11.6	12.3	14.1	12.3	13.5	13.8	13.3	51
Romania	1.0	1.0	1.4	2.3	3.1	5.5	6.8	6.1	8.0	10.9	11.2	41
Netherlands	8.4	8.5	8.8	10.1	11.5	11.4	11.7	8.8	9.3	9.5	9.1	48
Poland	2.4	2.1	3.5	4.8	6.7	9.4	9.0	9.9	8.9	9.3	8.6	46
Spain	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.8	3.6	4.6	5.3	6.0	50
Morocco	8.5	8.4	8.0	7.1	7.5	7.8	8.2	9.1	9.8	8.5	5.7	51
Italy	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.7	3.6	4.3	4.7	5.2	44
Bulgaria	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	2.6	3.9	3.3	4.2	4.3	4.5	45
Portugal	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	3.2	2.9	2.7	3.1	4.2	45
Germany	3.0	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.1	2.9	53
United States	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.5	54
India	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.2	41
Turkey	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.1	48
United Kingdom	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.0	45
Greece	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.5	48
Other countries	22.3	20.9	21.4	22.3	22.9	24.3	27.9	29.7	33.7	34.5	28.9	
Total	**70.2**	**68.8**	**72.4**	**77.4**	**83.4**	**93.4**	**106.0**	**102.7**	**113.6**	**117.9**	**110.0**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CANADA (PERMANENT)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	33.3	36.3	36.4	42.3	33.1	27.0	29.3	29.0	30.2	28.7	33.0	53
Philippines	11.0	12.0	13.3	17.5	17.7	19.1	23.7	27.3	36.6	35.0	32.7	54
India	28.8	24.6	25.6	33.1	30.8	26.1	24.5	26.1	30.3	25.0	28.9	49
Pakistan	14.2	12.4	12.8	13.6	12.3	9.5	8.1	6.2	5.0	6.1	9.9	51
United States	5.3	6.0	7.5	9.3	10.9	10.5	11.2	9.7	9.2	8.8	9.4	49
France	4.0	4.2	5.1	5.5	5.0	5.6	6.4	7.4	6.9	5.9	8.1	45
Iran	7.9	5.7	6.1	5.5	7.1	6.7	6.0	6.1	6.8	6.8	6.5	50
United Kingdom	4.7	5.2	6.1	5.9	6.5	8.1	9.2	9.6	9.5	6.6	6.4	43
Haiti	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.5	2.1	4.6	6.2	5.6	55
Korea	7.3	7.1	5.3	5.8	6.2	5.9	7.2	5.9	5.5	4.6	5.3	53
Egypt	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.1	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.5	4.3	3.4	4.8	48
United Arab Emirates	4.4	3.3	4.4	4.1	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.6	6.8	5.2	4.3	47
Mexico	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.1	3.9	3.6	4.0	51
Colombia	3.2	4.3	4.4	6.0	5.8	4.8	5.0	4.2	4.8	4.3	3.7	54
Morocco	4.1	3.2	3.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	3.9	5.2	5.9	4.2	3.6	49
Other countries	95.0	91.6	99.5	104.3	102.9	99.6	100.2	103.2	110.4	94.4	91.5	
Total	**229.0**	**221.3**	**235.8**	**262.2**	**251.6**	**236.8**	**247.2**	**252.2**	**280.7**	**248.8**	**257.9**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CHILE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Peru	12.8	12.9	15.6	20.0	28.6	53.2	39.0	27.6	27.7	30.7	38.6	51
Colombia	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.7	2.4	3.3	4.4	5.3	7.2	12.5	17.8	55
Bolivia	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.9	6.0	4.5	3.6	5.8	7.2	13.6	51
Argentina	4.9	4.9	4.3	4.1	3.5	3.0	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.8	4.9	39
Dominican Republic	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.6	1.0	1.8	4.4	70
Ecuador	2.6	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.2	3.1	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.6	50
United States	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.2	2.9	3.0	3.5	39
Spain	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.5	35
China	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.9	34
Haiti	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.9	1.8	31
Brazil	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.7	52
Venezuela	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	52
Mexico	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.0	44
Paraguay	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	58
France	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	45
Other countries	3.2	3.1	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.0	5.7	5.3	6.0	6.0	1.8	
Total	**29.9**	**29.8**	**32.1**	**38.1**	**48.5**	**79.4**	**68.4**	**57.1**	**63.9**	**76.3**	**100.1**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	10.7	15.5	16.3	23.9	30.2	39.6	18.7	8.1	3.5	2.0	5.9	43
Slovak Republic	13.0	23.7	15.0	10.1	6.8	13.9	7.6	5.6	5.1	4.4	4.8	47
Russian Federation	2.4	1.8	2.0	3.3	4.7	6.7	5.8	4.1	3.7	2.1	3.2	59
Viet Nam	5.7	3.6	4.5	4.9	6.4	12.3	13.4	2.3	1.4	0.7	1.6	47
Germany	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.4	0.8	1.9	4.3	2.0	2.0	1.3	1.3	14
United States	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.8	1.7	2.2	2.5	1.7	1.3	1.1	49
Bulgaria	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	36
Romania	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7	28
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	57
Poland	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.9	2.3	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	41
Japan	..	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	50
Korea	..	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	48
China	..	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4	1.0	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.4	54
Moldova	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.7	2.4	3.4	3.3	1.3	0.4	0.2	0.4	49
Belarus	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	58
Other countries	5.9	5.0	5.4	6.8	7.6	14.4	16.0	9.7	9.0	7.4	7.8	
Total	**43.6**	**57.4**	**50.8**	**58.6**	**66.1**	**102.5**	**77.8**	**40.0**	**30.5**	**22.6**	**30.3**	**44**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Poland	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3	2.5	4.3	6.5	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.3	40
Romania	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.8	1.4	1.5	2.0	2.7	3.2	39
Germany	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.9	3.0	3.0	2.2	1.9	1.9	1.8	53
Lithuania	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.5	46
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.3	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.4	94
Norway	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	63
Bulgaria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	38
Ukraine	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	39
Sweden	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	54
United Kingdom	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	37
India	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.9	41
United States	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.9	50
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	48
China	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	58
Latvia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	49
Other countries	14.1	10.4	9.7	9.5	10.3	12.3	13.1	12.6	13.5	13.4	14.2	
Total	**21.5**	**18.4**	**18.7**	**20.1**	**24.0**	**31.4**	**37.0**	**32.0**	**33.4**	**34.6**	**35.5**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ESTONIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Russian Federation	..	..	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.5	54
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	0.8	0.8	0.6	
Total	**..**	**..**	**0.8**	**1.0**	**1.5**	**2.0**	**1.9**	**2.2**	**1.2**	**1.7**	**1.1**	**45**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Estonia	1.2	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.5	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.9	4.7	6.0	50
Russian Federation	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.5	3.0	2.3	2.3	2.8	3.1	58
China	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7	57
Sweden	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	41
Afghanistan	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	49
Thailand	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	85
Iraq	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.6	35
India	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	42
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	38
Somalia	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.4	53
Turkey	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	38
Nepal	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	26
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	22
Viet Nam	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	54
Iran	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	41
Other countries	3.3	3.5	4.3	4.7	5.0	6.6	7.4	6.0	5.7	6.6	7.7	
Total	**10.0**	**9.4**	**11.5**	**12.7**	**13.9**	**17.5**	**19.9**	**18.1**	**18.2**	**20.4**	**23.3**	**48**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Algeria	23.4	28.5	27.9	24.8	31.1	26.8	25.7	24.5	22.8	22.6	25.1	49
Morocco	21.8	22.6	22.2	20.0	23.0	22.1	22.6	21.6	20.7	19.4	20.2	54
Tunisia	7.8	9.4	8.9	8.0	9.3	8.8	9.1	10.1	11.2	10.8	12.0	38
China	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	6.0	5.0	5.7	6.1	6.6	6.4	7.2	56
Turkey	8.5	8.6	9.1	8.9	9.3	7.9	7.9	7.3	6.2	5.9	6.1	45
Senegal	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5	3.3	3.3	3.6	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.7	41
Mali	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.5	3.3	3.0	5.0	6.4	5.6	5.7	4.4	25
Cameroon	2.9	3.4	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.1	4.2	3.9	3.9	4.1	57
Russian Federation	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.3	3.7	3.8	4.1	4.1	68
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.4	4.0	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	51
Côte d'Ivoire	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.6	55
United States	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	56
Haiti	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.2	2.5	2.4	2.8	5.0	3.6	3.3	56
Comoros	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	2.8	2.8	3.3	3.6	3.1	2.8	3.3	52
Serbia	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.7	3.0	49
Other countries	40.0	40.8	43.9	44.4	47.3	44.5	48.0	51.5	51.7	51.6	54.9	
Total	**124.2**	**136.4**	**141.6**	**135.9**	**159.4**	**145.9**	**153.3**	**159.6**	**157.8**	**154.8**	**163.4**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	81.6	88.2	125.0	147.7	151.7	140.0	119.9	112.0	115.6	164.7	177.8	35
Romania	24.0	23.8	23.5	23.3	23.4	42.9	48.2	57.3	75.5	97.5	120.5	37
Bulgaria	13.2	13.4	11.6	9.1	7.5	20.5	24.1	29.2	39.8	52.4	60.2	35
Hungary	16.5	14.3	17.4	18.6	18.6	22.2	25.2	25.3	29.3	41.1	54.5	30
Italy	25.0	21.6	19.6	18.3	17.7	18.2	20.1	22.2	23.9	28.1	36.9	38
Greece	15.0	12.1	10.2	9.0	8.2	8.0	8.3	8.6	12.3	23.0	32.7	42
Turkey	58.1	49.8	42.6	36.0	29.6	26.7	26.7	27.2	27.6	28.6	26.2	38
Serbia	26.4	22.8	21.7	17.5	10.9	2.2	7.0	9.1	19.1	18.4	24.1	42
Spain	8.5	7.7	7.6	7.1	8.2	8.6	7.8	9.0	10.7	16.2	23.3	45
China	18.5	16.1	13.1	12.0	12.9	13.6	14.3	15.4	16.2	18.3	19.7	51
United States	15.5	14.7	15.3	15.2	16.3	17.5	17.5	17.7	18.3	20.1	19.6	46
Russian Federation	36.5	31.8	28.5	23.1	16.4	15.0	15.1	15.7	16.1	17.5	18.8	63
India	9.4	9.2	9.1	8.4	8.9	9.4	11.4	12.0	13.2	15.4	18.1	31
France	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.6	13.8	13.0	12.9	13.3	13.8	14.5	49
Slovak Republic	11.6	10.6	11.6	11.8	11.3	9.4	8.7	8.5	8.6	12.2	13.9	38
Other countries	286.0	253.5	232.8	209.9	203.1	207.0	206.7	224.4	244.2	274.3	305.3	
Total	**658.3**	**601.8**	**602.2**	**579.3**	**558.5**	**574.8**	**573.8**	**606.3**	**683.5**	**841.7**	**965.9**	**39**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Albania	..	..	..	39.1	40.2	34.3	32.1	34.6	23.7	14.3	..	..
Russian Federation	..	..	..	2.7	1.5	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.4	..	..
Egypt	..	..	..	3.1	3.9	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.1	0.9	..	..
Ukraine	..	..	..	3.1	1.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	..	..
India	..	..	..	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	..	..
Georgia	..	..	..	3.0	2.2	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.7	..	..
Philippines	..	..	..	1.3	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.1	0.5	0.3	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	12.3	10.6	5.6	5.4	5.7	4.5	3.9	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**65.3**	**63.2**	**46.3**	**42.9**	**46.5**	**33.4**	**23.2**	**17.7**	**..**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	10.3	9.6	12.1	8.9	7.9	6.7	10.0	7.1	6.6	5.8	4.2	42
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.1	3.9	0.7	0.7	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.1	42
China	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.4	1.9	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.9	1.1	47
United States	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	45
Slovak Republic	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.7	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	57
Ukraine	2.1	2.6	3.6	2.1	3.7	2.9	4.1	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.9	45
Serbia	0.4	0.7	1.6	1.1	2.4	4.4	4.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.7	28
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	40
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	54
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	32
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	29
Iran	..	..	..	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	40
Japan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	43
Korea	..	..	..	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	50
United Kingdom	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	43
Other countries	2.7	3.2	2.7	4.4	3.6	2.9	6.4	5.6	5.6	5.7	6.1	
Total	**18.0**	**19.4**	**22.2**	**25.6**	**23.6**	**22.6**	**35.5**	**25.6**	**23.9**	**22.5**	**20.3**	**43**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ICELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	0.3	0.1	0.2	1.5	3.3	5.6	3.9	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.9	45
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	39
Lithuania	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	48
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	74
United Kingdom	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	43
Sweden	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	55
Denmark	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	42
Spain	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	41
Latvia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	50
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	41
Canada	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	57
Philippines	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	75
China	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	61
Norway	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	44
France	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	43
Other countries	0.7	0.6	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	
Total	**1.9**	**1.4**	**2.5**	**4.7**	**7.1**	**9.3**	**7.5**	**3.4**	**3.0**	**2.8**	**2.8**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ISRAEL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Former USSR	18.5	12.4	10.1	9.4	7.5	6.5	5.6	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.2	55
Ethiopia	2.7	3.0	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	1.6	0.2	1.7	2.7	2.4	50
United States	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3	52
France	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	53
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	52
Canada	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	45
Argentina	5.9	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	56
Brazil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	53
Belgium	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	48
Italy	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	45
South Africa	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	54
Hungary	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	58
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	52
Australia	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	55
Switzerland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	46
Other countries	1.8	1.8	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	
Total	**33.6**	**23.3**	**20.9**	**21.2**	**19.3**	**18.1**	**13.7**	**14.6**	**16.6**	**16.9**	**16.6**	**53**

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/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	16.5	78.4	66.1	45.3	39.7	271.4	174.6	105.6	92.1	90.1	81.7	61
China	10.0	14.2	19.3	14.7	13.6	9.7	12.8	16.8	22.9	20.1	20.5	51
Morocco	15.3	40.8	34.8	26.1	21.8	23.5	37.3	33.1	30.0	23.9	19.6	46
Albania	24.5	49.3	38.8	28.4	23.1	23.3	35.7	27.5	22.6	16.6	14.1	56
Ukraine	3.6	44.2	35.0	15.7	14.8	15.5	24.0	22.6	30.4	17.9	11.5	74
India	4.8	8.5	9.0	7.2	6.3	7.1	12.5	12.8	15.2	13.3	11.2	34
Bangladesh	3.7	6.7	8.4	5.8	5.6	5.2	9.3	8.9	9.7	10.3	10.1	22
Philippines	3.9	6.9	8.1	5.5	4.4	4.0	7.8	10.0	10.7	10.4	9.9	56
Moldova	2.2	16.3	11.9	9.3	7.8	13.0	22.0	16.8	26.6	15.0	8.8	63
Pakistan	3.4	5.3	7.5	6.5	4.1	3.5	5.7	7.9	10.8	7.5	8.8	33
Egypt	2.9	6.4	11.6	5.6	5.0	3.7	5.3	8.0	9.3	9.6	8.6	23
Sri Lanka	3.0	4.2	5.2	3.9	3.7	3.8	6.6	6.3	7.1	6.8	7.1	44
Nigeria	1.9	4.2	3.8	2.7	2.6	2.5	3.7	4.0	4.8	4.5	6.7	40
Brazil	2.8	5.5	5.2	8.8	10.2	11.9	12.6	9.7	8.6	7.1	5.7	62
Peru	3.0	9.2	10.0	5.4	4.9	4.5	7.2	10.4	12.2	8.7	5.6	56
Other countries	60.5	124.8	120.1	92.0	87.0	112.7	119.4	106.4	111.4	92.7	91.4	
Total	**161.9**	**424.9**	**394.8**	**282.8**	**254.6**	**515.2**	**496.5**	**406.7**	**424.5**	**354.3**	**321.3**	**52**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	88.6	92.2	90.3	105.8	112.5	125.3	134.2	121.2	107.9	100.4	107.0	..
Korea	22.9	21.9	22.8	22.7	24.7	28.1	30.0	27.0	27.9	23.4	25.7	..
United States	21.5	21.5	21.3	22.1	22.2	22.8	24.0	23.5	22.7	19.3	21.0	..
Viet Nam	5.3	6.6	6.5	7.7	8.5	9.9	12.5	10.9	11.9	13.9	19.5	..
Philippines	87.2	93.4	96.2	63.5	28.3	25.3	21.0	15.8	13.3	13.6	15.4	..
Thailand	5.9	6.6	7.1	9.0	8.7	9.0	10.5	9.9	10.9	13.6	15.4	..
Indonesia	9.7	11.1	10.7	12.9	11.4	10.1	10.1	7.5	8.3	8.4	9.3	..
Chinese Taipei	..	..	..	..	4.5	4.9	5.5	5.4	6.6	5.6	6.6	..
Brazil	22.7	33.4	32.2	33.9	27.0	22.9	14.4	3.0	4.7	4.5	5.8	..
India	..	..	..	..	4.9	5.8	5.7	4.6	4.9	4.7	5.6	..
United Kingdom	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.6	5.8	6.0	5.3	5.8	5.2	5.5	..
Nepal	..	..	..	..	1.6	2.2	3.6	3.6	2.9	3.5	4.8	..
Germany	..	..	..	..	4.7	4.9	4.8	4.5	4.3	3.7	4.1	..
France	..	..	..	..	3.8	4.2	4.5	3.9	4.0	2.9	4.0	..
Russian Federation	6.6	7.7	7.1	6.2	5.0	4.2	4.5	4.5	3.5	2.8	3.8	..
Other countries	66.9	73.1	71.4	82.2	51.3	51.3	53.1	46.4	47.7	41.6	50.4	
Total	**343.8**	**373.9**	**372.0**	**372.3**	**325.6**	**336.6**	**344.5**	**297.1**	**287.1**	**266.9**	**303.9**	**..**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	55.7	52.4	67.4	115.8	161.2	177.0	161.7	117.6	155.3	149.2	127.3	50
United States	19.1	17.8	18.1	18.0	17.8	18.9	23.4	27.1	28.3	28.1	28.9	52
Viet Nam	3.0	6.7	7.8	18.0	20.0	21.2	24.0	16.4	22.9	27.9	24.7	58
Thailand	6.8	7.1	9.8	13.7	15.8	10.5	8.6	5.8	6.9	10.3	13.8	42
Uzbekistan	3.9	7.0	3.6	3.2	4.8	4.9	9.4	4.7	8.6	8.2	11.4	29
Philippines	7.4	10.0	10.1	16.5	17.9	12.2	9.1	8.9	9.1	9.6	9.9	57
Cambodia	0.1	0.8	0.9	0.8	2.2	1.9	3.4	2.6	3.7	6.4	9.5	25
Indonesia	9.9	9.3	5.2	10.2	6.9	5.2	9.7	3.3	5.3	8.1	8.3	11
Nepal	1.0	1.9	1.5	0.6	1.1	0.8	2.4	2.6	2.7	4.3	6.9	12
Canada	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.6	6.0	6.4	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.0	54
Japan	8.7	7.7	7.0	6.8	5.5	5.0	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.5	5.8	70
Mongolia	2.0	4.6	5.1	8.3	9.6	8.6	8.1	5.3	5.4	4.3	5.7	40
Sri Lanka	0.8	2.4	1.9	5.0	4.1	2.5	4.8	1.7	4.2	5.9	4.7	4
Myanmar	0.2	0.8	0.8	0.6	1.8	0.5	0.5	1.7	0.6	2.6	4.1	2
Russian Federation	8.1	9.3	5.5	4.2	3.7	3.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.7	40
Other countries	27.1	26.1	28.5	26.3	25.1	21.7	23.4	21.3	26.2	28.4	30.6	
Total	**158.9**	**168.9**	**178.5**	**253.7**	**303.0**	**300.4**	**302.2**	**232.8**	**293.1**	**307.2**	**300.2**	**45**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Portugal	2.8	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.4	4.5	3.8	3.8	5.0	5.2	43
France	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.5	43
Belgium	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	40
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	36
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	46
Serbia	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.9	0.5	49
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	50
United Kingdom	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	46
United States	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	46
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	61
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	54
Greece	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	47
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	46
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	44
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	59
Other countries	2.7	3.2	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.6	4.0	3.7	
Total	**11.0**	**12.6**	**12.2**	**13.8**	**13.7**	**15.8**	**16.8**	**14.6**	**15.8**	**19.1**	**19.4**	**46**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United States	..	..	..	..	..	1.4	2.2	2.9	4.0	4.3	4.2	44
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	1.0	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	51
Colombia	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	1.1	1.9	2.3	1.8	1.5	59
Venezuela	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	0.7	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.3	51
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.1	32
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.0	0.9	44
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	44
China	..	..	..	..	..	0.6	1.3	2.0	1.7	1.1	0.9	41
Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.3	0.5	50
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	28
Honduras	..	..	..	..	..	0.0	0.8	1.4	1.5	1.0	0.5	60
Korea	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	40
Peru	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.4	46
France	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	32
El Salvador	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.4	55
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	2.2	4.1	4.9	4.9	4.2	3.8	
Total	**5.8**	**6.9**	**8.5**	**9.2**	**6.9**	**7.2**	**15.9**	**23.9**	**26.2**	**22.0**	**19.5**	**46**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	1.6	1.5	4.5	5.7	6.8	9.2	13.3	12.7	14.5	18.6	18.3	48
Germany	5.1	4.8	5.3	5.9	7.2	7.5	9.0	8.7	9.8	9.6	8.7	56
China	3.4	3.8	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.4	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.5	5.2	53
Bulgaria	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	4.9	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.4	5.0	49
United Kingdom	4.8	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.7	40
Spain	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.7	4.6	50
India	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.0	2.5	3.5	3.1	3.2	3.8	4.0	40
United States	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.7	3.7	53
Italy	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.6	39
Greece	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.7	3.3	42
Turkey	5.4	6.2	4.1	3.1	2.8	2.4	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.2	45
Hungary	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.7	2.2	2.4	2.6	3.1	48
France	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	50
Belgium	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.6	51
Romania	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	56
Other countries	53.6	41.6	33.7	30.5	30.0	31.4	41.2	44.5	44.8	44.1	40.1	
Total	**86.6**	**73.6**	**65.1**	**63.4**	**67.7**	**80.3**	**103.4**	**104.4**	**110.2**	**118.5**	**115.7**	**50**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United Kingdom	6.5	8.0	8.7	17.1	13.0	11.3	9.5	7.8	7.5	6.3	5.6	49
India	8.3	4.8	3.1	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.2	3.2	4.0	4.7	5.3	42
China	8.4	6.2	4.0	5.6	6.8	5.6	7.4	5.8	5.6	5.5	4.8	55
Philippines	1.6	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.7	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.9	3.1	3.3	55
Fiji	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.1	2.3	52
Samoa	1.2	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.0	1.6	2.0	2.2	46
South Africa	3.4	2.4	2.4	4.5	3.6	4.0	4.7	5.2	4.6	2.8	2.1	48
Korea	2.5	1.7	1.5	2.1	2.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.3	53
United States	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	55
Tonga	0.7	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	43
Malaysia	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	53
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	61
Japan	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	75
Ireland	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	49
Sri Lanka	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.5	51
Other countries	10.0	8.8	7.6	8.8	8.5	7.7	7.6	7.5	8.0	7.3	7.7	
Total	**48.8**	**43.4**	**36.2**	**54.1**	**49.8**	**46.9**	**46.9**	**43.6**	**44.3**	**40.8**	**39.1**	**51**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	0.7	0.6	1.6	3.3	7.4	14.2	14.4	10.5	11.3	12.9	11.5	31
Lithuania	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	2.4	2.9	3.2	6.6	7.7	6.6	39
Sweden	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.4	5.7	6.0	7.6	8.2	5.7	46
Somalia	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.6	1.7	3.6	46
Philippines	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.6	1.8	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.5	80
Eritrea	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.4	50
Romania	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	2.0	41
Denmark	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	41
Germany	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.3	3.8	4.3	2.8	2.7	2.3	1.8	46
Latvia	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.1	2.3	2.1	1.7	39
India	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.5	36
Iceland	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.5	44
United Kingdom	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	32
Spain	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.4	41
Thailand	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	84
Other countries	17.6	15.4	15.4	15.9	15.3	18.7	20.3	20.6	20.3	21.6	23.5	
Total	**30.8**	**26.8**	**27.9**	**31.4**	**37.4**	**53.5**	**58.8**	**56.7**	**65.1**	**70.8**	**70.0**	**45**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	6.9	8.4	10.2	9.8	9.6	9.4	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.1	11.8	..
Viet Nam	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.8	2.8	3.0	2.4	2.1	4.0	..
China	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.2	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.9	..
Belarus	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.6	..
Germany	1.6	1.5	2.2	6.1	4.6	6.7	2.9	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.3	..
Russian Federation	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.9	..
Armenia	0.7	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.6	..
Turkey	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	..
India	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	..
United States	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	..
Korea	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	..
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	..
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	..
France	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.1	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	..
United Kingdom	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.8	1.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	..
Other countries	8.8	8.0	9.4	8.9	8.2	10.6	11.2	12.1	12.1	12.6	13.0	
Total	**30.2**	**30.3**	**36.9**	**38.5**	**34.2**	**40.6**	**41.8**	**41.3**	**41.1**	**41.3**	**47.1**	**..**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Brazil	14.7	6.7	14.4	9.5	6.1	5.0	32.8	23.1	16.2	12.9	11.7	58
Cape Verde	5.9	3.4	3.1	3.5	3.3	4.1	5.3	4.6	4.2	4.6	3.4	53
Romania	3.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	5.3	8.1	6.0	4.6	3.0	46
Guinea-Bissau	2.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.6	2.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	45
Ukraine	17.5	4.1	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.0	3.6	2.4	2.1	1.8	1.5	59
China	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.0	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.4	51
Spain	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.4	49
Angola	4.7	2.1	1.1	1.2	0.4	0.4	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.3	55
United Kingdom	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.8	3.9	2.7	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.2	47
Sao Tome and Principe	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.0	55
India	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.9	45
Italy	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	48
Bulgaria	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9	1.5	1.4	1.0	0.7	48
Germany	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	50
France	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	46
Other countries	15.0	7.8	6.4	6.1	5.5	8.2	9.8	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.5	
Total	**72.0**	**31.8**	**34.1**	**28.1**	**22.5**	**32.6**	**72.8**	**61.4**	**50.7**	**45.4**	**38.5**	**52**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Uzbekistan	25.0	21.5	14.9	30.4	37.1	52.8	43.5	42.5	24.1	64.5	87.9	27
Ukraine	36.8	23.4	17.7	30.8	32.7	51.5	49.1	45.9	27.5	43.6	49.4	45
Kazakhstan	55.7	29.6	40.2	51.9	38.6	40.3	40.0	38.8	27.9	36.5	45.5	52
Tajikistan	6.0	5.3	3.3	4.7	6.5	17.3	20.7	27.0	18.2	35.1	41.7	23
Armenia	6.8	5.1	3.1	7.6	12.9	30.8	35.2	35.8	19.9	32.7	37.0	44
Kyrgyzstan	13.1	6.9	9.5	15.6	15.7	24.7	24.0	23.3	20.9	41.6	34.6	44
Moldova	7.6	6.4	4.8	6.6	8.6	14.1	15.5	16.4	11.8	19.6	23.6	45
Azerbaijan	5.6	4.3	2.6	4.6	8.9	21.0	23.3	22.9	14.5	22.3	22.3	36
Belarus	6.8	5.3	5.7	6.8	5.6	6.0	5.9	5.5	4.9	10.2	16.6	25
China	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.7	1.2	0.8	1.4	7.1	8.5	34
Georgia	7.1	5.5	4.9	5.5	6.8	10.6	8.8	7.5	5.2	7.3	7.7	47
Turkmenistan	4.5	6.3	3.7	4.1	4.1	4.8	4.0	3.3	2.3	4.5	5.4	46
Germany	2.0	2.7	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.1	2.6	2.6	4.5	4.2	48
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	..	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.9	4.2	..
Viet Nam	..	..	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.9	3.3	3.7	38
Other countries	7.2	6.4	5.4	5.1	5.2	7.2	6.6	6.5	9.5	21.8	25.4	
Total	**184.6**	**129.1**	**119.2**	**177.2**	**186.4**	**287.0**	**281.6**	**279.9**	**191.7**	**356.5**	**417.7**	**37**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Hungary	..	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.7	24
Czech Republic	..	0.6	1.6	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.2	0.9	0.5	47
Romania	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.0	2.3	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.3	32
Bulgaria	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	10
Italy	..	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	23
Germany	..	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.1	27
Poland	..	0.1	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	54
Ukraine	..	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.3	0.7	0.1	64
China	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.1	39
Austria	..	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	27
United Kingdom	..	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	32
Spain	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	44
Viet Nam	..	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.3	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.1	31
Norway	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	67
France	..	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	22
Other countries	..	1.6	2.1	2.3	3.5	3.9	4.8	4.9	4.6	2.7	0.4	
Total	**4.8**	**4.6**	**7.9**	**7.7**	**11.3**	**14.8**	**16.5**	**14.4**	**12.7**	**8.2**	**2.9**	**33**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVENIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	13.8	17.9	5.3	3.7	4.5	4.4	34
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	1.4	2.3	1.3	0.0	2.3	2.4	17
Croatia	..	..	..	..	..	2.2	2.3	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.2	18
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	6.3	7.6	2.6	1.6	1.9	1.7	29
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	2.7	5.0	2.2	1.0	1.2	0.8	50
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.5	40
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.4	38
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	..	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.0	0.6	0.4	52
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	44
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	47
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.3	31
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.3	50
Hungary	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	58
Czech Republic	..	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.2	63
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.2	29
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	1.7	6.2	9.1	2.6	3.2	2.7	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**30.5**	**43.8**	**24.1**	**11.2**	**18.0**	**17.3**	**33**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	40.2	41.2	73.4	82.5	78.5	85.0	93.6	61.8	47.9	43.2	35.0	41
Romania	48.3	55.0	103.6	108.3	131.5	197.6	71.5	52.4	62.6	60.9	34.6	53
United Kingdom	25.3	31.8	48.4	44.7	42.5	38.2	25.0	19.2	17.3	16.6	17.3	47
China	5.7	7.5	20.3	18.4	16.9	20.4	27.2	18.6	17.4	16.7	14.2	52
Italy	10.4	10.0	15.0	16.5	18.6	21.2	18.0	13.6	12.9	13.1	13.2	43
Colombia	34.2	11.1	21.5	24.9	35.6	41.7	42.2	25.6	18.1	16.1	12.4	54
Pakistan	1.8	1.7	9.4	12.4	8.2	10.6	13.4	10.6	21.7	16.9	12.0	20
Dominican Republic	5.5	6.6	10.3	12.2	14.7	18.1	17.8	10.8	8.3	11.7	11.3	55
Germany	11.2	10.8	14.0	15.2	16.9	17.8	12.6	10.4	9.3	9.1	8.8	52
Russian Federation	4.6	4.6	7.4	7.8	8.0	7.3	7.2	6.6	7.4	8.3	8.1	61
France	5.5	5.9	9.9	11.1	12.7	13.0	10.1	8.9	8.6	8.6	8.1	47
Bulgaria	15.9	13.7	21.0	18.4	21.7	31.3	13.1	9.7	10.4	11.9	8.0	51
Brazil	4.7	7.4	16.5	24.6	32.6	36.1	27.3	14.4	11.9	9.8	7.8	60
Ecuador	89.0	72.8	17.2	15.2	21.4	30.2	37.8	18.2	11.0	8.8	7.6	47
Peru	8.0	13.5	17.7	19.9	21.7	27.4	31.1	16.3	10.0	9.3	7.0	57
Other countries	133.0	135.9	240.3	250.5	321.4	324.6	244.4	172.2	156.4	155.3	130.8	
Total	**443.1**	**429.5**	**645.8**	**682.7**	**803.0**	**920.5**	**692.2**	**469.3**	**431.3**	**416.3**	**336.1**	**49**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Syria	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.5	4.7	41
Afghanistan	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.7	0.8	1.0	1.6	1.9	3.4	4.7	39
Somalia	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.3	3.0	3.8	4.1	6.9	6.8	3.1	4.5	49
Poland	1.1	1.0	2.5	3.4	6.3	7.5	7.0	5.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	47
Iraq	7.4	5.4	2.8	2.9	10.9	15.2	12.1	8.5	4.5	4.5	3.6	50
Denmark	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	5.1	5.1	4.1	3.8	3.4	3.2	2.6	44
China	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.2	2.6	2.5	55
Thailand	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.3	79
Finland	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	56
Eritrea	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.6	2.1	2.2	53
Germany	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.9	3.6	3.4	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.2	53
Iran	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.1	2.0	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.1	52
Norway	3.5	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.0	49
India	0.6	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.0	40
Turkey	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.0	1.8	38
Other countries	19.6	19.6	20.6	22.8	33.3	31.4	33.4	34.9	35.5	36.1	38.6	
Total	**47.3**	**47.1**	**46.7**	**50.6**	**78.9**	**82.6**	**82.0**	**82.4**	**79.0**	**75.9**	**82.6**	**48**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Germany	15.5	14.9	18.1	20.4	24.8	41.1	46.4	33.9	30.7	30.5	27.1	42
Portugal	9.3	12.3	13.6	12.2	12.5	15.5	17.8	13.7	12.8	15.4	18.6	41
Italy	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.5	8.4	9.9	8.5	10.1	10.8	13.6	36
France	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.6	11.5	13.7	10.9	11.5	11.5	11.4	43
Spain	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.3	4.6	6.5	42
United Kingdom	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.4	5.1	5.6	4.8	5.5	5.4	4.4	42
United States	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.2	..	..	..	4.0	4.2	3.5	51
Poland	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.0	3.4	3.3	45
Austria	2.6	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0	2.8	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.9	3.1	38
India	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.4	2.4	2.6	41
Hungary	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.1	1.2	2.1	2.5	48
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	2.1	2.4	61
Romania	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.7	2.3	69
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	2.0	2.1	65
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.5	2.2	1.9	68
Other countries	51.8	43.9	41.0	38.4	39.8	49.8	54.0	51.2	40.4	41.3	38.5	
Total	**101.9**	**94.0**	**96.3**	**94.4**	**102.7**	**139.7**	**157.3**	**132.4**	**134.2**	**142.5**	**143.8**	**46**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.5	..	..	..
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.2	..	..	..
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	..	..	..
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.6	..	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.5	..	..	..
Iran	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.5	..	..	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.4	..	..	..
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.2	..	..	..
Iraq	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.2	..	..	..
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.1	..	..	..
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.1	..	..	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.0	..	..	..
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.9	..	..	..
Syria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.9	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	..	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.1	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**29.9**	**..**	**..**	**..**

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. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	29	31	32	22	23	21	18	22	28	45	41	..
India	21	30	51	47	57	55	48	64	68	61	36	..
Poland	..	..	16	49	60	88	55	32	34	33	30	..
Pakistan	7	10	21	16	31	27	17	17	30	43	19	..
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	5	8	17	..
Australia	20	21	27	20	26	18	14	12	18	13	16	..
France	9	21	10	..	..	..	..	14	11	17	14	..
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	14	8	9	10	10	..
Lithuania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13	17	9	..
Nigeria	2	5	9	9	9	9	11	12	10	8	9	..
Germany	..	..	..	..	13	15	18	11	7	13	8	..
Portugal	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	4	5	7	..
Canada	5	6	..	..	6	..	7	..	6	9	7	..
Malaysia	4	5	6	..	..	8	11	7	9	4	6	..
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	7	8	6	..
Other countries	192	198	257	242	227	214	243	210	200	159	148	
Total	**289**	**327**	**434**	**405**	**452**	**455**	**456**	**430**	**459**	**453**	**383**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table B.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED STATES (PERMANENT)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Mexico	218.8	115.6	175.4	161.4	173.8	148.6	190.0	164.9	139.1	143.4	146.4	56
China	61.1	40.6	55.5	70.0	87.3	76.7	80.3	64.2	70.9	87.0	81.8	56
India	70.8	50.2	70.2	84.7	61.4	65.4	63.4	57.3	69.2	69.0	66.4	51
Philippines	51.0	45.3	57.8	60.7	74.6	72.6	54.0	60.0	58.2	57.0	57.3	61
Dominican Republic	22.5	26.2	30.5	27.5	38.1	28.0	31.9	49.4	53.9	46.1	41.6	55
Cuba	28.2	9.3	20.5	36.3	45.6	29.1	49.5	39.0	33.6	36.5	32.8	52
Viet Nam	33.6	22.1	31.5	32.8	30.7	28.7	31.5	29.2	30.6	34.2	28.3	61
Haiti	20.2	12.3	14.2	14.5	22.2	30.4	26.0	24.3	22.6	22.1	22.8	56
Colombia	18.8	14.7	18.8	25.6	43.2	33.2	30.2	27.8	22.4	22.6	20.9	61
Korea	20.7	12.4	19.8	26.6	24.4	22.4	26.7	25.9	22.2	22.8	20.8	56
Jamaica	14.8	13.3	14.4	18.3	25.0	19.4	18.5	21.8	19.8	19.7	20.7	56
Iraq	5.2	2.5	3.5	4.1	4.3	3.8	4.8	12.1	19.9	21.1	20.4	46
Myanmar	1.4	1.2	1.4	2.1	4.6	3.1	3.4	13.6	12.9	16.5	17.4	47
El Salvador	31.1	28.2	29.8	21.4	31.8	21.1	19.7	19.9	18.8	18.7	16.3	54
Pakistan	13.7	9.4	12.1	14.9	17.4	13.5	19.7	21.6	18.3	15.5	14.7	53
Other countries	447.5	300.4	402.5	521.5	582.0	456.5	457.7	499.8	430.3	429.7	422.9	
Total	**1 059.4**	**703.5**	**957.9**	**1 122.4**	**1 266.3**	**1 052.4**	**1 107.1**	**1 130.8**	**1 042.6**	**1 062.0**	**1 031.6**	**55**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158453

Table A.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Australia	..	..	28.7	27.6	29.0	29.7	30.9	27.6	29.3.7	31.2	29.8
Austria	44.5	48.9	50.0	49.8	55.0	56.6	60.2	67.2	68.4	72.8	74.4
Belgium	31.0	33.9	37.7	38.5	39.4	38.5	44.9	49.1	50.8	56.6	59.9
Czech Republic	31.1	33.2	33.8	21.8	31.4	18.4	3.8	9.4	14.9	5.7	20.0
Denmark	14.9	15.8	15.8	16.3	17.3	19.0	23.3	26.6	27.1	26.6	29.1
Estonia	..	..	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.4
Finland	2.8	2.3	4.2	2.6	2.7	3.1	4.5	4.0	3.1	3.3	4.2
Germany	505.6	499.1	547.0	483.6	483.8	475.8	563.1	578.8	529.6	538.8	578.8
Hungary	2.4	2.6	3.5	3.3	4.0	4.1	4.2	5.6	6.0	2.7	9.9
Iceland	1.1	0.9	1.5	0.9	1.5	4.0	5.9	5.8	3.4	2.8	2.2
Ireland	..	..	..	..	20.7	33.4	36.1	52.8	40.3	38.6	40.6
Italy	10.0	12.9	14.0	16.0	17.0	20.3	27.0	32.3	32.8	32.4	38.2
Japan	248.4	259.4	278.5	292.0	218.8	214.9	234.2	262.0	242.6	230.9	219.4
Korea	114.0	152.3	148.8	266.7	183.0	163.6	215.7	236.4	196.1	217.7	290.0
Luxembourg	8.3	6.9	7.5	7.2	7.7	8.6	8.0	7.3	7.7	7.5	8.6
Netherlands	39.6	43.9	46.1	47.2	52.5	47.9	49.8	57.5	64.0	70.2	80.8
New Zealand	15.6	18.9	22.2	22.8	20.5	21.4	23.0	23.6	26.3	26.4	24.4
Norway	12.3	14.3	13.9	12.6	12.5	13.3	15.2	18.4	22.5	22.9	21.3
Portugal	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	2.9	1.9	2.0
Slovenia	4.6	4.0	6.0	6.5	11.0	11.8	7.3	15.1	12.0	2.1	1.7
Spain	6.9	10.0	41.9	48.7	120.3	199.0	232.0	288.3	336.7	317.7	320.7
Sweden	14.1	15.1	16.0	15.8	20.0	20.4	19.2	18.3	22.1	23.7	26.6
Switzerland	49.7	46.3	47.9	49.7	53.0	56.2	54.1	55.2	65.5	64.0	65.9
United Kingdom	141.3	144.1	126.2	154.1	173.4	158.0	243.0	211.0	185.0	190.0	165.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158400

Metadata related to Tables A.1, A.2 and B.1. **Inflows and outflows of foreign population**

	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). Permanent migrants 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 migrants, 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. *Outflows:* Net Overseas Migration (NOM) – departures: The net loss of people counted in the population by people leaving Australia for 12 months or more in a 16-month period.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated).	Department of Immigration and Border Protection.
Austria	Foreigners holding a residence permit and who have actually stayed 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 match with the results of the register-based census of 2006.	Population Registers, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intenting to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Asylum seekers were formerly grouped under a single category. From 1 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 (DGSIE).
Canada	*Permanent migrants:* Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status (including onshore). *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 presents only the inflow of persons who have acquired permanent resident status. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence. Due to privacy considerations, the figures have been subjected to random rounding. Under this method, all figures in the table are randomly rounded either up or down to multiples of 5.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Chile	Temporary residence permits granted.		Register of permits of residence granted, 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 previous years. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.

Metadata related to Tables A.1, A.2 and B.1. **Inflows and outflows of foreign population** *(cont.)*

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Estonia	Foreigners expecting to stay in the country for a period of at least 12 months.		Population Register and Police and Border Guard Board (PBG), Statistics Estonia.
Finland	Foreign nationals with a valid residence permit for longer than one year. Nordic citizens who are moving for less than 6 months are not included.	Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. Excludes asylum seekers and persons with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	The "permanent" entries consist of the first statistical registration as a permanent migrant of people coming from abroad, plus the registration of the permanent migrants who changed their status from a temporary one.	Excludes citizens from the European Economic Area.	Ministry of the Interior.
Germany	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay at least one week in the country.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. In 2008, local authorities started to purge registers of inactive records. As a result, higher emigration figures were reported from this year.	Central Population Register, Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	Initial issuance of residence permit.	Does not refer to physical inflows but to flows into legal status.	Ministry of Interior Affairs.
Hungary	*Immigrant:* Foreign citizens who entered Hungary in the given year and obtained a residence permit. *Emigrant:* Foreign citizens having a residence or a settlement document and who left Hungary in the given year without the intention to return, or whose permission's validity has expired and did not apply for a new one or whose permission was invalidated by authority due to withdrawal. Data from 2012 are estimated.		Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Foreigners expecting to stay in the country for a period of at least 12 months.		Register of Migration Data, Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Figures are derived from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) series. All figures are based on year ending April. *Inflows:* The estimates relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad one year before (Table A.1). *Outflows:* Persons resident in the country at a point in the previous twelve month period who are now living abroad (Table A.2). Data for years 2007-10 have been revised in line with revisions to the Population and Migration estimates published September 2012.		Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Data refer to permanent immigrants by last country of residence.	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.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	Foreigners holding a residence, work or student permit.	Excludes seasonal workers.	Population Register, ISTAT.
Japan	Foreigners who got permission for entering the country, excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.		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).

Metadata related to Tables A.1, A.2 and B.1. **Inflows and outflows of foreign population** *(cont.)*

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Mexico	Number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time ("inmigrante" FM2).		National Migration Institute (INM).
Netherlands	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least four of the next six months. Total outflows (Table A.2) include the "net administrative corrections", i.e. unreported emigration of foreigners.	Inflows exclude asylum seekers who are 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 Foreigners.
Portugal	Residence permits. 2002 to 2004 data include foreigners entered with a long-term visa (temporary stay, studies, labour) as well as foreigners who benefitted from the 2001 regularisation programme (126 901 en 2001, 47 657 en 2002, 9 097 en 2003 et 178 en 2004). In 2005, data include residence permits and long-term visas delivered during the year. In 2006 and 2007, data include long-term visas to third-country nationals and new residence documents granted to EU25 citizens (who do no need a visa). After 2008, data include all new residence documents (including regularisation cases).		Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF), National Statistical Institute (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Russian Federation	Data include: 1) Number of registered foreigners and since 2011, those staying for 9 months or longer; 2) Number of temporary and permanent residence permits granted. *Outflows:* Persons de-registered from a place of residence and persons which registration in a place of stay for 9 months and longer have expired.		Federal statistical service (Rosstat); Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	Until 2002, first long-term and permanent residence permits. From 2003 on, data include permanent, temporary, and tolerated residents. Break in series in 2012.		Register of Foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Slovenia	*Inflows:* Number of first temporary residence permits. *Outflows:* Temporary and permanent migrants declaring moving abroad.		Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior, and National Statistical Office.

Metadata related to Tables A.1, A.2 and B.1. **Inflows and outflows of foreign population** *(cont.)*

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Spain	Data include information regarding registrations and cancellations due to changes of residence registered in the Municipal Registers for all foreigners, by nationality, independently of their legal status.	From 2004 on, the Residential Variation Statistics (RVS) also include registrations by omission and cancellations for undue registration of foreign nationals. Cancellations by expiration are included from 2006 on.	RVS derived from Municipal Population Registers (*Padron municipal de habitantes*), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one year.	Excludes asylum seekers and temporary workers.	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.		Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Turkey	Residence permits issued for the first time to foreigners intending to stay 12 months or more in the country.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of the Interior.
United Kingdom	*Inflows:* Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Data in Table A.1 are adjusted to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. Data by nationality in Table B.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.	Includes 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.

Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro.

Inflows of asylum seekers

The statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (*www.unhcr.org/pages/49c3646c4d6.html*).

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.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.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.3.

Table A.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Australia	5 863	4 295	3 201	3 204	3 515	3 980	4 771	6 206	8 246	11 505	15 786	11 741
Austria	39 354	32 359	24 634	22 461	13 349	11 921	12 841	15 821	11 012	14 416	17 413	17 503
Belgium	18 805	16 940	15 357	15 957	11 587	11 115	12 252	17 186	21 755	26 003	18 525	12 500
Canada	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 873	28 342	34 800	33 970	22 543	24 985	20 223	10 356
Chile	43	87	203	380	573	756	872	..	260	305	168	249
Czech Republic	8 484	11 396	5 459	4 160	3 016	1 878	1 711	1 355	979	756	753	503
Denmark	6 068	4 593	3 235	2 260	1 918	1 852	2 360	3 819	4 965	3 811	6 186	7 557
Estonia	9	14	14	11	7	14	14	36	30	67	77	97
Finland	3 443	3 221	3 861	3 574	2 331	1 434	4 016	5 910	4 018	3 086	2 922	3 023
France	58 971	59 768	58 545	49 733	30 748	29 387	35 404	42 118	48 074	52 147	55 068	60 234
Germany	71 127	50 563	35 607	28 914	21 029	19 164	22 085	27 649	41 332	45 741	64 539	109 580
Greece	5 664	8 178	4 469	9 050	12 267	25 113	19 884	15 928	10 273	9 311	9 577	8 224
Hungary	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 609	2 117	3 425	3 118	4 672	2 104	1 693	2 157	18 565
Iceland	117	80	76	88	39	42	77	35	51	76	113	172
Ireland	11 634	7 900	4 769	4 324	4 314	3 988	3 866	2 689	1 939	1 419	1 104	946
Israel	355	..	922	909	1 348	5 382	7 738	809	1 448	5 745	1 999	..
Italy	16 015	13 455	9 722	9 548	10 348	14 053	30 324	17 603	10 052	34 117	17 352	25 720
Japan	250	336	426	384	954	816	1 599	1 388	1 203	1 867	2 545	3 260
Korea	37	86	145	412	278	717	364	324	425	1 011	1 143	1 574
Luxembourg	1 043	1 549	1 577	802	523	426	463	477	744	2 076	2 003	989
Mexico	257	275	404	687	480	374	317	680	1 039	753	811	1 296
Netherlands	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 347	14 465	7 102	13 399	14 905	13 333	11 590	9 664	14 399
New Zealand	997	841	580	348	276	245	254	336	340	305	324	291
Norway	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 402	5 320	6 528	14 431	17 226	10 064	9 053	9 785	11 467
Poland	5 170	6 909	8 079	6 860	4 430	7 205	7 203	10 587	6 534	5 086	9 167	13 758
Portugal	245	88	113	114	128	224	161	139	160	275	299	507
Russian Federation	876	737	910	960	1 170	3 369	5 418	5 701	2 181	1 265	1 243	1 962
Slovak Republic	9 743	10 358	11 395	3 549	2 871	2 643	910	822	541	491	732	281
Slovenia	702	1 100	1 173	1 596	518	425	238	183	246	373	305	243
Spain	6 309	5 918	5 535	5 254	5 297	7 662	4 517	3 007	2 744	3 414	2 579	4 513
Sweden	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530	24 322	36 370	24 353	24 194	31 823	29 648	43 876	54 259
Switzerland	26 125	20 806	14 248	10 061	10 537	10 387	16 606	16 005	13 521	19 439	25 948	19 440
Turkey	3 795	3 952	3 908	3 921	4 553	7 646	12 981	7 834	9 226	16 021	26 470	44 807
United Kingdom	103 080	60 050	40 625	30 840	28 320	28 300	31 315	30 675	22 644	25 898	27 978	29 395
United States	58 439	43 338	44 972	39 240	41 101	40 449	39 362	38 080	42 971	60 587	66 101	68 243
OECD	**577 217**	**463 502**	**371 492**	**316 315**	**285 752**	**319 365**	**364 606**	**362 668**	**346 639**	**423 070**	**463 692**	**555 692**

Notes: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.3.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158410

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

AUSTRALIA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
China	800	822	966	1 033	1 207	1 232	1 192	1 187	1 189	1 138	1 568
India	604	242	173	316	349	373	213	409	769	943	1 163
Pakistan	63	61	103	90	145	220	260	428	817	1 512	1 104
Iran	75	71	101	77	84	161	312	458	2 152	1 839	967
Egypt	61	72	65	48	41	96	134	123	415	385	849
Sri Lanka	166	125	317	324	445	422	555	589	370	2 345	806
Fiji	165	84	52	34	70	81	262	375	277	236	413
Bangladesh	124	130	61	57	66	131	69	97	127	159	382
Afghanistan	54	116	32	21	20	52	940	1 265	1 720	3 079	370
Iraq	142	66	80	188	216	199	298	373	490	760	362
Stateless	14	9	13	10	13	11	66	263	525	544	361
Lebanon	90	57	56	65	75	91	115	200	158	327	349
Libya	4	1	1	0	0	1	7	12	200	174	318
Nepal	57	40	73	36	48	33	45	161	271	188	298
Malaysia	184	210	170	109	145	238	231	249	182	171	209
Other countries	1 692	1 095	941	1 107	1 056	1 430	1 507	2 057	1 843	1 986	2 222
Total	**4 295**	**3 201**	**3 204**	**3 515**	**3 980**	**4 771**	**6 206**	**8 246**	**11 505**	**15 786**	**11 741**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

AUSTRIA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Russian Federation	6 709	6 172	4 355	2 441	2 676	3 435	3 559	2 322	2 314	3 091	2 841
Afghanistan	2 357	757	923	699	761	1 382	2 237	1 582	3 609	4 005	2 589
Syria	153	131	77	88	166	140	279	194	422	915	1 991
Serbia (and Kosovo)	2 526	2 835	4 403	2 515	1 760	1 702	2 033	972	541	606	1 146
Pakistan	508	575	498	110	103	106	183	276	949	1 823	1 037
Algeria	221	234	185	138	109	173	248	304	447	575	949
Nigeria	1 849	1 828	880	421	394	535	837	573	414	400	691
Iran	979	343	306	274	248	250	340	387	457	761	595
Morocco	32	29	32	77	55	140	90	137	313	354	516
Iraq	1 446	232	221	380	472	490	399	336	484	491	468
Somalia	191	45	89	183	467	411	344	190	610	481	433
India	2 822	1 839	1 530	479	385	355	427	433	476	401	339
Turkey	2 854	1 114	1 064	668	659	417	554	369	414	273	302
Armenia	1 098	414	516	350	405	360	440	278	224	346	300
Bangladesh	887	330	548	140	70	52	95	116	87	212	278
Other countries	7 727	7 756	6 834	4 386	3 191	2 893	3 756	2 543	2 655	2 679	3 028
Total	**32 359**	**24 634**	**22 461**	**13 349**	**11 921**	**12 841**	**15 821**	**11 012**	**14 416**	**17 413**	**17 503**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

BELGIUM

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 778	1 471	1 272	843	716	579	670	813	1 080	1 392	1 166
Guinea	354	565	643	413	526	661	1 052	1 455	2 046	1 370	1 023
Syria	210	182	228	167	199	281	347	374	494	798	944
Afghanistan	329	287	253	365	696	879	1 659	1 124	2 774	2 349	892
Russian Federation	1 680	1 361	1 438	1 582	1 436	1 620	1 605	1 886	1 747	1 191	791
Serbia (and Kosovo)	1 280	1 294	1 203	778	1 219	1 050	2 053	4 545	3 067	995	747
Albania	340	255	167	125	193	172	256	208	1 152	607	472
China	286	208	304	155	135	189	329	176	292	344	368
Cameroon	625	506	530	335	279	367	302	289	451	457	360
Iraq	282	388	903	695	825	1 070	1 386	1 637	2 005	636	295
Senegal	15	17	15	6	21	50	113	231	314	454	292
Pakistan	341	308	222	160	150	150	233	325	924	711	256
Armenia	316	477	706	381	339	461	1 099	1 266	556	304	236
Georgia	302	211	256	232	156	222	327	336	347	387	229
Iran	1 153	512	497	631	411	614	732	261	366	348	210
Other countries	7 649	7 315	7 320	4 719	3 814	3 887	5 023	6 829	8 388	6 182	4 219
Total	**16 940**	**15 357**	**15 957**	**11 587**	**11 115**	**12 252**	**17 186**	**21 755**	**26 003**	**18 525**	**12 500**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CANADA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
China	1 848	1 982	1 821	1 645	1 456	1 711	1 592	1 650	1 922	1 783	893
Pakistan	4 257	1 006	746	652	361	403	437	526	882	853	643
Colombia	2 131	3 664	1 487	1 361	2 632	3 132	2 299	1 384	904	692	585
Syria	139	88	61	40	67	70	84	126	181	350	517
Nigeria	637	589	591	685	759	766	760	846	696	707	455
Afghanistan	151	152	264	268	308	488	445	399	373	348	368
Haiti	195	175	378	759	3 741	4 936	1 597	1 062	523	417	334
Democratic Republic of the Congo	435	394	330	417	356	425	298	288	347	337	279
Somalia	348	408	285	206	231	505	508	425	416	410	260
Egypt	231	182	82	53	47	47	43	108	155	171	252
Sri Lanka	1 270	1 141	934	907	808	1 008	824	1 200	635	428	228
India	1 125	1 083	844	764	554	561	502	532	632	684	223
Iran	329	352	357	246	207	267	310	327	318	277	216
Iraq	118	92	112	179	264	282	198	130	143	142	212
Eritrea	107	155	148	151	164	212	200	138	171	209	204
Other countries	18 616	14 287	12 346	14 535	15 910	19 987	23 873	13 402	16 687	12 415	4 687
Total	**31 937**	**25 750**	**20 786**	**22 868**	**27 865**	**34 800**	**33 970**	**22 543**	**24 985**	**20 223**	**10 356**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CHILE

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Colombia	56	182	347	540	713	816	..	220	267	138	224
Syria	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	5	5
Afghanistan	12	1	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	0	3
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	0	3
Russian Federation	3	0	0	0	1	0	..	0	2	0	3
Cuba	1	7	1	0	4	2	..	14	9	5	2
Albania	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	0	1
Bolivia	0	1	0	0	2	0	..	3	4	4	1
Brazil	0	0	0	0	1	0	..	0	0	0	1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	9	3	3	3	..	2	2	5	1
Mexico	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	3	1
Peru	3	2	6	6	3	8	..	5	1	0	1
El Salvador	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	3	0	1
Togo	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	0	0	0	1
Ukraine	0	0	0	0	0	0	..	1	0	0	1
Other countries	12	10	17	24	29	43	..	15	17	8	0
Total	**87**	**203**	**380**	**573**	**756**	**872**	..	**260**	**305**	**168**	**249**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ukraine	2 044	1 600	1 020	571	293	323	220	141	152	174	72
Syria	6	4	22	20	31	36	54	17	23	68	68
Russian Federation	4 853	1 498	278	171	99	85	66	62	47	40	42
Viet Nam	566	385	217	124	100	109	65	49	46	54	37
Cuba	7	0	0	20	94	19	12	18	20	15	36
Armenia	49	75	56	51	37	33	23	19	11	22	29
Kazakhstan	47	44	34	236	30	80	192	57	18	23	17
Serbia (and Kosovo)	20	3	4	0	49	31	32	9	5	13	16
Stateless	57	46	73	100	65	32	67	52	26	24	16
Belarus	281	226	244	174	130	81	60	67	71	54	13
Georgia	319	201	54	43	45	39	33	9	17	9	12
Iraq	102	38	47	80	49	30	12	7	9	5	11
Nigeria	37	50	83	96	69	39	43	0	18	12	11
Turkey	11	31	33	66	213	253	69	68	32	12	11
Moldova	192	94	69	29	31	17	22	13	8	10	10
Other countries	2 805	1 164	1 926	1 235	543	504	385	391	253	218	102
Total	**11 396**	**5 459**	**4 160**	**3 016**	**1 878**	**1 711**	**1 355**	**979**	**756**	**753**	**503**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

DENMARK

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	56	56	46	55	71	105	380	821	428	907	1 710
Russian Federation	269	163	119	61	114	183	335	340	304	521	982
Somalia	370	154	80	57	35	58	177	110	107	914	965
Serbia (and Kosovo)	750	784	375	267	90	118	271	402	325	689	547
Afghanistan	664	285	173	122	138	418	1 049	1 476	903	576	426
Stateless	35	20	107	7	6	13	91	5	54	57	425
Iran	158	140	123	89	106	196	334	597	461	548	375
Morocco	18	17	14	14	7	19	31	29	45	108	167
Nigeria	61	89	55	52	22	29	53	24	52	115	142
Iraq	442	217	264	507	695	543	305	237	115	133	113
Algeria	62	50	45	15	16	38	46	46	103	134	109
Armenia	23	29	19	17	4	12	17	32	36	60	108
Eritrea	5	18	8	5	6	15	37	26	20	57	98
Tunisia	7	11	4	2	5	11	9	9	56	69	85
Pakistan	36	81	40	31	17	14	49	26	57	67	75
Other countries	1 637	1 121	788	617	520	588	635	785	745	1 231	1 230
Total	**4 593**	**3 235**	**2 260**	**1 918**	**1 852**	**2 360**	**3 819**	**4 965**	**3 811**	**6 186**	**7 557**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ESTONIA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Viet Nam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	26
Syria	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	4	17
Russian Federation	4	0	4	4	3	3	5	7	4	8	14
Georgia	4	1	0	0	0	2	6	0	6	35	9
Pakistan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	8
Albania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
Belgium	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Iran	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Sudan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3
Cuba	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Serbia (and Kosovo)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Afghanistan	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	7	8	3	1
Australia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Croatia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Nigeria	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	1
Other countries	6	13	7	2	11	8	10	11	49	19	3
Total	**14**	**14**	**11**	**7**	**14**	**14**	**36**	**30**	**67**	**77**	**97**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

FINLAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Iraq	150	123	289	225	307	1 253	1 183	575	588	784	764
Russian Federation	292	217	233	176	171	208	599	436	294	199	219
Nigeria	77	92	73	64	41	76	130	84	105	93	202
Somalia	91	253	321	92	81	1 176	1 169	571	365	173	196
Afghanistan	51	166	237	97	70	249	445	265	292	188	172
Syria	39	15	11	17	8	24	36	41	109	180	148
Iran	47	99	79	91	78	143	159	142	125	121	147
Serbia (and Kosovo)	645	837	457	286	142	170	335	327	160	167	119
Algeria	38	31	33	25	25	27	48	47	55	54	81
Morocco	8	3	9	0	4	12	29	15	28	37	70
Gambia	3	1	12	17	5	8	45	33	21	29	64
Turkey	185	140	97	41	74	65	140	117	74	56	55
Ghana	15	3	11	6	9	27	52	78	34	34	53
Albania	58	61	33	21	13	16	9	12	11	18	51
Belarus	46	58	57	97	47	68	94	66	83	32	39
Other countries	1 476	1 762	1 622	1 076	359	494	1 437	1 209	742	757	643
Total	**3 221**	**3 861**	**3 574**	**2 331**	**1 434**	**4 016**	**5 910**	**4 018**	**3 086**	**2 922**	**3 023**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

FRANCE

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Serbia (and Kosovo)	2 704	3 812	3 997	3 047	3 068	3 140	5 245	5 771	3 470	3 957	5 867
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5 093	3 848	3 022	2 283	2 154	2 543	2 800	3 426	3 845	5 321	5 263
Albania	571	595	471	306	198	334	536	479	477	2 647	5 016
Russian Federation	3 347	3 331	3 080	2 313	3 265	3 595	3 392	4 334	4 062	5 369	4 676
Bangladesh	956	959	860	607	960	1 249	1 441	3 145	3 572	1 093	3 069
Georgia	1 726	1 563	788	282	176	379	471	1 355	1 645	2 552	2 456
Guinea	808	1 020	1 147	859	981	1 270	1 671	2 034	2 033	1 884	2 445
Sri Lanka	2 129	2 246	2 071	2 145	2 159	2 322	3 129	2 864	3 222	3 122	2 325
China	5 330	4 196	2 590	1 214	1 286	821	1 602	1 937	2 187	2 228	2 293
Pakistan	756	1 046	572	393	343	325	634	893	1 433	1 941	1 735
Armenia	1 106	1 292	1 642	1 684	1 929	2 075	3 112	1 775	3 639	2 187	1 722
Turkey	7 192	4 741	3 867	2 758	2 234	2 198	2 047	1 415	1 737	2 054	1 682
Mali	1 241	859	568	153	607	2 670	705	712	739	938	1 663
Algeria	2 794	4 209	2 018	1 127	967	978	1 118	1 171	1 132	1 162	1 479
Haiti	1 488	3 133	5 060	1 844	677	930	1 458	2 008	2 016	1 602	1 473
Other countries	22 527	21 695	17 980	9 733	8 383	10 575	12 757	14 755	16 938	17 011	17 070
Total	**59 768**	**58 545**	**49 733**	**30 748**	**29 387**	**35 404**	**42 118**	**48 074**	**52 147**	**55 068**	**60 234**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

GERMANY

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Russian Federation	3 383	2 757	1 719	1 040	772	792	936	1 199	1 689	3 202	14 887
Serbia (and Kosovo)	4 909	3 855	5 522	3 182	1 996	1 608	1 981	6 592	5 974	10 383	14 853
Syria	1 192	768	933	609	634	775	819	1 490	2 634	6 201	11 851
Afghanistan	1 473	918	711	531	338	657	3 375	5 905	7 767	7 498	7 735
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	320	198	193	132	89	82	109	2 466	1 131	4 546	6 208
Iran	2 049	1 369	929	611	631	815	1 170	2 475	3 352	4 348	4 424
Pakistan	1 122	1 062	551	464	301	320	481	840	2 539	3 412	4 101
Iraq	3 850	1 293	1 983	2 117	4 327	6 836	6 538	5 555	5 831	5 352	3 958
Somalia	257	240	163	146	121	165	346	2 235	984	1 243	3 786
Eritrea	556	456	367	281	335	262	346	642	632	650	3 616
Bosnia and Herzegovina	600	412	325	209	109	131	171	301	305	2 025	3 323
Georgia	1 139	802	493	240	181	232	560	664	471	1 298	2 336
Egypt	56	56	56	66	48	60	84	118	177	254	2 133
Nigeria	1 051	1 130	608	481	503	561	791	716	759	892	1 923
Turkey	6 301	4 148	2 958	1 949	1 437	1 408	1 429	1 340	1 578	1 457	1 521
Other countries	22 305	16 143	11 403	8 971	7 342	7 381	8 513	8 794	9 918	11 778	22 925
Total	**50 563**	**35 607**	**28 914**	**21 029**	**19 164**	**22 085**	**27 649**	**41 332**	**45 741**	**64 539**	**109 580**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

GREECE

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Pakistan	681	247	1 154	2 378	9 144	6 914	3 716	2 748	2 309	2 339	1 359
Afghanistan	561	382	458	1 087	1 556	2 287	1 510	524	637	584	1 223
Bangladesh	233	208	550	3 750	2 965	1 778	1 809	987	615	1 007	730
Albania	12	23	21	20	51	202	517	693	276	384	584
Georgia	48	323	1 897	428	1 559	2 241	2 170	1 162	1 121	893	534
Syria	19	44	57	143	1 311	808	965	167	352	275	482
Egypt	22	83	104	27	75	95	145	104	306	249	308
Nigeria	444	325	406	391	390	746	780	393	362	267	257
Iran	608	228	203	528	354	312	303	125	247	211	187
China	140	52	251	97	36	55	391	549	406	195	174
Eritrea	27	10	17	28	26	47	47	59	37	138	158
Democratic Republic of the Congo	40	27	13	15	1	12	11	16	12	20	154
Iraq	2 831	936	971	1 415	5 474	1 760	886	342	257	315	148
Algeria	5	27	48	17	19	18	44	79	79	105	144
Somalia	389	119	110	150	174	149	140	141	68	60	122
Other countries	2 118	1 435	2 790	1 793	1 978	2 460	2 494	2 184	2 227	2 535	1 660
Total	**8 178**	**4 469**	**9 050**	**12 267**	**25 113**	**19 884**	**15 928**	**10 273**	**9 311**	**9 577**	**8 224**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

HUNGARY

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Serbia (and Kosovo)	112	180	243	384	723	1 593	2 320	446	238	246	6 181
Pakistan	53	54	40	18	15	246	41	41	121	327	3 052
Afghanistan	469	38	22	13	35	116	1 194	702	649	880	2 279
Algeria	79	57	19	22	48	19	11	35	56	59	1 105
Syria	11	10	18	32	48	16	19	23	91	145	934
Bangladesh	31	29	90	15	10	35	26	4	3	15	678
Morocco	1	2	2	4	5	4	5	14	30	47	494
Nigeria	74	73	89	109	86	56	66	37	22	27	441
Mali	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	304
Ghana	2	2	4	2	4	3	5	0	2	1	264
Côte d'Ivoire	5	1	2	8	3	1	21	6	4	4	255
Senegal	22	1	1	1	8	2	0	2	1	3	255
Tunisia	4	4	5	1	0	5	5	10	30	21	231
Somalia	113	18	7	42	99	185	75	51	61	69	185
Guinea	1	0	1	5	7	1	4	5	4	3	156
Other countries	1 423	1 131	1 066	1 461	2 334	836	880	728	381	310	1 751
Total	**2 401**	**1 600**	**1 609**	**2 117**	**3 425**	**3 118**	**4 672**	**2 104**	**1 693**	**2 157**	**18 565**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ICELAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Croatia	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	6	42
Albania	11	5	2	0	5	5	3	0	2	11	40
Russian Federation	3	3	9	6	5	3	0	0	7	3	9
Syria	0	0	0	0	5	1	3	2	1	3	7
Algeria	0	2	3	1	1	0	1	0	6	6	6
Iraq	3	6	0	1	1	4	2	5	5	3	6
Nigeria	1	7	2	1	1	5	2	2	7	17	6
Afghanistan	3	2	6	2	1	5	2	7	3	9	5
Eritrea	1	0	1	0	0	2	2	1	2	2	5
Iran	1	2	4	2	1	3	7	6	3	11	4
Somalia	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	5	2	1	4
Azerbaijan	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	2	3
Georgia	1	0	3	2	0	4	0	1	4	8	3
Honduras	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Other countries	53	46	57	23	22	39	11	20	32	31	26
Total	**80**	**76**	**88**	**39**	**42**	**77**	**35**	**51**	**76**	**113**	**172**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

IRELAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Nigeria	3 110	1 776	1 278	1 038	1 028	1 009	569	387	205	181	129
Pakistan	62	55	68	167	185	237	257	200	197	123	91
Democratic Republic of the Congo	256	140	138	109	149	173	102	71	76	62	72
Zimbabwe	88	69	51	77	87	114	91	48	69	50	70
Malawi	9	3	6	8	14	22	14	15	26	24	55
Algeria	68	66	32	49	47	65	71	32	53	39	51
Albania	142	99	58	35	71	51	47	13	35	46	48
Syria	15	18	22	25	9	17	3	2	11	16	38
Afghanistan	24	106	142	88	78	79	68	69	74	50	32
Bangladesh	6	7	20	5	24	47	30	51	22	32	31
South Africa	114	45	33	38	39	75	54	53	47	35	28
Iraq	129	38	55	215	285	203	76	29	21	12	27
China	168	152	96	139	259	180	194	228	156	36	22
Cameroon	125	62	57	78	44	67	50	56	24	16	19
Mauritius	0	1	2	0	19	19	15	19	12	18	16
Other countries	3 584	2 132	2 266	2 243	1 650	1 508	1 048	666	391	364	217
Total	**7 900**	**4 769**	**4 324**	**4 314**	**3 988**	**3 866**	**2 689**	**1 939**	**1 419**	**1 104**	**946**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ISRAEL

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Côte d'Ivoire	..	74	43	91	751	507	20	289	173	438	..
South Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	285	..
Eritrea	..	31	4	20	1 766	3 067	0	2	75	261	..
Nigeria	..	100	160	448	567	418	198	168	209	194	..
Ethiopia	..	316	56	13	45	495	16	148	94	138	..
Ghana	..	34	25	74	192	233	113	189	148	108	..
Guinea	..	7	181	151	23	24	10	35	4	70	..
Sudan	..	14	102	164	1 402	2 142	0	4	37	37	..
Colombia	..	28	23	31	67	92	40	75	36	23	..
Nepal	..	6	0	8	7	3	6	0	2	14	..
Togo	..	21	10	8	22	13	0	15	2	7	..
China	..	0	0	3	11	11	0	0	1	6	..
Chad	..	0	0	1	5	19	1	17	7	4	..
Myanmar	..	25	12	14	20	8	0	0	11	3	..
Guinea-Bissau	..	1	1	6	3	0	3	0	1	2	..
Other countries	..	265	292	316	501	706	402	506	4 945	409	..
Total	**..**	**922**	**909**	**1 348**	**5 382**	**7 738**	**809**	**1 448**	**5 745**	**1 999**	**..**

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/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

ITALY

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Pakistan	787	267	411	203	176	1 143	1 362	929	2 058	2 601	3 175
Nigeria	722	930	536	830	1 336	5 673	3 991	1 385	6 208	1 613	3 170
Somalia	1 743	186	117	99	757	4 864	1 604	84	1 205	807	2 761
Eritrea	1 230	831	1 313	2 151	2 260	2 934	890	181	498	734	2 088
Afghanistan	70	84	76	177	663	1 732	711	873	1 289	1 495	2 049
Mali	0	1	0	97	268	419	215	67	2 582	785	1 714
Gambia	0	37	25	49	142	413	307	80	282	321	1 701
Senegal	0	26	13	16	67	131	156	162	775	939	988
Egypt	0	6	7	21	53	76	42	41	249	445	905
Syria	0	7	3	15	27	55	120	48	288	354	634
Iraq	493	166	118	87	189	758	417	380	309	403	552
Tunisia	0	7	53	48	14	278	222	139	4 558	893	502
Turkey	466	323	168	175	394	501	541	854	612	478	487
Ghana	505	62	407	530	673	1 815	991	278	3 128	846	478
Bangladesh	297	342	407	283	315	1 684	1 338	222	1 595	566	460
Other countries	7 142	6 447	5 894	5 567	6 719	7 848	4 696	4 329	8 481	4 072	4 056
Total	**13 455**	**9 722**	**9 548**	**10 348**	**14 053**	**30 324**	**17 603**	**10 052**	**34 117**	**17 352**	**25 720**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

JAPAN

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Turkey	77	131	40	149	76	156	94	126	234	422	658
Nepal	1	3	5	11	4	20	29	109	251	320	544
Myanmar	111	138	212	626	500	979	568	342	491	368	380
Sri Lanka	4	9	7	27	43	90	234	171	224	255	345
Pakistan	12	12	10	12	27	37	92	83	169	298	241
Bangladesh	6	33	29	15	14	33	51	33	98	169	190
India	12	7	0	2	2	17	59	91	51	125	165
Ghana	1	1	0	0	1	4	3	13	15	104	114
Cameroon	8	11	1	5	12	29	11	20	48	58	99
Nigeria	2	2	2	10	6	10	17	33	51	112	68
Afghanistan	3	0	2	3	12	4	5	1	4	4	0
Algeria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Angola	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	2	3	0
Egypt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	6	0
Armenia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Other countries	99	79	76	94	119	220	225	172	227	301	456
Total	**336**	**426**	**384**	**954**	**816**	**1 599**	**1 388**	**1 203**	**1 867**	**2 545**	**3 260**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

KOREA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	146	295
Pakistan	9	0	1	5	4	47	95	129	434	244	275
Nigeria	0	0	26	16	100	27	16	19	39	102	206
Egypt	0	1	2	4	3	1	3	0	4	6	97
Nepal	1	2	8	78	275	12	2	5	14	43	90
Cameroon	0	0	4	2	2	5	10	11	6	30	77
South Africa	0	0	1	0	9	3	4	1	4	17	74
Ethiopia	13	1	7	21	4	6	1	6	6	15	68
China	10	64	145	28	29	30	19	7	8	3	46
Bangladesh	6	1	9	8	23	30	41	41	38	32	45
Liberia	4	8	11	6	15	15	1	4	20	28	42
Yemen	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	34
Uganda	1	9	46	20	50	21	15	12	78	56	28
Afghanistan	1	1	1	0	1	0	8	15	60	4	27
Sri Lanka	0	0	8	27	67	71	26	4	100	308	26
Other countries	41	57	143	63	135	96	83	171	196	108	144
Total	**86**	**145**	**412**	**278**	**717**	**364**	**324**	**425**	**1 011**	**1 143**	**1 574**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

LUXEMBOURG

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Serbia (and Kosovo)	541	361	219	193	225	219	149	302	1 064	575	189
Bosnia and Herzegovina	59	35	36	17	24	31	35	11	38	278	140
Montenegro	0	0	0	14	15	14	6	0	100	288	89
Albania	66	48	33	20	16	14	26	18	24	300	70
Nigeria	1	3	45	14	7	5	6	5	9	24	53
Tunisia	2	1	2	3	1	0	2	3	42	46	52
Algeria	81	69	39	8	11	4	11	43	30	32	37
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	23	13	0	3	5	7	6	13	452	158	33
Iraq	14	9	8	16	14	29	37	95	41	31	27
Morocco	4	2	0	4	1	1	3	4	4	8	25
Belarus	55	40	16	5	8	6	15	15	9	18	24
Syria	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	19	10	14	24
Iran	31	59	41	31	16	18	24	23	22	28	22
Afghanistan	2	6	3	8	3	4	13	15	22	11	17
Georgia	44	7	6	1	1	1	2	7	16	7	16
Other countries	626	923	354	186	79	110	141	171	193	185	171
Total	**1 550**	**1 577**	**802**	**523**	**426**	**463**	**477**	**744**	**2 076**	**2 003**	**989**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

MEXICO

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Honduras	37	67	51	39	31	55	184	135	168	272	529
El Salvador	5	46	31	31	45	51	119	159	181	200	308
Cuba	14	26	80	65	27	7	42	42	48	77	101
India	1	10	27	5	2	3	37	271	36	8	87
Guatemala	62	23	29	20	15	18	39	59	69	54	46
Colombia	38	40	40	52	57	41	62	82	43	41	40
Nigeria	6	0	2	1	13	1	8	23	27	21	39
Nicaragua	3	11	14	4	7	9	29	15	6	11	20
Haiti	8	11	20	17	41	61	65	39	38	25	14
Ghana	0	0	0	2	1	3	3	9	14	7	13
Syria	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	11
Bangladesh	5	8	3	4	29	0	1	5	7	3	9
United States	3	1	1	1	2	1	4	10	4	0	7
Cameroon	0	1	6	8	3	2	2	2	4	5	6
Dominican Republic	2	3	0	0	1	1	1	16	4	5	5
Other countries	89	157	383	230	100	64	84	172	104	80	61
Total	**275**	**404**	**687**	**480**	**374**	**317**	**680**	**1 039**	**753**	**811**	**1 296**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Somalia	451	792	1 315	1 462	1 874	3 842	5 889	3 372	1 415	877	3 078
Syria	234	180	278	293	36	48	101	125	168	454	2 673
Iraq	3 473	1 043	1 620	2 766	2 004	5 027	1 991	1 383	1 435	1 391	1 094
Eritrea	123	148	204	175	153	236	475	392	458	424	978
Iran	555	450	557	921	187	322	502	785	929	834	728
Afghanistan	492	688	902	932	143	395	1 281	1 364	1 885	1 022	673
Serbia (and Kosovo)	393	395	336	607	24	32	76	106	120	170	316
Russian Federation	245	206	285	254	81	95	151	207	451	743	263
Stateless	235	183	147	232	70	77	115	83	65	40	216
Georgia	116	73	213	156	66	64	412	587	189	226	209
Armenia	203	247	197	280	97	208	349	611	471	200	185
Egypt	23	24	30	14	11	28	49	40	64	176	177
Uganda	22	33	19	40	29	28	60	80	91	111	164
Guinea	199	116	105	116	102	154	235	230	209	186	158
Pakistan	84	66	82	117	22	46	42	60	94	150	150
Other countries	6 554	5 138	6 057	6 100	2 203	2 797	3 177	3 908	3 546	2 660	3 337
Total	**13 402**	**9 782**	**12 347**	**14 465**	**7 102**	**13 399**	**14 905**	**13 333**	**11 590**	**9 664**	**14 399**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NEW ZEALAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Sri Lanka	23	29	6	30	25	26	30	28	19	25	41
Fiji	19	2	12	10	10	7	45	66	29	21	37
Iran	135	88	47	29	27	28	24	43	29	38	22
China	56	49	19	30	26	24	20	22	20	33	21
Pakistan	7	9	8	11	8	3	18	8	22	24	18
Iraq	39	12	22	35	30	33	25	11	11	6	15
Turkey	1	1	2	4	3	1	2	4	4	9	12
Syria	7	16	11	1	1	2	8	3	2	13	10
South Africa	10	8	3	2	2	3	9	20	14	0	9
Indonesia	6	0	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	2	8
Afghanistan	4	0	1	0	3	2	2	5	11	10	7
Egypt	2	2	6	0	2	4	5	6	22	4	7
Bahrain	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	22	0	6
Bangladesh	29	22	23	16	18	9	7	6	8	8	6
Czech Republic	10	29	28	12	4	10	23	14	5	12	6
Other countries	493	313	159	95	86	101	117	100	86	119	66
Total	**841**	**580**	**348**	**276**	**245**	**254**	**336**	**340**	**305**	**324**	**291**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

NORWAY

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Eritrea	201	110	177	316	789	1 799	2 667	1 711	1 256	1 183	3 215
Somalia	1 623	958	667	632	187	1 293	1 901	1 397	2 216	2 181	1 617
Syria	97	71	79	49	49	115	278	119	198	327	841
Afghanistan	2 050	1 059	466	224	234	1 363	3 871	979	979	986	684
Sudan	67	33	45	36	37	118	251	181	209	472	586
Stateless	379	298	209	237	515	940	1 280	448	262	263	532
Nigeria	241	205	94	54	108	436	582	354	240	355	481
Russian Federation	1 923	937	545	548	863	1 078	867	628	365	371	324
Serbia (and Kosovo)	2 216	859	468	369	585	675	406	444	240	246	303
Ethiopia	293	148	100	143	241	354	706	505	293	185	282
Iran	621	394	279	218	222	720	574	429	355	441	250
Albania	247	112	79	43	31	53	29	24	43	169	179
Iraq	971	412	671	1 002	1 227	3 137	1 214	460	357	221	166
Pakistan	95	48	33	26	43	38	139	99	92	147	141
Bangladesh	30	30	24	20	12	8	20	17	75	225	124
Other countries	4 905	2 271	1 466	1 403	1 385	2 304	2 441	2 269	1 873	2 013	1 742
Total	**15 959**	**7 945**	**5 402**	**5 320**	**6 528**	**14 431**	**17 226**	**10 064**	**9 053**	**9 785**	**11 467**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

POLAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Russian Federation	5 581	7 182	6 244	4 018	6 668	6 647	5 726	4 795	3 034	4 929	11 786
Georgia	30	47	47	31	12	54	4 213	1 082	1 427	2 956	1 024
Syria	4	7	7	0	4	8	7	8	11	107	248
Armenia	104	18	27	15	22	33	147	107	168	380	150
Kazakhstan	6	30	24	18	5	17	5	11	17	120	76
Kyrgyzstan	10	19	16	13	7	5	13	37	41	30	59
Afghanistan	251	57	6	11	9	4	14	25	35	88	43
Egypt	4	2	1	2	2	6	4	11	5	102	33
Viet Nam	25	16	23	27	40	57	67	47	26	50	33
Ukraine	85	72	84	43	26	25	36	45	43	58	32
Iraq	75	6	15	16	22	66	21	27	25	25	28
Somalia	15	19	4	1	9	1	2	5	9	7	25
Stateless	12	11	15	6	12	11	19	21	14	35	25
Belarus	58	53	82	55	62	33	37	46	64	61	24
Pakistan	151	211	69	46	25	15	19	27	8	34	24
Other countries	510	329	196	128	280	221	257	240	159	185	148
Total	**6 921**	**8 079**	**6 860**	**4 430**	**7 205**	**7 203**	**10 587**	**6 534**	**5 086**	**9 167**	**13 758**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

PORTUGAL

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	146
Guinea	1	0	1	6	14	8	18	43	46	65	83
Nigeria	2	1	1	6	2	8	9	7	22	27	37
Senegal	1	2	2	1	1	7	1	2	5	7	36
Mali	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	26
Pakistan	1	5	0	1	2	0	1	4	11	8	26
Guinea-Bissau	1	5	6	5	1	4	5	10	11	17	15
Côte d'Ivoire	0	0	0	6	2	1	0	1	18	11	15
Morocco	1	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	5	4	15
Democratic Republic of the Congo	3	2	7	16	11	20	5	9	13	17	14
Gambia	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	2	2	1	7
Russian Federation	3	13	7	6	6	0	2	5	9	6	7
Somalia	0	0	1	0	16	3	0	2	26	9	7
Bangladesh	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	2	5
Colombia	5	8	27	6	86	26	15	16	13	10	5
Other countries	69	77	60	73	82	82	81	59	92	91	63
Total	**88**	**113**	**114**	**128**	**224**	**161**	**139**	**160**	**275**	**299**	**507**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	0	0	1	0	0	18	6	3	31	197	1 073
Afghanistan	500	638	674	827	2 211	2 047	1 577	884	540	493	382
Georgia	46	24	27	138	586	2 684	3 580	641	314	238	137
Egypt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	31	3	13	73
Uzbekistan	38	72	102	37	63	90	136	96	70	69	54
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	0	0	1	7	11	26	59	21	67	32	27
Sudan	0	0	3	4	18	10	13	3	2	6	20
Kyrgyzstan	3	0	12	0	5	3	7	246	39	29	16
Democratic Republic of the Congo	4	10	7	2	34	23	11	15	14	14	14
Tajikistan	12	23	3	7	43	48	29	20	19	17	14
Ukraine	4	6	4	10	20	19	10	17	11	11	13
Lebanon	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	2	5	1	12
Pakistan	0	0	1	0	13	8	14	2	7	6	10
Iraq	13	18	20	13	36	61	37	6	12	11	8
Azerbaijan	21	9	5	21	31	48	4	16	8	2	6
Other countries	96	110	100	104	298	326	217	178	123	104	103
Total	**737**	**910**	**960**	**1 170**	**3 369**	**5 418**	**5 701**	**2 181**	**1 265**	**1 243**	**1 962**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Afghanistan	627	393	109	41	67	72	51	76	75	90	84
Somalia	114	12	16	3	9	0	13	23	78	223	42
Eritrea	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	25
Armenia	758	144	17	14	28	22	21	12	10	26	21
Georgia	582	989	258	209	134	119	98	63	62	61	16
Syria	72	47	24	6	38	7	10	4	10	4	13
Pakistan	307	799	196	182	648	109	168	34	15	16	8
Sudan	12	8	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	8
Iraq	475	116	35	206	131	42	13	9	8	4	6
Russian Federation	2 653	2 413	1 037	463	307	100	72	66	38	14	6
China	1 080	1 271	280	164	96	44	39	31	13	17	5
Mongolia	5	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	1	1	5
Ukraine	73	64	45	32	36	32	13	20	8	7	5
Iran	182	53	9	5	2	5	10	12	13	3	3
Libya	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	3
Other countries	3 418	5 080	1 521	1 542	1 143	358	312	191	159	235	31
Total	**10 358**	**11 391**	**3 549**	**2 871**	**2 643**	**910**	**822**	**541**	**491**	**732**	**281**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SLOVENIA

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	4	11	33	56
Serbia (and Kosovo)	181	413	640	243	234	69	39	33	42	31	37
Pakistan	28	16	28	6	11	4	6	0	29	8	19
Afghanistan	2	5	6	2	12	10	11	31	69	64	14
Algeria	65	19	3	0	0	2	2	6	11	26	14
Russian Federation	15	15	11	7	9	3	5	8	4	6	13
Turkey	192	188	231	62	38	72	12	32	51	26	11
Morocco	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	9	9	9
Cuba	16	5	1	1	0	4	0	1	0	7	7
Iran	88	7	4	3	2	11	9	11	11	4	6
Somalia	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	20	20	6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	48	123	303	44	22	13	41	27	9	7	5
Nigeria	2	1	2	1	4	7	9	11	5	7	5
Albania	15	199	146	32	21	7	6	0	3	0	4
West Bank and Gaza Strip	17	7	5	11	4	0	1	10	7	6	4
Other countries	429	279	452	106	68	36	41	60	92	51	33
Total	**1 100**	**1 278**	**1 834**	**518**	**425**	**238**	**183**	**246**	**373**	**305**	**243**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SPAIN

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Mali	63	253	273	25	7	11	29	14	41	101	1 482
Syria	7	39	35	15	31	97	30	19	97	255	725
Algeria	682	991	406	230	247	152	181	176	122	202	351
Nigeria	1 688	1 029	726	632	680	808	458	238	259	204	182
Somalia	128	13	24	10	154	195	104	39	59	98	136
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0	0	0	0	70	56	59	106	131	78	130
Pakistan	20	25	7	23	23	52	57	63	78	88	102
Guinea	171	228	173	23	91	98	130	166	150	73	90
Cameroon	178	72	99	83	57	71	111	156	129	121	88
Democratic Republic of the Congo	274	203	170	102	141	105	114	87	70	78	77
Côte d'Ivoire	241	110	162	236	335	500	304	119	550	106	72
Afghanistan	12	14	10	7	15	50	42	41	30	46	66
Colombia	577	760	1 655	2 239	2 497	752	255	123	104	60	62
Iran	21	34	23	20	27	64	45	63	62	59	61
Cuba	125	79	78	59	83	119	84	406	440	64	58
Other countries	1 731	1 685	1 413	1 593	3 204	1 387	1 004	928	1 092	946	831
Total	**5 918**	**5 535**	**5 254**	**5 297**	**7 662**	**4 517**	**3 007**	**2 744**	**3 414**	**2 579**	**4 513**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWEDEN

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Syria	666	411	392	433	440	551	587	421	640	7 814	16 317
Stateless	1 787	1 578	806	815	1 312	1 051	912	1 033	1 109	2 289	6 921
Eritrea	641	395	425	608	878	857	1 000	1 443	1 647	2 356	4 844
Somalia	3 069	905	422	1 066	3 349	3 361	5 874	5 553	3 981	5 644	3 901
Afghanistan	811	903	435	594	609	784	1 694	2 393	4 122	4 755	3 011
Serbia (and Kosovo)	5 305	4 022	2 944	1 976	2 500	1 989	1 806	7 910	3 915	3 639	2 878
Iraq	2 700	1 456	2 330	8 951	18 559	6 083	2 297	1 977	1 633	1 322	1 476
Iran	787	660	582	494	485	799	1 144	1 182	1 120	1 529	1 172
Albania	297	221	169	95	118	118	114	61	263	1 490	1 156
Russian Federation	1 361	1 288	1 057	755	788	933	1 058	988	933	941	1 036
Morocco	52	44	38	52	75	62	78	100	154	381	648
Georgia	537	403	183	134	143	211	359	291	280	748	625
Nigeria	452	429	154	104	136	176	321	321	340	501	601
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 397	785	387	234	217	150	129	123	981	1 549	517
Mongolia	342	346	326	461	519	791	753	727	773	463	487
Other countries	11 144	9 315	6 880	7 545	6 242	6 437	6 068	7 300	7 757	8 455	8 669
Total	**31 348**	**23 161**	**17 530**	**24 317**	**36 370**	**24 353**	**24 194**	**31 823**	**29 648**	**43 876**	**54 259**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Eritrea	235	180	159	1 201	1 662	2 849	1 724	1 708	3 225	4 295	2 490
Syria	175	127	116	161	290	388	400	387	688	1 146	1 852
Nigeria	480	418	219	209	310	988	1 786	1 597	1 303	2 353	1 574
Tunisia	154	121	102	80	90	74	204	291	2 324	1 993	1 565
Morocco	32	33	30	39	30	37	36	113	429	860	974
Afghanistan	218	207	238	233	307	405	751	632	1 006	1 349	863
Serbia (and Kosovo)	2 921	1 777	1 506	1 225	953	1 301	1 269	1 358	1 539	2 084	826
Algeria	836	480	186	161	132	236	300	313	464	681	714
China	228	70	87	475	251	272	365	333	688	801	671
Georgia	756	731	397	287	199	481	638	531	281	614	565
Somalia	471	592	485	273	395	2 014	753	302	558	762	552
Sri Lanka	340	251	233	328	618	1 262	1 415	892	433	443	455
Gambia	14	15	11	16	21	204	178	192	295	533	441
Turkey	1 652	1 154	723	693	621	519	559	462	508	515	373
Russian Federation	534	505	375	426	195	208	452	315	217	298	370
Other countries	11 760	7 587	5 194	4 730	4 313	5 368	5 175	4 095	5 481	7 221	5 155
Total	**20 806**	**14 248**	**10 061**	**10 537**	**10 387**	**16 606**	**16 005**	**13 521**	**19 439**	**25 948**	**19 440**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

TURKEY

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Iraq	342	964	1 047	722	3 470	6 904	3 763	3 656	7 912	6 942	25 280
Afghanistan	77	341	364	261	705	2 642	1 009	1 248	2 486	14 146	8 726
Iran	3 092	2 029	1 716	2 297	1 685	2 116	1 981	2 881	3 411	3 589	5 897
Somalia	183	308	473	680	1 125	647	295	448	744	776	1 276
West Bank and Gaza Strip	6	23	29	51	157	74	72	64	157	236	686
Pakistan	0	6	2	3	12	9	36	42	29	24	528
Uganda	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	48	13	218
Sudan	64	28	76	113	76	156	92	48	43	38	205
Yemen	2	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	72	58	192
Uzbekistan	24	28	24	24	42	35	38	101	147	76	181
Bangladesh	1	2	0	0	2	3	21	14	5	16	148
Cameroon	0	0	0	1	5	18	19	20	57	31	141
Democratic Republic of the Congo	7	10	12	28	76	71	41	66	76	77	114
Syria	7	16	10	7	21	20	46	37	188	24	108
Turkmenistan	0	4	8	6	2	3	3	8	14	44	103
Other countries	147	148	153	358	268	282	416	592	632	380	1 004
Total	**3 952**	**3 908**	**3 914**	**4 553**	**7 646**	**12 981**	**7 834**	**9 226**	**16 021**	**26 470**	**44 807**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED KINGDOM

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Pakistan	3 145	3 030	2 290	1 850	1 765	2 075	2 100	2 151	4 005	4 867	4 525
Iran	3 495	3 990	3 505	2 685	2 510	2 595	2 145	2 224	3 051	3 162	2 956
Sri Lanka	810	400	480	620	1 250	1 865	1 445	1 635	2 142	2 143	2 259
Syria	155	410	390	185	190	180	185	160	508	1 289	2 036
Albania	685	345	200	185	190	175	235	219	439	1 017	1 593
Afghanistan	2 590	1 605	1 775	2 660	2 815	3 725	3 540	1 843	1 529	1 242	1 436
Eritrea	1 070	1 265	1 900	2 735	1 905	2 335	1 410	772	827	768	1 409
Nigeria	1 110	1 210	1 230	990	905	1 070	910	1 149	1 105	1 498	1 402
Bangladesh	820	550	465	495	590	510	495	501	671	1 169	1 242
India	2 410	1 485	1 000	715	600	775	715	610	615	1 195	1 096
China	3 495	2 410	1 775	2 030	2 185	1 615	1 585	1 375	1 024	981	992
Sudan	1 050	1 445	990	750	400	290	255	643	793	740	831
Somalia	7 195	3 295	2 105	2 175	1 960	1 575	1 105	679	660	678	519
Libya	220	185	185	130	55	75	100	123	1 204	412	494
Viet Nam	1 175	790	400	95	185	235	470	467	347	416	451
Other countries	30 615	18 205	12 125	10 035	10 375	12 195	13 945	8 093	6 978	6 401	6 154
Total	**60 040**	**40 620**	**30 815**	**28 335**	**27 880**	**31 290**	**30 640**	**22 644**	**25 898**	**27 978**	**29 395**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158468

Table B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

UNITED STATES

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
China	8 287	5 627	7 623	9 362	8 781	9 825	10 725	12 510	15 649	15 884	12 295
Mexico	4 231	1 763	1 581	1 673	2 551	2 713	2 295	3 879	8 304	11 067	10 077
El Salvador	1 347	1 423	1 755	2 393	3 455	2 789	2 366	2 685	4 324	4 587	5 692
Guatemala	2 882	1 569	1 411	1 515	2 388	1 853	1 740	2 171	3 671	4 152	4 865
Honduras	600	603	781	986	1 096	893	850	1 030	1 559	2 115	3 165
Egypt	575	398	329	406	367	412	399	479	1 136	2 285	2 860
Haiti	5 655	5 107	5 299	5 135	3 079	2 078	1 649	1 223	1 377	1 612	1 879
Ecuador	111	80	56	85	89	168	174	404	807	1 394	1 848
India	1 672	866	620	602	576	734	751	755	2 477	1 998	1 633
Syria	152	99	59	71	52	75	41	58	263	704	1 583
Nepal	330	321	415	494	532	680	1 068	1 054	1 321	1 666	1 507
Ethiopia	1 029	1 118	807	1 168	1 124	1 168	1 249	1 193	1 066	796	1 493
Iran	764	443	337	400	290	334	344	504	595	767	1 017
Iraq	542	268	360	511	748	809	543	413	486	592	965
Russian Federation	904	783	669	638	615	677	806	828	888	872	954
Other countries	33 790	24 504	17 138	15 662	14 706	14 154	13 080	13 785	16 664	15 610	16 410
Total	**62 871**	**44 972**	**39 240**	**41 101**	**40 449**	**39 362**	**38 080**	**42 971**	**60 587**	**66 101**	**68 243**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Metadata related to Tables A.3 and B.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Totals in Table A.3 might differ from the tables by nationality (Tables B.3) because the former totals get revised retroactively while the origin breakdown does not. Data for Table A.3 generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications.

Comments on countries of asylum:

France: From 2003 on, data include unaccompanied minors.

United Kingdom: Prior to 2003, data by nationality refer to the number of cases, and not persons. All figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of 5.

United States: Data for 2004-10 are a combination of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS – number of cases) affirmative asylum applications, and of the Executive Office for Immigration Review (EOIR – number of persons) defensive asylum applications, if the person is under threat of removal.

Comments on countries of origin:

Serbia (and Kosovo): Data may include asylum-seekers from Serbia, Montenegro, Serbia and Montenegro, and/or Former Yugoslavia.

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Population Data Unit, *www.unhcr.org/statistics*.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined across OECD 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 dwelling 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.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands and percentages

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Australia	4 482.1	4 584.9	4 694.3	4 796.6	4 927.1	5 090.1	5 281.4	5 516.9	5 760.3	5 901.2	6 029.1	6 208.7
% of total population	23.3	23.5	23.8	24.1	24.4	24.9	25.4	26.0	26.6	26.8	27.0	27.3
Austria	1 112.1	1 137.4	1 141.2	1 154.8	1 195.2	1 215.7	1 235.7	1 260.3	1 275.5	1 294.7	1 323.1	1 364.8
% of total population	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.1	14.5	14.7	14.9	15.1	15.2	15.4	15.7	16.2
Belgium	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	1 220.1	1 268.9	1 319.3	1 380.3	1 443.9	1 503.8	1 628.8	1 643.6	1 689.5
% of total population	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.7	12.1	12.5	13.0	13.5	13.9	14.9	14.9	15.2
Canada	5 448.5	*5 600.7*	*5 735.9*	*5 872.3*	*6 026.9*	6 187.0	*6 304.7*	*6 422.5*	*6 540.2*	*6 658.0*	6 775.8	*6 920.2*
% of total population	17.6	*17.9*	*18.1*	*18.4*	*18.7*	19.0	*19.2*	*19.4*	*19.6*	*19.5*	19.6	*19.8*
Chile	..	184.5	223.0	235.5	247.4	258.8	290.9	317.1	352.3	369.4	388.2	415.5
% of total population	..	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
Czech Republic	448.5	*471.9*	*482.2*	*499.0*	*523.4*	*566.3*	*636.1*	*679.6*	*672.0*	*661.2*	745.2	*744.1*
% of total population	4.4	*4.6*	*4.7*	*4.9*	*5.1*	*5.5*	*6.2*	*6.5*	*6.4*	*6.3*	7.1	*7.1*
Denmark	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4	350.4	360.9	378.7	401.8	414.4	428.9	441.5	456.4
% of total population	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.5	7.7	7.9	8.2
Estonia	245.3	242.5	239.3	235.5	228.6	226.5	224.3	221.9	217.9	212.7	210.8	198.4
% of total population	17.9	17.7	17.6	17.4	16.9	16.8	16.7	16.6	16.3	15.9	15.8	14.9
Finland	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4	176.6	187.9	202.5	218.6	233.2	248.1	266.1	285.5
% of total population	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.3
France	6 260.6	6 421.2	6 587.6	6 748.9	6 910.1	7 017.2	7 129.3	7 202.1	7 287.8	7 358.2	7 462.0	7 538.0
% of total population	10.5	10.7	10.9	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.9
Germany	..	..	..	..	10 399.0	10 431.0	10 529.0	10 623.0	10 601.0	10 591.0	10 689.0	10 918.0
% of total population	..	..	..	..	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.9	12.9	13.0	13.1	13.3
Greece	1 122.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	828.4	750.7	729.9
% of total population	10.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.4	6.7	6.6
Hungary	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0	331.5	344.6	381.8	394.2	407.3	451.4	473.3	424.2
% of total population	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.3
Iceland	18.3	19.1	19.5	20.7	24.7	30.4	35.9	37.6	35.1	34.7	34.7	35.4
% of total population	6.4	6.6	6.8	7.1	8.3	10.0	11.5	11.8	11.0	10.9	10.9	11.0
Ireland	*356.0*	390.0	*426.5*	*461.8*	*520.8*	601.7	*693.9*	*750.9*	*766.3*	*754.2*	752.5	*749.2*
% of total population	*9.2*	9.9	*10.7*	*11.4*	*12.6*	14.2	*15.7*	*16.7*	*17.2*	*16.9*	16.4	*16.3*
Israel	1 978.0	1 983.0	1 975.0	1 961.0	1 948.0	1 930.0	1 916.0	1 899.0	1 878.0	1 869.0	1 850.0	1 834.5
% of total population	30.7	30.2	29.5	28.8	28.1	27.4	26.7	26.0	25.1	24.5	23.8	23.2
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4 375.2	4 798.7	5 350.4	5 457.8	5 695.9
% of total population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.4	8.0	8.9	9.0	9.4
Luxembourg	144.8	*147.8*	*154.9*	*160.4*	*168.3*	*175.4*	*183.7*	*194.5*	*197.2*	205.2	*215.3*	*226.2*
% of total population	32.8	*33.1*	*34.4*	*35.3*	*36.5*	*37.4*	*38.6*	*40.2*	*40.0*	40.9	*41.5*	*42.6*
Mexico	..	..	..	..	584.5	610.1	699.3	733.7	850.1	961.1	967.2	973.7
% of total population	..	..	..	..	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Netherlands	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	1 868.7	1 906.3	1 927.7
% of total population	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.1	11.2	11.4	11.5
New Zealand	698.6	*737.1*	*770.5*	*796.7*	*840.6*	879.5	*915.0*	*950.0*	*981.3*	*1 013.0*	*1 040.7*	*1 066.3*
% of total population	18.0	*18.7*	*19.1*	*19.5*	*20.3*	21.0	*21.6*	*22.3*	*22.7*	*23.2*	*23.6*	*24.1*
Norway	315.1	333.9	347.3	361.1	380.4	405.1	445.4	488.8	526.8	569.1	616.3	663.9
% of total population	7.0	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.7	9.5	10.3	10.9	11.6	12.4	13.2
Poland	775.3	776.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	674.9	..
% of total population	2.0	2.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	..
Portugal	651.5	*719.4*	*745.6*	*774.8*	*742.1*	*753.0*	*769.6*	*790.3*	*834.8*	*851.5*	871.8	..
% of total population	6.3	*6.9*	*7.1*	*7.4*	*7.1*	*7.2*	*7.3*	*7.5*	*7.9*	*8.1*	8.3	..
Russian Federation	..	11 976.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11 194.7	..	..
% of total population	..	8.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.9	..	..
Slovak Republic	119.1	..	..	207.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	158.2
% of total population	2.2	..	..	3.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.9

Table A.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Thousands and percentages

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Slovenia	..	170.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	228.6	230.1	299.7
% of total population	..	8.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.2	11.2	14.6
Spain	2 594.1	3 302.4	3 693.8	4 391.5	4 837.6	5 250.0	6 044.5	6 466.3	6 604.2	6 677.8	6 737.9	6 618.2
% of total population	6.4	8.0	8.8	10.3	11.1	11.9	13.5	14.2	14.4	14.5	14.6	14.3
Sweden	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	1 384.9	1 427.3	1 473.3
% of total population	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.5	12.9	13.4	13.9	14.4	14.8	15.1	15.5
Switzerland	*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*	2 075.2	2 158.4	2 218.4
% of total population	*22.3*	*22.8*	*23.1*	*23.5*	*23.8*	*24.2*	*24.9*	*25.8*	*26.3*	26.6	27.3	27.7
United Kingdom	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	7 056.0	7 430.0	7 588.0
% of total population	8.2	*8.4*	*8.6*	*8.9*	*9.4*	9.6	10.3	11.0	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.9
United States	31 548.1	33 096.2	33 667.7	34 257.7	35 769.6	37 469.4	38 048.5	38 016.1	38 452.8	39 916.9	40 381.6	40 738.2
% of total population	11.1	11.5	11.6	11.7	12.1	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.9	13.0	13.0

Notes: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.4.
Estimates are in italic.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158425

Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
United Kingdom	1 120.0	1 118.5	1 120.8	1 125.7	1 141.0	1 154.8	1 169.2	1 180.2	1 182.5	1 180.2	1 211.4	49
New Zealand	407.4	414.9	419.9	430.0	445.1	467.8	497.4	521.9	538.3	564.9	576.7	49
China	174.2	192.2	210.6	233.8	259.2	285.1	319.4	350.8	377.0	391.1	402.3	55
India	114.5	126.4	140.6	157.9	180.1	215.6	263.3	321.2	343.2	343.1	354.2	43
Viet Nam	172.4	176.3	178.8	181.5	185.5	189.8	196.3	204.4	210.1	212.1	211.2	53
Philippines	116.3	121.3	126.6	132.6	140.0	148.5	159.4	170.5	178.6	183.0	204.4	63
Italy	236.5	234.2	231.9	229.7	227.3	223.6	219.2	215.5	211.5	209.8	200.0	48
South Africa	95.4	101.8	108.9	114.7	120.3	127.6	137.3	149.0	153.6	157.6	168.2	50
Malaysia	90.0	94.0	98.7	102.6	107.1	112.6	119.2	125.2	130.0	137.7	140.3	54
Germany	118.7	120.0	121.3	122.6	124.4	125.2	125.5	125.2	124.8	126.1	125.8	52
Greece	132.7	133.0	133.1	133.3	133.4	131.6	129.5	127.5	125.6	123.9	121.0	51
Sri Lanka	61.5	64.0	65.7	68.5	71.7	76.4	82.5	88.4	92.4	94.1	103.6	49
United States	61.1	63.6	65.8	68.8	72.9	76.7	78.2	79.4	82.2	86.7	96.3	52
Lebanon	81.2	83.0	84.0	85.3	86.5	87.9	88.8	89.1	89.3	89.5	90.8	48
Ireland	56.2	56.8	57.5	58.3	59.5	61.0	64.7	70.6	73.5	76.6	90.0	48
Other countries	1 542.8	1 588.3	1 625.1	1 672.2	1 725.0	1 781.7	1 846.4	1 919.3	1 968.7	2 029.1	2 112.9	
Total	**4 584.9**	**4 694.3**	**4 796.6**	**4 927.1**	**5 090.1**	**5 281.4**	**5 516.9**	**5 760.3**	**5 901.2**	**6 029.1**	**6 208.7**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Germany	142.7	148.1	155.5	163.0	169.8	178.7	186.2	191.2	196.9	201.4	205.9	54
Turkey	135.2	142.7	147.9	152.5	154.1	155.1	156.6	157.8	158.5	158.7	159.2	47
Bosnia and Herzegovina	122.7	125.8	128.8	131.2	132.1	149.4	149.9	149.6	149.7	150.5	151.7	50
Serbia	170.0	175.2	181.5	187.7	188.5	133.7	132.8	131.9	132.4	131.7	132.4	53
Romania	42.0	44.7	46.6	47.8	48.2	53.0	57.0	60.0	64.5	69.1	73.9	56
Poland	42.0	43.1	47.8	51.8	54.2	56.4	57.1	57.0	57.8	60.5	63.2	53
Hungary	31.2	31.6	32.5	33.2	33.9	34.7	36.2	37.6	39.3	42.6	48.1	55
Czech Republic	55.4	54.6	54.2	52.9	51.5	47.8	46.4	45.0	43.6	42.5	41.6	63
Croatia	34.0	34.5	35.0	35.2	35.1	40.3	40.0	39.7	39.3	39.1	39.0	54
Slovak Republic	13.9	14.9	16.8	18.3	19.3	22.5	24.5	25.3	26.0	27.7	30.0	65
Russian Federation	9.1	12.1	18.0	21.2	22.8	23.5	25.1	25.9	26.4	27.5	29.4	58
Italy	25.6	25.8	25.9	25.7	25.5	25.1	25.0	25.0	25.2	25.3	26.2	49
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	14.3	15.4	16.4	17.3	17.6	20.0	20.5	20.7	21.1	21.3	21.7	47
Slovenia	16.6	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.0	19.2	19.0	18.7	18.4	18.5	18.9	57
Bulgaria	8.5	9.3	9.9	10.2	10.3	11.5	12.7	13.5	14.6	15.7	17.0	57
Other countries	274.2	247.1	221.5	230.9	236.7	264.7	271.4	276.6	280.9	290.9	306.5	
Total	**1 137.4**	**1 141.2**	**1 154.8**	**1 195.2**	**1 215.7**	**1 235.7**	**1 260.3**	**1 275.5**	**1 294.7**	**1 323.1**	**1 364.8**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	126.5	134.2	141.3	147.9	155.1	162.6	170.2	178.9	189.1	197.1	201.7	48
France	152.5	153.0	154.2	156.2	159.3	164.6	169.0	171.3	175.0	177.0	179.2	55
Netherlands	101.3	104.4	107.7	111.6	115.8	120.4	123.8	124.8	126.4	127.0	127.5	50
Italy	130.5	128.7	126.7	125.1	123.6	122.2	121.4	120.5	120.2	119.7	119.6	49
Turkey	78.6	78.6	81.0	83.8	86.4	89.0	91.4	93.6	97.0	97.4	97.8	48
Germany	80.1	83.3	83.5	83.6	83.6	83.8	84.2	84.1	84.2	83.8	83.1	55
Democratic Republic of the Congo	52.7	53.8	66.8	68.5	70.5	72.4	74.2	76.2	81.3	80.0	80.8	54
Poland	21.9	23.0	25.2	29.0	33.7	40.5	45.5	51.7	57.7	63.1	67.9	57
Romania	8.7	9.5	10.6	12.6	15.3	20.4	26.2	30.6	37.7	45.0	52.7	48
Russian Federation	..	14.6	17.6	25.1	29.8	30.8	34.5	39.0	51.1	46.7	47.7	61
Spain	36.6	36.2	35.7	35.5	35.4	35.5	36.1	37.0	38.8	40.5	42.9	54
Former Yugoslavia	23.6	25.8	27.9	30.3	..	..	..	..	..	41.0	41.1	50
Portugal	21.7	22.3	22.8	23.3	24.0	25.0	26.5	27.5	28.3	29.5	31.6	49
Algeria	16.0	17.0	17.7	18.5	19.4	20.3	21.2	22.4	24.3	24.6	25.0	43
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	8.2	11.7	14.4	18.7	21.0	23.9	50
Other countries	301.1	300.9	301.2	318.0	367.3	384.8	408.0	431.9	499.0	450.2	467.1	
Total	**1 151.8**	**1 185.5**	**1 220.1**	**1 268.9**	**1 319.3**	**1 380.3**	**1 443.9**	**1 503.8**	**1 628.8**	**1 643.6**	**1 689.5**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
India	..	..	..	..	443.7	..	..	..	..	547.9	..	50
China	..	..	..	..	466.9	..	..	..	..	545.5	..	55
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	579.6	..	..	..	..	537.0	..	52
Philippines	..	..	..	..	303.2	..	..	..	..	454.3	..	58
United States	..	..	..	..	250.5	..	..	..	..	263.5	..	56
Italy	..	..	..	..	296.9	..	..	..	..	256.8	..	49
Hong Kong, China	..	..	..	..	215.4	..	..	..	..	205.4	..	53
Viet Nam	..	..	..	..	160.2	..	..	..	..	165.1	..	53
Pakistan	..	..	..	..	133.3	..	..	..	..	156.9	..	49
Germany	..	..	..	..	171.4	..	..	..	..	152.3	..	53
Poland	..	..	..	..	170.5	..	..	..	..	152.3	..	55
Portugal	..	..	..	..	150.4	..	..	..	..	138.5	..	51
Sri Lanka	..	..	..	..	105.7	..	..	..	..	132.1	..	50
Jamaica	..	..	..	..	123.4	..	..	..	..	126.0	..	58
Iran	..	..	..	..	92.1	..	..	..	..	120.7	..	49
Other countries	..	..	..	..	2 523.8	..	..	..	..	2 821.2	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**6 187.0**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**6 775.8**	**..**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CHILE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Peru	37.9	49.1	53.7	58.4	66.1	83.4	107.6	130.9	138.5	146.6	157.7	57
Argentina	48.2	50.0	51.9	53.8	57.7	59.7	59.2	60.6	61.9	63.2	64.9	49
Bolivia	10.9	12.4	13.0	13.5	14.7	20.2	22.2	24.1	25.1	26.7	30.5	54
Ecuador	9.4	9.9	10.9	11.8	13.3	14.7	17.5	19.1	20.0	20.9	21.9	55
Colombia	4.1	4.5	5.5	6.6	7.7	9.2	10.9	12.9	14.4	16.1	19.1	59
Spain	9.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.0	11.3	11.6	12.1	46
Brazil	6.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.6	10.1	10.5	11.2	55
United States	7.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.7	10.0	10.4	10.9	46
Germany	5.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.5	6.7	6.9	7.1	50
China	1.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.6	5.2	5.9	6.6	47
Other countries	42.3	97.1	100.5	103.3	99.3	103.8	99.8	63.2	66.2	69.4	73.5	
Total	**184.5**	**223.0**	**235.5**	**247.4**	**258.8**	**290.9**	**317.1**	**352.3**	**369.4**	**388.2**	**415.5**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	289.6	..	53
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	138.0	..	45
Viet Nam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	52.4	..	40
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35.7	..	57
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	26.0	..	62
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.7	..	32
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12.8	..	51
Moldova	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.4	..	38
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.2	..	39
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.0	..	45
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.7	..	51
Mongolia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.6	..	59
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.9	..	45
Hungary	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.8	..	57
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.8	..	24
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	121.7	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**745.2**	**..**	**48**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Turkey	30.8	30.9	30.9	31.0	31.1	31.4	31.8	32.3	32.5	32.4	32.2	48
Poland	10.7	10.9	11.3	12.4	14.7	18.5	24.4	25.4	26.6	28.0	29.9	51
Germany	22.5	22.5	22.6	23.0	23.9	25.8	27.8	28.2	28.5	28.6	28.7	52
Iraq	19.7	20.7	20.8	20.7	20.7	21.2	21.3	21.3	21.3	21.2	21.2	45
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18.1	18.2	17.9	17.7	17.6	18.0	18.0	17.9	17.8	17.6	17.4	50
Norway	13.6	13.9	14.0	14.1	14.2	14.3	14.5	14.7	14.7	14.9	14.9	65
Iran	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.9	12.1	12.5	12.9	13.3	42
Sweden	12.3	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.7	12.9	13.2	13.2	13.2	13.1	13.1	63
Romania	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	3.3	4.6	5.9	7.7	10.1	12.9	46
United Kingdom	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.8	11.8	12.1	12.2	12.5	35
Pakistan	10.6	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.5	10.6	10.8	11.2	11.7	12.1	12.3	45
Lebanon	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.1	12.0	12.1	45
Afghanistan	8.4	9.0	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.7	10.0	10.6	11.1	11.6	44
Former Yugoslavia	12.4	12.3	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.5	11.2	12.6	12.3	12.0	10.2	50
Somalia	12.3	11.8	11.2	10.7	10.4	10.4	10.2	10.1	10.1	10.0	10.2	47
Other countries	123.6	128.2	133.7	139.6	146.6	155.9	168.4	175.6	185.4	193.3	204.0	
Total	**331.5**	**337.8**	**343.4**	**350.4**	**360.9**	**378.7**	**401.8**	**414.4**	**428.9**	**441.5**	**456.4**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

ESTONIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	140.2	..	..
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21.2	..	..
Belarus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.6	..	..
Latvia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.9	..	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.7	..	..
Finland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.2	..	..
Lithuania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	..	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.5	..	..
Georgia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.4	..	..
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.2	..	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.1	..	..
Moldova	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	..	..
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.6	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.6	..	..
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.4	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**197.6**	**..**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Former USSR	36.3	37.3	38.5	40.2	41.9	43.8	45.8	47.3	48.7	50.5	52.3	63
Estonia	9.5	10.3	11.2	12.6	14.5	16.7	19.2	21.8	25.0	29.5	35.0	51
Sweden	28.6	28.9	29.2	29.5	29.8	30.2	30.6	31.0	31.2	31.4	31.6	48
Russian Federation	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.7	7.3	8.0	9.0	10.0	55
Somalia	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3	5.8	6.4	7.1	8.1	8.8	9.1	48
Iraq	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.3	6.2	7.2	7.9	8.4	38
China	2.7	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.6	5.3	6.0	6.6	7.0	7.7	8.3	58
Thailand	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.1	4.8	5.4	6.1	6.7	7.4	8.1	79
Former Yugoslavia	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.8	6.1	6.3	6.4	6.5	44
Germany	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.3	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.2	43
Turkey	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.4	5.7	28
Viet Nam	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.5	4.8	5.2	55
United Kingdom	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.1	27
Iran	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.4	4.9	42
India	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.3	4.6	38
Other countries	39.5	41.7	44.0	47.4	51.1	56.4	62.2	66.9	71.8	77.8	84.5	
Total	**152.1**	**158.9**	**166.4**	**176.6**	**187.9**	**202.5**	**218.6**	**233.2**	**248.1**	**266.1**	**285.5**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Algeria	..	..	..	1 356.6	1 359.3	1 366.5	1 361.0	1 364.5	..	..	..	..
Morocco	..	..	..	846.9	859.0	870.9	881.3	888.0	..	..	..	..
Portugal	..	..	..	592.0	598.0	604.7	608.6	614.2	..	..	..	..
Tunisia	..	..	..	365.8	368.5	370.6	370.7	374.7	..	..	..	..
Italy	..	..	..	372.3	364.4	357.0	350.2	343.3	..	..	..	..
Spain	..	..	..	307.0	300.0	295.9	290.3	286.2	..	..	..	..
Turkey	..	..	..	237.4	243.4	246.8	251.1	255.8	..	..	..	..
Germany	..	..	..	225.6	224.6	223.5	221.7	219.0	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	..	..	..	148.8	158.0	164.0	166.8	169.1	..	..	..	..
Belgium	..	..	..	139.0	140.5	143.6	145.8	146.9	..	..	..	..
Viet Nam	..	..	..	119.6	119.8	120.1	119.7	118.9	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	..	..	..	108.5	110.7	112.5	114.5	115.8	..	..	..	..
Senegal	..	..	..	103.3	106.1	108.3	112.1	114.0	..	..	..	..
Poland	..	..	..	101.6	101.7	102.6	102.9	102.4	..	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	75.4	80.3	85.3	90.2	95.4	..	..	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	1 810.3	1 882.9	1 957.0	2 015.2	2 079.6	..	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**6 910.1**	**7 017.2**	**7 129.3**	**7 202.1**	**7 287.8**	**7 358.2**	**7 462.0**	**7 538.0**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	..	..	..	1 472	1 477	1 511	1 508	1 489	1 497	1 491	1 490	49
Poland	..	..	..	719	723	532	508	1 103	1 112	1 137	1 198	54
Russian Federation	..	..	..	1 005	875	513	445	992	977	1 004	991	55
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	340	206	140	628	696	747	740	52
Romania	..	..	..	317	318	209	168	386	372	392	438	54
Italy	..	..	..	437	431	431	433	434	420	425	411	38
Greece	..	..	..	233	229	240	232	227	231	227	236	45
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	202	193	181	228	227	233	230	58
Croatia	..	..	..	268	256	251	256	249	226	227	230	54
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	334	321	209	204	203	216	52
Austria	..	..	..	191	191	194	198	199	197	188	200	49
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	237	225	217	207	176	154	155	166	51
Netherlands	..	..	..	107	103	115	123	128	133	143	152	47
Former USSR	..	..	..	..	..	77	56	286	218	142	141	51
Hungary	..	..	..	87	80	94	85	104	102	113	120	48
Other countries	..	..	..	5 326	4 981	5 412	5 762	3 763	3 825	3 862	3 959	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**10 399**	**10 431**	**10 529**	**10 623**	**10 601**	**10 591**	**10 689**	**10 918**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Albania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	384.6	346.2	357.1	48
Georgia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	62.6	53.0	54.2	60
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55.7	44.4	37.8	62
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	45.7	43.9	35.0	68
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32.4	34.9	32.7	56
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29.3	25.1	21.2	58
Pakistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.1	22.5	24.0	13
Egypt	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.2	13.6	11.4	27
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13.3	13.5	11.5	85
Cyprus[1, 2]	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.2	12.8	10.3	55
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.1	10.6	9.6	44
Bangladesh	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14.2	10.5	7.5	2
Syria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.5	8.2	10.0	29
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.8	7.3	9.4	55
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.2	7.0	8.8	60
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	117.5	97.3	89.5	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**828.4**	**750.7**	**729.9**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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 recognises 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 Union:* 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.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	146.5	148.5	152.7	155.4	170.4	196.1	202.2	198.2	201.9	183.1	190.9	52
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	4.9	4.9	4.6	6.5	13.4	25.5	28.8	58
Serbia	..	..	..	..	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	8.6	24.4	27.4	48
Germany	15.9	16.3	18.8	21.9	24.5	27.4	28.7	31.3	29.4	25.7	27.3	48
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	2.1	3.0	3.2	3.3	5.7	21.1	21.3	62
Former USSR	31.0	31.4	32.2	31.9	27.4	28.5	30.1	31.2	30.7	13.1	14.1	64
China	3.8	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.4	5.6	10.9	9.0	9.9	46
Former Yugoslavia	30.3	30.7	29.9	29.6	28.6	28.5	28.0	33.7	33.2	10.9	8.5	47
Austria	4.2	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.2	6.9	7.3	7.9	7.8	7.6	8.1	45
United States	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.6	5.0	6.9	7.0	7.2	47
Former Czechoslovakia	33.3	33.4	31.4	32.6	30.4	29.6	28.5	28.5	24.1	5.6	5.8	66
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	3.2	3.8	4.3	4.8	4.7	4.9	5.6	42
Italy	..	..	..	..	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.9	36
France	1.5	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.6	3.9	4.1	3.6	3.5	3.7	46
Viet Nam	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.1	3.3	2.8	3.2	51
Other countries	32.4	33.5	38.3	42.4	30.4	35.0	37.7	41.1	55.3	55.2	58.5	
Total	**302.8**	**307.8**	**319.0**	**331.5**	**344.6**	**381.8**	**394.2**	**407.3**	**443.3**	**402.7**	**424.2**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

ICELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	2.0	2.0	2.2	3.6	6.6	10.5	11.6	10.1	9.5	9.3	9.4	48
Denmark	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	51
United States	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	46
Sweden	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	52
Germany	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	61
Philippines	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	66
Lithuania	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	50
United Kingdom	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	40
Thailand	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	74
Norway	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	54
Latvia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	53
Viet Nam	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	55
China	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	65
Portugal	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	37
France	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	47
Other countries	5.5	5.7	6.1	6.8	7.8	8.3	8.5	8.1	8.1	8.3	8.6	
Total	**19.1**	**19.5**	**20.7**	**24.7**	**30.4**	**35.9**	**37.6**	**35.1**	**34.7**	**34.7**	**35.4**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
United Kingdom	242.2	..	..	..	266.1	..	..	..	..	281.1	..	51
Poland	2.1	..	..	..	62.5	..	..	..	..	114.3	..	48
Lithuania	2.1	..	..	..	24.6	..	..	..	..	34.6	..	52
United States	21.0	..	..	..	24.6	..	..	..	..	26.9	..	54
Latvia	2.2	..	..	..	13.9	..	..	..	..	19.8	..	56
Nigeria	8.9	..	..	..	16.3	..	..	..	..	19.4	..	54
Romania	5.8	..	..	..	8.5	..	..	..	..	17.8	..	49
India	3.3	..	..	..	9.2	..	..	..	..	17.7	..	46
Philippines	3.9	..	..	..	9.4	..	..	..	..	13.6	..	58
Germany	8.5	..	..	..	11.5	..	..	..	..	12.7	..	55
China	5.6	..	..	..	11.0	..	..	..	..	11.3	..	52
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	8.1	..	..	..	..	10.6	..	47
France	6.7	..	..	..	9.1	..	..	..	..	9.9	..	50
Brazil	1.2	..	..	..	4.7	..	..	..	..	9.2	..	50
Pakistan	3.3	..	..	..	5.8	..	..	..	..	8.2	..	35
Other countries	73.2	..	..	..	116.3	..	..	..	..	145.4	..	
Total	**390.0**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**601.7**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**752.5**	**..**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158471

Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

ISRAEL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Former USSR	951.6	946.9	941.0	935.1	929.1	921.7	913.8	877.5	875.5	867.0	..	55
Morocco	161.9	159.7	157.5	155.4	153.2	150.7	148.5	154.7	152.0	149.6	..	53
Romania	117.3	113.8	110.4	106.9	103.7	100.2	96.9	96.4	93.1	90.0	..	56
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	82.7	84.8	..	51
Ethiopia	63.0	65.8	69.4	72.8	76.1	79.4	80.8	77.4	78.9	81.9	..	50
Iraq	73.0	71.4	69.9	68.3	66.7	65.1	63.5	63.7	61.8	60.0	..	53
Iran	50.5	49.9	49.4	48.8	48.2	47.6	46.8	49.8	48.9	48.1	..	51
Poland	72.5	68.3	64.4	60.6	57.0	53.4	50.1	54.0	50.7	48.0	..	56
France	30.1	31.4	33.2	35.4	37.6	39.6	40.9	41.4	42.9	43.5	..	55
Argentina	38.6	39.5	38.9	38.2	37.7	37.2	36.7	37.6	37.5	37.6	..	52
Tunisia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29.9	29.2	..	54
Yemen	34.6	33.7	32.7	31.8	30.8	29.9	28.9	28.9	27.9	26.9	..	56
Turkey	29.6	28.9	28.2	27.5	26.9	26.2	25.6	26.1	25.6	24.9	..	53
United Kingdom	19.2	19.4	19.8	20.3	21.1	21.7	22.2	21.8	22.5	23.0	..	53
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21.4	20.7	..	57
Other countries	341.1	346.3	346.2	346.8	341.9	343.3	344.3	348.8	217.7	214.8	..	
Total	**1 983.0**	**1 975.0**	**1 961.0**	**1 948.0**	**1 930.0**	**1 916.0**	**1 899.0**	**1 878.0**	**1 869.0**	**1 850.0**	**1 834.5**	**54**

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/10.1787/888933158471

Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

ITALY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	678.5	847.5	904.0	953.9	1 000.1	57
Albania	..	..	..	..	..	..	418.9	482.4	421.4	425.5	432.7	48
Morocco	..	..	..	..	..	..	277.0	355.9	392.1	402.3	409.6	43
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	209.2	225.9	218.2	220.0	57
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	138.8	149.9	191.9	201.8	210.0	79
Switzerland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	195.9	191.5	54
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	89.7	92.5	164.5	175.0	191.3	49
Moldova	..	..	..	..	..	..	83.6	108.4	132.1	143.2	157.1	67
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	140.4	138.7	136.7	60
Philippines	..	..	..	..	..	..	121.0	120.0	118.2	122.8	135.4	61
India	..	..	..	..	..	..	107.0	115.9	110.7	113.8	126.8	39
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	100.3	122.5	122.5	121.3	122.7	75
Peru	..	..	..	..	..	..	98.5	94.0	102.0	107.1	113.0	62
Tunisia	..	..	..	..	..	..	85.2	83.2	108.3	109.4	110.7	36
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	72.7	107.7	107.8	108.9	63
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 177.0	1 944.5	2 108.7	1 921.2	2 029.3	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**4 375.2**	**4 798.7**	**5 350.4**	**5 457.8**	**5 695.9**	**54**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158471

Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2010 (%)
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60.9	..	..	48
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.1	..	..	49
Belgium	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.8	..	..	47
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14.8	..	..	55
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13.2	..	..	43
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.6	..	..	53
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.6	..	..	49
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.2	..	..	44
Netherlands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.5	..	..	47
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.9	..	..	53
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.9	..	..	59
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.2	..	..	50
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	..	..	64
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	..	..	54
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	..	..	63
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	40.8	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**205.2**	**..**	**..**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	738.1	..	..	..
Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35.3	..	..	..
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.9	..	..	..
Colombia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13.9	..	..	..
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13.7	..	..	..
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12.1	..	..	..
Honduras	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.0	..	..	..
Venezuela	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.1	..	..	..
El Salvador	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.1	..	..	..
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.9	..	..	..
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.2	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.7	..	..	..
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.2	..	..	..
Peru	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.9	..	..	..
Chile	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.3	..	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60.8	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**584.5**	**610.1**	**699.3**	**733.7**	**850.1**	**961.1**	**967.2**	**973.7**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	190.5	194.6	195.9	196.0	195.4	194.8	195.7	196.7	197.4	197.4	196.5	48
Suriname	189.0	189.7	190.1	189.2	187.8	187.0	186.7	186.8	186.2	185.5	184.1	55
Morocco	163.4	166.6	168.5	168.6	168.0	167.2	166.9	167.4	167.7	168.3	168.2	48
Indonesia	161.4	158.8	156.0	152.8	149.7	146.7	143.7	140.7	137.8	135.1	132.0	56
Germany	120.6	119.0	117.7	116.9	116.4	117.0	119.2	120.5	122.3	122.8	121.8	58
Poland	20.1	21.2	25.0	30.0	35.3	42.1	51.1	58.1	66.6	78.2	86.5	55
Former Yugoslavia	56.2	55.5	54.5	53.7	53.0	52.8	52.7	52.8	52.7	52.7	52.5	52
Belgium	46.8	47.1	47.1	47.1	47.4	47.9	48.6	49.2	50.0	50.9	51.9	55
Former USSR	30.8	32.8	34.5	35.3	36.0	37.4	39.4	41.9	45.6	49.2	51.8	63
China	28.7	31.5	33.5	34.8	35.5	37.1	40.0	42.5	44.7	47.5	49.7	56
United Kingdom	48.5	48.3	47.5	46.6	45.8	45.8	46.7	47.1	47.2	47.5	47.8	45
Iraq	35.8	36.0	35.9	35.3	34.8	35.7	38.7	40.9	41.0	40.8	40.6	43
Afghanistan	31.0	32.1	32.4	32.0	31.3	31.0	30.7	31.1	31.8	32.6	32.8	46
Iran	24.2	24.2	24.1	23.8	23.8	24.2	24.8	25.4	26.2	27.2	28.0	46
United States	22.5	22.6	22.6	22.8	23.0	23.3	24.0	24.3	24.9	25.7	26.3	51
Other countries	544.7	551.9	550.9	549.9	549.3	561.2	584.8	607.1	626.6	644.8	657.1	
Total	**1 714.2**	**1 731.8**	**1 736.1**	**1 734.7**	**1 732.4**	**1 751.0**	**1 793.7**	**1 832.5**	**1 868.7**	**1 906.3**	**1 927.7**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	245.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	..	78.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Australia	..	..	..	..	62.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Samoa	..	..	..	..	50.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	..	..	..	..	43.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
South Africa	..	..	..	..	41.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fiji	..	..	..	..	37.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea	..	..	..	..	28.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	..	..	..	..	22.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tonga	..	..	..	..	20.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	18.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	..	..	..	..	15.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cook Islands	..	..	..	..	14.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaysia	..	..	..	..	14.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Chinese Taipei	..	..	..	..	10.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	..	175.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**879.5**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	6.7	7.0	8.3	11.2	18.0	30.8	42.7	49.5	57.1	67.6	76.9	34
Sweden	33.0	33.1	33.1	33.9	35.0	36.8	39.4	41.8	44.6	47.0	47.8	49
Lithuania	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.9	3.0	5.0	7.3	9.9	15.6	22.7	28.6	40
Germany	12.9	13.5	14.1	15.2	16.7	19.7	23.0	24.9	26.2	27.3	27.8	47
Denmark	22.3	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.3	22.5	22.6	22.7	22.9	23.3	23.8	48
Somalia	10.7	12.1	12.8	13.5	14.5	16.0	16.9	18.0	19.4	20.7	23.7	47
Iraq	14.7	14.9	15.4	16.7	17.4	18.2	19.4	20.6	21.4	22.0	22.1	44
United Kingdom	14.3	14.3	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.6	16.2	16.9	17.5	18.1	18.6	39
Pakistan	14.6	14.9	15.2	15.6	15.9	16.2	16.7	17.2	17.6	18.0	18.6	48
Philippines	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.9	12.3	13.5	14.7	16.3	17.8	78
United States	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.6	14.8	15.2	15.7	16.0	16.3	16.6	17.0	51
Thailand	5.5	6.3	7.3	8.3	9.3	10.5	11.8	13.1	14.1	15.2	16.4	82
Russian Federation	6.0	7.5	8.9	10.1	10.9	12.2	13.1	13.8	14.6	15.3	16.2	66
Iran	10.7	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.6	13.1	13.6	14.4	15.1	46
Viet Nam	11.7	11.9	12.1	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.9	13.0	13.1	13.3	13.5	54
Other countries	148.5	155.2	161.6	169.6	178.2	190.9	206.2	223.0	240.5	258.7	279.9	
Total	**333.9**	**347.3**	**361.1**	**380.4**	**405.1**	**445.4**	**488.8**	**526.8**	**569.1**	**616.3**	**663.9**	**48**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Ukraine	312.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	225.2	..	..
Germany	98.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	83.9	..	..
Belarus	105.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	83.0	..	..
Lithuania	79.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55.0	..	..
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	41.1	..	..
United Kingdom	2.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38.1	..	..
France	0.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.7	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15.2	..	..
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.1	..	..
Ireland	0.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.4	..	..
Belgium	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.8	..	..
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.4	..	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.0	..	..
Czech Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.0	..	..
Austria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.2	..	..
Other countries	177.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60.0	..	
Total	**776.2**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**674.9**	**..**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Angola	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	162.6	..	54
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	139.7	..	58
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	94.5	..	54
Mozambique	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	73.1	..	54
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	62.0	..	53
Guinea-Bissau	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29.6	..	44
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.0	..	52
Venezuela	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25.2	..	54
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23.7	..	49
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19.1	..	50
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.6	..	56
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.5	..	57
Switzerland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.5	..	49
South Africa	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.5	..	53
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.9	..	48
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	140.5	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**871.8**	**..**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158471

Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	3 560.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 942.0	..	..	54
Kazakhstan	2 585.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 481.9	..	..	54
Uzbekistan	918.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1 111.7	..	..	47
Azerbaijan	846.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	743.9	..	..	44
Belarus	935.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	740.9	..	..	57
Kyrgyzstan	463.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	573.3	..	..	51
Armenia	481.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	511.2	..	..	44
Tajikistan	383.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	452.2	..	..	41
Georgia	629.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	436.4	..	..	46
Moldova	277.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	285.3	..	..	47
Turkmenistan	175.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	180.0	..	..	52
Germany	150.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	137.7	..	..	50
Latvia	102.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	86.7	..	..	53
Lithuania	86.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	68.9	..	..	53
Estonia	67.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	57.0	..	..	53
Other countries	316.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	385.8	..	..	
Total	**11 976.8**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**11 194.7**	**..**	**..**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Czech Republic	..	..	107.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	86.4	55
Hungary	..	..	22.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.6	56
Ukraine	..	..	13.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.8	61
Romania	..	..	4.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.3	46
United Kingdom	..	..	1.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.9	46
Poland	..	..	7.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.6	64
Germany	..	..	4.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.0	43
Austria	..	..	3.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.6	49
United States	..	..	3.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.3	49
France	..	..	3.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.3	54
Russian Federation	..	..	5.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.3	65
Italy	..	..	1.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	35
Viet Nam	..	..	2.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.6	38
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.6	40
Bulgaria	..	..	1.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.3	40
Other countries	..	..	23.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.6	
Total	**..**	**..**	**207.6**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**158.2**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SLOVENIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	96.9	106.8	112.0	40
Croatia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	49.2	56.6	63.3	50
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29.2	34.7	36.7	45
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	13.7	16.0	17.5	39
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.6	8.5	47
Austria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.9	8.4	49
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.4	4.6	50
Switzerland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.0	3.7	48
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	3.6	43
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	2.4	51
Serbia and Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.0	2.1	65
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.3	1.9	61
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.9	1.9	45
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	1.9	71
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	1.9	49
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39.7	30.0	29.3	
Total	**170.0**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**228.6**	**271.8**	**299.7**	**47**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	137.8	206.4	312.1	397.3	511.0	706.2	762.2	784.8	810.3	833.8	800.4	49
Morocco	438.2	474.5	557.2	606.0	621.3	683.1	737.8	760.2	769.1	779.5	773.8	42
Ecuador	387.6	470.1	487.2	456.6	434.7	458.4	479.1	484.6	480.6	471.6	455.0	53
United Kingdom	173.6	187.5	238.2	283.7	322.0	358.3	379.3	390.0	392.9	398.3	383.6	50
Colombia	259.4	264.5	288.2	287.0	291.7	330.4	358.8	371.1	374.0	375.5	369.6	58
Argentina	191.7	226.5	260.4	271.4	273.0	290.3	295.4	291.7	286.4	280.3	270.1	49
Germany	189.4	176.9	193.1	208.9	222.1	237.9	246.7	251.0	251.1	250.9	235.4	51
France	180.2	178.1	188.7	199.4	208.8	220.2	227.1	229.7	228.1	226.1	221.5	51
Peru	72.9	88.8	108.0	123.5	137.0	162.4	188.2	197.6	198.1	198.6	195.0	55
Bolivia	30.6	54.4	99.5	140.7	200.7	240.9	229.4	213.9	202.7	193.6	184.1	59
China	51.1	62.3	87.0	104.8	108.3	127.0	146.3	154.1	160.8	168.3	170.0	52
Venezuela	83.5	100.3	116.2	124.9	130.6	144.6	152.4	155.1	159.3	162.1	161.7	54
Bulgaria	53.4	70.4	93.0	100.8	120.2	150.7	160.0	163.6	165.7	168.1	159.9	48
Dominican Republic	59.1	65.8	78.0	87.1	96.7	114.7	129.7	136.8	141.2	149.4	155.0	61
Portugal	71.8	71.1	80.8	93.8	111.6	136.2	148.2	148.8	146.3	143.5	134.0	41
Other countries	922.1	996.4	1 203.9	1 351.9	1 460.5	1 683.1	1 825.7	1 871.2	1 911.2	1 960.3	1 948.9	
Total	**3 302.4**	**3 693.8**	**4 391.5**	**4 837.6**	**5 250.0**	**6 044.5**	**6 466.3**	**6 604.2**	**6 677.8**	**6 759.8**	**6 618.2**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Finland	191.5	189.3	186.6	183.7	180.9	178.2	175.1	172.2	169.5	166.7	163.9	60
Iraq	62.8	67.6	70.1	72.6	82.8	97.5	109.4	117.9	121.8	125.5	127.9	46
Poland	41.1	41.6	43.5	46.2	51.7	58.2	63.8	67.5	70.3	72.9	75.3	57
Former Yugoslavia	74.4	75.1	74.6	74.0	73.7	72.9	72.3	71.6	70.8	70.1	69.3	50
Iran	52.7	53.2	54.0	54.5	55.7	56.5	57.7	59.9	62.1	63.8	65.6	48
Bosnia and Herzegovina	52.9	53.9	54.5	54.8	55.5	55.7	56.0	56.1	56.2	56.3	56.6	51
Germany	39.4	40.2	40.8	41.6	43.0	45.0	46.9	47.8	48.2	48.4	48.7	53
Turkey	33.1	34.1	35.0	35.9	37.1	38.2	39.2	40.8	42.5	43.9	45.1	45
Denmark	39.9	40.9	41.7	42.6	44.4	45.9	46.2	46.0	45.5	45.0	44.2	47
Somalia	14.0	14.8	15.3	16.0	18.3	21.6	25.2	31.7	37.8	40.2	44.0	49
Norway	44.5	45.1	45.0	44.8	44.7	44.6	44.3	43.8	43.4	43.1	42.9	56
Thailand	12.4	14.3	16.3	18.3	20.5	22.9	25.9	28.7	31.4	33.6	35.6	78
Chile	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.8	28.0	28.0	28.1	28.3	28.4	28.4	28.4	50
Syria	15.2	15.7	16.2	16.8	17.8	18.2	18.8	19.6	20.8	22.4	27.5	47
China	9.8	10.9	11.9	13.3	14.5	16.0	18.3	21.2	24.0	25.7	26.8	60
Other countries	342.4	353.7	367.2	383.0	406.5	428.2	454.6	484.7	512.3	541.5	571.5	
Total	**1 053.5**	**1 078.1**	**1 100.3**	**1 125.8**	**1 175.2**	**1 227.8**	**1 281.6**	**1 338.0**	**1 384.9**	**1 427.3**	**1 473.3**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	318.9	330.0	337.4	51
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	233.1	241.0	244.7	44
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	172.3	187.4	199.2	45
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	132.3	138.4	141.4	52
Turkey	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	76.0	76.9	77.4	47
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	59.1	61.7	62.7	50
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53.5	57.2	59.8	49
Austria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	58.8	59.2	59.7	61
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	51.7	53.5	55.1	48
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	51.1	52.4	53.2	52
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	41.1	43.7	44.2	47
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33.7	34.9	35.4	51
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32.3	33.4	34.4	71
Sri Lanka	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.6	29.6	30.0	47
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21.5	24.0	26.2	58
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	711.2	734.9	757.7	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**2 075.2**	**2 158.4**	**2 218.4**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
India	..	..	..	..	570	553	601	661	687	686	750	48
Poland	..	..	..	..	229	423	495	540	534	617	658	52
Pakistan	..	..	..	..	274	357	422	427	382	441	432	47
Ireland	..	..	..	..	417	410	420	401	401	429	429	60
Germany	..	..	..	..	269	253	273	296	301	292	303	55
South Africa	..	..	..	..	198	194	204	220	227	208	208	49
Bangladesh	..	..	..	..	221	202	193	199	193	219	191	47
Nigeria	..	..	..	..	117	147	137	166	167	203	162	47
Jamaica	..	..	..	..	135	173	142	130	134	123	151	53
France	..	..	..	..	111	134	129	144	122	132	146	54
Kenya	..	..	..	..	138	135	140	134	118	129	139	52
Italy	..	..	..	..	86	102	108	117	130	150	135	51
Philippines	..	..	..	..	95	107	101	134	110	140	134	65
Sri Lanka	..	..	..	..	102	114	96	105	118	131	127	48
Zimbabwe	..	..	..	..	111	106	101	126	111	137	125	49
Other countries	..	..	..	..	2 684	2 782	3 071	3 099	3 321	3 393	3 499	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**5 757**	**6 192**	**6 633**	**6 899**	**7 056**	**7 430**	**7 588**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Mexico	9 889.0	10 078.7	10 256.9	10 993.9	11 535.0	11 739.6	11 451.3	11 478.2	11 746.5	11 691.6	11 489.4	47
India	1 238.0	1 297.9	1 372.3	1 410.7	1 505.4	1 514.0	1 626.9	1 665.1	1 796.5	1 855.7	1 974.3	48
Philippines	1 467.7	1 443.3	1 509.8	1 594.8	1 634.1	1 708.5	1 685.1	1 733.9	1 766.5	1 814.9	1 862.0	60
China	1 081.2	1 127.7	1 218.4	1 202.9	1 357.5	1 367.8	1 339.1	1 425.8	1 604.4	1 651.5	1 719.8	56
Viet Nam	1 024.1	1 066.0	1 052.0	1 072.9	1 116.2	1 102.2	1 154.7	1 149.4	1 243.8	1 253.9	1 264.2	53
El Salvador	856.2	872.6	931.9	988.0	1 042.2	1 108.3	1 078.3	1 157.2	1 207.1	1 245.5	1 254.5	49
Cuba	880.8	888.7	925.0	902.4	932.6	980.0	987.8	982.9	1 112.1	1 090.6	1 114.9	51
Korea	944.5	957.7	955.4	993.9	1 021.2	1 050.7	1 034.7	1 012.9	1 086.9	1 095.1	1 105.7	58
Dominican Republic	648.5	679.9	716.5	708.5	764.9	747.9	779.2	791.6	879.9	878.9	960.2	56
Guatemala	510.0	523.7	585.2	644.7	741.0	683.8	743.8	790.5	797.3	844.3	880.9	41
Canada	812.8	849.5	808.5	830.3	847.2	816.4	824.3	814.1	785.6	787.5	799.1	55
Colombia	561.9	529.6	499.3	554.8	589.1	603.7	603.3	617.7	648.3	655.1	705.0	58
Jamaica	580.4	600.8	590.1	579.2	643.1	587.6	631.7	645.0	650.8	694.6	668.8	57
Haiti	448.4	505.7	445.3	483.7	495.8	544.5	545.8	536.0	596.4	602.7	616.0	55
Germany	647.9	622.7	643.8	626.5	635.6	624.2	641.5	614.8	611.8	618.2	596.7	63
Other countries	11 504.5	11 623.1	11 747.4	12 182.3	12 608.6	12 869.4	12 888.5	13 037.8	13 383.0	13 601.4	13 726.9	
Total	**33 096.2**	**33 667.7**	**34 257.7**	**35 769.6**	**37 469.4**	**38 048.5**	**38 016.1**	**38 452.8**	**39 916.9**	**40 381.6**	**40 738.2**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158471

Metadata related to Tables A.4 and B.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population**

	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 be coherent with the results of register-based 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. Excludes asylum seekers.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSIE).
Canada	® 2001, 2006 and 2011 censuses: 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 residence permits granted for other years.	National Statistical Institute and Department of the Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior.
Czech Republic	® 2001 Census. ε CM for other years.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	® Immigrants according to the national definition, e.g. persons born abroad to parents both foreign citizens or born abroad. When no information is available on the parents' nationality/country of birth, persons born abroad are classified as immigrants.	Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	® Population Register (Table A.4); 2011 census (Table B.4).	Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	® Population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	® Annual Censuses. Including persons who were born French abroad.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	® Microcensus.	Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	® 2001 Census. Usual foreign-born resident population. ® From 2010 on: Labour Force Surveys (4th quarter).	National Statistical Service.
Hungary	® Includes foreigners and ethnic Hungarians. From 2010 on, includes refugees and third country nationals holding a residence permit. From 2011 on, includes persons under subsidiary protection. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	® Population national Register. Numbers from the Register are likely to be overestimated. *Reference date:* 1 January.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	® 2002 and 2006 Censuses. Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. ε PM for other years.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Estimates are based on the results of the Population Censuses. Intercensal changes are estimated based on variations recorded in the Population Register. 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 (Table B.4) includes Jews and Others and excludes Arabs whereas from 2006 on, it includes Jews only. For the whole period, the total foreign-born population (Table A.4) includes Jews and others and excludes Arabs. Data for Algeria include Tunisia until 2009. 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		National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Luxembourg	® 2001 and 2010: 2001 and 2011 Censuses. ε CM for other years.	Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	® 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).
Netherlands	® *Reference date:* 1 January of the following year.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	® 2001 and 2006 Censuses. ε PM for other years.	Statistics New Zealand.

Metadata related to Tables A.4 and B.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population** *(cont.)*

	Comments	Source
Norway	® *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	® 2002 and 2011 Censuses. 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 and 2011 censuses. ε CM for other years.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Russian Federation	® Censuses.	Federal statistics service (Rosstat).
Slovak Republic	® 2001 Census. Population who had permanent resident status at the date of the Census. ® 2004 Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	® Central Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	® Population register. *Reference date:* 1 January (for a given year, data refer to the 1 January of the following year).	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).
Sweden	® *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	® 2000 Census. ® 2010 Population Register of the Confederation. ε CM for other years.	Federal Statistical Office.
United Kingdom	® 2001 Census. ® From 2006 on: Labour Force Survey. Foreign-born residents. ε PM for other years. Figures are rounded.	Office for National Statistics.
United States	® American Community Survey. ACS 2011 data from IPUMS-USA (*http://usa.ipums.org/usa/*).	Census Bureau.

Legend:
® Observed figures.
ε Estimates (in italic) made by means of the component method (CM) or the parametric method (PM).
For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to *www.oecd.org/migration/foreignborn*. No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.4).
Data for Serbia may include persons born in Montenegro.

Table A.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Thousands and percentages

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Austria	730.3	746.8	754.2	774.4	796.7	804.8	829.7	860.0	883.6	913.2	951.4	1 004.3
% of total population	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.5	9.7	9.7	10.0	10.3	10.6	10.9	11.3	11.9
Belgium	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	900.5	932.2	971.4	1 013.3	1 057.7	1 119.3	1 169.1	1 195.1
% of total population	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	9.5	9.8	10.2	10.6	10.7
Canada	1 568.6	..	..	..	..	1 758.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
% of total population	5.1	..	..	..	..	5.4	..	..	..	..	..	..
Czech Republic	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3	278.3	321.5	392.3	437.6	432.5	424.3	434.2	435.9
% of total population	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.1
Denmark	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	270.1	278.1	298.5	320.2	329.9	346.0	358.9	374.7
% of total population	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.7
Estonia	273.8	269.5	266.5	262.6	255.1	243.8	232.2	223.6	219.2	218.7	218.3	216.5
% of total population	19.9	19.7	19.6	19.4	18.9	18.1	17.3	16.7	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.3
Finland	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	113.9	121.7	132.7	143.3	155.7	168.0	183.1	195.5
% of total population	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.6
France	..	..	..	..	..	3 541.8	3 696.9	3 731.2	3 821.5	3 769.0	3 892.6	4 036.0
% of total population	..	..	..	..	..	5.7	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.2	6.4
Germany	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	6 753.6	6 930.9	7 213.7
% of total population	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.8
Greece	355.8	436.8	472.8	533.4	553.1	570.6	643.1	733.6	839.7	810.0	757.4	768.1
% of total population	3.2	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.8	6.6	7.5	7.3	6.8	6.9
Hungary	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	154.4	166.0	174.7	184.4	197.8	209.2	143.4	141.4
% of total population	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.4
Iceland	9.9	10.2	10.2	10.6	13.8	18.6	23.4	24.4	21.7	21.1	21.0	21.4
% of total population	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.7	6.1	7.5	7.6	6.8	6.6	6.6	6.7
Ireland	..	219.3	..	..	..	413.2	..	..	..	..	537.0	550.4
% of total population	..	5.6	..	..	..	9.7	..	..	..	..	11.7	12.0
Italy	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	4 570.3	4 825.6	4 387.7
% of total population	2.5	2.7	3.5	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.8	6.6	7.1	7.6	8.0	7.3
Japan	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	2 132.9	2 078.5	2 033.7
% of total population	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6
Korea	229.6	271.7	460.3	491.4	510.5	660.6	800.3	895.5	920.9	1 002.7	982.5	933.0
% of total population	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9
Luxembourg	166.7	170.7	177.8	183.7	191.3	198.3	205.9	215.5	216.3	220.5	229.9	238.8
% of total population	37.8	38.3	39.4	40.1	41.1	41.9	42.9	44.1	43.5	43.5	44.3	45.0
Mexico	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	262.7	..	..	296.5
% of total population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	..	..	0.3
Netherlands	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	691.4	681.9	688.4	719.5	735.2	760.4	786.1	796.2
% of total population	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.8
Norway	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	222.3	238.3	266.3	303.0	333.9	369.2	407.3	448.8
% of total population	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.6	8.2	8.9
Poland	..	49.2	..	..	..	54.9	57.5	60.4	49.6	..	55.4	..
% of total population	..	0.1	..	..	..	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	..	0.1	..
Portugal	350.5	413.3	434.3	449.2	415.9	420.2	435.7	440.6	454.2	445.3	436.8	417.0
% of total population	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.0
Russian Federation	..	1 025.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	687.0	..	621.0
% of total population	..	0.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	..	0.4
Slovak Republic	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3	25.6	32.1	40.9	52.5	62.9	68.0	70.7	72.9
% of total population	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Slovenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	99.6	95.4	101.5	103.3
% of total population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.9	4.7	4.9	5.0
Spain	1 977.9	2 664.2	3 034.3	3 730.6	4 144.2	4 519.6	5 268.8	5 648.7	5 747.7	5 751.5	5 736.3	5 520.1
% of total population	4.9	6.4	7.2	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.7	12.4	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.0

Table A.5. **Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Thousands and percentages

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sweden	471.3	469.8	452.8	457.8	457.5	485.9	518.2	555.4	595.1	633.3	655.1	667.2
% of total population	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4	6.8	6.9	7.0
Switzerland	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	1 720.4	1 772.3	1 825.1
% of total population	19.6	19.9	20.0	20.2	20.3	20.4	20.8	21.4	21.7	22.0	22.4	22.8
United Kingdom	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	4 524.0	4 785.0	4 788.0
% of total population	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.1	7.4	7.6	7.5
United States	18 533.7	20 490.6	20 634.1	21 115.7	21 159.7	21 863.7	22 359.4	21 835.7	21 100.8	21 317.3	21 057.0	21 359.1
% of total population	6.5	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.2	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.5.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158430

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Germany	78.2	83.6	91.2	100.4	109.2	118.9	128.7	136.0	144.1	150.9	157.8	50
Turkey	127.2	123.0	116.5	113.1	108.2	108.8	110.0	111.3	112.5	112.9	113.7	48
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	122.7	122.2	109.4	110.5	110.4	111.3	48
Bosnia and Herzegovina	96.1	94.2	90.9	88.3	86.2	92.6	91.8	90.5	89.6	89.6	89.9	46
Croatia	58.5	58.5	58.6	58.1	56.8	59.2	58.9	58.5	58.3	58.3	58.6	47
Romania	19.5	20.5	21.3	21.9	21.9	27.7	32.2	36.0	41.6	47.3	53.3	56
Poland	21.8	22.2	26.6	30.6	33.3	35.3	36.6	37.2	38.6	42.1	46.0	49
Hungary	13.7	14.2	15.1	16.3	17.4	19.2	21.3	23.3	25.6	29.8	37.0	53
Russian Federation	4.9	8.0	14.2	17.2	18.8	21.1	22.5	23.4	24.2	25.5	27.3	56
Slovak Republic	8.5	9.5	11.3	13.0	14.2	15.8	17.9	19.2	20.4	22.5	25.3	63
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	14.4	15.3	16.0	16.3	16.3	17.5	17.9	18.1	18.6	18.9	19.4	47
Italy	10.9	11.3	11.7	12.2	12.7	13.2	13.9	14.5	15.4	16.2	17.8	42
Bulgaria	5.3	5.9	6.3	6.5	6.4	7.6	8.9	9.8	11.2	12.5	14.1	56
Afghanistan	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.1	4.0	4.5	5.7	6.7	9.4	12.4	28
Czech Republic	6.6	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.6	8.9	9.1	9.3	9.6	10.2	63
Other countries	278.5	278.1	284.0	292.0	292.3	157.5	163.8	181.4	186.8	195.5	210.1	
Total	**746.8**	**754.2**	**774.4**	**796.7**	**804.8**	**829.7**	**860.0**	**883.6**	**913.2**	**951.4**	**1 004.3**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Italy	187.0	183.0	179.0	175.5	171.9	169.0	167.0	165.1	162.8	159.7	157.4	45
France	113.0	114.9	117.3	120.6	125.1	130.6	136.6	140.2	145.3	150.0	153.4	52
Netherlands	96.6	100.7	105.0	110.5	117.0	123.5	130.2	133.5	137.8	141.2	144.0	47
Morocco	83.6	81.8	81.3	80.6	80.6	79.9	79.4	81.9	84.7	86.1	83.3	50
Poland	10.4	11.6	14.0	18.0	23.2	30.4	36.3	43.1	49.7	56.1	61.5	53
Spain	44.5	43.8	43.2	42.9	42.8	42.7	43.6	45.2	48.0	50.9	54.4	49
Romania	4.0	4.6	5.6	7.5	10.2	15.3	21.4	26.4	33.6	42.4	50.9	46
Germany	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.0	37.6	38.4	39.1	39.4	39.8	40.0	39.7	51
Portugal	26.0	26.8	27.4	28.0	28.7	29.8	31.7	33.1	34.5	36.1	38.8	48
Turkey	42.6	41.3	39.9	39.7	39.4	39.5	39.6	39.6	39.8	39.4	38.0	49
United Kingdom	26.2	26.2	26.0	25.7	25.1	25.1	25.5	25.0	25.0	24.8	24.5	44
Bulgaria	1.9	2.2	2.7	3.3	3.9	6.7	10.4	13.2	17.3	20.4	23.4	49
Democratic Republic of the Congo	13.6	13.8	13.2	13.5	14.2	15.0	16.8	18.1	19.6	20.6	20.1	52
Greece	17.3	17.1	16.6	16.3	15.7	15.2	14.9	14.8	14.8	15.0	15.5	49
Russian Federation	3.3	3.7	4.0	5.5	6.4	7.2	11.8	12.8	14.0	14.7	13.8	57
Other countries	144.9	153.2	159.5	175.9	190.3	203.3	208.9	226.3	252.6	271.7	276.3	
Total	**850.1**	**860.3**	**870.9**	**900.5**	**932.2**	**971.4**	**1 013.3**	**1 057.7**	**1 119.3**	**1 169.1**	**1 195.1**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Ukraine	59.1	62.3	78.3	87.8	102.6	126.7	131.9	131.9	124.3	118.9	112.5	44
Slovak Republic	61.1	64.9	47.4	49.4	58.4	67.9	76.0	73.4	71.8	81.3	85.8	45
Viet Nam	27.1	29.0	34.2	36.8	40.8	51.1	60.3	61.1	60.3	58.2	57.3	42
Russian Federation	12.8	12.6	14.7	16.3	18.6	23.3	27.1	30.3	31.8	32.4	33.0	55
Poland	16.0	15.8	16.3	17.8	18.9	20.6	21.7	19.3	18.2	19.1	19.2	52
Germany	5.2	5.2	5.8	7.2	10.1	15.7	17.5	13.8	13.9	15.8	17.1	21
Moldova	2.8	3.3	4.1	4.7	6.2	8.0	10.6	10.0	8.9	7.6	6.4	40
Bulgaria	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.9	6.4	6.9	7.4	8.2	37
United States	3.4	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.5	5.3	5.6	6.1	7.3	7.0	41
China	3.2	4.0	3.4	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.6	46
Mongolia	..	..	..	..	..	6.0	8.6	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.3	59
United Kingdom	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.2	3.5	3.8	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.9	5.2	22
Romania	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.1	4.4	4.8	5.7	35
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	3.0	3.4	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.8	55
Belarus	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.3	59
Other countries	29.9	29.4	34.7	38.3	43.3	44.9	52.1	53.1	53.9	56.8	58.6	
Total	**231.6**	**240.4**	**254.3**	**278.3**	**321.5**	**392.3**	**437.6**	**432.5**	**424.3**	**434.2**	**435.9**	**43**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Turkey	31.9	30.3	30.0	29.5	28.8	28.8	28.9	29.0	29.2	29.0	28.8	49
Poland	5.7	5.9	6.2	7.4	9.7	13.8	19.9	21.1	22.6	24.5	26.8	48
Germany	13.0	13.3	13.6	14.2	15.4	18.0	20.4	21.1	21.6	22.1	22.4	48
United Kingdom	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.9	13.2	13.7	14.2	14.3	14.7	15.0	15.4	35
Norway	13.4	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.2	14.4	14.8	15.0	15.1	15.3	15.3	61
Iraq	18.0	19.4	19.2	18.7	18.1	18.3	17.6	16.7	16.7	15.7	15.2	47
Sweden	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.2	11.6	12.1	12.7	12.8	12.9	13.1	13.4	59
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	2.4	3.7	5.1	6.9	9.5	12.4	45
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.8	17.2	14.0	12.7	12.2	12.1	11.8	11.5	11.4	11.1	11.0	48
Afghanistan	8.2	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.4	9.1	9.5	9.6	9.8	46
Thailand	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.3	7.7	8.3	8.6	8.8	84
Lithuania	..	..	..	..	..	3.5	4.3	5.2	6.5	7.7	8.6	50
Pakistan	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.8	8.2	8.6	49
Iceland	6.6	7.1	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.3	8.5	8.9	9.0	8.6	8.4	52
Somalia	13.3	13.1	11.3	9.8	9.0	8.8	8.5	8.3	8.2	8.0	8.2	48
Other countries	91.2	95.4	96.8	100.9	107.0	116.3	127.5	133.1	143.3	152.1	161.9	
Total	**265.4**	**271.2**	**267.6**	**270.1**	**278.1**	**298.5**	**320.2**	**329.9**	**346.0**	**358.9**	**374.7**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Estonia	12.4	13.4	14.0	15.5	17.6	20.0	22.6	25.5	29.1	34.0	39.8	51
Russian Federation	24.3	25.0	24.6	24.6	25.3	26.2	26.9	28.2	28.4	29.6	30.2	57
Sweden	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.4	42
Somalia	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.9	4.9	5.6	6.6	7.4	7.5	48
China	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.6	5.2	5.6	6.2	6.6	54
Thailand	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	87
Iraq	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.2	4.0	5.0	5.7	5.9	35
Turkey	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	31
India	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	38
Germany	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	40
Serbia and Montenegro	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.9	43
United Kingdom	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.9	20
Viet Nam	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.3	53
Afghanistan	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.0	45
Poland	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.9	42
Other countries	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	61.9	
Total	**103.7**	**107.0**	**108.3**	**113.9**	**121.7**	**132.7**	**143.3**	**155.7**	**168.0**	**183.1**	**195.5**	**47**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Portugal	..	..	..	490.6	491.0	492.5	493.9	497.6	..	..	..	..
Algeria	..	..	..	481.0	475.3	471.3	469.0	466.4	..	..	..	..
Morocco	..	..	..	460.4	452.0	444.8	440.7	435.2	..	..	..	..
Turkey	..	..	..	223.6	223.4	220.1	220.7	221.2	..	..	..	..
Italy	..	..	..	177.4	175.2	174.3	173.5	172.7	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	..	..	..	136.5	146.6	151.8	154.0	156.3	..	..	..	..
Tunisia	..	..	..	145.9	144.2	143.9	144.0	147.1	..	..	..	..
Spain	..	..	..	133.8	131.0	130.1	128.5	128.0	..	..	..	..
Germany	..	..	..	92.4	93.4	93.9	95.0	93.3	..	..	..	..
Belgium	..	..	..	81.3	84.4	87.7	90.9	92.9	..	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	66.2	72.1	76.7	81.4	86.2	..	..	..	..
Mali	..	..	..	56.7	59.5	59.7	62.2	63.3	..	..	..	..
Haiti	..	..	..	40.4	62.0	62.2	56.6	58.0	..	..	..	..
Senegal	..	..	..	49.5	50.5	50.2	51.5	51.7	..	..	..	..
Congo	..	..	..	44.3	46.1	47.7	48.6	50.0	..	..	..	..
Other countries	..	..	..	861.7	990.2	1 024.3	1 062.6	1 101.5	..	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**3 541.8**	**3 696.9**	**3 731.2**	**3 773.2**	**3 821.5**	**3 824.8**	**3 892.6**	**4 036.0**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	1 912.2	1 877.7	1 764.3	1 764.0	1 738.8	1 713.6	1 688.4	1 658.1	1 629.5	1 607.2	1 575.7	48
Poland	317.6	326.9	292.1	326.6	361.7	384.8	393.8	398.5	419.4	468.5	532.4	48
Italy	609.8	601.3	548.2	540.8	534.7	528.3	523.2	517.5	517.5	520.2	529.4	41
Greece	359.4	354.6	316.0	309.8	303.8	294.9	287.2	278.1	276.7	283.7	298.3	45
Serbia	..	..	125.8	297.0	316.8	330.6	361.0	298.0	285.0	267.8	258.8	49
Croatia	231.0	236.6	229.2	228.9	227.5	225.3	223.1	221.2	220.2	223.0	225.0	51
Romania	88.7	89.1	73.4	73.0	73.4	84.6	94.3	105.0	126.5	159.2	205.0	47
Russian Federation	155.6	173.5	178.6	185.9	187.5	187.8	188.3	189.3	191.3	195.3	202.1	62
Austria	189.3	189.5	174.0	174.8	175.7	175.9	175.4	174.5	175.2	175.9	176.3	48
Bosnia and Herzegovina	163.8	167.1	156.0	156.9	157.1	158.2	156.8	154.6	152.4	153.5	155.3	48
Netherlands	115.2	118.7	114.1	118.6	123.5	128.2	133.0	134.9	136.3	137.7	139.3	45
Ukraine	116.0	126.0	128.1	130.7	129.0	127.0	126.2	125.6	124.3	123.3	123.3	63
Portugal	131.4	130.6	116.7	115.6	115.0	114.6	114.5	113.3	113.2	115.5	120.6	45
Spain	127.5	126.0	108.3	107.8	106.8	106.3	105.5	104.0	105.4	110.2	120.2	49
Bulgaria	42.4	44.3	39.2	39.2	39.1	46.8	54.0	61.9	74.9	93.9	118.8	47
Other countries	2 775.7	2 773.1	2 353.2	2 186.2	2 160.8	2 138.1	2 102.9	2 160.4	2 205.7	2 296.1	2 433.2	
Total	**7 335.6**	**7 334.8**	**6 717.1**	**6 755.8**	**6 751.0**	**6 744.9**	**6 727.6**	**6 694.8**	**6 753.6**	**6 930.9**	**7 213.7**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Albania	262.1	294.7	325.6	341.0	347.4	384.6	413.9	501.7	485.0	449.7	471.5	49
Romania	13.8	14.6	16.2	18.9	18.9	25.7	29.5	33.8	33.3	40.6	38.5	60
Bulgaria	18.6	17.3	25.3	27.9	29.5	30.7	40.2	54.5	48.4	47.3	38.4	59
Pakistan	4.8	6.2	4.2	5.5	6.7	13.9	18.0	23.0	21.2	24.1	24.5	10
Georgia	12.0	9.5	14.1	16.9	15.1	23.8	33.6	33.9	32.8	28.0	23.5	73
Russian Federation	22.0	17.8	16.8	17.6	18.9	21.6	16.7	19.5	14.1	12.0	15.1	59
Syria	5.2	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.6	6.0	9.2	12.4	6.5	10.1	13.4	24
Poland	14.1	15.9	17.0	16.1	16.6	21.4	18.9	11.2	10.2	7.5	11.3	49
Cyprus[1, 2]	7.7	8.1	12.2	11.0	10.6	11.2	14.2	11.8	9.9	12.1	11.2	53
Ukraine	11.3	10.2	13.1	12.2	12.2	14.1	11.9	13.7	12.2	10.8	10.7	87
Egypt	6.1	11.2	6.3	2.6	3.6	5.2	12.6	10.3	9.5	10.9	10.4	30
Philippines	3.8	3.2	7.2	8.9	7.5	3.4	4.9	3.3	5.1	2.1	9.9	70
United Kingdom	3.6	6.2	7.1	7.7	7.6	8.0	7.5	7.5	7.3	7.6	9.5	59
Bangladesh	1.5	1.0	1.8	3.2	2.1	2.6	14.1	12.5	14.6	10.5	7.5	..
Armenia	4.0	4.7	7.3	6.1	7.1	5.0	9.1	12.3	6.7	9.5	7.5	53
Other countries	46.1	46.1	55.2	53.0	63.2	65.8	79.2	78.3	93.3	74.5	65.2	
Total	**436.8**	**472.8**	**533.4**	**553.1**	**570.6**	**643.1**	**733.6**	**839.7**	**810.0**	**757.4**	**768.1**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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 recognises 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 Union:* 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.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	47.3	55.7	67.5	66.2	67.0	65.8	66.4	72.7	76.9	41.6	34.8	39
Germany	7.1	7.4	6.9	10.5	15.0	14.4	16.7	18.7	20.2	15.8	17.4	43
China	6.4	6.8	6.9	8.6	9.0	10.2	10.7	11.2	11.8	10.1	11.5	46
Ukraine	9.9	13.1	13.9	15.3	15.9	17.3	17.6	17.2	16.5	11.9	10.8	54
Slovak Republic	1.5	2.5	1.2	3.6	4.3	4.9	6.1	6.4	7.3	6.7	7.6	61
Serbia	7.9	8.3	13.6	8.4	8.5	13.7	13.7	11.5	10.7	8.2	4.9	43
Austria	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.5	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.7	3.9	3.3	3.7	35
Russian Federation	1.8	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.3	3.5	2.9	3.4	64
United States	..	..	..	..	1.9	2.3	2.4	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.1	44
Viet Nam	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.1	3.1	2.6	3.1	51
United Kingdom	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.4	33
Netherlands	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.2	38
France	0.7	0.8	0.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	2.2	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.1	40
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.0	23
Iran	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	39
Other countries	28.3	27.9	24.4	29.6	30.1	30.5	33.1	37.7	42.0	28.0	30.8	
Total	**115.9**	**130.1**	**142.2**	**154.4**	**166.0**	**174.7**	**184.4**	**197.8**	**209.2**	**143.4**	**141.4**	**44**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ICELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	1.8	1.9	1.9	3.2	6.0	9.9	11.0	9.6	9.1	9.0	9.4	46
Lithuania	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	48
Denmark	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	55
Germany	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	67
Latvia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	51
United Kingdom	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	31
United States	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	42
Philippines	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	57
Thailand	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	69
Portugal	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	36
Sweden	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	60
France	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	47
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	55
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	42
Viet Nam	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	52
Other countries	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.6	4.9	4.7	4.0	3.9	3.9	4.0	
Total	**10.2**	**10.2**	**10.6**	**13.8**	**18.6**	**23.4**	**24.4**	**21.7**	**21.1**	**21.0**	**21.4**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Poland	2.1	..	..	..	62.7	..	..	..	..	121.7	..	48
United Kingdom	101.3	..	..	..	110.6	115.5	117.9	117.1	115.9	110.0	113.0	50
Lithuania	2.1	..	..	..	24.4	..	..	..	..	36.4	..	52
Latvia	1.8	..	..	..	13.2	..	..	..	..	20.4	..	56
Nigeria	8.7	..	..	..	16.0	..	..	..	..	17.3	..	54
Romania	4.9	..	..	..	7.6	..	..	..	..	17.1	..	49
India	2.5	..	..	..	8.3	..	..	..	..	16.9	..	46
Philippines	3.7	..	..	..	9.3	..	..	..	..	12.6	..	56
Germany	7.0	..	..	..	10.1	..	..	..	..	11.1	..	56
United States	11.1	..	..	..	12.3	..	..	..	..	10.8	..	57
China	5.8	..	..	..	11.0	..	..	..	..	10.7	..	50
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	8.0	..	..	..	..	10.7	..	48
France	6.2	..	..	..	8.9	..	..	..	..	9.6	..	51
Brazil	1.1	..	..	..	4.3	..	..	..	..	8.6	..	49
Hungary	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.0	..	48
Other countries	61.1	..	..	..	106.5	..	..	..	..	115.1	..	
Total	**219.3**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**413.2**	**519.6**	**575.6**	**575.4**	**560.1**	**537.0**	**550.4**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	95.0	177.8	248.8	297.6	342.2	625.3	796.5	887.8	968.6	1 072.3	951.1	57
Albania	216.6	270.4	316.7	348.8	375.9	401.9	441.4	466.7	482.6	495.7	437.5	48
Morocco	215.4	253.4	294.9	319.5	343.2	365.9	403.6	431.5	452.4	470.4	412.7	45
China	69.6	86.7	111.7	127.8	144.9	156.5	170.3	188.4	209.9	228.3	213.6	50
Ukraine	12.7	58.0	93.4	107.1	120.1	132.7	154.0	174.1	200.7	214.4	192.3	80
Philippines	64.9	72.4	82.6	89.7	101.3	105.7	113.7	123.6	134.2	142.9	139.8	58
Moldova	7.0	24.6	38.0	47.6	55.8	68.6	89.4	105.6	130.9	144.5	130.8	67
India	35.5	44.8	54.3	61.8	69.5	77.4	91.9	105.9	121.0	133.1	123.7	40
Peru	34.2	43.0	53.4	59.3	66.5	70.8	77.6	87.7	98.6	105.7	97.6	60
Poland	30.0	40.3	50.8	60.8	72.5	90.2	99.4	105.6	109.0	111.1	95.9	72
Tunisia	59.5	68.6	78.2	83.6	88.9	93.6	100.1	103.7	106.3	109.4	93.2	38
Egypt	33.7	40.6	52.9	58.9	65.7	69.6	74.6	82.1	90.4	98.1	91.9	31
Bangladesh	20.6	27.4	35.8	41.6	49.6	55.2	65.5	74.0	82.5	91.6	88.5	32
Ecuador	15.3	33.5	53.2	62.0	68.9	73.2	80.1	85.9	91.6	95.2	84.4	59
Sri Lanka	34.2	39.2	45.6	50.5	56.7	61.1	68.7	75.3	81.1	85.8	83.7	45
Other countries	605.1	709.5	791.8	853.9	917.2	984.9	1 064.5	1 137.2	1 210.4	1 226.9	1 150.9	
Total	**1 549.4**	**1 990.2**	**2 402.2**	**2 670.5**	**2 938.9**	**3 432.7**	**3 891.3**	**4 235.1**	**4 570.3**	**4 825.6**	**4 387.7**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
China	424.3	462.4	487.6	519.6	560.7	606.9	655.4	680.5	687.2	674.9	652.6	58
Korea	625.4	613.8	607.4	598.7	598.2	593.5	589.2	578.5	566.0	545.4	530.0	54
Philippines	169.4	185.2	199.4	187.3	193.5	202.6	210.6	211.7	210.2	209.4	203.0	78
Brazil	268.3	274.7	286.6	302.1	313.0	317.0	312.6	267.5	230.6	210.0	190.6	46
Viet Nam	21.1	23.9	26.0	28.9	32.5	36.9	41.1	41.0	41.8	44.7	52.4	46
Peru	51.8	53.6	55.8	57.7	58.7	59.7	59.7	57.5	54.6	52.8	49.2	47
United States	48.0	47.8	48.8	49.4	51.3	51.9	52.7	52.1	50.7	49.8	48.4	34
Thailand	33.7	34.8	36.3	37.7	39.6	41.4	42.6	42.7	41.3	42.8	40.1	75
Indonesia	21.7	22.9	23.9	25.1	24.9	25.6	27.3	25.5	24.9	24.7	25.5	36
Nepal	..	..	..	..	7.8	9.4	12.3	15.3	17.5	20.4	24.1	33
Chinese Taipei	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	22.8	..
India	13.3	14.2	15.5	17.0	18.9	20.6	22.3	22.9	22.5	21.5	21.7	30
United Kingdom	18.5	18.2	18.1	17.5	17.8	17.3	17.0	16.6	16.0	15.5	14.7	27
Pakistan	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	9.3	9.9	10.3	10.3	10.8	10.6	21
Canada	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.0	11.9	11.5	11.0	10.7	10.0	9.5	9.0	29
Other countries	136.2	143.0	147.7	149.8	145.2	148.0	152.2	152.0	149.4	146.3	139.1	
Total	**1 851.8**	**1 915.0**	**1 973.7**	**2 011.6**	**2 083.2**	**2 151.4**	**2 215.9**	**2 184.7**	**2 132.9**	**2 078.5**	**2 033.7**	**55**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	84.5	185.5	208.8	217.0	311.8	421.5	487.1	489.1	505.4	536.7	474.8	51
Viet Nam	16.9	23.3	26.1	35.5	52.2	67.2	79.8	86.2	98.2	110.6	114.2	48
Philippines	17.3	27.6	27.9	30.7	40.3	42.9	39.4	38.4	39.5	38.4	33.2	54
Indonesia	17.1	28.3	26.1	22.6	23.7	23.7	27.4	25.9	27.4	29.6	29.8	9
Uzbekistan	4.1	10.7	11.5	10.8	11.6	10.9	15.0	15.9	20.8	24.4	28.0	24
United States	37.6	40.0	39.0	41.8	46.0	51.1	56.2	63.1	57.6	26.5	23.4	39
Cambodia	0.0	0.7	1.3	2.0	3.3	4.6	7.0	8.8	11.7	16.8	23.4	33
Japan	15.4	16.2	16.6	17.5	18.0	18.4	18.6	18.6	19.4	21.1	22.6	70
Thailand	4.8	20.0	21.9	21.4	30.2	31.7	30.1	28.7	27.6	26.0	21.4	30
Chinese Taipei	22.7	22.6	22.3	22.2	22.1	22.1	27.0	21.7	21.5	21.4	21.2	47
Sri Lanka	2.7	4.9	5.5	8.5	11.1	12.1	14.3	14.4	17.4	20.5	21.0	3
Mongolia	1.4	9.2	11.0	13.7	19.2	20.5	21.2	21.0	21.8	21.3	19.8	44
Nepal	2.3	4.2	5.3	4.9	5.0	4.6	5.9	7.4	9.2	12.6	17.8	12
Bangladesh	9.0	13.6	13.1	9.1	8.6	7.8	7.7	7.3	9.3	10.6	10.8	4
Myanmar	1.1	1.8	3.6	2.3	3.4	3.2	2.9	3.6	3.8	5.6	8.3	4
Other countries	34.7	51.7	51.5	50.8	54.2	57.8	56.0	70.8	112.1	60.6	63.3	
Total	**271.7**	**460.3**	**491.4**	**510.5**	**660.6**	**800.3**	**895.5**	**920.9**	**1 002.7**	**982.5**	**933.0**	**44**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Portugal	59.8	61.4	64.9	67.8	70.8	73.7	76.6	80.0	79.8	82.4	85.3	..
France	20.9	21.6	22.2	23.1	24.1	25.2	26.6	28.5	29.7	31.5	33.1	..
Italy	19.1	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.4	18.2	18.1	18.1	..
Belgium	15.4	15.9	16.2	16.3	16.5	16.5	16.5	16.7	16.8	16.9	17.2	..
Germany	10.1	10.2	10.5	10.8	10.9	11.3	11.6	12.0	12.1	12.0	12.3	..
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.0	6.5	..
United Kingdom	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.6	..
Spain	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.7	4.0	..
Netherlands	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	..
Poland	..	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	..
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.5	2.5	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.3	2.2	..
Romania	..	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	..
Denmark	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	..
Greece	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	..
Other countries	31.2	34.3	35.3	38.4	39.9	42.5	46.9	40.2	44.0	37.5	39.6	
Total	**170.7**	**177.8**	**183.7**	**191.3**	**198.3**	**205.9**	**215.5**	**216.3**	**220.5**	**229.9**	**238.8**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60.0	64.9	68.5	63.4	42
Spain	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.6	18.8	19.6	20.7	43
Colombia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14.6	15.5	16.9	16.7	56
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.2	12.5	15.2	15.6	39
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15.2	15.6	15.8	15.3	48
Cuba	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.3	11.8	14.0	14.5	49
Venezuela	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.1	11.8	12.8	12.9	53
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.9	12.7	13.6	12.9	45
Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.4	9.8	10.9	9.7	55
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.4	9.1	9.1	9.0	47
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.9	8.8	9.0	8.8	44
Honduras	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4.9	6.3	7.6	6.9	58
Korea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.0	6.4	6.8	6.8	17
Peru	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.6	6.4	6.9	6.8	47
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.7	6.1	6.4	6.6	34
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	63.0	64.7	70.9	69.7	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**262.7**	**281.1**	**303.9**	**296.5**	**46**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	100.3	101.8	100.6	98.9	96.8	93.7	92.7	90.8	88.0	84.8	81.9	49
Poland	6.9	7.4	11.0	15.2	19.6	26.2	35.5	43.1	52.5	65.1	74.6	52
Germany	56.1	56.5	57.1	58.5	60.2	62.4	65.9	68.4	71.4	72.8	72.6	55
Morocco	97.8	94.4	91.6	86.2	80.5	74.9	70.8	66.6	61.9	56.6	51.0	49
United Kingdom	44.1	43.7	42.5	41.5	40.3	40.2	41.1	41.4	41.4	41.4	41.7	41
Belgium	..	..	..	..	..	..	26.6	26.9	27.2	27.6	28.2	54
China	11.2	13.3	14.7	15.0	15.3	16.2	18.1	19.8	21.4	23.9	25.9	52
Italy	18.7	18.5	18.4	18.5	18.6	19.0	20.3	21.1	21.9	22.6	23.6	37
Spain	17.5	17.4	17.1	16.9	16.5	16.5	17.3	18.1	19.2	20.3	21.9	51
France	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.7	14.7	15.1	16.4	17.2	17.8	18.1	18.3	52
Bulgaria	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	6.4	10.2	12.3	14.1	16.8	17.6	51
Portugal	11.3	11.8	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.9	14.2	15.4	15.7	16.4	17.3	45
United States	15.4	15.1	14.8	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.9	14.6	14.8	15.3	15.6	51
Greece	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.4	7.8	8.6	10.1	11.8	41
India	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.3	5.4	6.4	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.8	11.7	40
Other countries	295.2	296.1	293.0	286.3	278.3	277.0	260.1	263.0	275.0	283.4	282.5	
Total	**700.0**	**702.2**	**699.4**	**691.4**	**681.9**	**688.4**	**719.5**	**735.2**	**760.4**	**786.1**	**796.2**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	2.6	2.7	3.9	6.8	13.6	26.8	39.2	46.7	55.2	66.6	77.1	33
Sweden	25.2	25.4	25.8	26.6	27.9	29.9	32.8	35.8	39.2	42.0	43.1	48
Lithuania	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.9	3.0	5.1	7.6	10.4	16.4	24.1	30.7	40
Germany	8.2	8.8	9.6	10.6	12.2	15.3	18.9	20.8	22.4	23.7	24.4	45
Denmark	20.0	20.0	20.1	20.2	20.3	20.5	20.6	20.7	20.9	21.4	21.9	46
United Kingdom	11.2	11.0	11.2	11.2	11.6	12.0	12.6	13.3	14.0	14.7	15.5	35
Somalia	8.4	9.9	10.5	10.6	10.8	10.6	10.9	10.8	11.1	10.8	13.0	47
Russian Federation	4.8	6.2	7.4	8.2	8.8	9.7	10.4	10.6	10.8	10.9	11.2	65
Thailand	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.9	8.6	9.3	10.0	10.8	86
Philippines	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.1	6.8	7.8	8.9	10.1	81
Eritrea	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.4	2.1	3.8	5.7	7.6	10.0	49
United States	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.9	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.8	9.2	51
Iraq	13.0	13.4	13.7	13.1	12.1	10.7	11.0	10.9	10.6	10.3	9.1	42
Latvia	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.7	2.8	4.9	6.9	8.5	41
Iceland	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	4.0	5.3	6.4	7.6	8.2	46
Other countries	84.4	86.8	89.4	91.2	94.4	99.6	109.0	118.2	126.0	133.1	146.0	
Total	**197.7**	**204.7**	**213.3**	**222.3**	**238.3**	**266.3**	**303.0**	**333.9**	**369.2**	**407.3**	**448.8**	**46**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Ukraine	9.9	..	..	..	5.2	6.1	7.2	10.2	..	13.4	..	..
Germany	3.7	..	..	..	11.4	11.8	12.2	4.4	..	5.2	..	..
Russian Federation	4.3	..	..	..	3.3	3.4	3.5	4.2	..	4.2	..	..
Belarus	2.9	..	..	..	1.5	1.8	2.2	3.2	..	3.8	..	..
Viet Nam	2.1	..	..	..	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.9	..	2.6	..	..
Armenia	1.6	..	..	..	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.4	..	1.8	..	..
Sweden	0.5	..	..	..	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.3	..	..	..	..
Bulgaria	1.1	..	..	..	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	..	..	..	..
United States	1.3	..	..	..	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	..	..	..	..
Former USSR		..	..	..	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	..	..	..	..
Austria	0.3	..	..	..	2.6	2.7	2.8	1.0	..	..	..	..
Greece	0.5	..	..	..	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.9	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	1.0	..	..	..	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	..	..	..	..
France	1.0	..	..	..	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	..	..	..	..
Czech Republic	0.8	..	..	..	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	..	..	..	..
Other countries	18.2	..	..	..	19.4	19.6	20.1	14.8	..	24.4	..	
Total	**49.2**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**54.9**	**57.5**	**60.4**	**49.6**	**..**	**55.4**	**..**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Brazil	60.0	64.3	66.7	63.7	68.0	66.4	107.0	116.2	119.4	111.4	105.6	58
Ukraine	62.0	64.8	65.8	43.8	41.5	39.5	52.5	52.3	49.5	48.0	44.1	47
Cape Verde	60.4	62.5	64.3	67.5	65.5	63.9	51.4	48.8	44.0	43.9	42.9	53
Romania	10.9	11.6	12.0	10.6	11.4	19.2	27.4	32.5	36.8	39.3	35.2	44
Angola	32.2	34.1	35.1	34.2	33.7	32.7	27.6	26.6	23.5	21.6	20.3	53
Guinea-Bissau	23.4	24.7	25.3	24.7	23.8	23.7	24.4	22.9	19.8	18.5	17.8	44
China	8.3	8.7	9.2	9.3	10.2	10.4	13.3	14.4	15.7	16.8	17.4	48
United Kingdom	15.9	16.8	18.0	19.0	19.8	23.6	15.4	16.4	17.2	17.7	16.6	48
Moldova	12.2	12.8	13.7	14.0	14.4	14.1	21.1	20.8	15.6	13.6	11.5	49
Sao Tome and Principe	9.2	9.8	10.5	11.5	10.8	10.6	11.7	11.5	10.5	10.5	10.4	54
Spain	14.6	15.3	15.9	16.4	16.6	18.0	7.2	8.1	8.9	9.3	9.4	47
Germany	11.9	12.5	13.1	13.6	13.9	15.5	8.2	8.6	9.0	9.1	8.6	49
Bulgaria	3.3	3.6	3.6	3.1	3.3	5.0	6.5	7.2	8.2	8.6	7.4	46
India	4.9	5.1	5.2	3.7	3.8	4.1	5.5	5.8	5.3	5.4	5.7	29
Italy	3.8	4.2	4.6	4.8	6.0	6.0	3.9	4.5	5.1	5.3	5.2	40
Other countries	80.5	83.5	86.2	76.3	77.5	83.0	57.5	57.7	56.8	57.8	58.9	
Total	**413.3**	**434.3**	**449.2**	**415.9**	**420.2**	**435.7**	**440.6**	**454.2**	**445.3**	**436.8**	**417.0**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	230.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	93.4	..	110.2	..
Uzbekistan	70.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	131.1	..	103.1	..
Armenia	136.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	59.4	..	90.0	..
Tajikistan	64.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	87.1	..	75.7	..
Azerbaijan	154.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	67.9	..	62.8	..
Kazakhstan	69.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.1	..	42.2	..
Moldova	51.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33.9	..	36.3	..
Georgia	52.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12.1	..	15.6	..
Kyrgyzstan	28.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	44.6	..	14.0	..
Viet Nam	22.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11.1	..	10.2	..
Belarus	40.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27.7	..	9.8	..
China	30.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	28.4	..	8.5	..
Lithuania	4.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.6	..	4.6	..
Turkmenistan	6.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.6	..	4.1	..
Turkey	5.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.4	..	3.8	..
Other countries	56.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	48.8	..	30.1	
Total	**1 025.4**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**687.0**	**..**	**621.0**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Czech Republic	5.4	4.9	3.6	4.4	5.1	6.0	6.9	8.3	9.0	14.6	14.7	47
Hungary	..	..	..	1.8	2.1	2.7	3.6	4.6	5.3	9.3	9.9	36
Poland	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.6	4.0	4.4	5.4	5.6	6.9	7.0	53
Romania	..	..	..	0.4	0.7	3.0	5.0	5.4	5.8	5.7	6.0	32
Germany	..	..	..	1.6	2.3	2.9	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.4	27
Ukraine	4.7	4.9	4.0	3.7	3.9	3.7	4.7	5.9	6.3	3.9	3.9	68
Austria	..	..	..	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	25
Italy	..	..	..	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.7	2.1	2.2	18
Bulgaria	..	..	..	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	26
United Kingdom	..	..	..	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.9	30
Russian Federation	..	..	..	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.0	2.2	1.8	1.8	65
France	..	..	..	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.6	31
Viet Nam	..	..	..	0.8	1.1	1.4	2.5	2.3	2.3	1.5	1.5	47
China	..	..	..	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.9	0.8	0.9	51
United States	..	..	..	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	43
Other countries	17.0	17.0	12.1	4.6	6.3	8.3	11.1	14.1	15.7	11.5	11.8	
Total	**29.5**	**29.2**	**22.3**	**25.6**	**32.1**	**40.9**	**52.5**	**62.9**	**68.0**	**70.7**	**72.9**	**40**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVENIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	42.5	41.7	42.7	45.0	25
Croatia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.2	10.3	10.8	11.6	30
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10.1	9.5	10.0	10.2	41
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9.6	7.1	9.4	10.0	30
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	71
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.5	37
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.6	2.3	3.1	1.1	67
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.1	61
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	45
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	45
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	46
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	52
Austria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.4	0.5	..	0.5	37
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	38
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	51
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.7	17.0	17.9	16.6	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**99.6**	**95.4**	**101.5**	**103.3**	**29**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	137.3	208.0	317.4	407.2	527.0	731.8	798.9	831.2	865.7	897.2	868.6	49
Morocco	379.0	420.6	511.3	563.0	582.9	652.7	718.1	754.1	774.0	788.6	787.0	42
United Kingdom	161.5	174.8	227.2	274.7	315.0	353.0	375.7	387.7	391.2	397.9	383.1	49
Ecuador	390.3	475.7	497.8	461.3	427.1	427.7	421.4	399.6	360.7	308.2	262.2	49
Colombia	244.7	248.9	271.2	265.1	261.5	284.6	296.7	292.6	273.2	246.3	221.4	56
Italy	65.4	77.1	95.4	115.8	135.1	157.8	175.3	184.3	188.0	191.9	192.1	42
Germany	130.2	117.3	133.6	150.5	164.4	181.2	191.0	195.8	196.0	196.9	181.3	50
China	51.2	62.5	87.7	104.7	106.7	125.9	147.5	158.2	167.1	177.0	180.6	48
Bolivia	28.4	52.3	97.9	139.8	200.5	242.5	230.7	213.2	199.1	186.0	172.4	59
Bulgaria	52.8	69.9	93.0	101.6	122.1	154.0	164.7	169.6	172.9	176.4	168.6	48
Portugal	56.7	55.8	66.2	80.6	100.6	127.2	140.9	142.5	140.8	138.7	128.8	39
France	69.9	66.9	77.8	90.0	100.4	112.6	120.5	123.9	122.5	121.6	117.5	50
Peru	55.9	68.6	85.0	95.9	103.7	121.9	139.2	140.2	132.6	122.6	109.7	53
Argentina	109.4	130.9	153.0	150.3	141.2	147.4	142.3	132.2	120.7	109.3	97.5	51
Dominican Republic	44.3	48.0	57.1	61.1	65.1	77.8	88.1	91.2	91.1	92.8	92.6	57
Other countries	687.0	757.2	958.9	1 082.6	1 166.4	1 370.7	1 497.8	1 531.4	1 555.8	1 584.8	1 556.6	
Total	**2 664.2**	**3 034.3**	**3 730.6**	**4 144.2**	**4 519.6**	**5 268.8**	**5 648.7**	**5 747.7**	**5 751.5**	**5 736.3**	**5 520.1**	**48**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Finland	96.3	93.5	90.3	87.1	83.5	80.4	77.1	74.1	70.6	67.9	65.3	58
Poland	13.9	13.4	14.7	17.2	22.4	28.9	34.7	38.6	40.9	42.7	44.6	49
Iraq	40.1	41.5	39.8	31.9	30.3	40.0	48.6	55.1	56.6	55.8	43.2	48
Denmark	28.1	29.7	31.2	32.9	35.8	38.4	39.7	40.3	40.5	40.5	40.2	43
Somalia	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.6	11.6	14.7	18.3	24.7	30.8	33.0	36.1	49
Norway	34.7	35.5	35.6	35.4	35.5	35.6	35.5	35.2	34.9	34.8	34.8	51
Germany	18.1	19.1	19.9	21.0	22.5	24.7	26.6	27.5	27.6	27.8	28.0	49
Thailand	6.8	8.3	9.8	11.2	12.5	13.9	15.5	17.1	18.3	19.0	19.1	80
United Kingdom	14.2	14.4	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.7	16.5	17.3	17.4	18.1	18.4	30
Afghanistan	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.9	7.7	7.9	8.2	8.6	9.8	12.7	16.7	37
China	5.2	5.7	6.2	6.7	6.9	7.7	9.4	11.8	14.1	15.5	16.3	53
Iran	12.9	12.5	12.4	11.5	10.5	10.2	10.6	11.8	13.5	14.3	14.5	47
Turkey	12.6	12.4	12.3	11.7	10.2	10.0	10.2	10.8	11.9	12.4	12.5	38
Romania	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	4.4	6.5	7.7	8.8	10.2	11.2	47
Eritrea	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.8	2.2	2.9	3.9	5.0	6.4	8.4	10.0	53
Other countries	169.5	148.5	151.7	155.6	177.0	182.8	194.0	209.4	231.2	242.0	256.3	
Total	**469.8**	**452.8**	**457.8**	**457.5**	**485.9**	**518.2**	**555.4**	**595.1**	**633.3**	**655.1**	**667.2**	**48**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Italy	308.3	303.8	300.2	296.4	291.7	289.6	290.0	289.1	289.1	290.5	294.4	42
Germany	125.0	133.6	144.9	157.6	172.6	201.9	233.4	250.5	264.2	276.8	285.4	44
Portugal	141.1	149.8	159.7	167.3	173.5	182.3	196.2	205.3	213.2	224.2	238.4	45
France	63.2	65.0	67.0	69.0	71.5	77.4	85.6	90.6	95.1	99.5	103.9	46
Serbia	198.1	199.8	199.2	196.2	190.8	187.4	180.3	149.9	115.0	104.8	96.8	48
Spain	78.9	76.8	74.3	71.4	68.2	65.1	64.4	64.1	64.2	66.0	69.8	45
Turkey	78.8	77.7	76.6	75.4	73.9	72.6	71.7	71.0	70.6	70.2	69.6	47
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	59.8	60.5	60.8	60.7	60.1	60.0	59.7	59.8	60.2	60.8	61.6	48
United Kingdom	22.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	26.0	28.7	31.9	34.1	36.4	38.6	39.4	43
Austria	31.1	31.6	32.5	32.8	32.9	34.0	35.5	36.5	37.2	38.2	39.0	46
Bosnia and Herzegovina	46.0	45.4	44.8	43.2	41.3	39.3	37.5	35.8	34.6	33.5	32.9	48
Croatia	43.4	42.7	41.8	40.6	39.1	37.8	36.1	34.9	33.8	32.8	31.8	50
Sri Lanka	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24.6	23.9	49
Netherlands	15.0	15.2	15.4	15.8	16.1	17.0	18.1	18.5	19.1	19.4	19.6	45
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.1	18.6	72
Other countries	236.0	245.7	253.8	260.7	265.9	277.9	298.7	340.1	387.9	374.4	400.0	
Total	**1 447.3**	**1 471.0**	**1 495.0**	**1 511.9**	**1 523.6**	**1 571.0**	**1 638.9**	**1 680.2**	**1 720.4**	**1 772.3**	**1 825.1**	**47**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158482

Table B.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Poland	24.0	34.0	48.0	110.0	209.0	406.0	498.0	549.0	550.0	658.0	713.0	51
India	145.0	154.0	171.0	190.0	258.0	258.0	294.0	293.0	354.0	332.0	359.8	46
Ireland	403.0	367.0	368.0	369.0	335.0	341.0	359.0	344.0	344.0	386.0	356.0	57
Pakistan	97.0	83.0	86.0	95.0	78.0	133.0	178.0	177.0	137.0	166.0	162.8	44
Germany	68.0	70.0	96.0	100.0	91.0	88.0	91.0	121.0	129.0	132.0	137.0	58
France	92.0	102.0	95.0	100.0	110.0	122.0	123.0	148.0	116.0	114.0	132.0	52
Lithuania	..	..	..	..	47.0	54.0	73.0	67.0	99.0	129.0	126.0	51
Italy	98.0	91.0	121.0	88.0	76.0	95.0	96.0	107.0	117.0	153.0	125.0	50
Romania	..	..	..	..	12.0	19.0	32.0	52.0	72.0	79.0	117.0	48
Portugal	85.0	88.0	83.0	85.0	81.0	87.0	95.0	96.0	104.0	123.0	106.0	50
Nigeria	42.0	33.0	43.0	62.0	61.0	89.0	81.0	106.0	106.0	114.0	101.5	46
China	..	..	..	..	73.0	89.0	109.0	76.0	107.0	106.0	86.6	52
Spain	44.0	51.0	40.0	61.0	45.0	58.0	66.0	52.0	61.0	55.0	82.0	49
Latvia	..	..	..	..	14.0	13.0	29.0	19.0	44.0	62.0	81.0	51
Philippines	32.0	54.0	52.0	51.0	71.0	76.0	64.0	93.0	58.0	86.0	78.1	57
Other countries	1 454.0	1 615.0	1 654.0	1 724.0	1 831.0	1 896.0	1 998.0	2 048.0	2 126.0	2 090.0	2 024.2	
Total	**2 584.0**	**2 742.0**	**2 857.0**	**3 035.0**	**3 392.0**	**3 824.0**	**4 186.0**	**4 348.0**	**4 524.0**	**4 785.0**	**4 788.0**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Metadata related to Tables A.5. and B.5. **Stocks of foreign population**

	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 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.
Canada	2001 and 2006 Censuses.	Statistics Canada.
Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons), a long-term visa (over 90 days), a long-term residence permit (over 6 months, renewable) or a temporary residence permit (EU citizens). *Reference date:* 31 December.	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.
Estonia		Police and Border Guard Board.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date:* 31 December.	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	Includes some undocumented foreigners. *Reference date:* 4th quarter.	Labour Force Survey, National Statistical Service.
Hungary	Foreigners having a residence or a settlement document. From 2010 on, it includes refugees. From 2011 on, it included persons under subsidiary protection. Data for 2011 are adjusted on the basis of the census results. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Data are from the National Register of Persons. It is to be expected that figures are overestimates. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Census data 2002, 2006 and 2011. Estimates for other years.	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, 2002 and 2009 programmes. 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	Long-term foreign residents (status stated in the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act). *Reference date:* 31 December.	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 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. 2010 figures are extracted from the February 2011 census.	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).

Metadata related to Tables A.5. and B.5. **Stocks of foreign population** *(cont.)*

	Comments	Source
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.
Poland	2002 census data cover permanent residents, excluding those who had been staying abroad for more than 12 months. 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 and Central Population Register, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 2001-04 include stay permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme. Data for 2005-07 include holders of a valid residence permit, of a valid stay permit (foreigners who renewed their stay permits) and holders of a long-term visa (both issued and renewed each year). Work visas issued after 2004 include the foreigners who benefited from the regularisation scheme and also from the bilateral agreement concerning Brazilian workers. From 2009 on, with the supression of the stay permits, figures include holders of a valid residence permit and of a long-term visa granted or renewed during the year.	Ministry of the Interior, National Statistical Institute (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Russian Federation	2002 and 2010 Censuses. Since 2012, holders of a temporary or permanent residence permit.	Federal statistics service (Rosstat); Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	Holders of a permanent or long term residence permit.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	Number of valid residence permits, regardless of the administrative status of the foreign national. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Population register. Data include all registered foreign citizens independently of their administrative status. *Reference date:* 1 January (for a given year, data refer to the 1 January of the following year).	Municipal Registers, National Statistics 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. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
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, Census Bureau.

Data for Serbia may include persons from Montenegro.

Acquisitions 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.6. **Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation**

Numbers and percentages

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Australia	86 858	81 001	88 470	94 164	104 333	137 493	119 811	86 654	119 383	95 235	83 698
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Austria	36 011	44 694	41 645	34 876	25 746	14 010	10 258	7 978	6 135	6 690	7 043
% of foreign population	4.9	6.0	5.5	4.5	3.2	1.7	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7
Belgium	46 417	33 709	34 754	31 512	31 860	36 063	37 710	32 767	34 635	29 786	38 612
% of foreign population	5.5	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.2	3.3	2.7	3.3
Canada	141 591	155 117	193 620	198 724	260 803	199 871	176 575	156 349	143 678	181 338	113 150
% of foreign population	9.0	..	..	..	..	11.4	..	..	..	..	..
Chile	245	329	376	519	498	698	619	812	741	874	1 225
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Czech Republic	4 532	3 410	5 020	2 626	2 346	1 877	1 837	1 621	1 495	1 936	2 036
% of foreign population	2.1	1.5	2.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5
Denmark	17 300	6 583	14 976	10 197	7 961	3 648	5 772	6 537	3 006	3 911	3 267
% of foreign population	6.5	2.5	5.5	3.8	2.9	1.3	1.9	2.0	0.9	1.1	0.9
Estonia	4 091	3 706	6 523	7 072	4 753	4 228	2 124	1 670	1 184	1 518	1 339
% of foreign population	1.5	1.4	2.4	2.7	1.9	1.7	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6
Finland	3 049	4 526	6 880	5 683	4 433	4 824	6 682	3 413	4 334	4 558	9 087
% of foreign population	3.1	4.4	6.4	5.2	3.9	4.0	5.0	2.4	2.8	2.7	5.0
France	128 092	144 640	168 826	154 827	147 868	131 738	137 452	135 842	143 275	114 584	96 088
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	4.2	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.0	2.5
Germany	154 547	140 731	127 153	117 241	124 566	113 030	94 470	96 122	101 570	106 897	112 348
% of foreign population	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6
Greece	..	..	..	..	..	10 806	16 922	17 019	10 749	19 222	21 737
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	1.9	2.6	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.9
Hungary	3 369	5 261	5 432	9 870	6 172	8 442	8 104	5 802	6 086	20 554	18 379
% of foreign population	2.9	4.5	4.2	6.9	4.0	5.1	4.6	3.1	3.1	9.8	12.8
Iceland	356	463	671	726	844	647	914	728	450	370	413
% of foreign population	3.6	4.5	6.6	6.8	6.1	3.5	3.9	3.0	2.1	1.7	2.0
Ireland	2 817	3 993	3 784	4 079	5 763	6 656	4 350	4 594	6 387	..	25 039
% of foreign population	..	1.8	..	..	..	1.6	..	..	..	..	4.7
Italy	10 682	13 406	19 140	28 659	35 266	45 485	53 696	59 369	65 938	56 153	65 383
% of foreign population	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.2	1.4
Japan	14 339	17 633	16 336	15 251	14 108	14 680	13 218	14 785	13 072	10 359	10 622
% of foreign population	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5
Korea	3 883	7 734	9 262	16 974	8 125	10 319	15 258	26 756	17 323	18 355	12 528
% of foreign population	1.7	2.8	2.0	3.5	1.6	1.6	1.9	3.0	1.9	1.8	1.3
Luxembourg	754	785	841	954	1 128	1 236	1 215	4 022	4 311	3 405	4 680
% of foreign population	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.9	2.0	1.5	2.0
Mexico	4 737	4 317	6 429	5 610	4 175	5 470	4 471	3 489	2 150	2 633	3 590
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	0.9	1.2
Netherlands	45 321	28 799	26 173	28 488	29 089	30 653	28 229	29 754	26 275	28 598	30 955
% of foreign population	6.6	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.1	4.1	3.6	3.8	3.9
New Zealand	19 569	18 366	22 227	24 462	29 248	29 916	23 623	18 005	15 173	19 287	27 230
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Norway	9 041	7 867	8 154	12 655	11 955	14 877	10 312	11 442	11 903	14 637	12 384
% of foreign population	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.9	5.4	6.2	3.9	3.8	3.6	4.0	3.0
Poland	1 186	1 634	1 937	2 866	989	1 528	1 054	2 503	2 926	2 325	3 792
% of foreign population	..	3.3	..	..	..	2.8	1.8	4.1	5.9	4.4	6.8
Portugal	1 369	1 747	1 346	939	3 627	6 020	22 408	24 182	21 750	23 238	..
% of foreign population	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.9	1.4	5.1	5.5	4.8	5.2	..
Russian Federation	272 463	31 528	330 419	504 518	366 488	367 699	361 363	394 137	111 298	134 980	95 737
% of foreign population	..	3.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19.6	..

Table A.6. **Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries and the Russian Federation** *(cont.)*

Numbers and percentages

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Slovak Republic	..	3 492	4 016	1 393	1 125	1 478	680	262	239	272	255
% of foreign population	..	11.8	13.8	6.3	4.4	4.6	1.7	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Slovenia	..	..	..	..	..	823	1 448	1 690	1 807	1 798	768
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.8	1.9	0.8
Spain	21 810	26 556	38 335	42 829	62 339	71 810	84 170	79 597	123 721	114 599	115 557
% of foreign population	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.4	2.2	2.0	2.0
Sweden	36 978	32 351	26 130	35 531	46 995	32 473	29 330	28 562	32 457	36 634	50 179
% of foreign population	7.8	6.9	5.8	7.8	10.3	6.7	5.7	5.1	5.5	5.8	7.7
Switzerland	36 515	35 424	35 685	38 437	46 711	43 889	44 365	43 440	39 314	36 757	34 121
% of foreign population	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.1	1.9
Turkey	23 725	21 086	8 238	6 901	5 072	..	..	..	..	..	..
% of foreign population	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	120 121	130 535	148 273	161 699	154 018	164 637	129 377	203 789	195 046	177 785	194 209
% of foreign population	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.1	4.9	3.4	4.9	4.5	3.9	4.1
United States	573 708	462 435	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1046 539	743 715	619 913	694 193	757 434
% of foreign population	3.1	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.0	4.7	3.4	2.9	3.3	3.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.6.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158445

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRALIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United Kingdom	16 607	15 303	17 569	20 510	22 637	26 922	27 032	18 206	22 284	19 101	16 401	48
India	2 549	3 116	3 748	5 167	7 638	13 026	9 119	9 124	17 788	12 948	10 076	45
China	4 795	5 885	5 966	6 507	7 406	11 173	8 407	6 700	11 109	8 898	6 876	57
Philippines	2 884	2 994	3 163	3 738	3 825	5 187	3 841	3 453	4 505	4 051	5 592	56
South Africa	3 892	4 112	4 996	5 181	5 111	6 760	5 538	4 162	5 218	4 389	4 206	49
New Zealand	17 530	14 494	13 237	9 549	7 745	7 531	6 835	3 761	4 165	4 304	3 458	50
Viet Nam	2 124	1 719	2 268	2 108	2 146	2 634	2 177	1 522	2 000	1 688	1 929	67
Sri Lanka	1 384	1 354	1 651	1 741	2 002	3 613	2 937	2 203	3 412	2 520	1 671	47
Korea	821	656	957	1 146	1 770	2 491	2 395	1 211	2 409	2 321	1 570	56
Malaysia	1 530	1 647	1 876	1 863	2 046	2 974	2 742	1 778	2 216	2 207	1 487	53
United States	1 335	1 243	1 457	1 603	1 880	2 168	2 016	1 420	1 736	1 680	1 356	52
Bangladesh	331	298	392	586	797	1 202	1 072	1 756	2 940	1 178	1 183	49
Ireland	867	761	924	1 094	1 236	1 442	1 423	881	1 280	1 302	1 145	44
Zimbabwe	158	327	569	625	919	1 279	983	811	1 281	1 090	1 143	51
Thailand	500	551	725	912	1 069	1 482	1 253	874	1 762	1 343	1 125	75
Other countries	29 551	26 541	28 972	31 834	36 106	47 609	42 041	28 792	35 278	26 215	24 480	
Total	**86 858**	**81 001**	**88 470**	**94 164**	**104 333**	**137 493**	**119 811**	**86 654**	**119 383**	**95 235**	**83 698**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

AUSTRIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	12 623	13 665	13 004	9 545	7 542	2 076	1 664	1 242	937	1 178	1 198	43
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5 913	8 268	8 657	7 026	4 596	3 329	2 207	1 457	1 278	1 174	1 131	58
Serbia	4 806	9 836	7 245	6 681	4 825	4 254	2 595	2 003	1 268	1 092	723	60
Croatia	2 537	2 588	2 212	2 276	2 494	1 349	824	440	456	363	401	60
Russian Federation	161	83	194	235	228	128	127	135	137	296	316	56
Romania	1 774	2 096	1 373	1 128	981	455	382	246	114	223	275	69
Afghanistan	69	135	322	454	261	43	106	108	113	157	179	37
India	656	525	562	421	159	137	122	90	84	82	171	57
Iran	328	272	411	432	253	88	99	103	111	138	168	47
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	574	786	803	991	716	414	377	281	150	182	163	45
Egypt	599	615	616	506	382	100	121	124	94	97	152	49
Germany	85	106	135	135	122	113	67	174	132	117	110	56
China	715	591	545	323	182	57	67	76	58	97	110	62
Ukraine	104	146	230	182	145	81	70	80	75	106	99	76
Slovak Republic	318	196	174	171	124	56	46	50	66	64	77	77
Other countries	4 749	4 786	5 162	4 370	2 736	1 330	1 384	1 369	1 062	1 324	1 770	
Total	**36 011**	**44 694**	**41 645**	**34 876**	**25 746**	**14 010**	**10 258**	**7 978**	**6 135**	**6 690**	**7 043**	**54**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

BELGIUM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	15 832	10 565	8 704	7 977	7 753	8 722	8 427	6 919	7 380	7 035	7 879	55
Italy	2 341	2 646	2 271	2 086	2 360	2 017	1 762	1 700	2 833	3 697	3 203	48
Turkey	7 805	5 186	4 467	3 602	3 204	3 039	3 182	2 763	2 760	2 359	2 517	50
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2 809	1 785	2 566	1 917	1 567	1 793	1 795	1 555	1 603	1 158	1 936	56
Russian Federation	301	153	244	297	487	1 533	2 599	1 647	1 641	1 032	1 439	58
Netherlands	646	522	665	672	692	668	683	608	641	495	961	48
Cameroon	..	214	266	242	250	317	463	401	490	600	924	57
France	856	698	780	772	820	836	838	792	717	638	903	52
Algeria	926	826	826	739	658	687	744	739	739	584	863	46
Romania	294	277	314	332	429	554	480	362	395	356	777	56
Guinea	..	79	173	162	144	229	278	233	291	228	757	48
Poland	630	460	465	470	550	586	619	640	523	394	729	66
Rwanda	1 012	557	571	700	635	924	723	416	442	298	558	54
Iran	..	144	131	135	137	252	352	304	450	377	519	47
Togo	..	87	191	138	165	187	238	244	255	285	496	37
Other countries	12 965	9 510	12 120	11 271	12 009	13 719	14 527	13 444	13 475	10 250	14 151	
Total	**46 417**	**33 709**	**34 754**	**31 512**	**31 860**	**36 063**	**37 710**	**32 767**	**34 635**	**29 786**	**38 612**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

CANADA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
India	12 623	13 934	21 826	22 066	33 973	25 793	20 834	17 400	18 969	22 226	13 470	50
Philippines	7 622	8 225	9 022	11 036	15 570	12 197	11 668	11 068	11 608	16 154	10 553	58
China	16 321	20 021	25 138	25 775	34 477	24 348	21 027	16 013	13 425	15 567	10 412	58
Pakistan	7 292	6 494	10 676	12 429	17 123	11 624	9 434	7 841	8 062	9 934	5 631	50
United Kingdom	2 698	4 366	7 452	6 979	6 627	5 242	4 714	4 353	4 501	6 041	4 333	47
United States	2 812	3 859	5 288	5 057	5 118	4 267	4 133	3 735	3 714	5 089	3 834	54
Iran	5 712	5 135	4 616	4 984	8 087	5 335	4 988	3 829	3 585	4 941	3 528	51
Korea	3 464	4 350	5 909	5 426	7 558	5 861	5 251	3 838	3 166	4 093	3 071	52
Colombia	724	953	1 510	2 085	3 136	3 784	4 671	4 289	3 812	4 077	2 540	52
Sri Lanka	3 500	3 261	5 151	4 579	5 650	4 703	3 691	3 187	2 918	3 347	2 008	52
Romania	2 672	3 105	3 294	4 470	5 885	4 682	4 376	4 416	3 092	3 730	1 828	55
Russian Federation	3 379	3 438	3 796	4 076	4 619	3 673	3 323	2 712	2 371	2 973	1 702	57
Algeria	1 557	1 687	1 500	2 146	3 331	2 552	2 150	3 160	2 453	3 322	1 586	51
Jamaica	2 206	2 932	4 515	3 966	4 856	3 382	2 435	1 859	1 854	2 335	1 557	52
Bangladesh	1 553	1 527	2 053	2 860	3 415	2 023	1 873	2 140	2 284	2 890	1 484	49
Other countries	67 456	71 830	81 874	80 790	101 378	80 405	72 007	66 509	57 864	74 619	45 613	
Total	**141 591**	**155 117**	**193 620**	**198 724**	**260 803**	**199 871**	**176 575**	**156 349**	**143 678**	**181 338**	**113 150**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

CHILE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Peru	30	52	84	123	117	196	174	170	156	214	305	60
Ecuador	4	2	12	20	21	43	62	72	89	97	173	54
Cuba	17	25	55	88	92	109	115	107	119	137	159	48
Colombia	2	14	13	16	19	44	26	61	54	75	149	55
Bolivia	76	96	59	99	93	95	69	114	93	119	115	63
Argentina	8	11	13	15	7	11	10	20	16	23	33	36
Chinese Taipei	15	20	16	45	46	44	35	60	39	15	29	62
China	28	30	40	18	25	24	16	46	29	24	29	66
Venezuela	1	4	1	2	3	9	8	14	17	22	21	67
Pakistan	1	2	2	9	7	10	4	17	15	16	17	35
Dominican Republic	..	2	2	1	1	1	5	..	6	4	17	47
India	3	16	11	10	7	13	16	11	9	16	15	33
Russian Federation	1	..	1	2	1	3	5	13	3	8	14	57
Spain	2	9	2	4	5	10	5	10	9	5	14	50
Brazil	..	..	..	2	..	..	2	..	6	5	9	44
Other countries	57	46	65	65	54	86	67	97	81	94	126	
Total	**245**	**329**	**376**	**519**	**498**	**698**	**619**	**812**	**741**	**874**	**1 225**	**54**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

CZECH REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	251	419	446	239	425	424	398	520	396	501	518	..
Slovak Republic	2 109	989	1 741	1 259	786	625	521	431	377	378	331	..
Poland	304	170	298	167	86	50	53	58	63	198	180	..
Russian Federation	65	7	86	134	107	102	84	58	50	68	173	..
Former Czechoslovakia	1 273	1 154	1 784	190	205	225	229	173	171	144	140	..
Viet Nam	29	46	47	62	43	40	42	44	52	86	80	..
Armenia	8	18	23	32	61	28	19	16	11	47	74	..
Romania	109	116	101	143	131	36	83	35	36	76	70	..
Belarus	13	14	21	35	27	39	27	20	15	38	49	..
Kazakhstan	43	156	89	43	129	18	121	21	17	48	30	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	20	47	62	63	37	19	11	9	9	16	27	..
Moldova	4	4	1	11	9	33	21	23	15	32	25	..
Algeria	3	6	5	9	9	12	4	..	10	17	22	..
Bulgaria	95	54	62	48	48	14	11	12	21	28	19	..
Syria	13	11	10	5	4	5	12	6	4	8	19	..
Other countries	193	199	244	186	239	207	201	195	248	251	279	
Total	**4 532**	**3 410**	**5 020**	**2 626**	**2 346**	**1 877**	**1 837**	**1 621**	**1 495**	**1 936**	**2 036**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

DENMARK

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2011 (%)
Iraq	1 161	153	1 015	961	1 113	515	1 166	1 201	368	838	..	49
Afghanistan	301	40	367	282	260	178	359	790	354	576	..	43
Somalia	2 263	324	2 022	1 709	923	317	527	264	142	233	..	50
Turkey	2 418	2 158	732	878	1 125	527	581	511	239	227	..	55
Iran	519	120	505	317	203	89	207	155	63	113	..	58
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	519	224	270	265	131	110	..	61
China	289	203	339	382	281	162	181	199	103	103	..	51
Norway	..	..	..	..	134	93	73	76	51	76	..	64
Pakistan	573	94	332	305	172	93	191	214	21	73	..	44
Sweden	..	..	..	..	66	48	39	52	58	64	..	61
Ethiopia	..	..	..	..	58	32	71	116	98	62	..	35
Former Yugoslavia	784	239	835	324	594	165	196	228	83	62	..	42
Sri Lanka	594	119	678	332	148	73	127	74	20	58	..	64
Viet Nam	508	280	318	232	213	129	78	144	86	58	..	50
Thailand	172	62	180	114	95	61	79	96	64	57	..	51
Other countries	7 718	2 791	7 653	4 361	2 057	942	1 627	2 152	1 125	1 201	..	
Total	**17 300**	**6 583**	**14 976**	**10 197**	**7 961**	**3 648**	**5 772**	**6 537**	**3 006**	**3 911**	**..**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

ESTONIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	156	173	66
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	24	63
Belarus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	5	80
India	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	0
Georgia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	50
Finland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	0
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	100
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	100
United Kingdom	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	0
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	1	0
Lithuania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	100
Latvia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	100
Other countries	4 091	3 706	6 523	7 072	4 753	4 228	2 124	1 670	1 184	1 344	1 123	
Total	**4 091**	**3 706**	**6 523**	**7 072**	**4 753**	**4 228**	**2 124**	**1 670**	**1 184**	**1 518**	**1 339**	**55**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

FINLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Russian Federation	418	1 682	2 313	2 094	1 399	1 665	2 211	1 026	1 925	1 652	2 477	65
Somalia	204	209	165	414	445	464	595	290	131	96	609	54
Estonia	319	468	690	291	176	182	262	166	243	302	521	60
Afghanistan	23	3	14	48	101	102	279	186	108	100	510	49
Iraq	217	165	447	346	405	443	379	207	78	106	457	44
Iran	68	124	225	233	213	218	329	180	137	145	451	50
Serbia	41	32	338	346	248	240	371	173	122	133	374	54
Turkey	112	141	171	128	110	102	195	94	132	166	278	35
Sudan	9	2	2	4	2	4	11	49	17	24	229	46
Sweden	61	94	149	198	178	163	274	126	104	196	190	51
Viet Nam	205	133	209	82	64	79	78	42	54	82	150	58
Ukraine	28	66	130	65	46	45	62	53	92	95	148	57
China	136	126	95	60	57	68	84	53	85	88	124	74
India	37	23	53	32	8	26	28	27	73	76	117	44
Bangladesh	26	23	43	34	26	42	40	19	32	53	114	39
Other countries	1 145	1 235	1 836	1 308	955	981	1 484	722	1 001	1 244	2 338	
Total	**3 049**	**4 526**	**6 880**	**5 683**	**4 433**	**4 824**	**6 682**	**3 413**	**4 334**	**4 558**	**9 087**	**55**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

FRANCE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	33 967	36 875	..	37 848	..	..	28 699	26 097	27 637	20 965	16 720	48
Algeria	15 711	20 245	..	25 435	..	..	20 256	20 659	20 941	15 039	12 436	47
Tunisia	9 956	11 412	..	12 012	..	..	9 471	9 268	8 520	6 288	4 978	43
Turkey	10 468	10 492	..	13 618	..	..	10 202	9 171	8 448	6 333	4 804	46
Portugal	8 844	9 576	..	8 888	..	..	7 778	6 415	4 903	3 805	3 257	49
Senegal	1 858	2 185	..	2 345	..	..	3 038	3 364	3 508	2 825	2 437	50
Russian Federation	831	951	..	1 132	..	..	3 530	4 157	4 503	3 382	2 194	72
Cameroon	1 770	2 196	..	2 081	..	..	2 014	2 411	2 824	2 356	1 841	63
Côte d'Ivoire	1 495	1 869	..	1 987	..	..	2 197	2 565	3 003	2 161	1 663	56
Madagascar	1 352	1 628	..	1 440	..	..	1 360	1 498	1 691	1 570	1 635	70
Mali	774	947	..	1 365	..	..	2 237	2 704	2 698	2 054	1 626	49
Haiti	2 082	2 734	..	2 744	..	..	2 922	2 981	2 771	1 627	1 301	50
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 572	2 012	..	2 631	..	..	2 402	2 294	2 293	1 698	1 258	55
Romania	808	954	..	978	..	..	787	822	99	1 195	1 226	64
China	850	1 229	..	1 054	..	..	1 122	1 407	1 220	1 198	1 178	55
Other countries	35 754	39 334	168 826	39 269	147 868	131 738	39 437	40 029	48 216	42 088	37 534	
Total	**128 092**	**144 640**	**168 826**	**154 827**	**147 868**	**131 738**	**137 452**	**135 842**	**143 275**	**114 584**	**96 088**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

GERMANY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Turkey	64 631	56 244	44 465	32 661	33 388	28 861	24 449	24 647	26 192	28 103	33 246	42
Poland	2 646	2 990	7 499	6 896	6 907	5 479	4 245	3 841	3 789	4 281	4 496	71
Greece	1 105	1 114	1 507	1 346	1 657	2 691	1 779	1 362	1 450	2 290	4 167	47
Ukraine	3 656	3 889	3 844	3 363	4 536	4 454	1 953	2 345	3 118	4 264	3 691	61
Iraq	1 721	2 999	3 564	4 136	3 693	4 102	4 229	5 136	5 228	4 790	3 510	44
Viet Nam	1 482	1 423	1 371	1 278	1 382	1 078	1 048	1 513	1 738	2 428	3 299	51
Russian Federation	3 734	2 764	4 381	5 055	4 679	4 069	2 439	2 477	2 753	2 965	3 167	61
Morocco	3 800	4 118	3 820	3 684	3 546	3 489	3 130	3 042	2 806	3 011	2 852	41
Serbia	..	400	3 539	8 824	12 601	10 458	6 484	4 309	3 405	2 978	2 746	51
Afghanistan	4 750	4 948	4 077	3 133	3 063	2 831	2 512	3 549	3 520	2 711	2 717	49
Iran	13 026	9 440	6 362	4 482	3 662	3 121	2 734	3 184	3 046	2 728	2 463	52
Romania	1 974	1 394	1 309	1 789	1 379	3 502	2 137	2 357	2 523	2 399	2 343	72
Italy	847	1 180	1 656	1 629	1 558	1 265	1 392	1 273	1 305	1 707	2 202	48
Kazakhstan	2 027	3 010	1 443	2 975	3 207	2 180	1 602	1 439	1 601	1 923	1 938	63
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 357	1 770	2 103	1 907	1 862	1 797	1 878	1 733	1 945	1 703	1 865	54
Other countries	46 791	43 048	36 213	34 083	37 446	33 653	32 459	33 915	37 151	38 616	37 646	
Total	**154 547**	**140 731**	**127 153**	**117 241**	**124 566**	**113 030**	**94 470**	**96 122**	**101 570**	**106 897**	**112 348**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

GREECE

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2009 (%)
Albania	..	..	..	..	..	5 688	9 996	14 271	..	..	..	49
Georgia	..	..	..	..	..	489	1 285	550	..	..	..	55
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	475	834	410	..	..	..	45
Turkey	..	..	..	..	..	223	212	175	..	..	..	23
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	105	164	138	..	..	..	53
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	80	165	137	..	..	..	51
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	68	167	129	..	..	..	50
United States	..	..	..	..	..	105	175	127	..	..	..	54
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	39	85	105	..	..	..	45
Cyprus[1, 2]	..	..	..	..	..	109	68	87	..	..	..	36
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	83	79	63	..	..	..	41
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	105	89	62	..	..	..	34
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	44	49	49	..	..	..	67
Egypt	..	..	..	..	..	62	50	45	..	..	..	18
Israel	..	..	..	..	..	82	81	40	..	..	..	38
Other countries		..	..	..	..	3 049	3 423	631	..	..	..	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**10 806**	**16 922**	**17 019**	**..**	**19 222**	**21 737**	**49**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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 recognises 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 Union:* 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.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

HUNGARY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Romania	2 238	3 415	3 605	6 890	4 303	6 052	5 535	3 805	3 939	15 658	14 392	50
Ukraine	..	..	..	828	541	834	857	558	646	2 189	1 765	65
Serbia	..	..	..	949	357	757	758	672	721	1 678	1 330	47
Slovak Republic	..	..	..	161	206	116	106	97	97	414	307	68
Russian Federation	..	..	..	162	111	7	156	119	111	168	151	69
Germany	..	..	..	25	22	28	33	35	25	55	67	45
Croatia	..	..	..	50	148	26	34	25	26	61	50	38
Viet Nam	..	..	..	53	40	53	95	39	75	38	29	52
Poland	..	..	..	26	10	10	14	13	9	27	18	78
Austria	..	..	..	6	6	3	8	7	4	20	14	36
Iran	..	..	..	10	7	11	6	18	14	7	14	21
United States	..	..	..	3	4	12	11	9	2	17	13	38
Syria	..	..	..	13	13	22	17	11	10	7	11	36
Israel	..	..	..	1	8	3	7	5	4	9	10	10
Mongolia	..	..	..	11	14	10	4	14	16	18	9	78
Other countries	1 131	1 846	1 827	682	382	498	463	375	387	188	199	
Total	**3 369**	**5 261**	**5 432**	**9 870**	**6 172**	**8 442**	**8 104**	**5 802**	**6 086**	**20 554**	**18 379**	**52**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

ICELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Philippines	45	64	59	45	105	69	126	106	67	35	49	69
Poland	48	67	133	184	222	162	164	153	50	35	30	50
Serbia	..	..	73	70	78	33	109	76	27	34	27	48
Thailand	50	51	48	50	54	45	62	40	28	27	26	77
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3	1	1	17	7	24	14	16	9	6	22	50
Russian Federation	5	11	33	23	24	17	38	17	21	12	21	76
Ukraine	2	4	18	6	9	13	18	18	15	10	21	38
United States	22	34	33	31	34	33	20	15	19	11	12	58
Romania	3	4	2	10	12	4	12	12	4	2	12	58
Sweden	6	5	7	16	11	9	1	5	3	6	11	91
Morocco	5	3	7	7	4	9	22	3	8	5	9	33
Viet Nam	9	8	19	23	41	16	52	51	39	14	8	38
Belarus	..	3	6	2	3	4	1	..	2	1	7	57
Cuba	2	3	..	4	2	..	2	1	..	5	7	100
Lithuania	3	1	9	7	5	23	23	9	11	8	6	100
Other countries	153	204	223	231	233	186	250	206	147	159	145	
Total	**356**	**463**	**671**	**726**	**844**	**647**	**914**	**728**	**450**	**370**	**413**	**60**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

IRELAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Nigeria	..	..	..	155	189	142	319	454	1 012	1 204	5 689	58
Philippines	..	..	..	43	70	37	84	410	630	1 755	3 830	61
India	..	..	..	144	126	119	166	339	443	944	2 617	66
Pakistan	..	..	..	213	239	189	196	201	306	428	1 288	45
Ukraine	..	..	..	31	25	34	97	153	202	432	815	53
China	..	..	..	57	85	45	102	131	258	403	798	57
South Africa	..	..	..	257	363	219	205	318	343	418	708	54
Moldova	..	..	..	21	22	11	67	72	115	278	636	53
Bangladesh	..	..	..	8	20	25	41	146	238	700	566	53
Russian Federation	..	..	..	81	109	86	160	246	253	288	464	60
Romania	..	..	..	92	81	46	74	117	143	135	457	51
Sudan	..	..	..	40	39	40	80	123	170	280	419	43
Poland	..	..	..	20	37	7	10	13	29	25	359	50
Ghana	..	..	..	11	12	7	19	24	29	53	296	60
United States	..	..	..	890	1 518	1 841	875	156	112	148	263	56
Other countries	2 817	3 993	3 784	2 016	2 828	3 808	1 855	1 691	2 104	3 258	5 834	
Total	**2 817**	**3 993**	**3 784**	**4 079**	**5 763**	**6 656**	**4 350**	**4 594**	**6 387**	**10 749**	**25 039**	**56**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

ITALY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	624	1 132	1 046	..	3 295	3 850	9 156	9 096	11 350	10 732	14 728	46
Albania	703	830	882	..	2 330	2 605	4 546	9 523	9 129	8 101	9 493	50
Romania	968	977	847	..	2 775	3 509	2 857	2 735	4 707	3 921	3 272	72
Tunisia	175	271	258	..	371	920	1 666	2 066	2 003	2 067	2 555	43
India	..	..	..	..	..	188	672	894	1 261	1 051	2 366	31
Peru	305	383	253	..	..	883	1 064	1 947	2 235	1 726	1 589	69
Ukraine	167	224	209	..	..	1 389	1 601	1 131	1 820	1 199	1 580	87
Pakistan	..	..	..	..	..	91	219	349	535	601	1 522	35
Bangladesh	..	..	..	..	..	68	405	839	822	972	1 460	30
Brazil	604	726	579	..	1 751	1 928	1 930	1 579	2 099	1 960	1 442	75
Russian Federation	439	463	436	..	1 181	1 279	1 772	1 403	1 881	888	1 351	80
Egypt	195	264	283	..	217	704	1 228	1 394	1 431	2 352	1 342	30
Ghana	..	..	..	..	213	301	1 121	1 061	790	801	1 288	45
Moldova	..	..	..	..	..	754	707	580	1 060	846	1 222	87
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	204	697	954	923	1 141	1 219	40
Other countries	6 502	8 136	14 347	28 659	23 133	26 812	24 055	23 818	23 892	17 795	18 954	
Total	**10 682**	**13 406**	**19 140**	**28 659**	**35 266**	**45 485**	**53 696**	**59 369**	**65 938**	**56 153**	**65 383**	**54**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

JAPAN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Korea	9 188	11 778	11 031	9 689	8 531	8 546	7 412	7 637	6 668	5 656	5 581	..
China	4 442	4 722	4 122	4 427	4 347	4 740	4 322	5 392	4 816	3 259	3 598	..
Other countries	709	1 133	1 183	1 135	1 230	1 394	1 484	1 756	1 588	1 444	1 443	
Total	**14 339**	**17 633**	**16 336**	**15 251**	**14 108**	**14 680**	**13 218**	**14 785**	**13 072**	**10 359**	**10 622**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

KOREA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
China	3 344	6 146	7 443	14 881	7 156	8 878	12 545	20 700	12 324	11 599	6 283	..
Viet Nam	30	81	147	362	243	461	1 147	3 795	3 080	3 269	3 011	..
Philippines	112	928	1 074	786	317	335	579	832	461	517	339	..
Mongolia	10	43	36	109	32	82	134	184	197	175	110	..
Uzbekistan	6	21	34	79	38	60	80	118	89	102	75	..
Thailand	12	41	53	69	39	57	73	111	69	67	72	..
Pakistan	13	63	58	66	18	34	27	44	68	37	17	..
Other countries	356	411	417	622	282	412	673	972	1 035	2 589	2 621	
Total	**3 883**	**7 734**	**9 262**	**16 974**	**8 125**	**10 319**	**15 258**	**26 756**	**17 323**	**18 355**	**12 528**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

LUXEMBOURG

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Belgium	87	73	83	101	87	97	77	224	258	450	1 581	46
Portugal	147	158	188	252	338	352	293	1 242	1 351	1 085	1 155	50
France	65	57	44	51	74	75	76	277	342	314	462	52
Italy	119	120	111	97	161	138	109	362	665	425	411	53
Germany	47	50	62	79	74	95	76	322	333	208	201	60
Serbia	..	..	..	2	55	67	115	425	412	229	194	46
Bosnia and Herzegovina	6	8	22	29	46	72	76	270	202	114	74	34
United Kingdom	1	2	3	1	8	5	..	62	53	44	56	47
Netherlands	11	17	6	7	20	10	20	31	50	38	54	45
United States	..	..	2	2	..	2	3	47	44	32	42	59
Cape Verde	48	50	41	33	45	46	49	77	40	60	41	64
Spain	6	11	8	9	7	17	10	48	58	35	38	51
Ukraine	..	2	3	4	5	5	11	25	22	23	35	58
Switzerland	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	30	29	20	30	86
Poland	6	9	10	10	3	4	4	30	27	27	25	40
Other countries	211	228	257	277	205	251	296	550	425	301	281	
Total	**754**	**785**	**841**	**954**	**1 128**	**1 236**	**1 215**	**4 022**	**4 311**	**3 405**	**4 680**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

MEXICO

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Colombia	434	..	901	813	689	892	690	390	305	486	634	61
Cuba	549	..	661	666	429	660	459	307	240	408	579	50
Venezuela	39	..	107	197	185	316	309	159	126	162	279	64
Argentina	142	..	328	372	400	450	400	265	170	178	271	44
Guatemala	1 650	..	1 624	247	114	185	141	209	95	117	196	55
Peru	226	..	320	191	215	292	213	166	107	138	182	46
Spain	140	..	218	301	239	286	251	227	121	152	180	43
Honduras	77	..	118	156	59	123	98	131	55	92	143	66
United States	94	..	215	286	334	287	246	266	117	79	108	40
El Salvador	208	..	243	235	137	159	118	163	81	82	99	62
China	211	..	310	324	188	211	241	154	145	58	76	51
Dominican Republic	13	..	38	43	47	69	48	50	29	22	75	55
Ecuador	41	..	64	67	52	83	63	41	41	46	63	56
Chile	29	..	77	86	58	90	69	72	38	40	56	46
Italy	57	..	93	99	89	94	108	76	39	45	53	34
Other countries	827	4 317	1 112	1 527	940	1 273	1 017	813	441	528	596	
Total	**4 737**	**4 317**	**6 429**	**5 610**	**4 175**	**5 470**	**4 471**	**3 489**	**2 150**	**2 633**	**3 590**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NETHERLANDS

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Morocco	12 033	7 126	5 873	7 086	6 896	6 409	5 034	5 508	5 797	6 824	6 238	55
Turkey	5 391	3 726	4 026	3 493	3 407	4 073	3 147	4 167	4 984	5 029	4 292	51
Suriname	1 957	1 242	1 421	2 031	1 636	1 285	1 006	1 142	967	934	875	64
Thailand	289	171	161	160	171	195	220	383	413	571	602	88
Afghanistan	1 118	982	801	550	562	662	584	596	402	371	567	60
Ghana	357	157	74	199	296	314	283	411	367	519	540	56
Iraq	2 367	832	489	333	331	501	866	674	288	289	525	55
Brazil	249	137	131	159	189	173	201	307	272	307	408	80
India	250	138	117	187	214	214	153	263	193	292	406	48
Pakistan	241	132	83	204	199	199	174	251	208	279	388	59
Philippines	263	159	129	198	209	226	209	308	263	330	381	79
Indonesia	380	291	203	293	248	302	262	306	298	357	370	76
Iran	336	180	122	184	225	221	273	279	217	281	361	57
Poland	530	318	212	347	238	268	237	271	202	296	360	74
Egypt	437	190	97	238	245	304	255	337	259	309	325	52
Other countries	19 123	13 018	12 234	12 826	14 023	15 307	15 325	14 551	11 145	11 610	14 317	
Total	**45 321**	**28 799**	**26 173**	**28 488**	**29 089**	**30 653**	**28 229**	**29 754**	**26 275**	**28 598**	**30 955**	**57**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NEW ZEALAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
United Kingdom	2 196	2 286	2 388	2 450	2 933	3 607	3 505	2 974	2 617	4 450	5 636	48
Samoa	1 316	1 193	1 069	1 161	1 375	1 447	1 433	1 549	1 908	2 034	2 957	48
South Africa	1 972	1 996	2 411	2 433	2 805	3 119	2 413	1 808	1 339	2 105	2 784	51
India	1 356	1 257	2 136	2 926	4 346	5 211	3 431	2 246	1 567	1 649	2 271	48
Philippines	657	557	704	846	1 135	1 170	718	696	848	663	2 218	54
Fiji	1 147	1 053	1 456	1 551	1 693	1 729	1 938	1 536	1 307	1 212	2 081	54
China	1 901	2 041	2 856	3 339	3 901	3 084	1 919	1 131	676	846	1 159	57
Zimbabwe	129	110	415	585	817	902	653	368	265	632	703	52
United States	360	357	360	289	372	418	392	331	327	437	573	53
Korea	695	645	1 098	1 528	1 644	1 454	887	585	457	444	559	49
Malaysia	243	290	345	284	334	453	423	449	456	403	485	56
Tonga	271	207	199	169	193	260	279	315	378	337	460	49
Thailand	249	233	279	290	253	210	166	165	131	222	255	69
Netherlands	74	88	117	104	140	149	143	139	126	143	222	57
Myanmar	37	37	101	101	48	43	28	12	15	161	220	50
Other countries	6 966	6 016	6 293	6 406	7 259	6 660	5 295	3 701	2 756	3 549	4 647	
Total	**19 569**	**18 366**	**22 227**	**24 462**	**29 248**	**29 916**	**23 623**	**18 005**	**15 173**	**19 287**	**27 230**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

NORWAY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Iraq	497	403	619	2 141	2 142	2 577	1 072	1 267	1 338	947	1 642	50
Somalia	546	392	526	1 250	1 281	2 196	1 315	1 737	1 528	2 131	1 571	51
Afghanistan	17	21	23	75	194	674	877	857	1 054	1 281	1 013	49
Russian Federation	308	280	365	548	458	436	515	622	673	644	629	61
Pakistan	829	497	568	694	590	544	773	469	430	526	478	54
Philippines	299	265	249	322	246	421	233	445	322	421	341	76
Myanmar	6	5	..	7	..	5	4	33	103	260	325	50
Iran	324	228	508	832	535	740	495	785	554	539	297	51
Thailand	257	193	234	299	263	427	247	483	267	380	265	76
Ethiopia	63	55	83	116	140	313	341	216	225	341	236	53
Congo	..	3	5	15	9	38	46	..	142	189	222	49
Sweden	216	211	221	276	376	241	211	184	248	300	213	52
Eritrea	26	12	20	50	60	88	67	63	248	254	199	52
Liberia	3	2	..	1	2	6	7	40	176	407	192	61
China	135	84	82	109	123	175	92	157	182	221	175	65
Other countries	5 515	5 216	4 651	5 920	5 536	5 996	4 017	4 084	4 413	5 796	4 586	
Total	**9 041**	**7 867**	**8 154**	**12 655**	**11 955**	**14 877**	**10 312**	**11 442**	**11 903**	**14 637**	**12 384**	**53**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

POLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	214	431	538	759	417	662	369	877	992	800	1 196	67
Belarus	54	108	129	316	101	126	152	357	418	320	456	63
Russian Federation	22	52	145	257	129	114	64	162	215	200	244	69
Germany	49	60	62	156	1	39	37	47	92	106	171	47
Armenia	13	8	6	18	27	30	16	79	101	103	163	39
Viet Nam	17	11	11	36	29	47	12	64	97	104	150	40
Egypt	5	1	2	18	6	13	..	37	38	4	76	1
United States	9	32	41	59	8	23	27	47	50	53	75	48
Turkey	1	5	11	19	36	11	1	35	33	12	72	11
Nigeria	12	8	11	16	7	17	2	35	45	4	68	1
Canada	22	46	36	73	7	17	24	35	40	45	65	40
Tunisia	3	..	5	17	4	6	4	19	35	3	61	3
India	3	7	9	23	11	19	3	35	24	12	55	5
Sweden	30	107	81	90	8	26	48	34	61	52	46	52
Kazakhstan	53	68	38	62	10	10	18	41	38	42	44	66
Other countries	679	690	812	947	188	368	277	599	647	465	850	
Total	**1 186**	**1 634**	**1 937**	**2 866**	**989**	**1 528**	**1 054**	**2 503**	**2 926**	**2 325**	**3 792**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

PORTUGAL

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Brazil	345	345	307	162	491	415	4 080	3 993	4 007	5 352	..	..
Cape Verde	271	370	274	132	1 047	2 189	6 013	5 368	3 982	3 502	..	..
Ukraine	..	..	2	2	12	..	484	978	1 358	2 336	..	..
Moldova	..	..	2	3	6	..	2 230	2 896	2 675	2 324	..	..
Angola	82	144	63	38	336	738	2 075	2 113	1 953	1 870	..	..
Guinea-Bissau	73	38	95	36	873	1 602	2 754	2 442	1 847	1 815	..	..
Sao Tome and Principe	34	58	22	7	134	448	1 391	1 289	1 097	1 156	..	..
India	9	11	3	6	25	32	417	1 055	919	860	..	..
Russian Federation	..	..	9	6	21	31	259	535	580	590	..	..
Pakistan	..	..	2	4	21	32	74	200	388	476	..	..
Romania	..	..	4	5	20	..	209	258	303	469	..	..
Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..	450	717	475	313	..	..
Mozambique	27	56	17	4	57	155	262	253	208	204	..	..
Bangladesh	..	..	..	..	..	31	316	404	340	193	..	..
Morocco	..	..	..	..	..	..	203	203	188	175	..	..
Other countries	528	725	546	534	584	347	1 191	1 478	1 430	1 603	..	
Total	**1 369**	**1 747**	**1 346**	**939**	**3 627**	**6 020**	**22 408**	**24 182**	**21 750**	**23 238**	**..**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Kazakhstan	101 756	8 678	106 613	123 286	68 087	64 831	58 736	50 628	27 130	29 986	14 585	..
Uzbekistan	29 665	2 266	29 676	73 315	67 021	53 109	43 982	49 784	4 788	7 906	13 409	..
Armenia	14 573	1 722	23 139	39 330	34 860	39 328	45 253	54 828	6 261	7 847	13 176	..
Ukraine	53 396	7 623	50 593	94 133	66 502	55 424	58 500	62 025	5 715	7 783	12 803	..
Tajikistan	7 944	869	10 749	16 148	12 198	16 444	21 891	39 214	4 393	6 152	9 773	..
Kyrgyzstan	17 324	1 717	27 449	38 422	33 166	61 239	51 210	48 720	37 348	52 362	8 415	..
Azerbaijan	13 663	2 010	24 555	35 720	22 045	24 885	29 643	34 627	5 265	5 635	6 440	..
Moldova	6 740	366	7 283	13 727	12 809	13 876	15 782	20 429	1 992	2 802	5 252	..
Georgia	12 297	1 459	20 695	25 225	14 008	12 156	11 110	9 876	2 513	2 405	3 082	..
Belarus	6 399	563	10 179	12 943	7 919	6 572	7 099	6 062	3 888	3 993	1 547	..
Turkmenistan	3 551	398	5 358	7 713	5 577	4 737	4 444	4 026	482	544	753	..
Turkey	102	27	50	44	51	60	105	129	144	146	201	..
Latvia	1 184	196	954	1 062	756	516	466	469	135	169	178	..
Lithuania	609	56	488	722	496	460	539	430	149	151	173	..
Israel	50	17	27	61	37	46	64	85	124	129	146	..
Other countries	3 210	3 561	12 611	22 667	20 956	14 016	12 539	12 805	10 971	6 970	5 804	
Total	**272 463**	**31 528**	**330 419**	**504 518**	**366 488**	**367 699**	**361 363**	**394 137**	**111 298**	**134 980**	**95 737**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ukraine	..	251	549	450	377	704	203	35	44	61	60	65
Serbia	..	443	506	185	42	112	53	46	57	53	56	46
Czech Republic	..	597	775	167	121	158	93	39	45	45	36	50
Romania	..	450	442	220	147	100	31	10	10	18	25	56
Viet Nam	..	405	619	40	40	62	37	7	15	5	11	64
Hungary	..	5	9	7	9	6	15	3	12	9	8	63
United States	..	97	136	64	113	110	93	9	7	6	6	0
Poland	..	43	26	14	20	18	7	1	5	4	4	50
Belarus	..	5	14	5	5	8	9	1	..	4	4	100
Turkey	..	26	14	2	2	..	1	..	1	1	3	33
China	..	484	200	6	5	4	6	3	2	7	3	33
Russian Federation	..	65	96	37	35	42	31	4	8	8	3	67
Bulgaria	..	66	42	24	35	19	7	1	3	3	3	100
Tunisia	..	5	5	2	1	4	..	1	..	2	2	0
Germany	..	19	30	10	13	16	16	8	3	3	2	0
Other countries	..	531	553	160	160	115	78	94	27	43	29	
Total	**..**	**3 492**	**4 016**	**1 393**	**1 125**	**1 478**	**680**	**262**	**239**	**272**	**255**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SLOVENIA

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	368	445	467	556	622	305	42
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	159	452	396	289	211	100	49
Italy	..	..	..	..	..	72	116	179	206	205	97	52
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	..	..	..	45	..	140	194	177	59	47
Croatia	..	..	..	..	..	56	203	181	115	162	52	48
Argentina	..	..	..	..	..	15	21	59	77	56	24	54
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	14	19	19	14	36
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	13	23	31	14	86
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	6	24	13	13	23	12	50
Germany	..	..	..	..	..	8	12	3	10	12	7	43
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	5	7	19	6	17	6	50
Moldova	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	4	10	6	17
Venezuela	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	1	7	6	50
Brazil	..	..	..	..	..	3	4	5	25	36	5	60
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	4	4	75
Other countries	..	..	..	..	..	-17	26	94	232	210	44	
Total	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**..**	**823**	**1 448**	**1 690**	**1 807**	**1 798**	**768**	**47**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SPAIN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Ecuador	1 173	1 951	6 370	10 031	19 477	21 371	25 536	25 769	43 091	32 026	23 763	59
Colombia	1 267	1 801	4 194	7 334	12 720	13 852	15 409	16 527	23 995	19 803	19 396	62
Morocco	3 111	6 831	8 036	5 555	5 690	7 864	8 615	6 683	10 703	14 427	16 163	41
Peru	3 117	2 933	3 958	3 645	4 713	6 490	8 206	6 368	8 291	9 255	12 008	54
Bolivia	104	129	218	289	648	709	1 103	1 813	4 778	5 333	7 424	66
Dominican Republic	2 876	2 648	2 834	2 322	2 805	2 800	3 496	2 766	3 801	4 985	6 028	63
Argentina	997	1 009	1 746	2 293	3 536	4 810	5 188	4 629	6 395	5 482	5 217	53
Cuba	2 088	1 602	1 889	2 506	2 703	2 466	2 870	2 696	3 546	3 088	2 921	59
Venezuela	439	529	703	752	908	1 324	1 581	1 744	2 730	2 596	2 823	59
Brazil	477	500	683	695	782	779	1 049	943	1 738	1 854	2 540	70
Uruguay	219	235	327	408	624	839	1 201	1 451	2 219	1 978	1 819	48
Chile	353	350	484	620	844	838	1 141	1 090	1 688	1 556	1 589	51
Paraguay	46	23	42	60	87	78	179	298	766	864	1 297	74
Philippines	831	670	800	680	762	872	782	431	507	612	978	62
Mexico	352	344	451	437	567	593	763	584	932	856	862	62
Other countries	4 360	5 001	5 600	5 202	5 473	6 125	7 051	5 805	8 541	9 884	10 729	
Total	**21 810**	**26 556**	**38 335**	**42 829**	**62 339**	**71 810**	**84 170**	**79 597**	**123 721**	**114 599**	**115 557**	**56**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWEDEN

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Iraq	4 160	4 678	5 298	11 544	12 895	5 950	4 224	3 180	4 367	6 191	16 621	42
Finland	1 561	2 816	2 703	2 588	2 975	2 757	2 535	2 432	2 971	2 230	2 247	66
Thailand	606	443	500	585	876	1 007	1 261	1 314	1 429	1 547	1 908	81
Poland	2 604	1 325	990	793	1 000	762	686	824	1 487	1 791	1 649	59
Somalia	1 789	1 121	840	688	931	655	787	885	1 076	1 091	1 552	52
Iran	1 737	1 350	1 296	1 889	2 796	1 459	1 113	1 110	967	1 028	1 418	57
Turkey	2 127	1 375	1 269	1 702	2 921	1 456	1 125	1 200	1 049	1 343	1 325	46
Serbia	..	..	..	..	..	27	61	132	367	842	1 225	50
Russian Federation	626	642	535	886	1 510	919	759	865	769	948	957	64
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4 064	3 090	1 469	1 788	2 627	2 081	1 764	1 146	919	1 123	946	51
Afghanistan	285	278	361	623	1 062	777	812	1 180	848	636	853	50
Eritrea	195	139	121	199	297	202	253	356	327	398	743	50
Syria	1 063	1 218	1 117	1 208	1 314	596	512	500	428	690	679	49
Germany	243	209	244	294	457	386	606	700	923	778	661	53
Denmark	316	310	335	329	431	388	404	409	485	393	477	47
Other countries	15 602	13 357	9 052	10 415	14 903	13 051	12 428	12 329	14 045	15 605	16 918	
Total	**36 978**	**32 351**	**26 130**	**35 531**	**46 995**	**32 473**	**29 330**	**28 562**	**32 457**	**36 634**	**50 179**	**51**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

SWITZERLAND

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Italy	6 633	5 085	4 196	4 032	4 502	4 629	4 921	4 804	4 111	4 109	4 045	..
Serbia	5 803	6 332	7 854	9 503	11 721	10 441	10 252	8 453	6 859	4 359	3 463	..
Germany	817	670	639	773	1 144	1 361	3 022	4 035	3 617	3 544	3 401	..
Portugal	920	1 165	1 199	1 505	2 383	2 201	1 761	2 336	2 217	2 298	2 110	..
Turkey	4 128	4 216	3 565	3 467	3 457	3 044	2 866	2 593	2 091	1 886	1 662	..
France	1 367	1 215	1 181	1 021	1 260	1 218	1 110	1 314	1 084	1 325	1 229	..
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	1 639	1 802	1 981	2 171	2 596	2 210	2 287	1 831	1 586	1 337	1 223	..
Croatia	1 638	1 565	1 616	1 681	1 837	1 660	2 046	1 599	1 483	1 273	1 201	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 865	2 268	2 371	2 790	3 149	3 008	2 855	2 408	1 924	1 628	1 163	..
Spain	691	800	823	975	1 283	1 246	1 096	1 245	1 120	1 091	1 055	..
United Kingdom	350	306	289	287	323	353	319	365	298	351	396	..
Austria	227	194	150	167	174	166	193	205	189	205	267	..
Belgium	118	..	..	..	..	..	153	173	209	156	218	..
Netherlands	90	155	254	178	210	234	189	229	227	228	200	..
Poland	200	160	177	163	185	195	152	158	148	169	172	..
Other countries	10 029	9 491	9 390	9 724	12 487	11 923	11 143	11 692	12 151	12 798	12 316	
Total	**36 515**	**35 424**	**35 685**	**38 437**	**46 711**	**43 889**	**44 365**	**43 440**	**39 314**	**36 757**	**34 121**	**..**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

TURKEY

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
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 Yugoslav Republic 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/10.1787/888933158493

Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

UNITED KINGDOM

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
India	10 003	10 799	13 598	14 137	15 134	14 507	11 835	26 541	29 405	26 290	28 352	..
Pakistan	10 946	12 769	14 094	12 605	10 260	8 143	9 442	20 945	22 054	17 641	18 445	..
Nigeria	6 486	6 302	6 242	6 622	5 874	6 031	4 531	6 953	7 873	7 932	8 881	..
Philippines	1 344	1 609	2 011	3 797	8 839	10 844	5 382	11 751	9 429	7 133	8 122	..
China	2 362	1 863	1 918	2 425	2 601	3 117	2 677	6 041	7 581	6 966	7 198	..
South Africa	3 278	4 536	6 366	7 046	7 665	8 149	5 266	8 367	7 446	6 351	6 924	..
Sri Lanka	8 092	5 106	4 530	6 997	5 717	6 496	3 284	4 762	4 944	5 886	6 163	..
Bangladesh	5 737	6 133	5 786	3 637	3 724	2 257	3 633	12 041	7 966	5 149	5 702	..
Zimbabwe	798	1 428	1 814	2 128	2 556	5 592	5 707	7 703	6 301	4 877	5 647	..
Somalia	7 498	8 544	11 164	8 297	9 029	7 450	7 163	8 139	5 817	4 664	5 143	..
Ghana	3 080	3 515	3 217	3 307	2 989	3 373	3 134	4 662	4 551	3 931	4 744	..
Turkey	8 040	4 916	4 860	6 767	5 583	4 709	4 641	7 207	4 630	3 627	4 726	..
Afghanistan	874	1 612	4 055	4 951	3 397	10 554	5 539	5 012	5 281	3 951	4 600	..
Nepal	88	161	190	655	916	1 047	929	1 551	2 118	3 468	4 282	..
Iran	2 849	1 817	2 241	3 522	3 283	4 426	2 199	2 876	2 587	5 540	4 135	..
Other countries	48 646	59 425	66 187	74 806	66 451	67 942	54 015	69 238	67 063	64 379	71 145	
Total	**120 121**	**130 535**	**148 273**	**161 699**	**154 018**	**164 637**	**129 377**	**203 789**	**195 046**	**177 785**	**194 209**	**50**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Table B.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

UNITED STATES

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	*Of which:* Women 2012 (%)
Mexico	76 531	55 946	63 840	77 089	83 979	122 258	231 815	111 630	67 062	94 783	102 181	..
Philippines	30 487	29 043	31 448	36 673	40 500	38 830	58 792	38 934	35 465	42 520	44 958	..
India	33 774	29 761	37 975	35 962	47 542	46 871	65 971	52 889	61 142	45 985	42 928	..
Dominican Republic	15 591	12 607	15 464	20 831	22 165	20 645	35 251	20 778	15 451	20 508	33 351	..
China	32 018	23 991	27 309	31 708	35 387	33 134	40 017	37 130	33 969	32 864	31 868	..
Cuba	10 889	7 698	11 236	11 227	21 481	15 394	39 871	24 891	14 050	21 071	31 244	..
Colombia	10 634	7 939	9 819	11 396	15 698	12 089	22 926	16 593	18 417	22 693	23 972	..
Viet Nam	36 835	25 933	27 480	32 926	29 917	27 921	39 584	31 168	19 313	20 922	23 490	..
Haiti	9 280	7 247	8 215	9 740	15 979	11 552	21 229	13 290	12 291	14 191	19 114	..
El Salvador	10 716	8 719	9 602	12 174	13 430	17 157	35 796	18 927	10 343	13 834	16 685	..
Jamaica	13 973	11 218	12 271	13 674	18 953	12 314	21 324	15 098	12 070	14 591	15 531	..
Korea	17 307	15 928	17 184	19 223	17 668	17 628	22 759	17 576	11 170	12 664	13 790	..
Peru	7 375	6 130	6 980	7 904	10 063	7 965	15 016	10 349	8 551	10 266	11 814	..
Pakistan	8 658	7 424	8 744	9 699	10 411	9 147	11 813	12 528	11 601	10 655	11 150	..
Brazil	3 885	3 091	4 074	4 583	7 028	5 745	8 808	7 960	8 867	10 251	9 884	..
Other countries	255 755	209 760	245 510	269 471	312 388	261 827	375 567	313 974	280 151	306 395	325 474	
Total	**573 708**	**462 435**	**537 151**	**604 280**	**702 589**	**660 477**	**1 046 539**	**743 715**	**619 913**	**694 193**	**757 434**	**55**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Metadata related to Tables A.6. and B.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

	Comments	Source
Australia	Conferrals by former country of citizenship.	Department of Immigration and Border Protection.
Austria	Data refer to persons living in Austria at the time of acquisition.	Statistics Austria and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
Belgium	All types of naturalisation. Include only foreigners who were living in Belgium when they got naturalised.	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	Register of residence permits.	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 declaration" is unknown for the years 2004, 2006 and 2007.	Ministry of the Interior 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	A simplified procedure was introduced in 2011, and made it possible to obtain citizenship without residence in Hungary for the foreign citizens who have Hungarian ancestors. For all others, data only include naturalised persons who are resident in Hungary.	Hungarian Central Statistical Office, National Employment Office.
Iceland	Includes children who receive Icelandic citizenship with their parents.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	From 2005 on, figures include naturalisations and Post nuptial citizenship figures.	Department of Justice and Equality.
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, following the modification of the law on Portuguese citizenship in 2006 and 2007, the data include every foreigner who used to have a foreign citizenship and obtained Portuguese citizenship in the given year. Until 2007, data exclude acquisitions of nationality due to marriage or adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Justice (Central register).
Russian Federation	Excludes citizenship acquired through consulates. From 2009 on, applicants to Russian citizenship must have stayed in the country as temporary residents for at least a year, and as permanent residents for at least five years. Majority of applicants acquire citizenship through simplified procedure, waiting period is much shorter.	Federal Migration Service.
Slovak Republic	Data refer to persons living in Slovak Republic at the time of acquisition.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	Include all grounds on which the citizenship was obtained.	Ministry of the Interior – Internal Administrative Affairs, Migration and Naturalisation Directorate.
Spain	Includes only naturalisations on grounds of residence in Spain. Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Employment and Social Security, based on naturalisations registered by the Ministry of Justice.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		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 filled 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.

Data for Serbia may include persons from Montenegro.

Abbreviations

AANZFTA	ASEAN-Australia-New Zealand Free Trade Area
ACIDI Portugal	High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue
ALMP	Active Labour Market Programmes
ANZSCO	Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations
DIBP	Department of Immigration and Border Protection
DfID	Department for International Development (DfID)
ECA	Educational Credential Assessment
EEA	European Economic Area
ENIC	European Network of National Information Centres
EoI	Expression of Interest
EPS	Employment permit system (Korea)
ESID	Essential Skills in Demand
EU	European Union
EURES	European Employment Services
FIC	Forum Island Countries
FSWP	Federal Skilled Workers Programme
FTA	Free Trade Agreement
GATS	General Agreement on Trade and Services
ICT	Intra-Company Transfer
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
ITA	Invitation to Apply
ISCO	The International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LMC	Labour Market Check
LMT	Labour Market Test
LTSSL	Long Term Skill Shortage List
MAC	Migration Advisory Committee
MINT	Mathematics, Informatics, Natural Sciences or Technology
NAFTA	The North American Free Trade Agreement
NARIC	National Academic Recognition and Information Centres
OEEC	Organisation for European Economic Co-operation
PACER	The Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations
PBS	Points-Based System
PES	Public Employment System
PIC	Pacific Island Country
RSE	Recognised Seasonal Employer Scheme
SEF	Services for Foreigners and Border Control
SMC	Skilled Migrant Category
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

SWP	Seasonal Workers Programme
TCN	Third country national (non-EU/EEA national)
USCIS	United States Citizenship and Immigration Services
VAC	Visa Application Centres
VEVO	Visa Entitlement Verification Online
WHM	Working Holiday Maker
WHS	Working Holiday Scheme

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(81 2014 10 1 P) ISBN 978-92-64-21118-6 – 2014

International Migration Outlook 2014

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ISBN 978-92-64-21118-6
81 2014 10 1 P