Trends in International Migration

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION



OECD

SOPEMI 2000

SOPEMI

TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

Continuous Reporting System on Migration

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2000 EDITION

OECD

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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FOREWORD

This twenty-fifth annual report of the OECD Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known under its French acronym SOPEMI), published as *Trends in International Migration*, draws in large part on thirty one written contributions from national correspondents (see the list p. 375), and on the summary of their discussions at their last annual meeting (December 1999). Following Denmark, Ireland and Mexico in 1994, the Slovak Republic joined the SOPEMI network in 1995, Korea in 1998 and New Zealand in 1999.

The 2000 Edition is divided into three parts complemented by a Statistical Annex.

- Part I describes the overall trends in international migration. It focuses on the magnitude, the nature and the direction of flows, as well as the presence of foreign workers in the labour market and in the various sectors of economic activity. Special attention is also given to the role that immigration could play to moderating the effects of ageing population. Two additional sections describe in detail the new developments in Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Part I is completed by an overview of migration policies, in particular those relating to the control of flows, the integration of immigrants in host countries and international co-operation.
- Part II is devoted to family-linked immigration. This part shows that the criteria governing the entitlement to family reunion vary according to the country examined and according to more or less restrictive conception of the family. The study allows to identify those who are likely to benefit from reunion and the conditions governing family reunion and the entry of the accompanying family. Particular attention is also given to family members' access to the labour market and social welfare.
- Part III is composed of country notes describing recent developments in migration flows and policies in twenty-nine OECD countries and non-member countries (The Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania). A detailed note on New Zealand is presented for the first time.

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Overview of migration trends and foreign or foreign-born population

Migration flows (in thousands)

	Annual average 1993-97	1998
Inflows of foreign migrants		
European economic area (EEA)[1]	1 196	1 223
United States	1 735	1 684
Permanent immigration	829	660
Temporary immigration[2]	907	1 023
Australia	222	271
Permanent immigration	84	77
Temporary immigration	138	194
Canada	288	239
Permanent immigration	227	174
Temporary immigration	61	65
Japan	236	265
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)		
European economic area	2.3	1.3
United States	3.4	3.6
Australia	4.1	6.0
Canada[3]	5.5[3]	4.3
Japan	–0.2	0.3
Asylum seekers		
European economic area	342	356
United States	132	55
Australia	6	8
Canada	24	25

Stock of foreign and foreign-born population (in thousands)

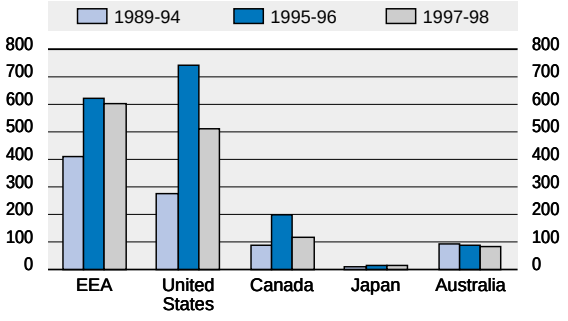
	Latest available year	Share of the total population (%)
Stock of foreign population		
European economic area (1998)	20 043	5.3
Japan (1998)	1 512	1.2
Stock of foreign-born population		
United States (1998)	26 300	9.8
Canada (1996)	4 971	16.8
Australia (1996)	3 908	21.5

1. Austria, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain are not included.
2. Data refer to the period 1993-1995 and on the year 1996.
3. Data refer to the period 1993-94.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

Acquisition of nationality

Annual average in thousands



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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The debate on immigration has widened to include the issues of population ageing and skilled labour shortages

At the dawn of the new millennium, the upturn in immigration flows is being confirmed in many OECD Member countries. At the same time the debate concerning immigration, while still largely focussed on the control of flows and the combating of undocumented immigration, has widened to include two other issues : the role that immigration might play in moderating the effects of population ageing and whether or not greater resort should be made to immigration in order to alleviate shortages of skilled and highly skilled workers.

The upturn in immigration flows is being confirmed, notably in Europe and Japan

The upturn in immigration flows, already noticeable in 1997 for some countries (France, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden), is now perceptible in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg and Spain. On the other hand, immigration flows have tended to decline in Australia, Canada, Germany, Switzerland and the United States. Germany and the United States nevertheless remain, in absolute terms, the principal receiving countries. However, if legal entry flows are compared to the total foreign or foreign-born population at the beginning of the year, Japan, Norway and the United Kingdom receive, in relative terms, the most immigrants.

The persistence of traditional immigration flows is being accompanied by a diversification in the range of significant source countries, notably from Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. An important part of recent emergent flows includes undocumented immigrants

The analysis of inflows by countries of origin reveals three distinctive characteristics. The first is the predominance in many cases of one or two origin countries, in general geographically close (New Zealand for Australia, Mexico for the United States, Russia for Finland, Albania for Italy, China and the Philippines for Japan, for example). There may also be countries from which have come large numbers of refugees (Somalia in the case of Denmark, Iraq in that of Sweden and the former Yugoslavia in that of Switzerland). The second distinctive characteristic concerns the persistence of traditional flows. The Portuguese dominate inflows to Luxembourg, as do Maghrebians in those to France and nationals of Ireland, India and the United States in those to the United Kingdom. The third distinctive characteristic concerns the continuing growth of recently emergent flows, of which undocumented immigrants constitute an important part. Countries such as Australia, Canada, France, the Netherlands and Sweden have for this reason recorded significant changes in the composition of their inflows. In France, for example, China, Zaire and Haïti have recently and clearly emerged as new origin countries. In Australia, Canada and the United States the immigration of Chinese nationals, which is far from being a new phenomenon, is once again undergoing considerable growth.

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Despite the marked increase in asylum applications and in labour migration, family-linked immigration predominates

Though the extent varies considerably from one country to another, family-linked immigration (accompanying family members and family reunion) predominated in total inflows in almost all OECD Member countries in 1998 and 1999, notably in Canada, the United States and in France. However, the end of the 1990s was marked by a pronounced increase in the number of requests for asylum filed in OECD Member countries. In descending order, Germany, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Switzerland received the largest number of asylum requests. If, however, inflows of asylum seekers are expressed as a proportion of the total foreign population, Ireland and Norway received the most. There are also signs of an upturn in employment-related migration. This trend still only concerns however a small number of countries (notably Australia, Belgium and the United Kingdom) and not necessarily all categories of worker.

The employment of immigrants increases sharply during economic upturns…

Over the last decade, the proportion of foreigners or the foreign-born in the total population and the labour force has increased significantly in several OECD countries, notably in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the United States. Over this period, foreigners' employment has fluctuated to a greater extent than total employment. The economic upturns in Austria, Ireland, Italy and in Portugal are being accompanied by comparatively stronger growth in foreigners' employment whereas in France, Germany and the Netherlands, the same economic climate appears to have been less favourable to foreigners. In Australia, trends in employment of foreigners have followed those of the economic cycle. This has also been the case in Norway and the United Kingdom.

… and the feminisation of labour migration flows is being confirmed

The feminisation of labour migration flows is particularly visible in East and South-east Asia, where there are large flows of temporary workers mainly from Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand. It is also perceptible in Southern Europe, the Nordic countries and in Switzerland. Due, *inter alia*, to the growing importance of the family component in total flows, the proportion of women in the entries recorded in North America has also been growing.

In Europe, unemployment among foreigners remains disproportionately high

In the majority of European OECD Member countries (except Italy and Spain), the extent of unemployment amongst the foreign-born population is greater than the proportion of the labour force for which they account. This discrepancy is largest in Denmark and the Netherlands, on average, three times higher.

Controlling flows retains its priority at the heart of migration policies…

The policy of OECD Member countries regarding the regulation of flows, is manifested in frequent changes to immigration legislation and the enactment of new laws. It also concerns international co-operation between Member countries themselves and between Member and non-Member countries. The strengthening of border controls and of entry criteria, increasing severity of penalties against the employment of undocumented immigrants, the harmonisation of admission procedures for asylum seekers and refugees, as well as the revision of legislation concerning family reunion, bear witness to the desire of the majority of the OECD Member countries to improve their control over migration flows. At the same time the principle of long-stay legal immigration and the granting of more rights to foreign residents already settled in the country for several years is more widely accepted.

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... as does the integration of immigrants into the labour market and wider society...

OECD Member countries are increasingly preoccupied by the issue of the integration of foreigners already settled in the host country or who wish to reside there permanently. New provisions have been adopted in this regard, notably in Australia, Canada, Italy, New Zealand and Spain. In order both to enhance the effectiveness of integration policies at the local level and to reduce their financial contribution to their implementation, the central governments of certain countries are delegating more of their competencies to local authorities. In some Member countries, efforts have extended to the modification of naturalisation policies, notably in Germany where the new Citizenship Code came into force on 1 January 2000. It radically amends the principle of kinship and introduces, subject to certain conditions, the principle of *jus soli*. Policies which aim to integrate foreigners into the labour market and wider society also include measures to facilitate the integration of new arrivals, specific measures for refugees and asylum seekers, vocational training programmes and measures to facilitate the access of young people and the unemployed to the labour market as well as the fight against racial discrimination.

... and co-operation with origin countries

The final section of the overview of migration policies focuses on partnership arrangements with origin countries designed to involve them in the fight against illegal immigration, joint development projects and in providing assistance to returning immigrants as well as in encouraging them to sign bilateral readmission agreements. This partnership also concerns the implementation of Association and co-operation Agreements concluded between the European Community, on the one hand and, respectively, the CEECs, Turkey and the countries of the Maghreb. These agreements aim to strengthen regional economic integration and guarantee the rights of immigrants legally resident in the host countries.

The contribution of migration flows to the total population growth of host countries is increasing, but...

Against the background of the deceleration in demographic growth that is taking place in the majority of OECD countries, the contribution of migration continues to be higher than that of the natural increase. The Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Sweden have in common a negative rate of natural increase and positive net migration. In Greece, Italy and Sweden, it was due to net migration that the population increased in 1998 and in 1999. By contrast, in France, Japan and the United States, the natural increase remains the principal component of population growth as is also the case, and to a much greater degree, in Mexico and Turkey. In settlement countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States, which continue to receive substantial numbers of new immigrants each year, it may well be that the predominance of family-linked immigration in total inflows and the younger age profile of the new arrivals exert over the short and medium term a marked effect on the natural rate of increase in the population.

... will not by itself modify their demographic profiles

A more detailed examination of the current demographic situation in OECD countries shows that the ageing of the population is much less marked in North America. Over the next twenty-five years, global labour shortages will be the most severe in Europe and Japan, even if allowance is made for a transition period in which improved productivity and the use of currently surplus labour temporarily ease them. Resorting to increased immigration possesses the advantage of having an immediate and relatively strong impact on the economically active population as the new immigrants tend to be younger and more mobile. Due, however, to the fact

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that the demographic and economic behaviours of immigrants tend to align themselves with those of nationals, this effect diminishes over time. There exist moreover practical and political constraints that render it difficult to develop and implement migration policies aimed at changing the demographic profile. As a result, immigration can not by itself resolve the problem of demographic ageing.

Resorting to immigration could however contribute to moderating the effects of demographic ageing…

Nevertheless, the idea of using immigration should not be rejected altogether as it can help to prevent a decrease in population for a limited period of time. There exists in fact a degree of flexibility within existing legislation that provides for variations in the volume and composition of immigration flows. However, the ease with which countries may shift the focus of immigration policy towards demographic objectives varies widely. Some already have a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach towards immigration (notably Australia, Canada and New Zealand) which include age-related selection criteria for some categories of immigrant. Other countries do not use age-linked criteria explicitly, but their migration systems and the way that they are implemented affect the age distribution of inflows in a similar manner. This is the case for the preference system in the United States. It is also the case in Europe, in particular, as the regularisation programmes implemented there are primarily directed towards economically active immigrants.

… through alleviating sectoral labour shortages and facilitating the recruitment of highly skilled foreign workers

At present, there appears to be a preference for mechanisms which cater for temporary labour migration to increase labour supply rather than policies which seek to increase permanent immigration. In order to meet the needs of the labour market, especially in high technology sectors, many OECD Member countries have adopted policies that promote the entry of skilled and highly skilled workers. These range from specific programmes, such as those implemented for specialists in computing in Germany and for nurses in the United States, to more general relaxations of the eligibility criteria for certain categories of worker (France, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States). Overall, the admission of temporary workers is surging, particularly in Canada and the United States.

***

The special chapter of this report is devoted to family-linked immigration…

Part II of this report presents a study of family-linked immigration in a number of OECD countries. In the majority of European countries, the restrictions placed on immigration over the course of the last two decades have had the effect of rendering family reunion the principal legal means for new immigrants to enter these countries. In the United States, family immigration accounts for two-thirds of all permanent immigration and in Australia and in Canada it accounts for over a quarter. In all three countries, the most common form of family immigration is for permanent migrants to enter the country accompanied by their families. In the other OECD Member countries, family reunion, which is undertaken after the arrival of the permanent immigrant, predominates. Family-linked immigration has therefore been an important topic in the recent debates on the contribution of immigrants. Not only does it have an impact on the demographic structure of the country but it affects the possibilities of family members to enter the labour market of the host country, either over the short or long term.

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... and examines the criteria, the beneficiaries and the effects of family reunion

The criteria governing the entitlement to family reunion vary according to the country examined and it is not usually an automatic right in the case of temporary migration. It also varies according to the possibility that family members have to be sponsored by a citizen or permanent resident of the host country who undertakes to provide for all their needs for a variable period of time. It follows that family reunion is a protean concept that varies according to more or less restrictive conceptions of the family. The study identifies those who are likely to benefit from reunion and examines the conditions governing family reunion and the entry of the accompanying family. The final section focuses on the legal systems and how they regulate family members' access to social welfare and the labour market.

***

Part III presents country-specific notes on the recent developments in migration movements and policies. New Zealand, which has just joined the Continuous Reporting System on Migration, is the subject of a more detailed note.

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Part 1

MAIN TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The following analysis of the main trends in international migration has been divided into three sections. The first looks at changes in migration movements, in the total and foreign populations of OECD Member countries and in the situation of foreigners in the labour market. The second section focuses on two regions, Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. An overview of migration policies is presented in the third section in the course of which measures to better control and regulate flows and to promote the improved integration of immigrants in host countries are examined.

A. MIGRATION, POPULATION AND THE LABOUR MARKET

Since the mid-1990s, there has been a gradual upturn in migration flows in most OECD Member countries. Owing to regional conflicts, but also to the restrictions placed on other immigration channels, the number of asylum seekers and refugees has risen substantially, particularly in a number of European countries. Nevertheless, immigration for family reasons continues to predominate although temporary migration gains in importance. In this context, many countries are increasingly openly adopting policies that promote the entry of skilled and highly skilled workers, especially in the field of new technologies, in order to meet labour market needs and sustain growth. The persistence of irregular migration, the volume of which is by definition impossible to determine, indicates clearly the difficulties that host and origin countries are encountering in their attempts to control migration flows.

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

Foreign or immigrant labour maintains a visible presence in the labour market; indeed this presence is spreading across an increasing number of sectors. Overall, there continues to exist however a gap between the unemployment rates of foreigners and of nationals. With the strong and widespread economic upturn, unemployment among foreigners has recently been decreasing, although this reduction has been less marked than that experienced by nationals.

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

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

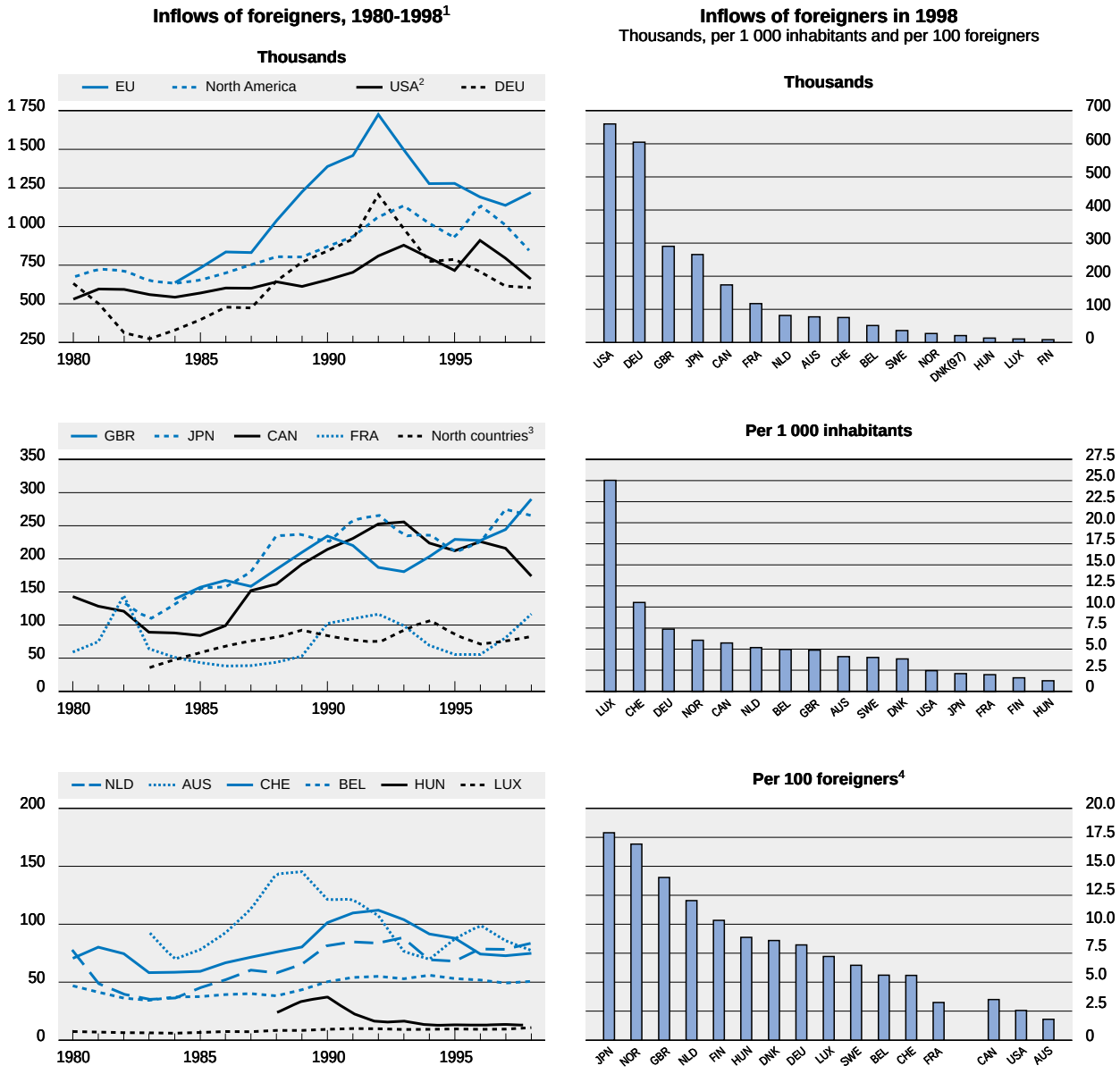
Over the entire 1980-99 period, there was also a diversification of migration movements and an increase in the number of nationalities of migrants, although the traditional flows and migrations persisted at regional level.

a) Increasingly contrasting migration trends

During the 1980s and above all at the beginning of the 1990s, inflows increased in almost all OECD countries (see Chart I.1). This trend peaked in 1992-93 for the main immigration countries such as Canada, Japan, Germany, and the United States, while in others, notably Australia and the United Kingdom, this had occurred earlier. Since then, due to restrictive measures, legal inflows have gradually dwindled. For example, in North America the figure in 1998 was barely three-quarters of that of 1993 and flows were down by 30% compared with 1992 for all

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Chart I.1. **Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-1998**
Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners



Note: Data for the United Kingdom are from the International Passenger Survey, for Australia, Canada, France and the United States, from permits of residence. For all other countries, data are based on Population Registers.

1. The host countries have been split into 3 groups according to the volume of inflows in 1998.
2. Excluding immigrants legalised under IRCA regularisation programme.
3. Excluding Finland and Iceland.
4. For Australia, Canada and the United States, the inflows in 1998 are related to the stocks of foreign-born residents (last census data).

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

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

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EU countries, although these aggregate trends mask the diversity of situations within these zones.

The left-hand side of Chart I.1 presents post-1980 time-series for foreign migrant inflows. The host countries are divided into three groups in decreasing order of the volume of their 1998 inflows. The right-hand side of this chart shows the volume of 1998 inflows in absolute terms, and as a proportion of the total population and the stock of foreigners in each country.

The 1999 edition of *Trends in International Migration* highlighted the trend reversal that had started in 1997 for some countries (France, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden), while emphasising the cyclical character of these developments and the fact that there were some major exceptions (Australia, Canada, Germany and the United States). On the whole, these trends were confirmed in 1998. This means that the differences have become more marked, which makes it possible to propose a grouping of OECD countries on the basis of their recent migration trends.

Firstly, it is possible to isolate a series of countries for which immigration flows have been dropping constantly since 1992-93. The main host countries, such as Australia, Canada, Germany, Switzerland and the United States can be classified in this category. However, the reasons for this downward trend differ across these countries. Australia and Canada have sought to limit family-linked immigration, while encouraging that of skilled workers, with varying degrees of success. In Germany and Switzerland, the shift in flows is even more directly due to continuing restrictive migration policies. In the United States, the decline can primarily be attributed to the increase in the backlog of persons waiting to change their status from temporary "non-immigrant" (or illegal) to permanent (1997: 435 000; 1998: 809 000).

In the second group of countries, immigration flows have recently begun to rise steadily, although to a varying extent. This trend is clearly observable in France, Italy, the Nordic countries and in Spain. In the United Kingdom, the increase in immigration is particularly strong since it has gone from 180 000 entries in 1993 to 290 000 in 1998. This trend is partly attributable to more flexible immigration conditions for certain categories of workers, but is mainly due to the continuing influx of refugees and asylum seekers.

Lastly, there is a third group of countries in which immigration trends held relatively steady throughout the 1990s. Belgium, Hungary, Luxembourg and, to a

Box 1. Migration statistics: definitions and comparability*

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

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

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

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

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lesser extent, the Netherlands, belong to this group of countries.

Japan and Korea are classified separately because they more or less directly suffered the effects of the Asian financial crisis starting in mid-1997. In Korea, the number of foreigners registered fell by 30% in 1998, but the volume of immigration returned to pre-crisis levels in 1999. In Japan, although entries of students, trainees and temporary workers continued to rise in 1998, this was offset by a nearly 30% drop in entries of immigrants of Japanese descent, mainly from South America.

Recent migration trends have changed the ranking of the main immigration countries. For example, in 1998, the United Kingdom received some 25 000 persons more than Japan, and 115 000 more than Canada. However, Germany (605 000) and the United States (660 000) still remained the two main immigration countries. For France, the Netherlands, Australia and Switzerland, the number of entries ranged between 120 000 and 75 000.

If these legal entry flows are compared to the total foreign or foreign-born population at the beginning of the year (see the right-hand part of Chart I.1), the ranking changes somewhat. Japan, Norway and the United Kingdom rank first, with ratios of 17.7%, 16.8% and 14%, respectively. The change is particularly marked in the United Kingdom, since this figure was only 11.8% in 1997. Among the European countries with more longstanding immigration, only Germany has a high ratio, about 8%.

If the upturn in economic activity observed in most European countries continues, it is likely that migrations will rise in the years to come. In Asia, the fact that Korea rapidly returned to the situation prevailing prior to the 1997 crisis, combined with the fact that the Japanese economy is showing signs of recovery, also suggest that immigration will accelerate. The main immigration countries, such as Australia, Canada and Germany, are increasingly openly adopting policies aimed at attracting new migrants in order to meet labour market needs and/or offset the effects of the ageing of their populations. Nevertheless, controlling migration flows remains a priority common to all OECD countries. Special emphasis is placed on curbing illegal immigration and the growing number of asylum seekers. On the whole, the trends of migration flows, classified by the main categories, have been marked over the last two years by the continuing preponderance of family-linked immigration, greater numbers of asylum seekers and an increase in employment-related migration.

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

Previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* pointed out that since the beginning of the 1990s, the changes in the volumes of immigration have been accompanied by changes in their breakdown by categories. In particular, family-linked immigration (accompanying families and family reunion) has increased in Australia, France, Sweden and the United States, while employment-related immigration has risen in Canada and the United Kingdom. Recently, there has also been an upturn in asylum requests and the temporary migration of workers.

Although it varied considerably across countries, the family component predominated in nearly all OECD countries in 1998, especially in Canada, France and the United States (see Chart I.2). However, it must be said that family members who obtain permanent resident status are often granted the right to work. The share attributed to this category continues to grow in some countries, particularly in France where the other official channels of immigration still remain limited.

During the same year, amongst the selected countries, work-related migration accounted for the highest percentage of total entries in the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Australia and the United Kingdom. Given the outlook for strong and widespread economic growth, this component of migration is certainly destined to grow even further.

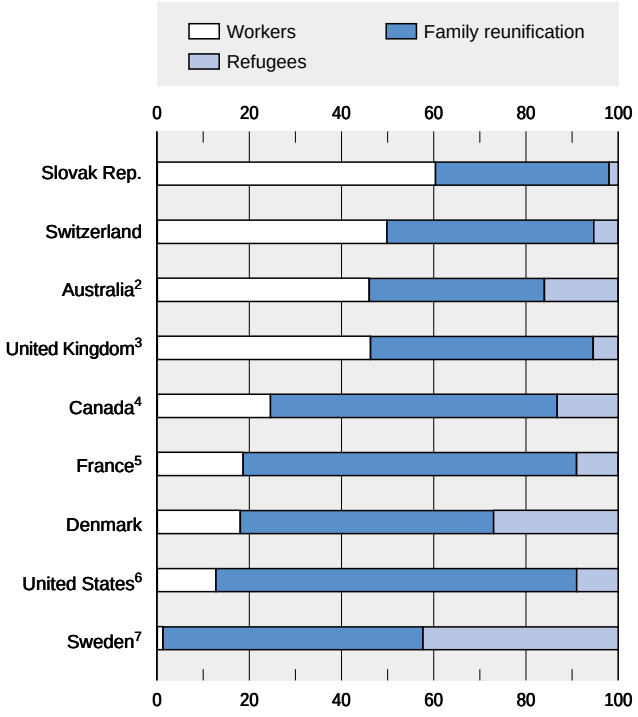
It is in Sweden that refugee flows account for the greatest proportion of the total inflows. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that the data shown in Chart I.2 only concern asylum seekers who obtained refugee status in the given year and do not include asylum seekers whose application is pending.

c) ... despite the greater inflow of asylum seekers...

In many OECD countries the arrival of refugees, on the one hand, and that of asylum seekers, on the other, do not occur in quite the same way. The arrival of refugees is generally organised within the framework of government programmes negotiated either with specialised international organisations or with countries that are sheltering the refugees. Asylum seekers, on the other hand, most often apply for refugee status (which they do not necessarily obtain) either on arrival at the border or when

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Chart I.2. **Immigration flows into selected OECD countries by main categories[1] in 1998**
Percentages of total inflows



Note: Countries are ranked by decreasing order of the percentage of workers in total inflows.

1. For Australia, Canada, the United States and Sweden, data concern acceptances for settlement. For Switzerland, France and Slovak Republic, entries correspond to residence permits delivered in general for a period longer than one year. For the United Kingdom, data are based on entry control at ports of certain categories of migrants (excluding European Economic Area citizens). For Australia, "Workers" include accompanying dependents who are included in the category "family reunification" for all other countries.
2. Data refer to fiscal years (July 1997 to June 1998). The category "Workers" includes accompanying dependents. Excluding citizens from New Zealand who don't need a visa to enter the country.
3. Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. The data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees (excluding residents returning on limited leave or who previously settled). The category "Workers" include Commonwealth citizens with a United Kingdom born grandparent who are taking or seeking employment (UK ancestry).
4. Excluding retirees.
5. Entries of EU family members are estimated. Excluding visitors and persons who benefited from the regularisation programme.
6. Data refer to fiscal years (October 1997 to September 1998). Excluding immigrants who obtained a permanent residence permit following the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act.
7. Excluding nordic citizens and EEA citizens.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes.

already present within the country. In addition, OECD countries authorise certain persons, for humanitarian reasons, to remain in the country either temporarily or on a more permanent basis.

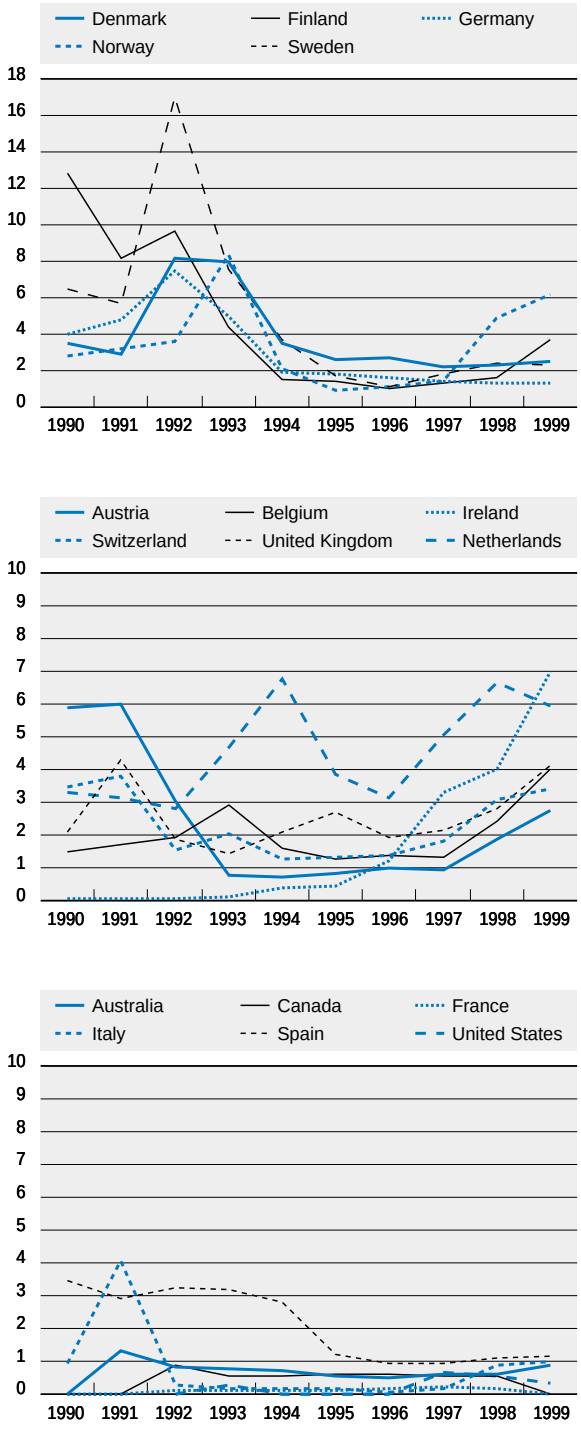
From the middle of the 1980s through to the beginning of the 1990s (see Statistical Annex, Table A.1.4), applications for asylum rose noticeably, sometimes spectacularly (this was the case in Austria, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States). Faced with an increasing number of asylum seekers, OECD countries have reacted by speeding up the processing of applications and by introducing certain restrictive measures, among them the extension of visa requirements to a larger number of countries (see Section C below on migration policy for more details). Most OECD countries have also decided to restrict asylum applications, except for special cases, to persons from countries that have not signed the United Nations Convention on Refugees and that on Human Rights, provided they have not previously passed through a country that has signed them. Because of these measures, since 1994, flows of new asylum seekers have fallen quite sharply. More recently, however, there has been an upswing in the number of asylum seekers arriving in certain countries.

Between 1997 and 1998, the total number of asylum requests filed in OECD Member countries rose by slightly more than 10%. In 1998, in descending order, Germany, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Switzerland received the largest number of asylum requests. Between 1998 and 1999, Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom experienced the most spectacular increase in such requests, of 62, 68 and 57%, respectively. In 1999, the United Kingdom received for the first time a number of asylum seekers comparable to that of Germany. Switzerland preceded the United States, with 44 600 and 42 500 requests respectively (latest data available). This shift in the world-wide ranking of the host countries of asylum seekers is due to international geopolitical developments, but also to changes in the asylum policies of OECD Member countries.

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Chart I.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers, 1990-1999**

Per 100 foreigners at the beginning of the year



Note: For Australia, Canada and the United States, the inflows of asylum seekers are compared with the *foreign-born* population.

Source: National Statistical Offices (see notes for Table A.1.4. at the end of the Statistical Annex).

If inflows of asylum seekers are expressed as a proportion of the total foreign population, Ireland, Norway and the Netherlands rank first (see Chart I.3). Three groups of countries can be distinguished in this respect. The first, comprising Germany and the Nordic countries, after a sharp decline at the beginning of the 1990s, saw a relative stabilisation in the number of asylum seekers in relation to the total resident foreign population. The second group, composed mainly of European countries such as Ireland, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, to which Norway should be added, experienced a marked upswing in asylum requests as from 1996-97. Lastly, the third group includes countries for which the number of asylum seekers relative to the total resident foreign population remained relatively constant at a low level throughout the decade. Australia, Canada, France and the United States were in this group.

d) ... and the growth in employment-related immigration...

In an overall favourable economic context, there are signs of an upturn in employment-related migration. However, this trend still only concerns a small number of countries and not necessarily all categories of migrants (see Statistical Annex, Table A.2.1). In Australia, Belgium and the United Kingdom, entries of foreign workers rose substantially between 1998 and 1999. Other countries, such as Austria, Denmark, Ireland and Switzerland, also experienced an increase, though a much smaller one, in foreign worker entries. In the United States, for example, although entries of permanent workers have been declining, those of temporary workers continue to grow markedly, due *inter alia* to inflows of Canadian professionals.

In order to meet the needs of the labour market, particularly in the new technology sector, many OECD Member countries are seeking to implement procedures for promoting the mobility of skilled and highly skilled labour. This is done either through specific programmes, as is the case for computer technicians in Germany and nurses in the United States, or by relaxing the eligibility criteria for certain categories of workers (Japan, United Kingdom, United States). (For more details see Section C on migration policies.)

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Box 2. Women in international migration

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

It appears that recently, there has been a trend towards the feminisation of migration. This is particularly visible in Asia, with large flows of temporary workers mainly from Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand, but it is also perceptible in Europe and North America due, *inter alia*, to the growing importance of the family component (see Chart I.4).

In 1997, for the European countries and the United States, the share of women in the overall immigration flow (nationals and foreigners) ranged between 39% for Germany and 60% for Greece (see Table I.1). For most of the countries studied, however, the percentage was in the range of 50%. It was slightly higher than 50% for the Nordic countries, Portugal, Switzerland and the United States, and somewhat lower for Austria, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The differences are explained by the composition of the flows, those for countries in which the share of family reunion or refugees is preponderant having a higher proportion of women. This tends to show that, unlike Asia, independent female labour migration is still relatively low in Europe and North America.

In Table I.1, it can also be seen that women's share in intra-European flows is systematically lower than for foreigners as a whole. This is particularly marked in Nordic countries, where it is over 5% lower: Denmark (–7.2%), Finland (–14.8%) and Sweden (–5.7%). This might be explained by the fact that temporary and skilled labour migration is playing an increasingly important role in intra-European mobility and that women are less involved in this regard.

Table I.1. **Proportion of women in immigration flows in some OECD countries, 1997**
Percentages

	Proportion of women in each group		
	Returns of nationals	Foreigners	
		Total	*Of which*: EU citizens
Australia[1]	50.6	47.6	. .
Austria	38.0	48.1	45.6
Belgium	46.2	50.6	48.7
Canada[2]	. .	50.8	. .
Denmark	50.5	49.8	42.7
Finland	50.3	52.5	37.7
Germany	46.9	38.8	35.9
Greece	. .	60.2	56.6
Luxembourg	40.2	47.4	44.7
Netherlands	46.3	49.0	45.8
Norway	49.1	52.2	48.0
Portugal	. .	51.2	47.7
Spain	49.0	49.2	47.7
Sweden	49.0	50.2	44.5
Switzerland	47.7	51.3	48.2
United kingdom	51.6	48.8	48.7
United States[3]	. .	54.2	. .

1. Data refer to permanent and long-term movements (July 1997 to June 1998).
2. Admissions of permanent immigrants.
3. Admissions of permanent immigrants (October 1996 to September 1997).

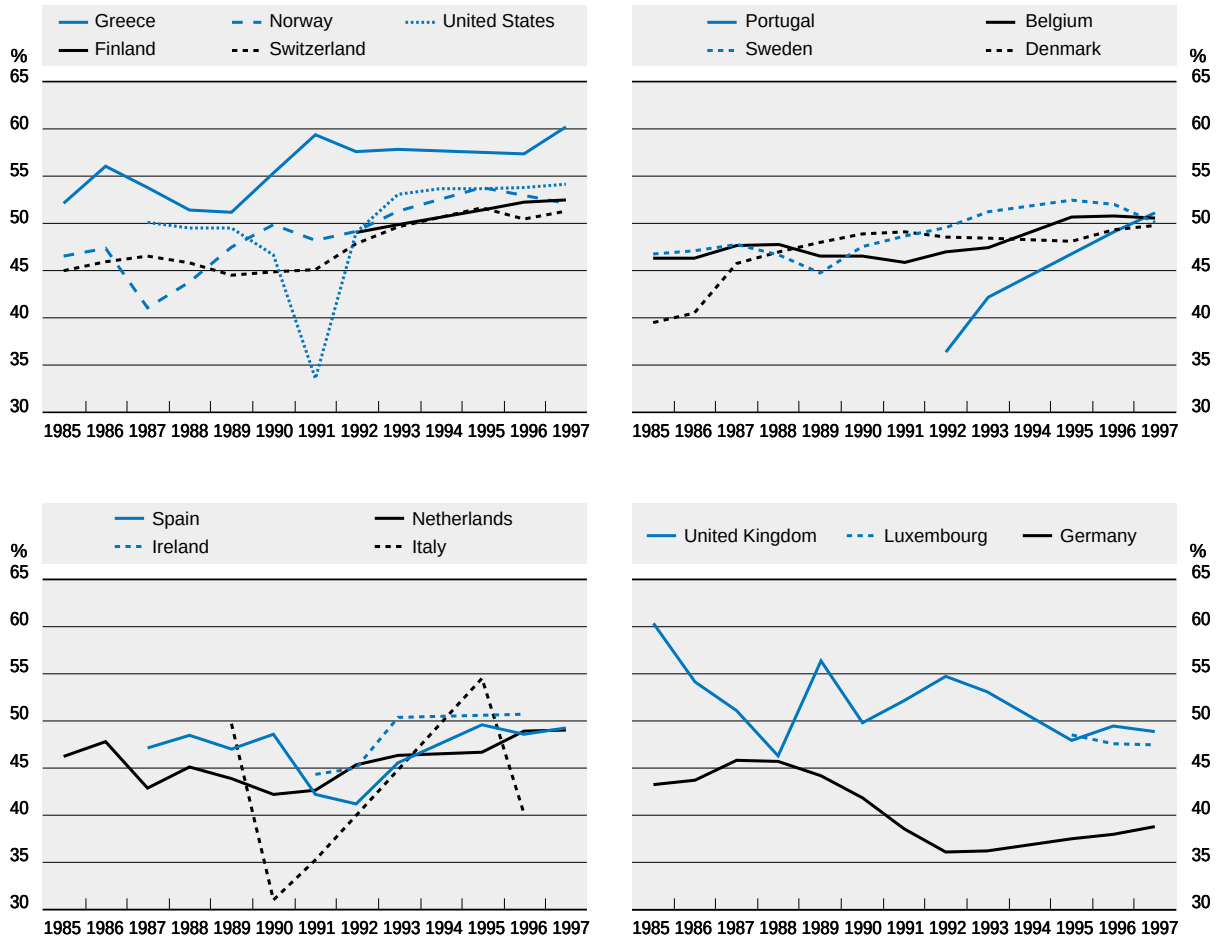
Sources: Eurostat (database New Cronos); Australian Bureau of Statistics; Citizenship and Immigration Canada and *1997 Statistical Yearbook of Immigration and Naturalization Service*, US Department of Justice.

e) Traditional flows and new migration movements

Chart I.5 presents a comparison for several OECD countries of the structure and changes of inflows from the principal origin countries to several OECD countries. Three distinctive trends can be observed. The first is the predominance in many cases of one or two origin countries. These are often

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Chart I.4. **Proportion of women in total immigration flows, 1985-1997**
Percentages



Note: Flows to Greece and Portugal do not include returns of nationals; flows to the United States refer only to permanent immigrants.
Sources: Eurostat (New Cronos database) and *1997 Statistical Yearbook of Immigration and Naturalization Service,* US Department of Justice.

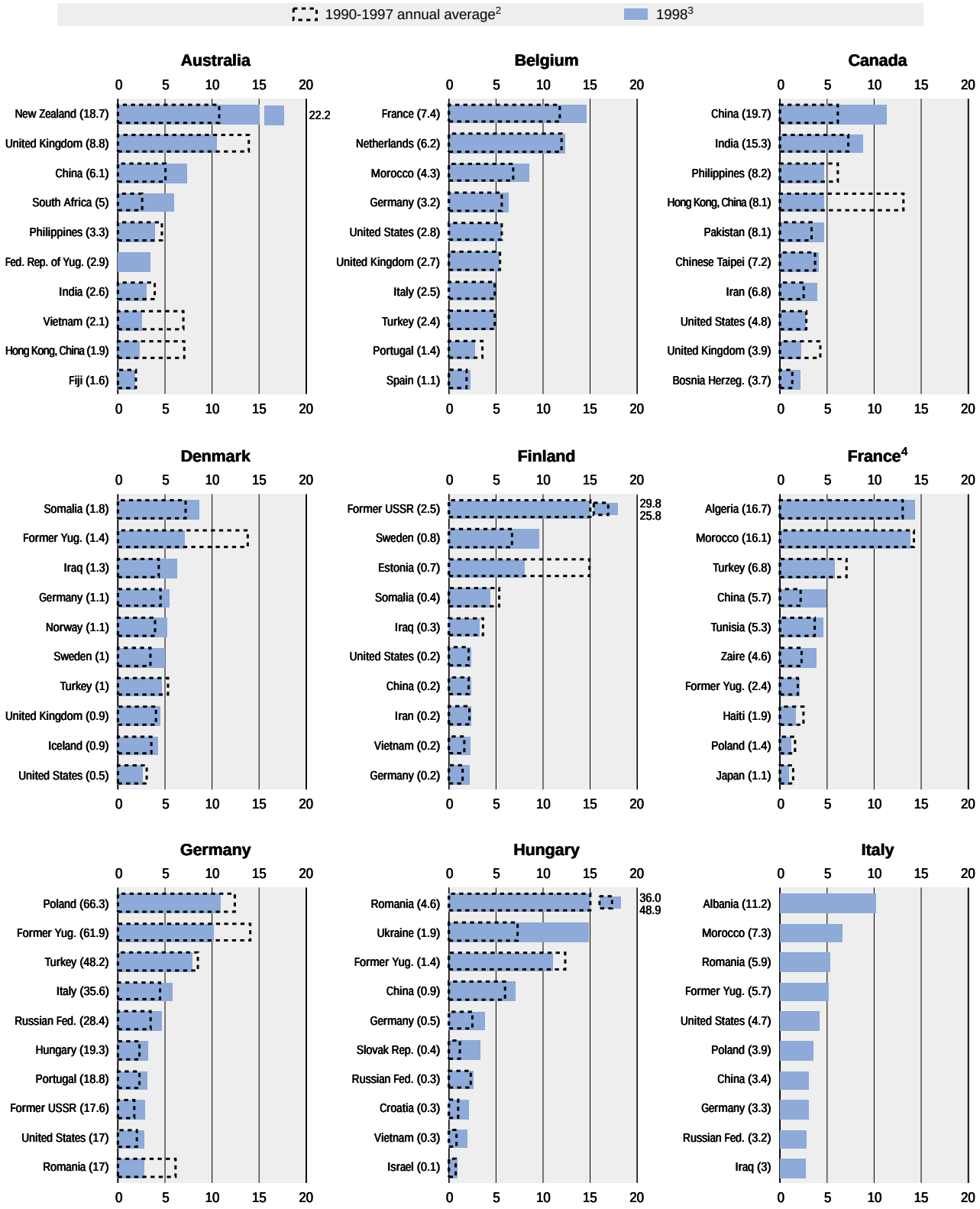
neighbouring countries (New Zealand for Australia, Russia for Finland, Algeria and Morocco for France, Albania for Italy, Sweden for Norway, China and the Philippines for Japan, Mexico for the United States). They may also be countries from which large numbers of refugees have come (Somalia in the case of Denmark, Iraq in that of Sweden and the former Yugoslavia in that of Switzerland). In 1998, the five main sending countries accounted for more than 60% of all flows in Hungary, Japan and Luxembourg, but less than one-third in Canada, Denmark (in 1997), Italy and the Netherlands.

In the case of Germany and to a lesser extent in that of Switzerland and that of the Nordic countries (if the movements of these countries' nationals, particularly those of Norway and of Sweden are abstracted), East-West flows account for the greater part of the total flows, with Poles predominating in Germany, nationals of the former Soviet Union in Finland and those of the former Yugoslavia in Switzerland and, to a lesser extent, in Denmark and Sweden. In addition, the long-standing predominance of migration flows from certain Asian countries is also worthy of note (in Australia, Canada, Japan and the United States) as is the emergence of flows from these countries to some European countries (France, Italy and the United Kingdom).

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Chart I.5. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1997 and 1998**

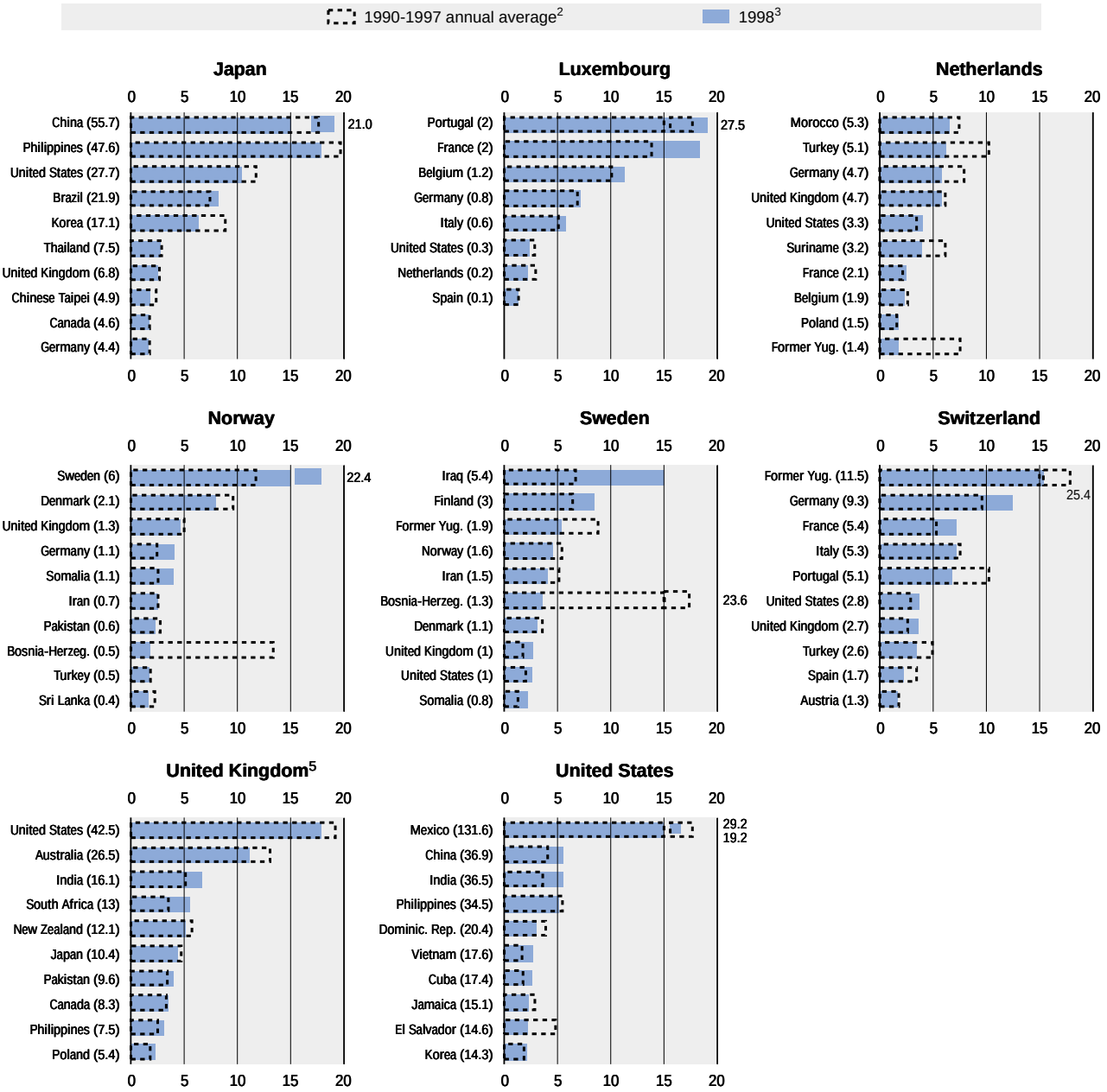
Percentages of total inflows[1]



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Chart I.5. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1997 and 1998** *(cont.)*

Percentages of total inflows[1]



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

1. The figures in brackets are inflows in thousands.
2. Annual average flows for the period 1990-1997 except for Australia (1990-1998), Denmark (1990-1996), Finland and the United Kingdom (1992-1996).
3. 1998 except for Australia (1999), Denmark and the United Kingdom (1997).
4. Data do not include EU citizens.
5. Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees (excluding residents returning on limiting leave or who previously settled).

Source: National Statistical offices.

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The second trend concerns the diversity of situations across OECD countries as regards the main origin countries of immigrants. The Portuguese are by far the largest group in Luxembourg, as are Maghrebians in France, Mexicans in the United States, nationals of the former Yugoslavia in Switzerland, those of the United States in the United Kingdom and New Zealanders in Australia. However, in the ranking of the top ten origin countries, some nationalities are present in a large number of the host countries examined, such as (in descending order) nationals of the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, the former Yugoslavia and China.

The third distinctive characteristic concerns the persistence of traditional flows and the continuing growth of recently emerged flows.

Chart I.5 shows average inflows over the decade (dotted) together with those for the last available year (shaded), making it possible to compare these two trends. For a given host country, when an unshaded area is shown, this indicates that the share attributed to this origin country in overall flows is lower for the last available year than it was on average during the 1990s. For example, in the Netherlands, although Turkey continued to be the second-ranking source of immigrants into this country, Turks' share of overall inflows fell by half. A similar observation can be made for Vietnamese in Australia, residents of Hong Kong (China) in Canada and Poles and Romanians in Germany.

In Belgium, Finland, Japan, Korea and Luxembourg, the distribution of immigration by nationality has remained relatively stable. In other countries, however, such as Australia, Canada, France, the Netherlands and Sweden, there have been major changes in the composition of this distribution. In France, for example, three new sending countries have clearly emerged among the ten main source countries over the recent period, *i.e.* China, Zaire and Haiti. In the case of Canada and Australia, Chart I.5 shows the major changes that have occurred in the ranking of the main sending countries. Along with the emergence of new movements, the presence of certain nationalities clearly shows the persistence of the traditional inflows: Turks and Poles in Germany, New Zealanders and UK nationals in Australia, Algerians and Moroccans in France, Turks and Moroccans in the Netherlands, and nationals of Asian countries in Canada.

Table I.2 shows the process of diversification of origin countries. A specific indicator has been constructed for this purpose. It is calculated by dividing, for each host country considered, the five main sending countries' share in total inflows in 1998 by their share in the total of foreigners or foreign-born. Thus, a value of 1 for a given sending country means that its share in inflows is the same as its share in the number of foreigners as a whole. This is the case of nationals of the former Yugoslavia in Germany and those of Hong Kong (China) in Canada. If the value is greater than 1, this can be due either to immigrants from an emerging source country, or to previous waves of immigration which though persistent have had little impact on the total number of foreigners from this country. In the case of France, for example, the indicator is especially high for Chinese nationals, since their share of inflows is nearly thirteen times greater than their share of the total number of foreigners. This is mainly due to the procedure for regularising foreigners in an illegal situation launched in June 1997, which involved a large number of Chinese nationals who regularised their situation in 1998. The presence of New Zealanders in Australia and Swedes in Norway is not the result of a recent wave of immigration, but probably indicates sizeable new inflows accompanied by large outflows, and thus the indicator in the range of 3 in these two cases corresponds to an old wave of migration that has a high turnover. It seems that the same reasoning can be applied to the case of Poles in Germany, for whom the indicator is 2.8.

If the five nationalities ranking highest in 1998 inflows are considered for each of the countries studied, Canada has the highest overall indicator of diversity of sources of immigration (1.9), compared with only 0.5 for the Netherlands. More generally, it can be observed that Chinese immigrants (not counting illegal immigration) rank among the five main nationalities of entries in four of the countries studied (Australia, Canada, France and the United States), with a diversity index above 2 (17.0 for France). This trend confirms the growing importance of immigration from China in OECD Member countries. The emigration of South Africans to Australia, Russians to Germany, Somalians to Denmark, US nationals to Belgium and the Netherlands, Indian nationals to the United States and Canada, and Iraqis to Sweden is indicative of the process of diversification of migration movements that is accompanying economic globalisation.

2. Immigration and population growth in OECD countries

Migration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of many OECD countries. First of all,

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Table I.2. **Relative importance of the top 5 countries in the total immigration flows and stocks of foreigners in some OECD countries**

Main immigrants' countries of origin in 1998

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1998 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 1998[1] % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners[2] in 1997 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Australia			
New Zealand	22.2	7.5	*3.0*
United Kingdom	10.4	27.4	*0.4*
China	7.3	2.8	*2.6*
South Africa	6.0	1.4	*4.2*
Philippines	3.9	2.4	*1.7*
Total (in thousands)	*(84.1)*	*(3 908.3)*	
Belgium			
France	14.6	11.5	*1.3*
Netherlands	12.3	9.1	*1.4*
Morocco	8.5	14.7	*0.6*
Germany	6.3	3.7	*1.7*
United States	5.6	1.4	*4.0*
Total (in thousands)	*(50.7)*	*(903.2)*	
Canada			
China	11.3	4.6	*2.4*
India	8.8	4.7	*1.9*
Philippines	4.7	3.7	*1.3*
Hong Kong (China)	4.6	4.8	*1.0*
Pakistan	4.6	. .	. .
Total (in thousands)	*(174.1)*	*(4 971.1)*	
Denmark			
Somalia	8.6	4.1	*2.1*
Former Yugoslavia	7.1	13.5	*0.5*
Iraq	6.3	3.4	*1.9*
Germany	5.5	4.8	*1.2*
Norway	5.3	4.8	*1.1*
Total (in thousands)	*(20.4)*	*(237.7)*	
Finland			
Former USSR	29.8	23.6	*1.3*
Sweden	9.6	9.3	*1.0*
Estonia	8.1	12.0	*0.7*
Somalia	4.3	6.5	*0.7*
Iraq	3.2	3.0	*1.1*
Total (in thousands)	*(8.3)*	*(80.6)*	
France			
Algeria	14.3	16.4	*0.9*
Morocco	13.8	16.9	*0.8*
Turkey	5.8	5.2	*1.1*
China	4.9	0.3	*17.0*
Tunisia	4.6	6.3	*0.7*
Total (in thousands)	*(116.9)*	*(3 315.0)*	

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1998 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 1998 % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners in 1997 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Germany			
Poland	10.9	3.8	*2.8*
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	10.2	9.8	*1.0*
Turkey	8.0	28.6	*0.3*
Italy	5.9	8.3	*0.7*
Russian Federation	4.7	2.3	*2.0*
Total (in thousands)	*(605.5)*	*(7 365.8)*	
Japan			
China	21.0	17.0	*1.2*
Philippines	17.9	6.3	*2.8*
United States	10.4	2.9	*3.5*
Brazil	8.3	15.7	*0.5*
Korea	6.4	43.5	*0.1*
Total (in thousands)	*(265.5)*	*(1 482.7)*	
Netherlands			
Morocco	6.5	20.0	*0.3*
Turkey	6.3	16.9	*0.4*
Germany	5.8	7.9	*0.7*
United Kingdom	5.8	5.8	*1.0*
United States	4.0	1.9	*2.1*
Total (in thousands)	*(81.7)*	*(678.1)*	
Norway			
Sweden	22.4	11.0	*2.0*
Denmark	8.0	11.5	*0.7*
United Kingdom	4.7	6.9	*0.7*
Germany	4.0	3.2	*1.3*
Somalia	4.0	. .	. .
Total (in thousands)	*(26.7)*	*(157.5)*	
Sweden			
Iraq	15.1	4.5	*3.4*
Finland	8.4	18.4	*0.5*
Former Yugoslavia	5.4	6.1	*0.9*
Norway	4.6	5.6	*0.8*
Iran	4.1	4.8	*0.9*
Total (in thousands)	*(35.7)*	*(552.0)*	
United States			
Mexico	19.9	21.7	*0.9*
China	5.6	2.7	*2.1*
India	5.5	2.3	*2.4*
Philippines	5.2	4.6	*1.1*
Dominican Republic	3.1	1.8	*1.8*
Total (in thousands)	*(660.5)*	*(19 767.3)*	

1. 1998 except for Australia (1999) and Denmark (1997).
2. Stocks of foreign-born population for Australia, Canada and the United States. 1996 for Australia, Canada and Denmark.

Sources: National Statistical Offices (see notes for Table A.1.1. at the end of the Statistical Annex).

the presence of a foreign or foreign-born population contributes to the natural increase in the population (excess of births over deaths). The higher the fertility of foreign women relative to natives the more significant is this contribution. Second, when net migration is positive, the population of the host country grows by the same amount.

In the following section the contribution of migration is examined from the perspective of its impact on total population growth. Particular

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Box 3. Intra-European mobility

Since the Treaty of Rome (1957), the principle of free movement for EU Member nationals in the context of taking up employment has been recognised within the area formed by the signatory countries. More recently, various measures have been implemented with the aim of facilitating intra-European mobility: a Directive on the free movement of those outside the labour force, students and the retired, a series of Directives on the mutual recognition of qualifications and the opening up of certain public sector jobs which were previously reserved for nationals. Nevertheless, the extent of intra-European mobility and its motivations are not well known. Tables I.3 and I.4 present for the countries of the EU the stocks and, for thirteen of them, the flows of EU nationals by nationality.

For various reasons, in 1998 the five countries with the highest proportions of foreigners with EU Member country nationality were Luxembourg (90.5%), Ireland (75.2%), Belgium (57%), Portugal (53.7%) and Sweden (42.4%). A ranking of EU Member countries in terms of the percentage of EU Member country nationals in their inflows produces an almost similar result and shows up other destination countries. In 1997, the proportion was 78% for Luxembourg, 59% for Portugal, 56% for Belgium, 39% for Spain and 32% for the United Kingdom. The other EU countries have much lower proportions of EU Member country nationals in their inflows, ranging from nearly 28% in the case of Denmark to 10% in that of France.

The analysis of intra-European mobility by nationality shows great diversity, reflecting above all cultural and linguistic affinities (Germans in Austria, French and Dutch in Belgium, Finns in Sweden and Swedes in Finland). Historical ties also play a role in this mobility, such is the case of Portuguese and Italians in France, and of Italians in Austria. European pensioners also frequently choose to settle in certain Southern European countries, this is notably the case of UK nationals in Spain and Portugal, and Germans in Greece.

Table I.3. **Intra-European mobility of EU citizens, 1997**
Immigration flows by nationality in per cent of total inflows of EU citizens

Nationality	Receiving country												
	Luxembourg	Portugal	Belgium	Spain	United Kingdom	Denmark	Netherlands	Germany	Sweden	Austria	Greece	Finland	France
Austria	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.6	1.2	1.8	1.7	7.0	1.1	–	3.2	1.4	1.3
Belgium	16.7	4.6	–	6.5	0.8	1.7	9.6	1.3	0.9	1.2	3.0	1.1	6.4
Denmark	2.0	1.2	1.6	1.7	2.0	–	1.9	1.7	14.3	1.5	4.0	4.9	1.4
Finland	1.5	1.0	1.5	2.5	4.6	5.0	2.1	2.1	39.7	2.1	3.0	–	0.9
France	23.4	12.2	25.5	13.6	33.9	9.6	9.4	9.5	5.0	5.6	11.6	6.4	–
Germany	9.5	23.0	11.3	29.1	12.7	20.4	25.6	–	13.3	51.1	26.4	10.4	9.9
Greece	1.1	0.1	2.2	0.2	14.7	1.1	3.5	11.0	2.8	4.2	–	1.9	1.2
Ireland	1.1	1.3	1.2	0.8	2.3	1.9	3.2	2.6	1.6	1.0	1.0	0.9	2.1
Italy	6.9	6.1	10.0	10.1	4.3	6.7	6.6	26.2	2.8	11.0	8.7	4.2	13.8
Luxembourg	–	0.1	0.8	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2
Netherlands	3.6	10.8	22.8	5.5	7.7	8.0	–	4.7	3.8	4.4	7.0	3.8	3.4
Portugal	25.9	–	5.9	6.9	3.5	1.0	3.4	17.7	0.7	4.5	0.4	0.3	36.4
Spain	1.8	17.1	4.2	–	5.3	6.2	5.6	4.9	2.2	2.3	0.9	3.6	8.1
Sweden	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.3	7.1	18.9	2.8	2.4	–	3.5	5.8	48.3	2.2
United Kingdom	4.2	19.7	9.8	19.1	–	17.6	24.4	8.5	11.7	7.5	24.9	12.8	12.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In per cent of total inflows of foreigners	*78.3*	*59.0*	*56.0*	*39.1*	*32.3*	*27.6*	*25.0*	*24.5*	*21.4*	*20.2*	*17.5*	*17.0*	*9.7*

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos database.

attention is then accorded to births to foreigners and to persons of foreign origin and to the relationship between population ageing and migration. Finally, an analysis of the changes in the foreign or immigrant populations in OECD countries highlights the growth which has taken place in this population and confirms its trend towards increasing diversification.

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Table I.4. **European Union citizens in the foreign population of the 15 member countries, 1998**
Percentages

	Share of EU citizens		Share of EU labour force	
	In total foreign population (%)	In total population (%)	In foreign labour force (%)	In total labour force (%)
Austria	12.6	1.1	11.7	1.1
Belgium	57.0	4.7	68.7	5.4
Denmark	28.2	0.8	43.6	0.8
Finland	22.4	0.2	30.3	0.2
France	33.8	2.0	40.2	2.5
Germany	26.5	2.3	31.4	2.8
Greece	13.7	0.2	13.0	0.2
Ireland	75.2	2.0	79.2	2.4
Italy	21.3	0.1	21.3	0.1
Luxembourg	90.5	30.0	92.9	36.2
Netherlands	28.7	1.4	43.6	1.7
Portugal	53.7	0.3	50.7	0.2
Spain	41.2	0.3	36.1	0.3
Sweden	42.4	2.1	49.3	2.0
United Kingdom	40.4	1.4	44.5	1.6

Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat).

a) The components of population growth

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

Main demographic trends

Chart 1.6 covers the period 1960-98. It shows the relative contributions of net migration (nationals and foreigners) and of natural increase (excess of births over deaths) to the total population growth of the countries of the European Union and other Member countries of the OECD.

This comparative analysis illustrates the general trend of a slowdown in demographic growth. However, this trend is more or less marked across countries. For example, Australia and the United States, which had a very high rate of natural increase in 1960, experienced marked declines thereafter before stabilising in the mid-1970s at a relatively high rate. Japan and Spain, which also initially enjoyed rapid demographic growth, underwent a considerable adjustment in their birth rates, with their natural increase rate falling below 5 per thousand in the mid-1980s and approaching nil at the end of the period. In Germany and Sweden, the natural increase in the population was very low at the end of the period, but the transition was less sudden than in Japan and Spain, because the initial levels were much less high (for a detailed presentation of the situation of most of these countries, see the 1999 edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

In the countries of the European Union, at the beginning of the 1960s, the relative share of the natural increase in total population growth was larger than that of net migration (except in France due to the mass inflows of repatriates from Algeria). From 1967 onwards, net migration grew while the natural increase continuously declined. Between 1987 and 1991, the relative contribution of net migration grew rapidly following an acceleration in immigration flows, but was not sufficient to stem the demographic decline. The trend was then reversed. However, the contribution of migration continues to be higher than the natural increase throughout the entire European Union.

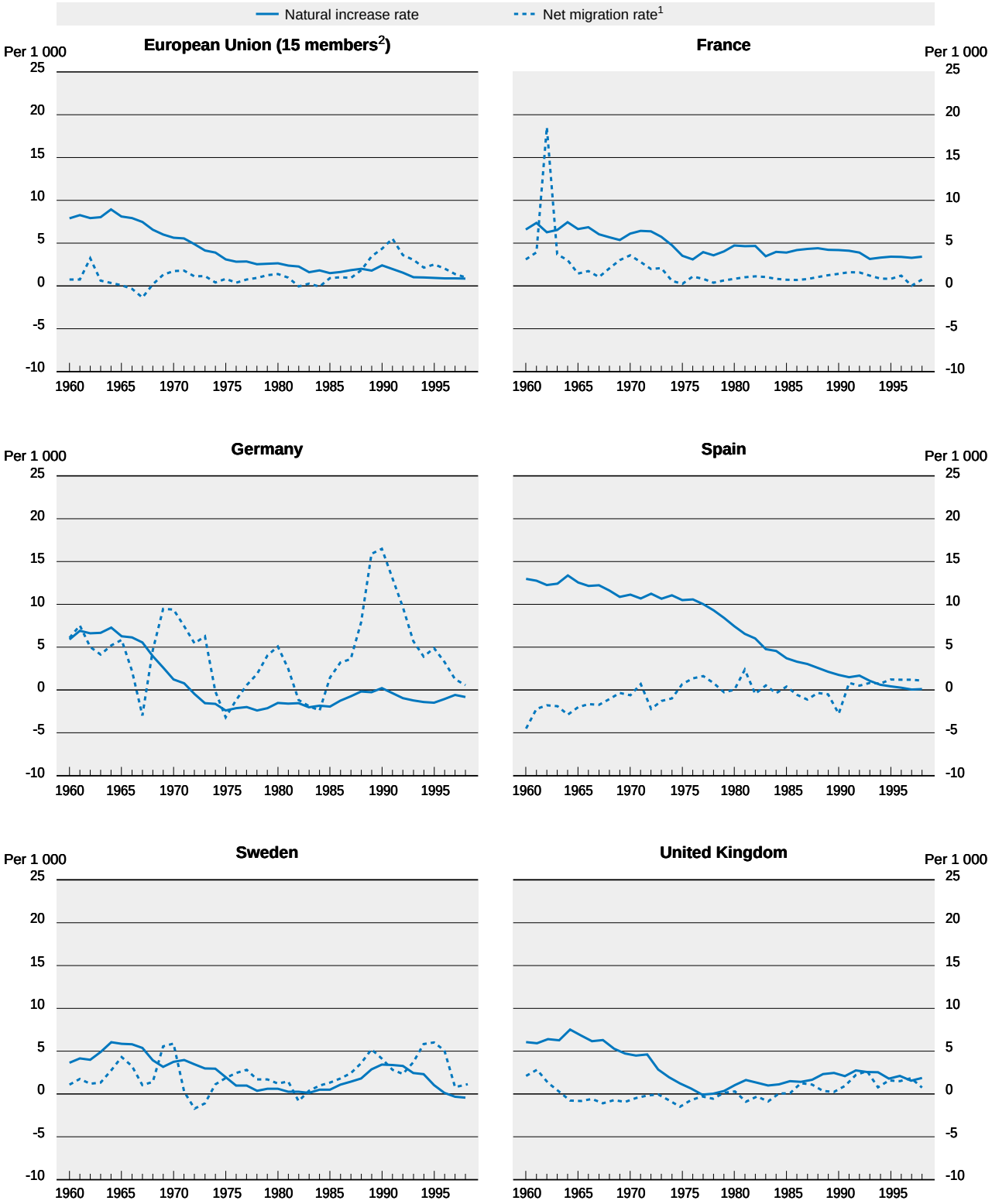
Following a very different trend, Turkey is experiencing a relatively high natural rate of population growth, but one which is considerably lower than the 1970s figure. Moreover, due to the return of former emigrants, net migration in Turkey is slightly positive, in contrast to the situation in Poland for example.

A more detailed analysis for 1998 (see Chart I.7) reveals that Turkey, Mexico and, to a lesser extent, Korea and New Zealand, have registered negative net migration, which is nevertheless broadly offset

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Chart I.6. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and in selected OECD countries, 1960-1998**

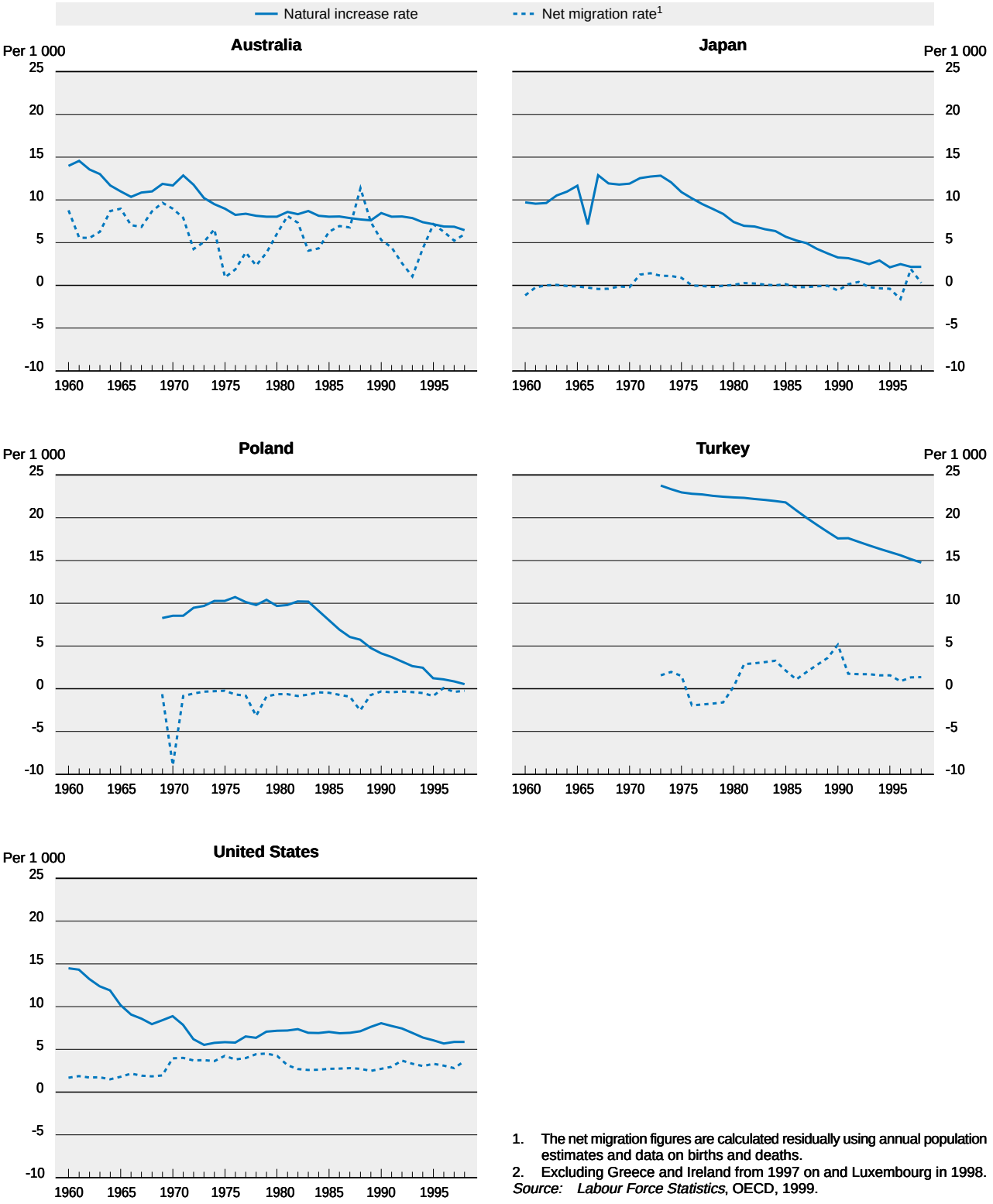
Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



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Chart I.6. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and in selected OECD countries, 1960-1998** *(cont.)*

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year

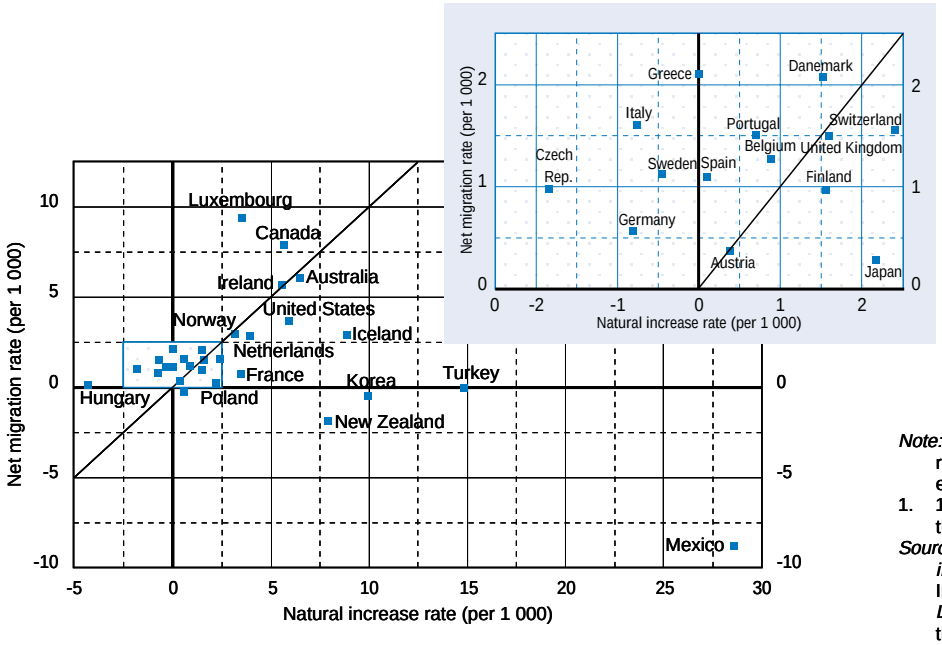


1. The net migration figures are calculated residually using annual population estimates and data on births and deaths.
2. Excluding Greece and Ireland from 1997 on and Luxembourg in 1998.

Source: *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 1999.

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Chart I.7. **Natural increase rate in total population and net migration rate in OECD countries, 1998**[1]
Per 1 000 inhabitants as of 1 January 1998



Note: The net migration figures are calculated residually using annual population estimates and data on births and deaths.

1. 1990 for Mexico and 1997 for Ireland and the United Kingdom.

Sources: *Recent demographic developments in Europe,* Council of Europe, 1999 for Ireland, the United Kingdom, Spain and *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 1999 for the other countries.

by the natural increase. In the case of Poland, the rate of natural increase barely offsets the negative net migration, explaining the very low growth of this country's population.

The Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Sweden have in common a negative rate of natural increase and positive net migration. In Greece, Italy and Sweden, it was due to net migration that the population increased in 1998. In Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Luxembourg, and Spain demographic growth was also primarily due to immigration, although the natural increase remained positive. However, in France, Japan and the United States, the natural increase remains the principal component of population growth. This component is the most important in Mexico and Turkey (at 28 and 16 per thousand respectively). In the other countries, population growth is evenly distributed between both demographic components, the level of which ranges between 0.4 per thousand for Austria to over 6 per thousand for Australia, with approximately 5.6 per thousand in Ireland, 3 per thousand in Norway and 1.5 per thousand in the United Kingdom.

This analysis points to the conclusion that over a long period (be it by region or by country, 1960-98) and by cross section (by country, in 1998), natural increase is more important than net migration in total population growth in OECD countries. This is true not only in countries, which have experienced large emigration flows, such as Mexico and Turkey, but also in settlement countries such as the United States. This is also the case in European countries, in particular France and the Netherlands, where immigrants have tended to prolong their stay and settle and where entries have been running at lower levels than in previous decades. The settlement of immigrants and members of their families has contributed, by means of foreign births, to the increase in the dominant role of the natural increase's contribution to population growth (see below).

The acceleration of migration movements has nevertheless played a non-negligible role in population growth in certain of the OECD Member countries. This is notably the case in Canada, Denmark, Italy, Portugal, Spain and Sweden. The trend is all the more marked in those countries where fertility rates are low (Italy, Germany, Greece, Portugal and Switzerland). In settlement countries, such as Australia, Canada and the United States, which continue to receive substantial numbers of new immigrants each year, it may well be that the predominance of family-linked immigration in total inflows and the younger age structure of

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Box 4. Measuring foreign births

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

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

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

the new arrivals exert over the short and medium term a marked effect on the natural rate of increase in the population.

The preceding analysis also reveals that migration movements fluctuate significantly in OECD countries. In this regard, the situation observed after 1996 (depending on the country) has been one of significant change in comparison to the preceding period. Indeed, the relative importance of the migration component is very much dependent on developments in the economic situation in certain regions of the world (insofar as they affect the movements of asylum seekers and refugees) and in migration policy in each country. The fluctuating nature of migration explains why it would be difficult to rely on the contribution of net migration to reduce or stem the marked demographic decline occurring in many OECD countries.

b) Foreign births: a brake on demographic ageing

In several European OECD countries, births to foreign nationals and to persons of foreign origin account for a sizeable percentage of total births (see Box 4 for the measurement of these births); this percentage is often higher than that of foreigners in the total population. Foreign births contribute to the natural increase in the population and can therefore act as a brake on demographic ageing. However, this is not an inevitable result and it depends essentially on a continuing succession of migration waves. A sustained halt to new immigration could eventually lead to a marked reduction in these beneficial effects insofar as the fertility rate of foreign women tends to converge with that of nationals.

The share of foreign births is, in some OECD Member countries, very high (see Chart I.8). This is the case, for example, in Luxembourg (45%), Switzerland (22.1%) and Canada (18%) in 1998. However, in most European OECD countries, in particular in the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Sweden, Germany, France and Belgium, foreign births accounted for between 13 and 9% of all births in 1998. Nevertheless, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway and especially Japan have significantly lower levels, which can be explained, *inter alia*, by the relatively small share of foreigners in their total population.

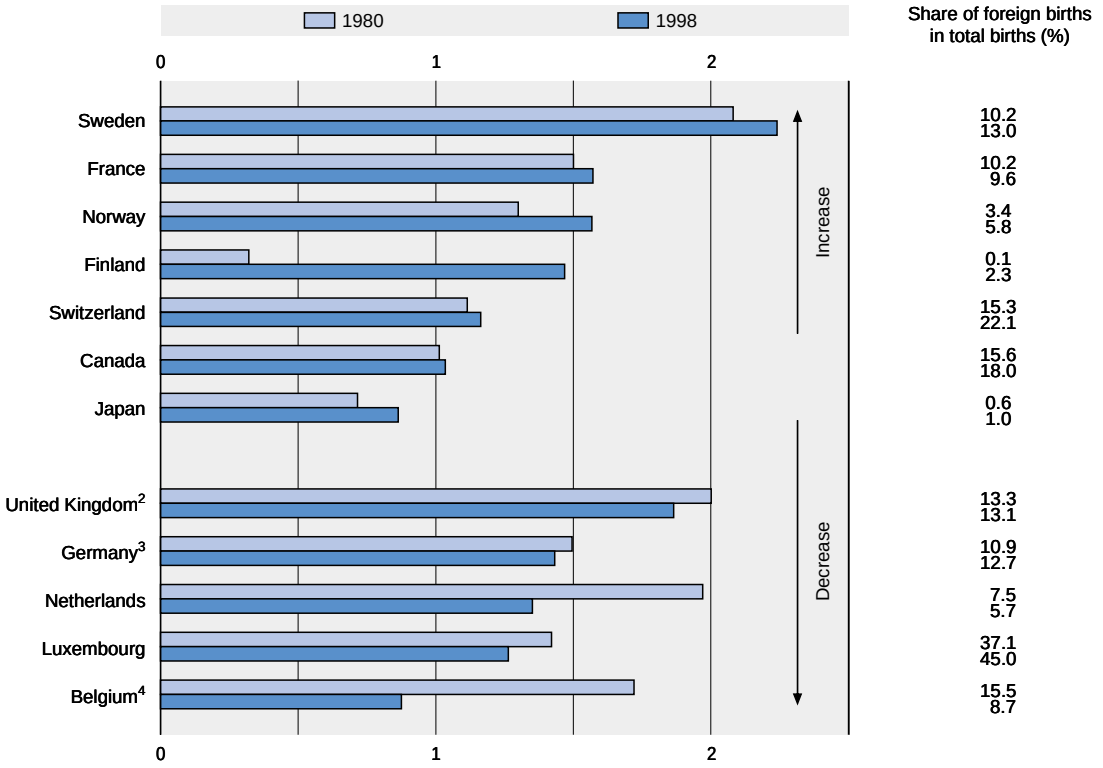
In Canada, Finland, France, Japan, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, the proportion of births to foreigners as compared with the proportion of foreigners in the total population was greater in 1998 than in 1980. However, due to the relative large number of naturalisations, the reverse was true for Belgium and the Netherlands.

Except in Belgium and Japan, in 1998 the proportion of births to foreigners was in every case higher than the proportion of foreign nationals in the total population: approximately twice in Sweden and the United Kingdom, more than one and a half times in Finland, France and Norway and between one and one and a half times in Canada, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Switzerland.

A number of explanations can be put forward to account for the variations observed over the past two decades, the relative importance of which

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Chart I.8. **Share of foreign births[1] in total births relative to the share of foreigners in the total population in selected OECD countries, 1980 and 1998**



1. Foreign births are those of children of foreign nationality for Belgium, Luxembourg, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland. For Finland, France, Norway and Sweden, foreign births are births to a foreign mother, for Japan, to foreign parents. For England and Wales, foreign births refer to those to mothers born outside the United Kingdom. For Canada, foreign births refer to those to foreign-born mothers who have been granted immigrant status. The data for Japan and Germany refer to 1989 and 1991 respectively instead of 1980. Those for Canada and Norway refer to 1986, those for Finland to 1987 instead of 1980. The data for Sweden refer to 1993, for France to 1996 and for the United Kingdom to 1997 instead of 1998.
2. Data refer to England and Wales. The share of foreign births is relative to the share of the foreign-born in the total population.
3. Data cover Germany as a whole in 1991 and 1998.
4. Between 1980 and 1998, the fall in the number of foreign births can be explained by changes in nationality laws in 1985 and 1992.

Sources: Data on births are from civil registers; data on population are from population registers for all countries except for France (1982 and 1990 Censuses), Canada (1986 and 1996 Censuses) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).

depend on the country concerned: higher or lower levels of net migration; differences in fertility rates between nationals and foreigners; differences in distribution by age and by sex of the foreign and national populations; and changes to laws concerning the acquisition of nationality.

c) Ageing populations and migration

In spring 1998 the OECD published a report on ageing populations, *Maintaining Prosperity in an Ageing Society*. This report highlights the prospect of rising proportion of the elderly in the population and falling proportion of the population in employment to support pension and health-care systems. This demographic challenge should be met with medium-term and long-term strategies. The most commonly invoked policies to meet this challenge are those aiming to enhance the fertility rate and to increase immigration.

Ageing populations, *i.e.* the growth in the relative share of the elderly in the total population, are caused by declining fertility and reduced rates of mortality amongst the elderly population. Whilst these processes have been going on for some time in many countries, many OECD Member countries have reached a particularly advanced stage. Shares of elderly in the total population, which are already at high levels, are set to increase further, particularly

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after around 2010 when the first of the baby-boom generations begins to retire.

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

Can immigration relieve the effects of population ageing?

Increased immigration possesses the advantage of having an immediate and relatively strong impact on the economically active population because of the characteristics of new immigrants, who are younger and more mobile. In addition, fertility rates amongst immigrant women are often relatively high, which can help to boost population growth, albeit to a limited extent. There are, however, practical and political constraints that make it difficult to develop and implement migration policies aimed at changing the demographic structure. Many of these difficulties were discussed in the 1991 OECD publication, *Migration: The Demographic Aspects.* Only the following three points will be mentioned here:

– Most OECD countries have the same demographic patterns, so immigration could basically only come from countries outside the OECD area.

– This approach considers migration as a control variable, *i.e.* it assumes that it will be possible to control the volume and age distribution of inflows and outflows. Migration policy might give greater importance to age-linked criteria in admitting immigrants, which already exist explicitly or implicitly. However, there are many factors that both limit and complicate the ability to control immigration: agreements on free movement of persons, humanitarian commitments and other obligations such as that to grant admission for residence on the basis of family ties as well as the persistence of illegal immigration. Furthermore, immigration policies focusing primarily on immigrants' age or fertility may be seen as a form of discrimination.

– Experience shows that migration policies can have an impact on the number and characteristics of immigrants, but that they can have virtually no effect on returns, whence the difficulty of controlling the volume and composition of net migration.

Even assuming that it would be possible to control migration flows so as to reduce the economic dependency of the elderly, this would require a radical change in immigration policy that is only likely if labour-supply shortages are widespread and self-evident to both the government and the public. In this regard, the existence of high levels of structural unemployment and the potential for increased female labour force participation in a number of OECD countries suggest that employment growth could remain fairly strong without recourse to increased immigration intakes.

More specifically, the equilibrium of social protection systems, to which population ageing poses a major challenge, is determined not solely by changes in the dependency ratio but also by an array of other institutional, demographic and economic parameters: the age of labour force entry, retirement age, participation and unemployment rates, contribution rates and pension levels, economic growth rates, productively gains, etc. It is therefore illusory to seek to adjust the system by changing a single variable (immigration) while other factors remain constant.

This analysis shows that immigration alone cannot solve the problem of the ageing of the population. It can even be said that the simulations prove on the contrary that it is impossible to solve the issue of population ageing through migration, and that the analysis of migration processes bears out this conclusion.

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

There can be no doubt that immigration can help to prevent a decrease in population for a limited time, although, as has just been seen, it can only be expected to have a marginal impact on the anticipated imbalance in the age structure. Nevertheless, it is worth examining how migration policy can be adapted so as to contribute, *inter alia*, to the objective of labour market adjustment and a more balanced age structure.

Even if a desire for change clearly exists, immigration policy is often politically sensitive. However, there is usually some flexibility within existing legislation

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Box 5. Estimating the contribution of migration necessary to offset population ageing

In March 2000, the United Nations Population Division published a report entitled *Replacement Migration: Is it a Solution to Declining and Ageing Populations?* (United Nations, 2000). This report, which is based on the assumption that a number of OECD Member and non-member countries will experience a decrease in their population through 2050, all other factors being equal, presents five different scenarios that estimate the number of net inflows necessary to offset all or some of the demographic deficits expected.

The simulations most often cited are aimed at maintaining a constant dependency ratio through 2050. They involve large volumes of inflows and outflows and considerable fluctuations in migration. For example, net migration for the United States and the EU countries would have to be at least ten times higher than the annual average of inflows calculated on the basis of the data available for the 1990s. It would also lead to extraordinary growth in the total population and in the proportion of immigrants in the overall population.

The choice of the initial ratios, which reflect the strong demographic growth of the past, the choice of the projection horizon, which remains subjective, the fact that return migration and possible adjustments in immigrants' fertility rate are not taken into account and the assumption that the age structure of new arrivals will remain constant are all reasons to be circumspect about these projections, as the authors themselves suggest.

that allows variations in the volume and composition of immigration intakes as well as choice in the distribution of resources across the range of activities related to migration policy (control of flows, selective recruitment and integration).

At present, there appears to be a preference for mechanisms which cater for temporary labour migration to increase labour supply rather than policies calling for permanent immigration. However, the ease with which countries may shift the focus of immigration policy towards demographic objectives varies widely. Some countries already have a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach towards immigration (notably Australia and Canada) including age-related selection criteria for some categories of immigrant. Other countries do not use age-linked criteria explicitly, but their migration system and the way it is implemented affects the age distribution of inflows. This is the case of the preference system in the United States. It is also the case in Europe, in particular, via the regularisation programmes that primarily benefit only economically active immigrants. Lastly, other countries, if they decided to shift to a permanent immigration policy, may find that new immigration programmes and a change in approach to immigration policy would be required.

Consequently, migration policies based on convergent strategic interests are possible between countries deeply affected by demographic decline and those experiencing high population growth, if the motivation for such policies is strong enough.

d) Changes in the foreign or immigrant population in OECD countries

For the European OECD countries and likewise for Japan and Korea, the most detailed statistics on the foreign population refer to residents' nationality (see Statistical Annex, Tables A.1.6 and B.1.6). Thus people born in the country may be counted among foreigners, while others born abroad may have acquired the nationality of the host country and are no longer counted as members of the foreign population. In Australia, Canada and the United States, the criterion is not that of nationality but of country of birth. A distinction is made between those born abroad ("foreign-born") and those born in the country ("native-born"). This approach enables the number of immigrants residing in the country to be calculated, whatever their nationality. Certain European countries such as Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden have begun to publish statistics on the number of people born abroad by country of birth (see Statistical Annex, Tables A.1.5 and B.1.5).

Variations over time in the number of immigrants or foreigners do not follow a uniform pattern across countries. Such variations are dependent, *inter alia*, on migration policy, on entries and departures, on the demographics of the foreign population and on the number of naturalisations (which correspondingly reduces the stock of foreigners). Nonetheless, in nearly all of the OECD countries the foreign or immigrant population continues to increase. It is also clear that the extension of the

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geographical sphere of reference of international migration, a consequence of the political and economic changes which have taken place over the last decade, is reflected in the diversification of the composition by nationality of foreign populations and in the greater dispersion of immigrants of the same origin across host countries.

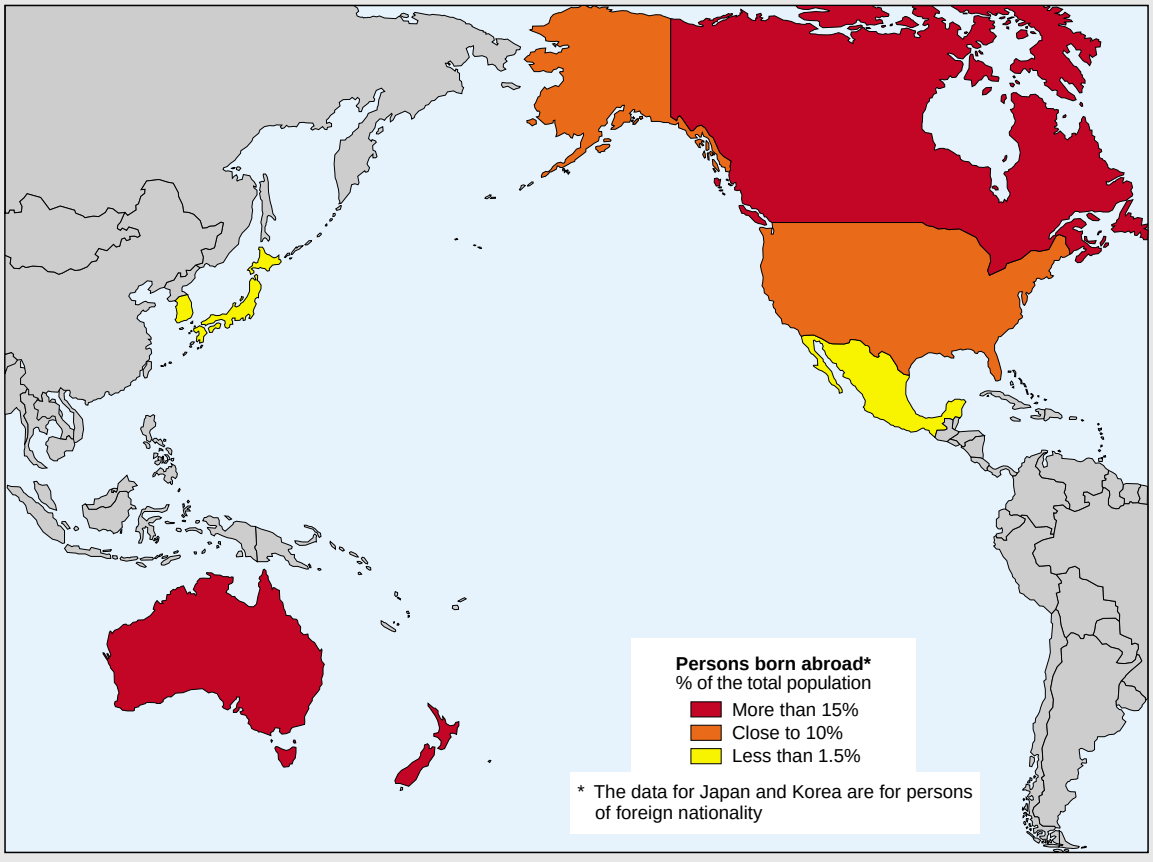
The foreign or foreign-born population is increasing...

In the majority of OECD countries, the number of foreigners and foreign-born and their share in the total population have increased over the past ten years. However, Belgium and France are exceptions to this trend, due in part to the large number of naturalisations in recent years. The share of immigrants in the total population also decreased slightly in Australia.

In Australia and Canada, immigrants accounted for a high percentage of the resident population at close to 23% in 1998 for Australia and over 17% for Canada in 1996 (see Map I.1). In the United States the figure was close to 10% (see Table I.5). In this latter country the immigrant population increased by almost 7 million between 1990 and 1998. In Australia and Canada the immigrant population grew by 700 000 and one million, respectively, over the intercensal period (1986-96).

Map I.1. **Non-European OECD countries: foreign-born population, latest available year**[1]

Percentage of the total population



1. 1990 for the United States, 1996 for Australia, Canada and New Zealand, 1998 for the other countries.

Note: Data refer to the foreign-born (foreigners in Japan and Korea) who legally reside in the country. Figures are calculated on the basis of Census results for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States and on the basis of population registers for Japan and Korea. The percentage for Mexico has been estimated on the basis of National Institute for Migration data.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

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Table I.5. **Foreign or foreign-born population and labour force in selected OECD countries**
Thousands and percentages

	Foreign population and labour force							
	Foreign population[1]				Foreign labour force[2]			
	Thousands		% of total population		Thousands		% of total labour force	
	1988[3]	1998[4]	1988	1998	1988[5]	1998[6]	1988	1998
Austria	344	737	*4.5*	*9.1*	161	327	*5.4*	*9.9*
Belgium	869	892	*8.8*	*8.7*	291	375	*7.2*	*8.8*
Denmark	142	256	*2.8*	*4.8*	65	94	*2.2*	*3.2*
Finland	19	85	*0.4*	*1.6*	. .	35	. .	. .
France	3 714	3 597	*6.8*	*6.3*	1 557	1 587	*6.4*	*6.1*
Germany	4 489	7 320	*7.3*	*8.9*	1 911	2 522	*7.0*	*9.1*
Ireland	82	111	*2.4*	*3.0*	35	48	*2.7*	*3.2*
Italy	645	1 250	*1.1*	*2.1*	285	332	*1.3*	*1.7*
Japan	941	1 512	*0.8*	*1.2*	86	119	*0.1*	*0.2*
Luxembourg	106	153	*27.4*	*35.6*	69[7]	135[7]	*39.9*	*57.7*
Netherlands	624	662	*4.2*	*4.2*	176	208	*3.0*	*2.9*
Norway	136	165	*3.2*	*3.7*	49[8]	67[8]	*2.3*	*3.0*
Portugal	95	178	*1.0*	*1.8*	46	89	*1.0*	*1.8*
Spain	360	720	*0.9*	*1.8*	58	191	*0.4*	*1.2*
Sweden	421	500	*5.0*	*5.6*	220	219	*4.9*	*5.1*
Switzerland	1 007	1 348	*15.2*	*19.0*	608[9]	691[9]	*16.7*	*17.3*
United Kingdom	1 821	2 207	*3.2*	*3.8*	871	1 039	*3.4*	*3.9*
	Foreign-born population and labour force							
	Foreign-born population[10]				Foreign-born labour force[10]			
	Thousands		% of total population		Thousands		% of total labour force	
	1991[11]	1998[12]	1991	1998	1991[11]	1998[12]	1991	1998
Australia	3 965	4 394	*22.9*	*23.4*	2 182	2 294	*25.7*	*24.8*
Canada	4 343	4 971	*16.1*	*17.4*	2 681	2 839	*18.5*	*19.2*
United States	19 767	26 300	*7.9*	*9.8*	11 565	16 100	*9.4*	*11.7*

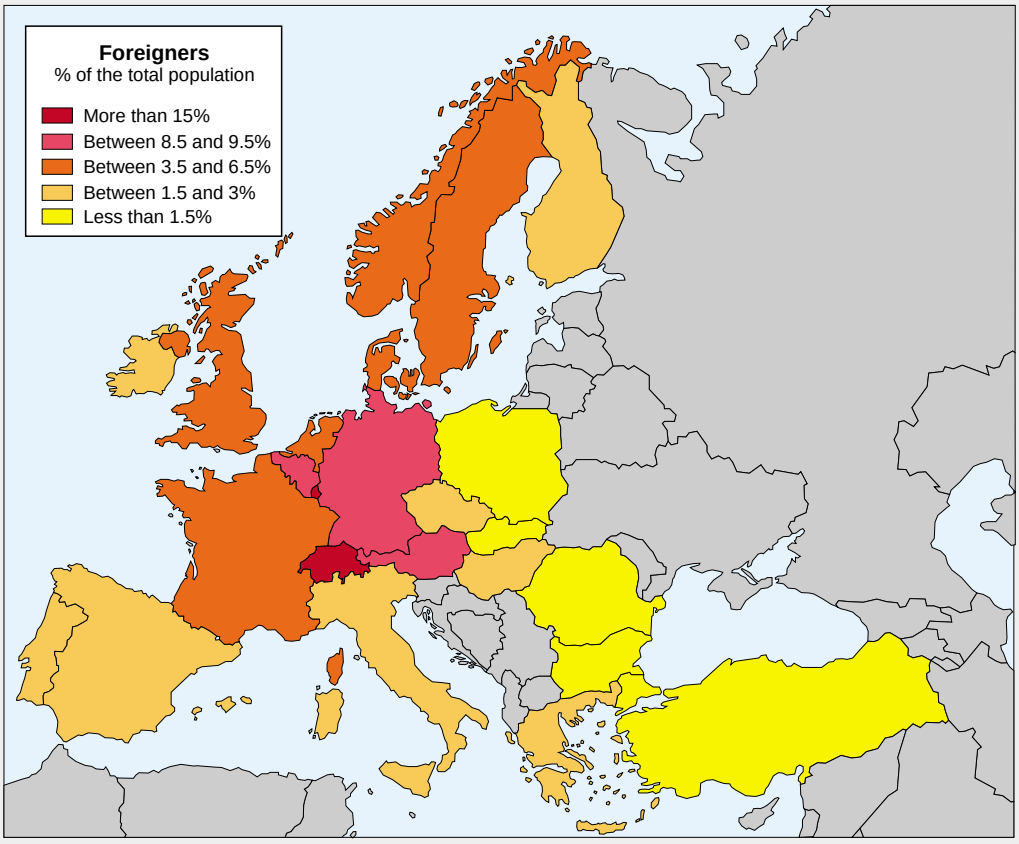
1. Data are from population registers except for France (Census), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey), Japan and Switzerland (register of foreigners) and Italy, Portugal and Spain (residence permits).
2. Data include the unemployed except for Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom. Data for Austria, Germany and Luxembourg are from Social Security registers, for Denmark and Norway from the register of population and the register of employees respectively. Data for Italy, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland are from residence or work permits. Figures for Japan and the Netherlands are estimates from national Statistical Offices. For the other countries, data are from Labour Force Surveys.
3. 1982 for France.
4. 1990 for France.
5. 1991 for Italy; 1989 for Belgium; 1992 for Japan.
6. 1995 for Italy; 1997 for Denmark, Germany and Netherlands.
7. Including cross-border workers.
8. Excluding the self-employed.
9. Number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit who engage in gainful activity. Seasonal and cross-border workers are not included.
10. Data are from censuses except for the United States in 1998 (estimates from the Current Population Survey) and for the Australian labour force (Labour Force Survey).
11. 1990 for the United States.
12. 1996 for Canada.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes.

The foreign presence in the total population varies widely across the European OECD countries. It is relatively high in Luxembourg (more than 35%) and Switzerland (19%) in 1998. In the other traditional immigration countries, the proportion of foreigners in the total population varies between 3.8% (the United Kingdom) and 9% (Austria) (see Map I.2). This percentage was close to 9% in Belgium and Germany, as against more than 6% in France and nearly 4.5% in the Netherlands. In the new immigration countries such as Finland, Italy, Portugal and Spain, the proportion of foreigners remains small (between 1.6 and 2.1%), the increase in entries over the last decade notwithstanding. The share of for-

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Map I.2. **European OECD countries:[1] foreign population in 1998[2]**
Percentage of the total population



1. The percentage has also been calculated for Bulgaria and Romania.
2. 1998 except for France (1990) and Hungary (1997).

Note: The data relate only to foreigners residing in the country legally. The data are derived from population registers except in the case of France (census), Ireland and the United Kingdom (labour force survey) and Italy, Portugal and Spain (residence permits). The percentages for Bulgaria, Poland and Romania are estimates.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

eigners in the total population of Finland grew four-fold between 1988 and 1998. During the same period, the number of foreigners in Italy, Portugal and Spain doubled, and the situation was virtually identical in Denmark.

Since 1989, the foreign population has grown considerably in Germany (an increase of 63% between 1988 and 1998) due principally to the growth in immigration flows from the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. The foreign population has also increased in Austria and to a lesser extent in the United Kingdom, Sweden and Switzerland. In Japan, although the foreign population increased by approximately 60% over the past ten years, the percentage of foreigners in the total population remains low (1.2% in 1998). Similarly, although the number of foreigners resident in Korea more than tripled between 1988 and 1998, their share in the total population remains one of the lowest of the OECD Member countries.

... and is becoming more diversified

In general, the composition by nationality of the foreign or immigrant population (see Statistical Annex, Tables B.1.5 and B.1.6) varies across host countries depending on migration traditions, the extent and nature of existing networks established by previously installed migrant communities,

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employment opportunities and the geographical proximity of the respective origin countries.

The political and economic developments of the last decade, notably the liberalisation of population movements in Central and Eastern Europe, have extended the geographical sphere of reference of international migration (see Section B). In particular, they have led to the emergence of new flows, and an increase in the diversity of origin countries. They have also modified the composition by nationality of the foreign population within host countries and the dispersion of migrants of the same origin across different host countries.

In the countries of the European Union, the proportion of foreigners from non-EU countries has increased. As part of this overall trend, certain origin countries have emerged or gained in importance relative to others of longer standing in the region. In Germany, for example, this observation applies to nationals of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, in France to Moroccans and Senegalese, and in the Netherlands to nationals of the former Yugoslavia. As for the Nordic countries, the proportion of foreigners who have come from neighbouring countries has diminished in Finland, in Norway and in Sweden as newer foreign communities have increased in size: Asians (Pakistanis, Vietnamese, Iranians and Sri Lankans and Turks) in Norway and Sweden; and nationals of the former Yugoslavia in Finland, Norway and Sweden (see Section B on recent developments in Asia and Central and Eastern Europe). These transformations reflect not only the changes in the origins of the flows (see above) but also the changes in their nature (for example, an increase in the number of asylum seekers).

Recently, there has been an influx of Asian nationals, and more particularly Chinese nationals, into European OECD countries (see above, Table I.2). Although this trend is still too recent in some countries to be clearly reflected in the numbers of foreigners by nationality because of the predominant share of other migration flows, it can be expected that, given its volume, this category of immigrants will emerge rapidly, and its relative share in the total stock of foreign residents will grow steadily. This process is in fact already perceptible in the new immigration countries. For example, Chinese immigrants rank among the top ten nationalities settled in Italy and Spain.

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

Regarding the European countries of the OECD (see above, Table I.4), the highest percentages of EU (at 15 Members) nationals, as a proportion of their total foreign population and of their foreign labour force respectively, were to be found in 1998, in decreasing order of importance, in Luxembourg (90 and 93%), Ireland (75 and 79%), Belgium (57 and 69%), Portugal (54 and 51%) and Switzerland (42 and 49%). At the opposite end of the scale, Austria had among the lowest proportions in both.

In Australia, Canada and the United States, the proportion of European residents has declined in favour of immigrants from the developing countries (see Statistical Annex, Table B.1.5). In the United States, the number of European residents has fallen while that of immigrants from Asia and from the American continent have increased. Between 1980 and 1990 the number of Mexican, Vietnamese and Chinese nationals almost doubled; those from India and the Dominican Republic more than doubled.

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

Perhaps more surprisingly, over the periods considered, there was a significant drop in the number of Canadians in the United States and of US nationals in Canada (see Statistical Annex, Table B.1.5). However, with the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), this trend seems to have been reversed in recent flows, at least as regards flows of Canadians towards the United States.

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The distribution of immigrants of the same origin across the range of host countries

Certain immigrant communities have tended to increase in countries where they were not strongly represented previously. The following section will focus on immigrants from certain countries of the Southern and Eastern shores of the Mediterranean Basin.

The distribution in Europe of nationals from the three Maghrebian countries (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia), Turkey and the former Yugoslavia has changed over the past 15 years. Although France remained in 1998 the principal host country for Maghrebians with a total of nearly 1.4 million residents, (see Table I.6) and indeed Algerian emigration remains concentrated almost entirely there, Moroccan and Tunisian migrants have been going in greater numbers to other host countries (see Chart I.9). Already present in Belgium and the Netherlands (140 000 persons in each country), Moroccans have widened the range of their destinations and now form sizeable communities in Italy, Spain and to a lesser

Table I.6. **Maghrebian, Turkish and former Yugoslavian residents in selected European OECD countries, total population and labour force, 1998**

Thousands and percentages of total foreign population and labour force

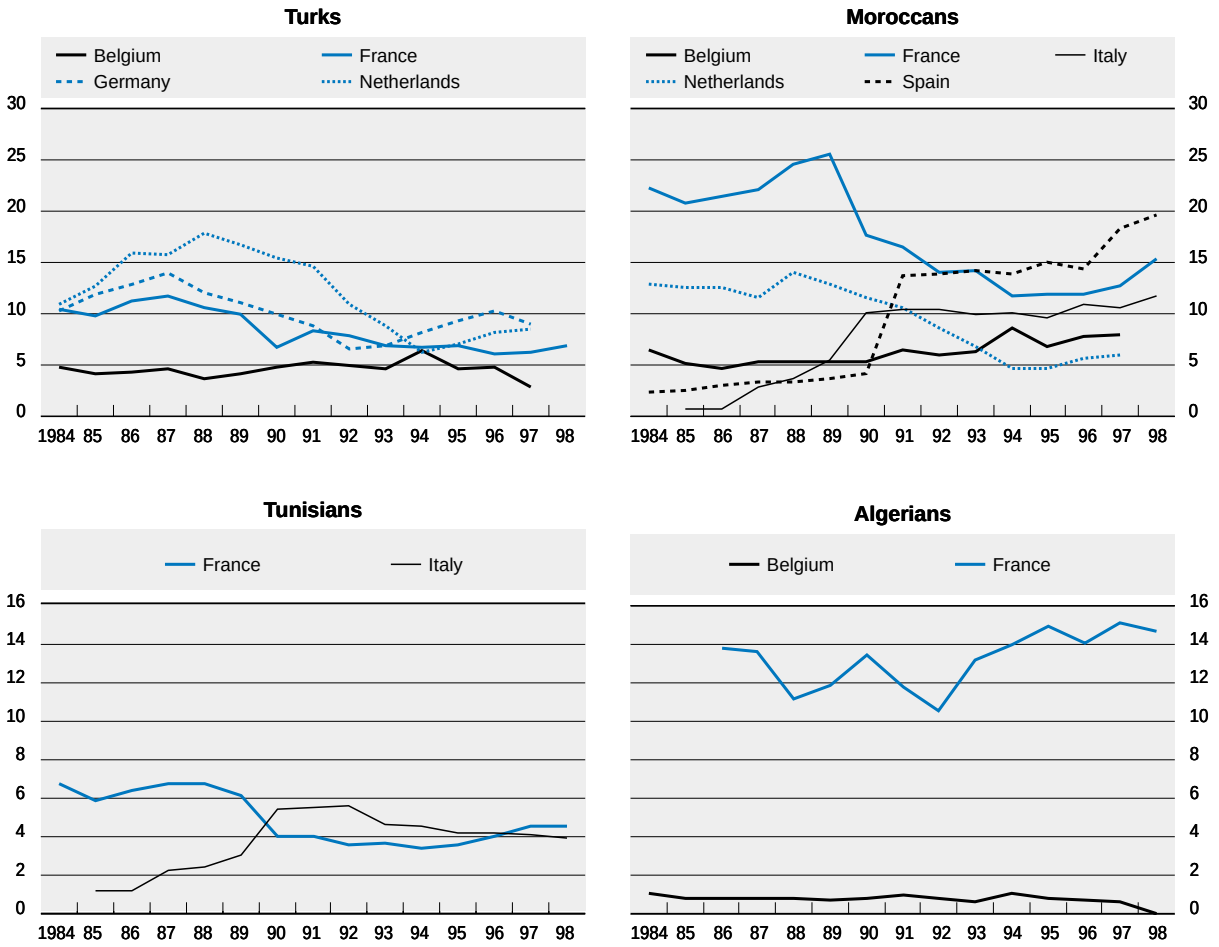
	Foreign population[1]									
	Total foreign population	*Of which:*								
		Algeria	%	Morocco	%	Tunisia	%	Turkey	%	Former Yugoslavia	%
Belgium	892.0	8.5	*0.9*	125.1	*14.0*	4.2	*0.5*	70.7	*7.9*	6.0	*0.7*
Denmark	256.3	. .	. .	3.6	*1.4*	. .	. .	38.1	*14.8*	34.5	*13.4*
France	3 596.6	614.2	*17.1*	572.7	*15.9*	206.3	*5.7*	197.7	*5.5*	52.5	*1.5*
Germany	7 319.6	17.6	*0.2*	82.7	*1.1*	24.5	*0.3*	2 110.2	*28.8*	1 118.5[2]	15.3
Italy	1 250.2	. .	. .	145.8	*11.7*	47.3	*3.8*	. .	. .	92.3	*7.4*
Netherlands	662.4	. .	. .	128.6	*19.4*	1.4	*0.2*	102.0	*15.4*	22.3	*3.4*
Norway	165.0	. .	. .	1.3	*0.8*	. .	. .	3.2	*1.9*	17.8	*10.8*
Spain	694.5	. .	. .	135.7	*19.5*	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Sweden	499.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	17.4	*3.5*	26.0	*5.2*
Switzerland	1 347.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	79.5	*5.9*	321.1	*23.8*
United Kingdom	2 207.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	63	*2.9*	. .	. .
	Foreign labour force[3]									
	Total foreign labour force	*Of which:*								
		Algeria	%	Morocco	%	Tunisia	%	Turkey	%	Former Yugoslavia	%
Austria[4]	240.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.3	*20.5*	143.8	*59.8*
Belgium	374.2	3.3	*0.9*	44.3	*11.8*	2.2	*0.6*	29.9	*8.0*	. .	. .
Denmark	93.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	14.0	*14.9*	9.3	*9.9*
France	1 586.7	241.6	*15.2*	229.6	*14.5*	84.4	*5.3*	79.0	*5.0*	30.0	*1.9*
Germany[5]	2 521.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	745.2	*29.5*	348.0[6]	*13.8*
Netherlands	208	. .	. .	35.0	*16.8*	. .	. .	29	*13.9*	. .	. .
Spain[7]	190.6	3.7	*2.0*	73.3	*38.4*	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Sweden[8]	219	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.0	*2.3*	31.0	*14.2*
Switzerland[9]	691.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	32.8	*4.7*	142.8	*20.7*
United Kingdom	1 039.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.0	*1.8*	. .	. .

1. Data are from population registers for all countries except for France (Census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey). Data for France are for 1990.
2. Data are for Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Croatia.
3. Figures include unemployed except for Austria and the Netherlands. Data for France, Sweden and the United Kingdom are from the Labour Force Survey; for Austria, Germany, Spain and Switzerland, data are from work permits; for the other countries, data are estimates by the national statistical offices. 1997 for Belgium, Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands.
4. Annual average of valid work permits. Unemployed and self-employed are not included.
5. Data (as of 30 September) refer to salaried workers only. Figures cover only western Germany.
6. Data are for Serbia and Montenegro.
7. Valid work permits. Workers from the European Union are not included in total.
8. Annual average. Data are from the annual Labour Force Survey.
9. Data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit) who engage in gainful activity.

Sources: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes.

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Chart I.9. **Inflows of Maghrebians and Turks to Western Europe, 1984-1998**
Percentages of total inflows



Source: National Statistical Offices.

extent, Germany. In 1998, far behind France, it was in Italy, followed by Germany, that the largest Tunisian communities were located.

With the extension of the conflict in the Balkan region, most recently to Kosovo, migrants from the former Yugoslavia have increasingly gone to new host countries. Although Germany remains, by some distance, the country with the greatest number of immigrants from the former Yugoslavia (over 721 000 nationals of Serbia, Montenegro, Croatia and Bosnia), Italy is now the fourth host country (with 85 000 persons) after Switzerland and Austria. The Nordic countries (principally Sweden and Norway) also feature among the new host countries along with Bulgaria, Greece and Hungary.

Turkish immigrants, the largest number of whom are to be found in Germany, have also settled in other European OECD countries, notably, in decreasing order of importance, in France, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Belgium, Austria and Denmark. Numbering over 2.1 million, the Turkish community in Germany is the largest foreign community in a European OECD country, and accounts for almost 30% of the resident foreign population in that country. Turkish immigrants both in the Netherlands and Denmark account for approximately 15% of the total foreign population, as compared to 9% in Belgium and just under 6% in France and Switzerland. In Austria, one in five salaried foreign workers is of Turkish origin.

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Foreigners or immigrants from OECD Member or non-member countries residing in the OECD area

Among foreign or foreign-born residents in OECD countries, some are from non-member countries while others are nationals of Member countries. In most analyses of migration, focus is rarely placed on the latter group even though their numbers are relatively high. For example, 73% of the persons from the ten main immigrant groups in the United States (66% in Canada) are from an OECD Member country. In Germany and France, this percentage is also very high, being 76% for the former and 48% for the latter.

The recent admission of several new countries to the OECD has boosted this trend. In 1998, Turks headed the rankings by nationality of foreigners residing in the European Members of the OECD. The Italians and the Portuguese were respectively third and fourth (behind nationals of the former Yugoslavia). The Korean predominance in Japan merits highlighting, as does that of the Mexicans in the United States.

3. Immigrants and the labour market

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

The upturn in economic activity in the OECD area has had a major impact on employment in Member countries in recent years, particularly in the EU countries and Korea. For example, in 1999 the overall unemployment rate fell by three-tenths of a point. This trend, which should continue in the years to come, inevitably affects the employment of foreigners and foreign-born.

a) Foreigners' contribution to the labour force is increasing...

Over the last decade, the proportion of foreigners or the foreign-born in the total labour force has increased significantly in several OECD countries, notably in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the United States (see, Table I.5). By contrast, the proportion slightly declined in Australia, France and in the Netherlands between 1988 and 1998.

Classified by the size of the foreign or foreign-born share of total employment, three groups of countries could be distinguished in 1998: a first group comprised of (in descending order) Luxembourg, Australia, Canada and Switzerland, with shares between 55 and 17.5%; a second group, comprised of the United States, Austria, Germany, Belgium, France, and Sweden where the share was at an intermediate level, between 10 and 5%; and a third group comprised of the United Kingdom, Ireland, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Italy, Spain and Japan with foreign shares of total employment at less than 5%.

On the whole, this classification mirrors foreigners' share in the total population, with some differences due to the relative importance of naturalisations and the family component in migration flows across countries. Thus, foreigners' share in the labour force is higher than their share in the total population in Austria, Australia, Canada, Germany, Luxembourg and the United States, but is lower in Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Norway.

b) ... and temporary migration of skilled and highly skilled workers is increasing

Previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* have made a detailed analysis of the recruitment and residence criteria for temporary workers. In addition to showing the wide diversity of the regulations applied in the Member countries of the OECD, they have also shown that there is a certain flexibility in the admissions procedures for this type of entrant.

Although the admission of permanent foreign workers is currently very limited, particularly into the European Member countries of the OECD, the use of temporary labour seems to be expanding and countries are implementing policies to facilitate it. The use of temporary foreign labour enhances host countries' labour market flexibility and helps to alleviate sectoral labour shortages. This is particularly true in the new technology sectors in which many countries are experiencing shortages of skilled and highly skilled workers. Temporary migration has other advantages for host countries, such as making it possible to reduce the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation during a period of restricted

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immigration or to limit the economic and social costs inherent to implementing an integration policy.

Table I.7 sets out for a number of Member countries the inflows of temporary foreign workers by principal category. The upward trend in their inflows is relatively clear in Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. In France, Germany and some other European OECD countries, notably Italy and Spain, measures to promote the entry of temporary and/or skilled and highly skilled workers have only been taken very recently, with the upturn in economic activity and the emergence of labour shortages in certain sectors (see the country notes in Part II). As the economic outlook improves, some unskilled workers also raise their expectations and tend to turn away from the most strenuous activities, which may ultimately lead to a labour shortage. This trend has been observed, for example, in certain seasonal agricultural activities.

c) Participation rates of foreigners by sex and place of birth: persistent imbalances

In 1998, the participation rate of foreign or foreign-born women was systematically lower than for men, but was also generally lower than for nationals (see Table I.8). The differences between male and female foreign workers were particularly marked in Belgium, Italy and Germany. The difference between the participation rate of nationals and foreign women was greatest in Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden. However, in Italy and Spain, which are new immigration countries, and Luxembourg, a country in which employment-related immigration is very predominant, the activity rate of foreign women was higher than for nationals.

For men, on the whole, the activity rate is also higher for nationals than for foreigners, but the differences are smaller, and in two countries, besides those mentioned above, the opposite is the case, *i.e.* France and Finland. In the European OECD countries, the activity rate of foreign EU nationals is closer to that of nationals and generally slightly higher. However, Greece, Portugal and Spain are exceptions in this regard because of the large inflows of retirees who settle in these countries.

It is important to bear in mind that a cross-section analysis does not take into account the fact that participation rates also depend on the length of stay. Indeed, the differences according to place of birth and nationality, men and women taken together, tend to reduce considerably beyond a period of stay greater than ten years.

d) Recent developments in the employment of foreigners and the increasing presence of foreign labour in the service sector

Chart I.10 makes it possible to compare developments in foreigners' employment with those in total employment over a period of eight years, equally spread across the indicated year corresponding to the start of an economic upturn (the reference year for the "upturn" is determined by the date at which the difference between potential and actual production is greatest). Overall, one observes that foreigners' employment fluctuates more markedly than total employment. The upturns in Austria, Ireland, Italy, Norway and in Portugal were accompanied by comparatively stronger growth in foreigners' employment. In the cases of Ireland, Italy and Portugal, which have recently become immigration countries, the growth in foreigners' employment pre-dated the year of the upturn and concerned relatively small numbers of people who were probably concentrated in a limited number of sectors.

In France, Germany and the Netherlands, upturns in economic activity appear to have been less favourable to foreigners. That said, in the latter two countries foreigners' employment grew more strongly than total employment during the period immediately preceding the upturn, whereas in the case of France the number of foreign workers continued to decline throughout the period with the exception of one year (1995). In Australia, the trend in foreigners' employment has followed that of the economic cycle. This was also the case in Norway and the United Kingdom, although foreigners' employment did rise more strongly during the upturn.

The study of the distribution of foreign labour by economic sector carried out in the previous editions of the report on *Trends in International Migration*, makes it possible to complete this analysis. In particular, there is a high concentration in a few sectors, such as manufacturing, in Australia, Canada and Germany, construction in France and Luxembourg, and a few service sectors in the United Kingdom. On the whole, public administration employs the lowest proportion of foreigners since posts in this sector are generally only open to nationals.

Chart I.11 shows that between 1995 and 1998 the reductions in employment which have taken place in industry and in agriculture have been more

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Table I.7. **Entries of temporary workers in certain OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 1996-1998**

Thousands

	1992	1996	1997	1998
Australia				
Skilled temporary resident programme[1]	14.6	31.7	31.7	37.3
Working Holiday Makers (Offshore)	25.9	40.3	50.0	55.6
Total	**40.5**	**72.0**	**81.7**	**92.9**
	(40.3)	*(20.0)*	*(19.7)*	*(26.0)*
Canada[2]				
Total	**. .**	**60.0**	**62.3**	**65.1**
	(252.8)	*(226.1)*	*(216.0)*	*(174.1)*
France				
Employees on secondment	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.2
Researchers	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0
Other holders of an *APT*[3]	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.2
Seasonal workers	13.6	8.8	8.2	7.5
Total	**18.1**	**13.6**	**12.9**	**11.8**
	(42.3)	*(11.5)*	*(11.0)*	*(10.3)*
Germany				
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	45.8	38.5	33.0
Seasonal workers	212.4	220.9	226.0	201.6
Trainees	5.1	4.3	3.2	3.1
Total	**332.6**	**272.5**	**271.2**	**237.6**
	(408.9)	*(262.5)*	*(285.4)*	*(275.5)*

	1992	1996	1997	1998
Japan				
Highly skilled workers	108.1	78.5	93.9	101.9
Korea				
Highly skilled workers	. .	36.7	42.2	32.2
Trainees	9.7	53.2	51.1	28.9
Total	**. .**	**90.0**	**93.3**	**61.2**
Switzerland				
Seasonal workers	126.1	62.7	46.7	39.6
Trainees	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
Total	**127.8**	**63.4**	**47.4**	**40.3**
	(39.7)	*(24.5)*	*(25.4)*	*(26.8)*
United Kingdom				
Highly skilled workers (long-term permits)[4]	12.7	16.9	18.7	. .
Short term permit holders	14.0	16.8	19.0	. .
Working Holiday Makers	24.0	33.0	33.3	40.8
Trainees	3.4	4.0	4.7	. .
Total	**54.1**	**70.7**	**75.7**	**90.5**
United States[5]				
Highly skilled workers				
Specialists (visa H-1B)	110.2	144.5	. .	. .
Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN)[6]	12.5	27.0	. .	. .
Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O)	0.5	7.2	. .	. .
Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	16.4	9.6	. .	. .
Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	3.4	3.0	. .	. .
Total	**143.0**	**191.2**	. .	. .
	(116.2)	*(117.5)*	*(90.6)*	*(77.5)*

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

1. The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. In 1992, data are offshore.
2. Total of persons issued employment authorisations to work in Canada temporarily excluding persons issued employment authorisations on humanitarian grounds. Persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit.
3. Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
4. Long-term permits (one year and over) are mostly accorded to specialists and senior managers.
5. The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). A person is counted as many times as he/she enters the country over the course of the same year. The data may well therefore be over-estimates.
6. The figures include family members.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales, *Annuaire des migrations 98;* Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: United States Department of Justice, *1996 Statistical Yearbook of Immigration and Naturalization Service*.

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Table I.8. **Participation rate and unemployment rate of nationals and foreigners[1] by sex in some OECD countries, 1998**

	Participation rate				Unemployment rate			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	79.8	84.3	62.4	63.4	4.8	10.3	5.3	8.9
Belgium	72.9	69.0	55.1	40.7	6.5	18.9	10.9	24.1
Denmark	84.1	69.4	76.0	51.6	3.8	7.3	6.1	16.0
Finland	76.0	81.0	70.2	57.8	12.7	36.0	13.3	43.7
France	75.0	76.1	62.5	49.0	9.6	22.0	13.5	26.8
Germany	79.4	77.3	63.4	48.7	8.5	17.3	10.1	15.9
Ireland	77.4	73.3	52.1	50.9	8.0	12.4	7.3	10.4
Italy	73.6	89.1	44.4	54.0	9.6	5.1	16.7	17.6
Luxembourg	74.6	78.3	43.9	53.5	1.5	2.6	2.8	6.0
Netherlands	83.2	66.5	63.5	40.8	3.1	11.6	5.6	14.1
Sweden	79.1	70.5	73.4	52.9	9.3	23.2	7.5	19.4
United Kingdom	83.0	78.1	67.4	56.1	6.8	10.7	5.2	9.4
Australia	74.8	70.8	57.1	48.7	8.3	8.6	6.9	8.2
Canada	73.8	68.4	60.2	52.9	10.3	9.9	9.5	11.6
United States	82.8	87.4	72.5	62.2	5.3	5.6	4.6	6.1

1. For Australia, Canada and the United States, data relate to foreign born population instead of foreigner and to born in the residence country instead of nationals.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Eurostat and Australian Bureau of Statistics (August 1998); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey 1998, US Bureau of the Census.

than compensated for by gains in the tertiary sector; this his true both of total employment and of the employment of foreigners. This latter observation does not apply however in Germany, France or in Sweden where the employment of foreigners is either stagnated of has fallen.

A sectoral analysis of recent trends in the employment of foreigners shows that whereas in industry and in services it has followed the same trend as total employment, in agriculture it has tended to increase (except in France and Ireland) at the same time as total employment in this sector has declined.

e) Foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals

In general, foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals. The sources of this greater vulnerability are multiple (see Table I.8). In almost all of the European Member countries of the OECD (except Italy and Spain), the extent of unemployment amongst foreign-born population is greater than the proportion of the labour force for which they account. Chart I.12 shows that it is in Denmark and the Netherlands that this discrepancy is the greatest, on average, three times more. The situation is also critical in Belgium and Sweden.

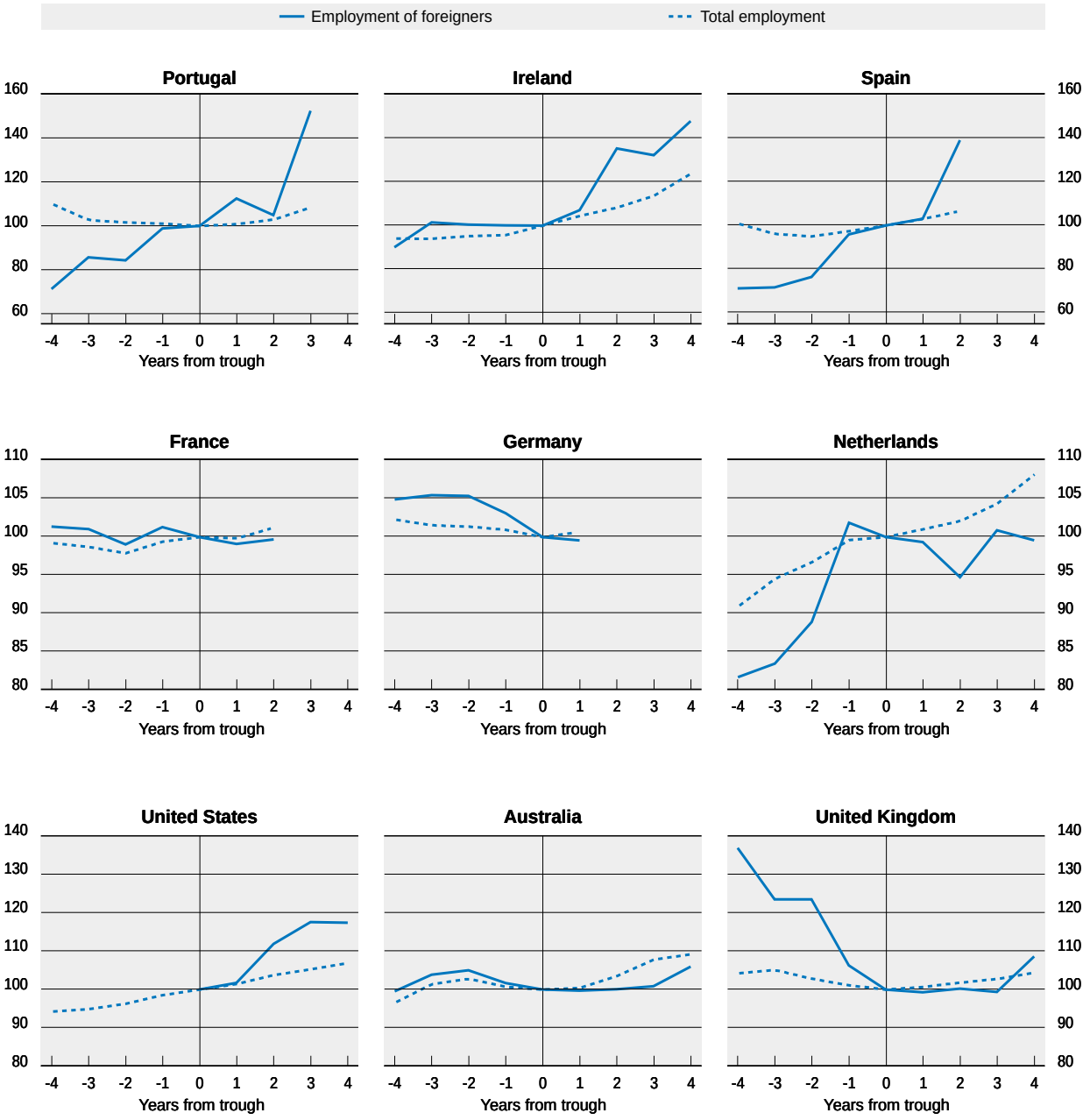
The rate of unemployment among foreign women is, in general, higher than that of their male counterparts; the exceptions are Austria, Germany, Sweden and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, the differential between the unemployment rate of foreign men and their native counterparts is greater than that between foreign and native women. Foreign-born men and women have a lower rate of unemployment than their foreign counterparts.

In the settlement countries (Australia, Canada and the United States), the discrepancy between the unemployment rates of those born inside and those born outside the country is considerably lower than that observed between foreigners and nationals in Europe.

The differences between the unemployment rates of foreigners and nationals and the fact that foreign nationals from different countries are typically not affected to the same degree, are due to a series of factors. These factors include, most notably, changes in economic performance and the nature of the posts occupied by the different ethnic groups, the demographic structure and the order of the various waves of migration into the host country. The profile of the immigrants has an important bearing on their degree of employability: variables such as age, gender, nationality, level of education, training and experience, mastery of the host country's language

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Chart I.10. **Changes in employment of foreigners and in total employment during economic recoveries**[1]
Index: trough = 100



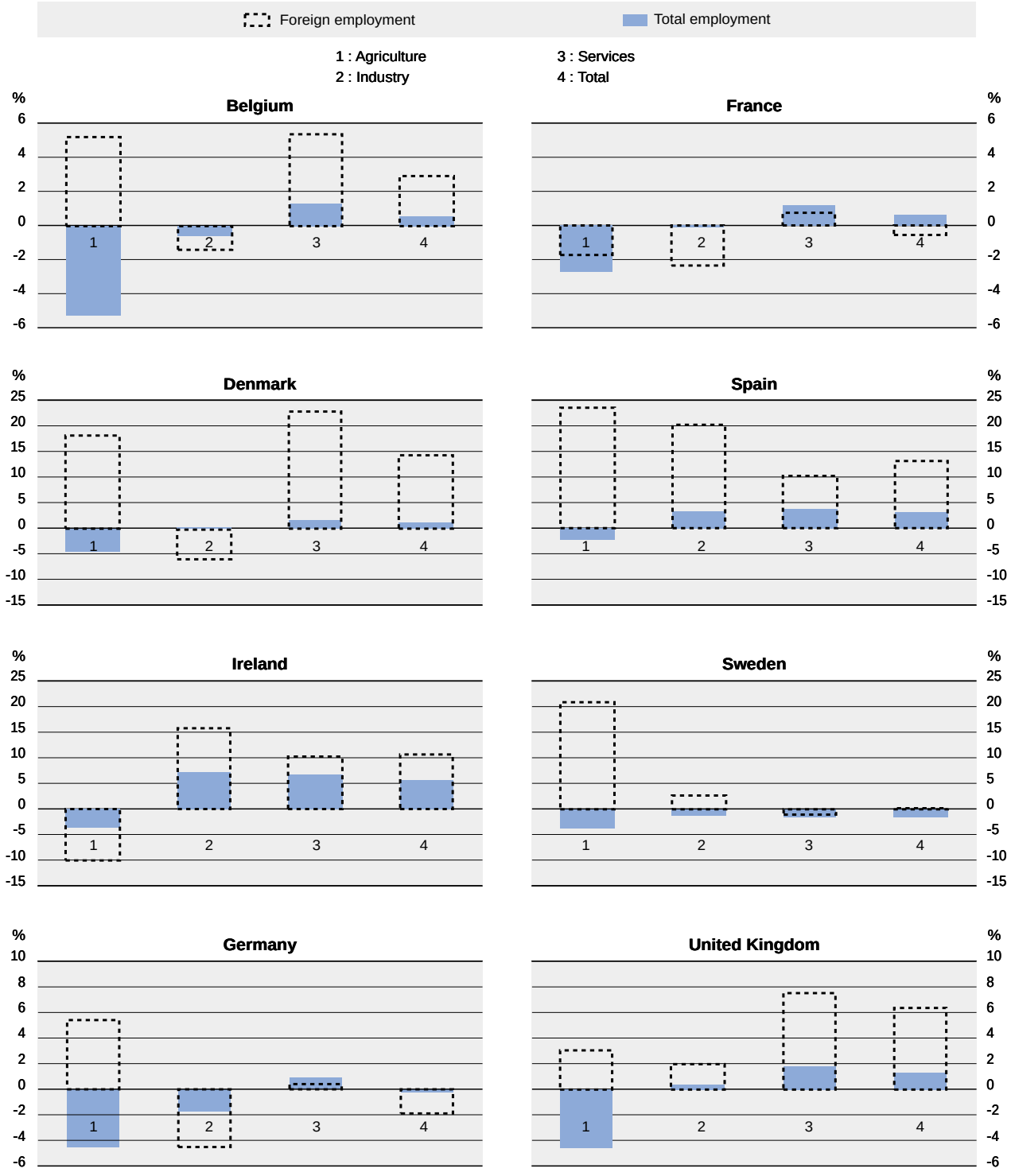
	Current recovery Trough
Australia	1992
France	1996
Germany	1997
Ireland	1994
Netherlands	1993
Portugal	1995
Spain	1996
United Kingdom	1993
United States	1995

1. The troughs in activity correspond to the greatest disparity between actual and potential GDP (output gap), according to OECD estimates (*OECD Economic Outlook,* No. 67, June 2000).

Sources: Labour Force Survey (Eurostat), Australian Bureau of Statistics and Current Population Survey (US Bureau of the Census) and *OECD Economic Outlook,* No. 67, June 2000.

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Chart I.11. **Foreign and total employment by major industry division, 1995-1998**
Average annual growth rate

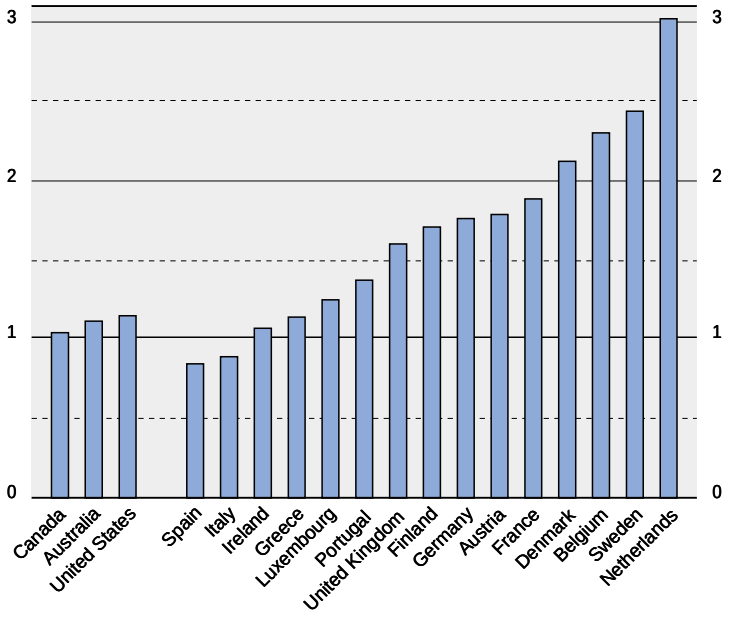


Source: Labour Force Surveys, Eurostat.

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Chart I.12. **Share of foreigners or the foreign-born in total unemployment relative to their share in the labour force**

1995-1998 average[1]



1. August 1999 for Australia, 1996 for Canada and March 1998 for the United States. For these three countries, data refer to the foreign-born. In all other countries, data refer to the foreign population.

Sources: For European Union countries: *Labour Force Survey,* Eurostat; Australia: *Labour Force Survey,* Australian Bureau of Statistics; Canada: 1996 Census data, Statistics Canada; United States: 1998 Current Population Survey, US Bureau of the Census.

and the length of stay in the host country play a non-negligible role among the factors which explain the degree of vulnerability to unemployment.

In a number of European OECD countries, foreign male labour, which is concentrated in sectors which are in decline or undergoing major restructuring (notably mining and manufacturing) or in activities particularly susceptible to swings in the business cycle, has been hard hit by the labour shedding of the 1980s and early 1990s. The foreign workers made redundant, often approaching retirement age and having undertaken over the course of their working lives a series of low-skilled manual jobs, have little likelihood of finding new employment.

The possibility that family members have, under certain conditions, of entering host country labour markets, means that some of them swell the numbers of new entries onto the labour market, and sometimes have difficulties in finding an initial job or re-entering the labour market. The recent arrival of large numbers of immigrants against a continued background, in many OECD countries, of unfavourable labour market conditions for unskilled workers has also contributed to the increase in unemployment among foreigners. Furthermore, those who have entered as refugees or as asylum seekers have, when they are permitted to work, considerable difficulties (notably linguistic) in some host countries in finding employment during the first years of their stay. This would explain the foreigners' high rates of unemployment in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, countries in which the annual flows of refugees and asylum seekers are relatively high compared with other categories of entrants. Indeed, in general, new arrivals frequently need to go through a period of adaptation prior to their successful entry into the host country's labour market, be it due to the need to attain a mastery of the language, understand the administrative formalities, become sufficiently aware of the particular modes of entry into the labour market (acquire job search techniques) or adapt to new working conditions. All of these factors play a decisive role in finding and retaining a job.

B. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN ASIA AND CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

In the four most recent editions of *Trends in International Migration* (OECD, 1995 to 1999), particular attention was accorded to the widening over recent years of the area of reference to be considered in

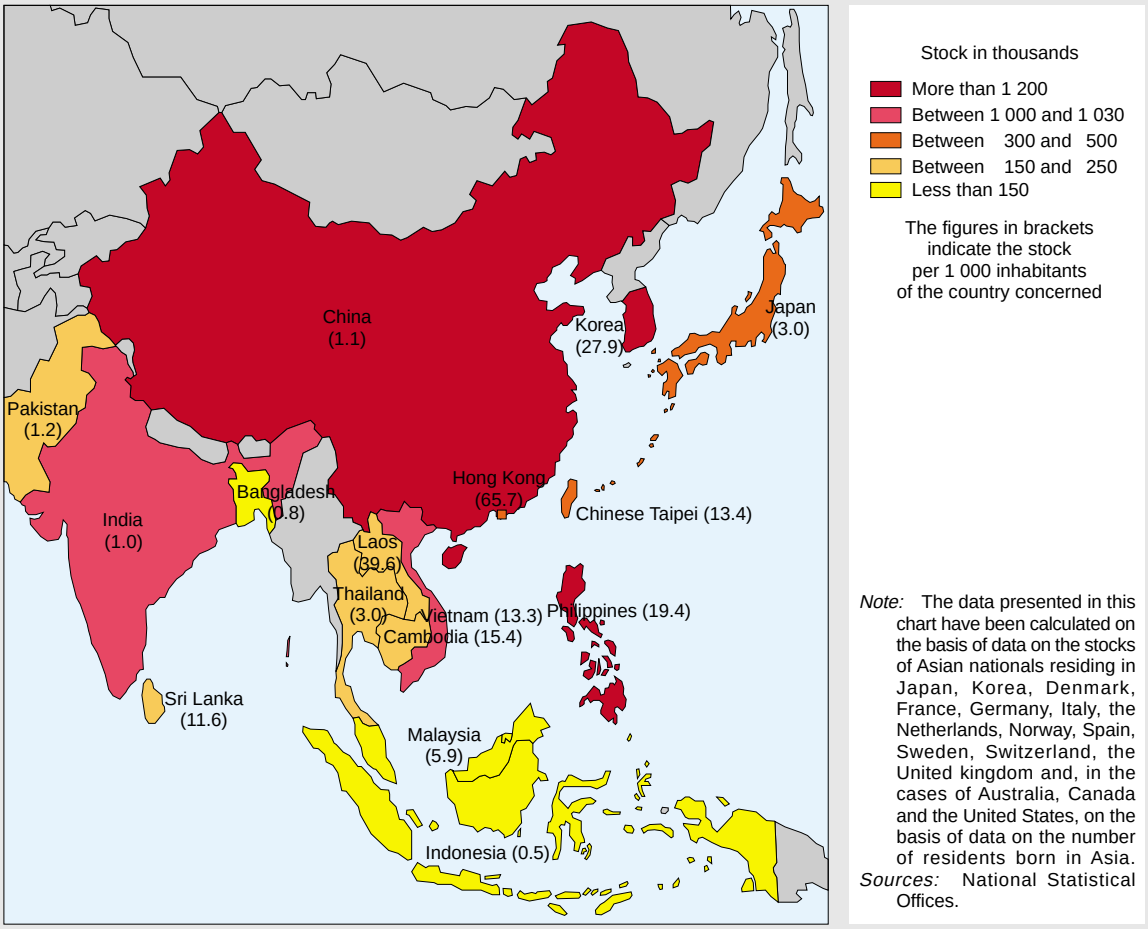
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analyses of migration movements and policies. Two regions in particular have contributed to this extension: Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Characterised by a diversification of the nationalities involved and the growing importance of flows between neighbouring countries sharing common historical, economic and cultural traditions, both regions are exemplars of the globalisation and regionalisation of migration movements – not only are Asia and Central and Eastern Europe zones of emigration, notably towards the countries of the OECD, they are also experiencing extensive intra-regional migration.

The 1999 edition had emphasised on migration flows of Asian origin to OECD countries (see Map I.3) and the impact of the financial crisis in Asia on migration movements between Asian countries. The flow evolution of Asian nationals to OECD countries, and the change in their size are presented in detail in part A of this report (see above). Particular attention is accorded this year to a review of the immigration flows of Asian provenance into the OECD area recent developments in migration policies and flows in East and South-East Asia (see below Sub-section B.1).[1]

Recent migration developments in Central and Eastern Europe display two clear trends, namely, a reversal in the net migration balance in certain countries such as the Czech Republic and Hungary (or, if not, at least the beginnings of foreign immigration) and the increasing importance of intra-regional movements. An important part of these movements concerns the migration of ethnic minorities. Since 1989, Central and Eastern Europe has constituted a new migration area, and an assessment of a

Map I.3. **Asia: main countries of origin of immigrants residing in OECD countries in 1998**



Note: The data presented in this chart have been calculated on the basis of data on the stocks of Asian nationals residing in Japan, Korea, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United kingdom and, in the cases of Australia, Canada and the United States, on the basis of data on the number of residents born in Asia.
Sources: National Statistical Offices.

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ten-year migration flow to European OECD countries, the United-States and Canada as well as an overview of intra-regional movements and their characteristics in Central and Eastern Europe are presented in this report (see Sub-section B.2).

1. Recent developments in migration policies and flows in East and South-east Asia

The recent Asian currency crises, which all the economies of the region either experienced directly or, due to the region's high degree of interdependency through trade and investment flows, suffered their consequences indirectly, have had pronounced impacts on the region's labour markets. In this subsection a brief review is presented of these economies' recent macroeconomic and labour market developments, the modifications made to migration policies in response to these developments and the resulting changes in the size and composition of foreign workforces and in labour migration flows.

It should be emphasised from the outset that whilst Korea and Japan provide the relevant data on labour market developments, stocks of foreign workers and labour migration flows, this is not the case for the other countries of the region. Across South-East Asia, the available data on labour market developments, in particular those on the employment of foreign workers, contain little detail. Data on stocks and flows of foreign workers typically suffer from the same deficiency and are in general incomplete. This is most notably the case of data on labour migration in Malaysia and Thailand which contain in absolute terms the largest populations of foreign workers. In these two countries, official guestimates of the number of illegal immigrants far exceed the recorded number of those in possession of a valid residence or work permit. This phenomenon is linked, *inter alia*, to the difficulties in operating effective border controls, financial and institutional disincentives on taking up documented employment, unawareness of and inefficiencies in the public overseas job placement systems as well as the activities of trafficking rings. Though incomplete, the available data are nevertheless sufficient to delineate with confidence the broad outlines of these countries' recent experiences.

a) Government policy and the employment of foreign workers prior to the crisis

In Korea and Japan, foreign workers accounted prior to the crisis for less than 1% of their 22 and 68 million labour forces. In both countries the immigration of unskilled workers is in principle prohibited. In Korea, the extent of documented labour immigration is effectively determined by the demand from employers. In Japan, by contrast, the issuance of permits is subject to the authorities' assessment of the labour market's needs. Although their geographical situation (and in the case of Korea, geopolitical situation) facilitates the combating of clandestine immigration, they are both host to relatively large numbers of visa overstayers. Irregular labour migrants, the overwhelming majority of whom are understood to be unskilled, were estimated to account for respectively 60% and 40% of the foreign workforce.

Hong Kong (China) and Singapore, though the sizes of their foreign workforces differed markedly at approximately 10 and 25% of their respective 3.2 and 1.9 million labour forces, had and retain in common a policy of permitting the entry of unskilled workers. Although the immigration of skilled workers is encouraged, these unskilled workers predominated: in the case of Singapore to the extent of 85%, over one half of whom are understood to be Malaysian; in Hong Kong (China) foreign domestic helpers, 85% of whom are from the Philippines, accounted for around half the total foreign workforce. Like Japan and Korea, they are well placed to curb clandestine immigration. Moreover, in the case of Singapore, there exist rigorously enforced internal controls. Official estimates of the numbers of undocumented migrants are not available for either of these countries; they are understood however to be relatively low.

In Malaysia, the foreign workforce was estimated prior to the crisis to account for slightly under one quarter of the country's nine million labour force. Due largely to the fact that even though they face considerable difficulties in effectively controlling the country's extensive frontiers the authorities have created significant institutional and financial disincentives on taking up documented status, one third of this foreign workforce was believed to be undocumented. Of the documented foreign workforce less than 5% were categorised as skilled. These workers, who are accorded a legal status of expatriate' granting them greater social rights than those accorded to their unskilled counterparts, work mostly as senior managers and executives for multinationals based in their country of origin, 40% of which were in the Philippines, Japan and India. Over half of the much greater bulk of unskilled labour were Indonesian; this reflects the restrictions on the

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nationality of labour migrants imposed by the Malaysian authorities[2] and the two countries' close social and cultural links and kinship ties. Bangladeshis accounted for approximately one quarter and Filipinos less than 10%. The Indonesians, corresponding to the results of a recent survey according to which less than 10% had passed beyond senior high school, were mainly employed in plantations and in construction. Filipinos, the majority female, were mostly employed in manufacturing and as domestic helpers. Of Thailand's seasonal average total workforce of approximately 31 million, documented foreign workers numbered less than 65 000 prior to the crisis. The most important source countries for these workers, the overwhelming majority of whom worked as key personnel for multinational companies based in their country of origin, were Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. For reasons similar to those which apply to Malaysia, undocumented workers were estimated to number approximately one million, almost twice the figure following the 1996 regularisation programme.

Prior to the crisis Indonesia was host to just under 50 000 registered foreign workers. Reflecting the relative importance of their countries as the sources of foreign direct investment, OECD Member country nationals accounted for approximately 90% of the total. Of these, one third were from Japan and Korea, their proportion having risen from 20% in 1993. In 1997 there were, according to the Ministry of Labour some 82 000 skilled foreigners working in China concentrated mainly in the fields of technology, management, education and culture. This figure does not fully take into account however the number working for foreign-funded enterprises the employment of whom is not subject to any numerical restriction. Given that foreign direct investments are accompanied by large inflows of foreign personnel, mainly technical professionals and managers, the figure of 82 000 will have been a significant underestimation. These professionals are believed to be well outnumbered by illegal workers from neighbouring countries, the overwhelming majority of whom are unskilled. It is understood that they are largely based in the border provinces.

b) Post-crisis economic and labour market performance

In respect of the crisis' initial impacts on economic growth and employment, the countries of the region can be divided into three groups. The first group, those most affected by the crisis, comprises Indonesia whose economy was the hardest hit, Korea, Malaysia and Thailand. The second group, rather less affected, comprises Hong Kong (China), Singapore and the Philippines. China and Japan are, in this respect, in a group apart. For the former, the importance of the Asian export market is relatively modest. The deepening of the recession in Japan occurred for reasons largely unconnected with the crisis.

The labour market impacts of the financial crisis were heavy. For those economies which were directly affected, within twelve months of the beginning of the crisis the median increase in unemployment as official estimated was almost 200%. Furthermore, given that of these economies only Korea provides laid-off workers with any unemployment benefits at all, and even there the coverage does not extend beyond certain categories and hence, family networks notwithstanding, there exists scant possibility of avoiding dire poverty if one is not employed then there must also have taken place substantial transfers of labour from the formal to the informal economy. Foreign workers were particularly vulnerable to displacement for the overall picture indicated by the crisis-affected economies' macroeconomic data was one of disproportionately greater sectoral contractions in those sectors, *inter alia* construction and manufacturing, employing the greatest weight of their labour.

The crisis-affected economies have pulled out of recession surprisingly quickly. The recoveries in Indonesia and the Philippines, the region's principal sources of migrant workers, cannot yet be considered as firmly established however, as doubts exist regarding the quality of their economic management, which have had led most notably to sharp falls in foreign direct investment inflows. The upturns have primarily been export-led and are attributable in large part to the continued robust growth in the United States. That the middle of 1999 saw the beginning of an economic turnaround in Japan was also of considerable importance in this regard. Just as their high degree of interdependency through trade and investment flows was the conduit of the crisis contagion, the improvements in economic performance have been mutually reinforcing. Thus far, the recoveries have been centred on the manufacturing sector; across the region, the health of the non-tradable goods sector, in particular construction, remains weak.

Despite the faster than expected turnarounds in economic performance unemployment rates, though in general declining, remain high against a background

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of continued sectoral contractions and large scale restructuring. In Thailand, where despite the urban-rural migration of an estimated one million people seasonally adjusted unemployment had risen almost threefold within twelve months of the start of the crisis to over 6%, the burden of which fell almost entirely on women, data from a variety of government and research-centre sources, though not agreeing on the absolute figure, all confirm that it has now just over 4%. In Malaysia where the authorities have attempted to limit the scale of redundancies by encouraging pay-cuts, reductions in working hours and temporary lay-offs, unemployment has now fallen back to 3%, only half a point more than prior to the crisis. Unemployment in Korea declined steadily during 1999. Nevertheless, although the January 2000 figure of 5.3% was a marked improvement on that of 12 months earlier it was still over twice as high as that prevailing prior to the crisis; this despite a sharp fall in the participation rate. The number of the long-term unemployed and of the working poor have increased in a context of growing labour market mismatch. The labour market situation in Indonesia is difficult to interpret due to the absence of data on the number of hours worked: although unemployment as officially estimated has fallen by nine points to approximately 6% of the estimated 95 million labour force, only one point higher than the figure prevailing prior to the crisis, under-employment could well be very high indeed.

In Singapore, Hong Kong (China) and the Philippines, though the initial impact of the regional crisis on their labour markets was much less severe than in their directly affected neighbours, the return towards pre-crisis levels of employment is still not established. In Singapore, although recorded redundancies over the first three quarters of 1999 were 40% less than over the corresponding period in 1998, the labour market has remained slack characterised by a marked degree of mismatch; technical skills are in particularly short supply. By the end of September 1999 unemployment had risen to 4% from the 3.6% recorded during the first two quarters and the less than 2% prevailing prior to the crisis. Hong Kong (China), where the significant loss of competitiveness due to the depreciation of the currencies of the other emerging markets has compounded the effects of the long-term de-industrialisation of its economy, experienced rising unemployment through to the end of 1999 bringing the rate to 6%, twice that prevailing prior to the crisis. Manufacturing is increasingly being relocated, especially to southern China. This has been leading to the displacement of blue-collar workers. Although the Philippines has been experiencing rising employment in the agriculture, fisheries and service sectors the increases have only just kept pace with the increase in the labour force which rose by over three quarters of a million to reach a seasonal average of 32 million in 1999. Unemployment remains stubbornly high therefore at rates which fluctuate between 8½ and 12% according to the season, approximately one point more than the rates prevailing before the crisis.

The regional crisis has had the effect of slowing China's growth to a rate even further below that required to create net employment growth. At the end of 1999 the effective unemployment rate (registered plus laid-off) stood at 9% of the estimated 750 million labour force. In Japan, the unemployment rate has started to decline having peaked in the summer of 1999 at 5.1%.

c) Initial migration policy response of receiving countries

For all the receiving countries, the essential focus of immigration policy in response to the crisis has been on limiting the extent of illegal immigration and on combating the employment of illegal foreign workers. In that the overwhelming majority of foreign workers in Thailand are undocumented, the adoption of such an approach by the Thai authorities bore marked similarities to that adopted in Malaysia which, excepting the Korean authorities' decision to impose a freeze on the quota of the small number of trainees, was the only country which actively sought to diminish the number of documented foreign workers. This policy direction contrasts sharply with that adopted by Singapore and Hong Kong (China) where the large-scale repatriation of foreign workers was not even contemplated.

The initial post-crisis line taken by the Malaysian authorities was comprised of two principal elements: on the one hand, border patrols (particularly sea) were stepped up and increased attention was paid to those aiding and abetting illegal entry and employment; on the other, it was decided to go no further than to maintain the freeze implemented earlier in 1997 on the new recruitment of semi-skilled or unskilled workers in sectors other than those which are export related or considered likely stimulate economic growth. In response to a marked deterioration in the labour market and mounting pressure from trade unions this element of the pol-

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icy line was hardened in January 1998: the annual employment levies to be paid by foreign workers were increased and renewals of temporary work passes in the service, manufacturing and construction sectors were frozen. Those affected by the freeze (380 000), which continued through to August, had the choice of either accepting redeployment in the agricultural sector or returning to their country of origin. When the freeze was lifted (accompanied by the issuance of a directive that if retrenchment is unavoidable, foreign workers should be laid-off first), the Ministry of Home Affairs announced that only 115 people had taken up the offer redeployment and just over 115 000 had chosen to leave. The remainder were assumed to have remained in Malaysia working illegally. This prompted the government to launch a voluntary repatriation programme complemented by an intensification of the efforts to locate and expel those illegal workers who remained. Faced however with a considerable mismatch between the aspirations of a sizeable proportion of the 5% unemployed and the vacancies available, in particular the unmet demand for workers to perform the more demanding and disagreeable jobs in the plantation, construction and services sectors the government had begun by the end of 1998 to backtrack on its more restrictive approach.

The Thai government tightened its border controls, adopted a policy of more strictly implementing the Immigration Law and announced that it would repatriate all illegal workers apprehended (though in those cases where this would not be possible provision was made for them to be allowed to work in the provinces bordering Burma, Laos and Cambodia, whence the majority of the undocumented foreign workers originate). Faced like Malaysia, however, with strong pressure from influential employers and employers' organisations, the government backtracked on this new approach in 1998 and elected to allow employers to hire illegal workers on one-year work permits obtainable for a fee of just under US 100 for vacancies which had been brought to the authorities' attention and remained unfilled on 6 October. Though registered they would not receive any legal status. What was effectively another regularisation programme would be followed by a further crack-down. The initiative met with a disappointing response: employers requested permits for only 10% of the estimated 900 000 illegal workers. This is explained on the one hand by the relatively high level of the fee required and on the other by the illegal workers' reluctance to manifest themselves in case a further deterioration in the labour market situation was met by a policy of repatriation. Just under one third of the accepted applications were in agriculture and the same in construction; fisheries and domestic assistance each accounted for a further 15%. As the one-year permits from the October-November 1998 quasi-regularisation approached their expiration the government decided, on the basis of an estimate of the demand for illegal workers in the most unpopular occupations conducted under the auspices of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, to grant an extension to just under 87 000 until 31 August 2000 upon payment of a fee of just over US$25 (a figure more in line with that which might otherwise be paid as a bribe to an immigration official or police officer).

Hong Kong (China) has made increased efforts to detect undocumented immigrants, as has Singapore which in addition raised considerably in 1998 the penalties for illegal immigration and employment and rendered company chiefs personally liable for the hiring of illegal immigrants. In Korea, a raft of policy initiatives were implemented including the raising of penalties on the employers of illegal immigrants and on illegal migrants themselves, complemented by the implementation of an amnesty programme and the offer of financial support to small and medium sized companies in the hope that increased capital investment would render employment in these companies more attractive to nationals.

d) Response of labour sending countries

In response to the deteriorations in the region's labour markets the Philippines government has sought, on the one hand, to facilitate the reintegration of overseas workers displaced as a result of the crisis and, on the other, aware that domestic economy's capacity to absorb them is very limited, to encourage job retention and to identify market niches where Filipino workers have a competitive edge, both within the region and outside, notably the OECD area.

Thailand too has been encouraging its nationals to seek employment abroad. In a clear departure from the pre-crisis situation when the government did not interfere in the market a government agency, in co-operation with commercial banks, is providing low interest loans to this end. Further-

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more, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare sought co-operation in 1998 from several countries to send at least 215 000 Thai workers overseas by the end of the year.

Malaysia can also be said to be promoting labour emigration, both documented and undocumented. Its citizens studying abroad on government scholarships are no longer compelled to come home to serve the government as required by their contracts. Moreover, mirroring the scant co-operation it has received regarding the repatriation of undocumented foreign workers, the ruling that Malaysians apprehended abroad for overstaying their visa should have their passports impounded by the immigration authorities on their return has been withdrawn.

e) Post-crisis trends in immigration flows and the employment of foreign workers

In Korea, registered foreign workers have clearly played a buffer role: the number of skilled foreign workers, having fallen by a quarter during 1998, increased by over 10% in 1999; following an almost 30% fall in 1998, the growth in the number of trainees in 1999 was such as to bring their number over the pre-crisis figure. On the other hand, the legislation and accompanying measures implemented to combat the employment of illegal migrant workers and encourage them to leave did not have any significant impact beyond the very short-term: although their numbers fell by one third during 1998, this decline was only marginally greater than that in the numbers of legally registered workers and trainees; in 1999, accompanying the appreciation of the won, their numbers increased by over 35% bringing the number back to within 10% of the pre-crisis figure. That the measures implemented in their regard had scant impact bears witness to, on the one hand, the existence of an effective floor on the number of undocumented foreign workers due to the establishment of firmly embedded social networks and, on the other, the difficulty in preventing visa holders from overstaying. It would appear that in spite of the relatively high level of official unemployment among the low-skilled and the generally weak insurance coverage there remains unsatisfied demand for low-wage workers prepared to perform the more disagreeable jobs.

In Malaysia, the number of registered foreign workers declined by an estimated 23% in 1998.[3, 4] Over the same period, the estimated number of illegal workers fell by less than 10%; this is despite an amnesty leading to the voluntary repatriation of the equivalent of 25% of the total estimated stock at the start of the year. It would appear that a significant proportion of those affected by the freeze on permit renewals opted to stay and work without papers; employers will doubtless have been keen to hire them in order to hold down costs in the face of increased competitive pressure. In 1999, the number of registered foreign workers was estimated at 898 000, a further decline of 20%. A 1999 estimate of the number of illegal workers is not available.

The Thai authorities had by November 1998 repatriated just under 290 000 illegal workers and presumed that there had taken place an additional net outflow of approximately 90 000, bringing the total number of non-registered illegal workers as estimated by the Ministry of Employment down to 610 000, a fall of 35% on the immediate pre-crisis figure of approximately one million. By contrast, the number of documented foreign workers increased by almost 10% in 1998 to just under 70 000, to which should be added the 90 000 illegal workers who were granted one year permits. By May 1999, a further 45 000 illegal workers had been repatriated. Excepting the 87 000 registered illegal workers, a 1999 figure for documented workers has not yet been made available.

Against a background of wage restraint coupled with a positive response to the authorities' exhortation that retrenchment decisions should be based primarily on productivity rather than nationality, the number of foreigners working in Singapore in 1998, 530 000, composed of 450 000 work permit holders (the bulk of whom unskilled) and 80 000 pass holders (who have tertiary or professional qualifications and earn over SGD 2 000 per month) corresponded to the level predicted in 1996 on the basis of the medium term trend observed at that time. Their number is understood to have not changed significantly in 1999. Whilst the data from the Singapore authorities and from sending countries points to only a slight and diminishing impact on those already working in the country, data from sending countries do indicate however a significant decline in new hires at the lower end of the skills range during 1998 and an acceleration of this decline in 1999. At 23 000, the number of overstayers caught in Singapore was the highest figure since 1990 and an increase of 64% on the 1997 figure. It is difficult to discern, however, whether this was due to increased illegal migration or was the fruit of the increased efforts at detection.

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In Hong Kong (China) too, the number of undocumented foreigners caught in 1998 was sharply up on 1997. For the same reason as in Singapore, it is not possible to positively interpret the figures with confidence. The issuance of employment visas, already less than 10 000 per year, had been declining since 1995, largely as a result of the downturn in the manufacturing sector; a further decline was recorded in the 1998/99 fiscal year. On the other hand, whilst contract terminations among the much larger number foreign domestic helpers have been rising, their total stock rose by 5.6% in 1998 indicating that those who have lost their post faced little difficulty in finding a fresh one. Data on the issuance of employment visas for domestic helpers do indicate however that more recently demand has been declining: having increased by 30% in FY 1997/98 to 46 800, the inflow persons on domestic helper visas declined by 17% in FY 1998/99.

Accompanying the further slackening of the Japanese labour market, the inflow of persons of Japanese descent, who enter without any restriction being placed on their employment, having almost doubled over the preceding two years, fell by almost 30% in 1998 to just under 46 500. That the inflow of those with restricted permission to work, all of whom are classified as skilled, rose by nearly 10% to 102 000 was largely attributable to the increase in the entries of entertainers who account for almost three quarters of the total inflow under this category. Following three years of at or above double-digit growth, the inflow of trainees rose by just 1% to slightly under 50 000. Together, these three categories of foreign worker numbered approximately 455 000 at the end of 1998, the same as at the end of 1997. The number of people detected as having entered without proper documentation, having risen by almost 50% in 1997, which quickly led the Japanese authorities to introduce additional amendments to the Immigration Act in order to further counter the criminal organisations involved in clandestine immigration, increased by just 5% in 1998, a rate which corresponds to the medium term trend observed prior to 1997. The number of persons deported fell by 2% in 1998, as did the total number of undocumented workers.

In 1997, as a result of the economic crisis, in particular the depreciation of the rupiah and the political uncertainty, the number of registered foreign workers in Indonesia declined by almost 30% to 35 200. In 1998, their number declined further, by 5% to 33 300. The fall in the number of supervisors was disproportionately the largest reflecting their greater degree of substitutability. Post-crisis data on the number of registered foreign workers in China are not available. Regarding those employed in foreign-funded enterprises, given that growth in their numbers is strongly linked to inflows of foreign direct investment, which fell substantially in 1998, it is unlikely that there has taken place any significant increase.

f) Post-crisis trends in labour emigration

Prior to the crisis there were an estimated 600-650 000 land-based Filipinos working abroad in Asia (along with an approximately equal number of illegal workers). In the first nine months of 1998 the outflow of newly hired Filipino workers declined by 10% on the corresponding period in 1997 to 175 000. The falls to all Asian countries except Japan just offset the increases to America, Africa and Europe. This initial downturn was greatest in Korea and Malaysia where fresh hires fell by over 50% and by almost 95% respectively. In the crisis affected economies contract renewals also fell significantly, by 19%, which substantial increases in Brunei and Chinese Taipei narrowly failed to offset. Male workers, the market for whose services is largely in activities which have been badly hit by the financial crisis such as production, construction and small-scale manufacturing, were more affected than female workers the demand for whom remained buoyant in such areas as domestic assistance in Hong Kong (China), office cleaning and caretaking in Chinese Taipei, and entertainment work in Japan. As the crisis affected economies began to pick up in 1999 so did their recruitment of Filipino workers. Although contract renewals within the Asian region (except in Japan) have continued to decline, the increase in new hires over the first nine months of 1999 as compared to the same period in 1998 was just under 10%: the increases in Japan (18%), Korea (60%) and Chinese Taipei (16%) were such as offset the continued declines to Brunei, Hong Kong (China) Malaysia and Singapore. The increasing female dominance of the labour migration flow, already apparent prior to the economic crisis, has continued: as new hires of female workers increased by over 16% in 1999 whilst that of men increased by only 0.1%, they accounted in 1999 for almost two thirds of the total outflow.

According to the Indonesian Ministry of Manpower, the number of Indonesians legally working abroad declined by 24% in 1998 to 380 000. This overall decline was composed on the one hand of a 222 000 (70%) fall in the number employed in Malaysia, which

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was host in 1997 to almost two thirds of Indonesia's documented labour emigrants, and on the other by an over 50% increase (to just under 180 000) in the number working in Saudi Arabia coupled with rises of a similar extent to Singapore and Chinese Taipei bringing their combined total to just under 60 000. In addition to this decline in the number of documented workers, approximately 160 000 undocumented migrants left Malaysia voluntarily during the September-November 1998 amnesty period (it is not known however what proportion of these had previously held work permits prior to the selective freeze on their issue). Accompanying this decline in the number of its nationals working in South-East Asia and the depreciations of their currencies, remittances from the Asia-Pacific region (not including the United States), having increased by almost 150% in 1997, declined by almost 10% in 1998 to just under US$750 million.

Supported by governmental efforts at securing co-operative arrangements with other countries, the documented labour emigration flow from Thailand increased by 5% in 1998 to 192 000: a 6 000 (6%) increase in the number going to Chinese Taipei (which accounted for almost two thirds of the overall total) and small increases in those going to OECD countries together more than offset a 3 340 fall in the number going to ASEAN countries who accounted in that year for just under one quarter of the total. The number fell back however during the first half of 1999, the total for the first six months being 16% less than for the corresponding period in 1998. It is expected, however, that as a result of the government's continued efforts to support labour emigration the end of year figure will have exceeded that of 1998.

The region's other important labour exporter, China, had a total of 334 000 of its nationals working abroad in 1997 under contracts overseen by the Chinese authorities, the sole legal form of labour export. Although over recent years approximately 70% of China's labour export has gone to other Asian countries, frequently for large-scale construction projects, the number of Chinese workers abroad is understood to have been broadly constant in 1998 due efforts to secure contracts in other sectors and countries.

g) Recent developments in migration policies

Though continuing to pay greater attention to illegal migration, the governments of the region are now reversing or relaxing the other measures implemented with regard to foreign workers in response to the crisis and are adjusting their migration policies towards achieving medium and longer-term objectives.

As the Malaysian economy began to pull out of recession in the middle of 1999, the Immigration Department, whilst retaining a nominal ban on the new recruitment of persons other than professionals and skilled workers, began to allow "selective recruitment" in "critical" sectors such as plantations, manufacturing and domestic services. The government also approved in January 2000 the recruitment of 20 000 foreign workers in the textile and restaurant sectors.

Combating illegal immigration and the employment of undocumented workers remains however a high priority. In May 1999, the Singapore Ministry of Manpower issued new work permit cards with enhanced security features in order to prevent their forgery. In August 1999, the Japanese parliament approved new measures to combat illegal immigration. In Malaysia, the Immigration Department has recently hired 300 new officers to detect overstayers and illegal workers. The Thai authorities announced that the end of the new quasi-regularisation period in November 1999 would be followed by greater efforts to apprehend illegal workers. The immigration police are attaching greatest priority to catching traffickers, followed by cross-border workers and then other illegal workers. Factory owners caught employing illegal workers will in the first instance be issued merely with a warning however. The authorities aim to keep the total number of illegal workers (registered and unregistered) below 200 000.

The focus of migration policy is now increasingly turning towards attracting highly skilled labour. That Singapore modified the regulations governing the issue of work permits and passes in September 1999 in order to facilitate the establishment of foreign technological entrepreneurs was in line with its previously established strategy for long-term growth viz. greater emphasis on high value-added manufacturing and on becoming the service hub for the region as well as with the government's stated aim of making the country "a centre of ideas, innovation and exchange". The Japanese government's decision in October 1999 to extend the duration of the initial visas accorded to all skilled workers with the exception of entertainers and to relax slightly the entry requirements for certain categories of skilled worker was similarly in line with a pre-established policy direction. The same is true of the Malaysian government's encouragement of the

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entry of professionals and skilled workers in order to encourage technology transfer. On the other hand, the Indonesian authorities' ratification in May 1999 of the ILO Convention 111 regarding non-discrimination in employment on the grounds, *inter alia*, of nationality, thereby abolishing in principle the list of occupations to which foreigners are barred (overwhelmingly those for which the government believes there to be a sufficient pool of nationals) was a clear departure from its previous policy.

The recent declines in both the outflow of migrant workers and in the renewal of existing contracts as well as the increased feminisation of the migrant workforce have brought up two key policy issues for the Philippine authorities which they are continuing to explore: the need to maximise and better channel remittances, and the need to further promote the use of Filipino labour by overseas companies whilst ensuring that they are not exploited. The achievement of this latter aim is impeded at present however by the presence in the region and elsewhere of other countries equally eager to promote labour export but less concerned with ensuring the respect and the extension of their nationals' employment rights in those recipient countries where employers and the authorities continue to resist improvements. In this regard, the Chinese authorities are drawing up "Regulations on the protection of the rights and interests of overseas workers" with the aim of guaranteeing their legal rights. They are also seeking to conclude bilateral agreements concerning social security coverage (most notably with Germany and Korea).

2. Trends in migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe

The political and economic changes as well as the manifestation of social and ethnic tensions which followed the opening of the borders in Central and Eastern Europe led to sizeable migration movements and to concerns regarding the possibility of large-scale population transfers. These concerns have not been realised. Although the emigration flows continue, notably towards Western Europe, it would appear that the migration flows within and from the Central and Eastern European countries (CEECs) are much more complex than a straightforward westward flow towards the European Union and North America.

Ten years after the opening of the borders, the return movements of persons with family links in their new host country persist in certain regions of the CEECs. To these are added the movements of those who seek to enter Western Europe but who, faced with the severely restrictive frontier controls, are often constrained to consider returning to their country of origin or, more often, reside clandestinely and in a more or less permanent manner in the country to which they have been readmitted. Moreover, whether it be in the heart of the zone or *vis-à-vis* the States which formerly comprised the Soviet Union, significant economic disequilibria give rise to movements of workers, legal or otherwise. Pendular, cross-border and temporary movements are just some of the forms that labour migration can take. Finally, we are witnessing the emergence of the stable settlement of foreigners though their proportion of the total population remains small in the countries examined here. Are the CEECs acting as a buffer zone between the European Union and the countries on their Eastern and Southern borders or do they constitute a real migration pole? Indeed, for some years now net migration has been positive in some countries of the region and the origin countries of the immigrants have been diversifying.

A panorama of migration trends in Central and Eastern Europe allows one to illustrate in the first section, the development of East-West migration flows towards Western Europe and North America. In the second section, an attempt is made at drawing up an inventory of the intra-regional flows as well as those originating from the countries lying to the East and South of the area.

a) Development of migration flows towards the European member countries of the OECD, the United States and Canada

East-West flows prior to the opening of the borders

The various changes to the frontiers as well as successive economic crises have given rise, since the end of the 19th century, to population movements towards Western Europe and North America. After the Second World War, emigration flows persisted (illegally) despite the very restrictive border controls. The 1980s were marked by a mass exodus of Poles (between 1980 and 1989, 300 000 obtained authorisation to emigrate), of whom almost 60% settled in Germany and 10% in the United States. In addition to this documented emigration, almost 500 000 are understood to have left the country clandestinely. A significant proportion of these were

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Aussiedler who sought recognition of their ethnic origin in Germany; another group claimed exile.

According to estimates by the Ministry of the Interior, 300 000 Romanians emigrated during the 1980s. Their destinations were less focussed on Germany than the Poles. In addition to Germany, the principal destinations were the United States, Hungary, Israel, Canada, Austria, Australia and France.

The Poles, followed by the Romanians, constitute the largest CEEC communities in Western Europe and North America. Germany and the United States are the principal host countries for communities originating from Central and Eastern Europe. The possibility of accessing social networks formed by pre-established emigrant communities explain in part the direction, nature and size of the post-1989 East-West flows.

Intensification of the flows towards Western Europe following the opening of the borders

Shortly after the opening of the borders, East-West migration flows motivated by economic, political or ethnic reasons intensified (see Map I.4). Flows of people belonging to minority ethnic groups towards Western Europe were extremely large during the period 1989-1990. These flows were directed to a small number of countries (mainly Germany, Turkey and Finland) and declined rapidly. In 1989 and 1990, Germany took in a total of approximately 620 000 *Aussiedler*, who originated mostly from the former Soviet Union, Poland and Romania (see Table I.9). This huge flow was encouraged by the legal guarantees regarding ethnic Germans contained within the German constitution. To a lesser extent, other countries have also accepted immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe: Finland has experienced return movements of persons of Finnish origin from the former Soviet Union and the Baltic States. In 1989, over 300 000 Bulgarians of Turkish origin emigrated, for the most part to Turkey.

Compared with the flow of persons able to provide proof of family links with a Western European country, the other East-West documented migration flows have been relatively small and, once again, have been centred on Germany. The flows of asylum seekers have not been insignificant however. Between 1989 and 1998, in Germany, France and Spain Romanian citizens made approximately 272 000, 32 000 and 10 000 asylum applications respectively. During the same period, Germany and the Czech Republic recorded 81 000 and 5 000 applications respectively from Bulgarian citizens. Applications for asylum from citizens of the former Soviet Union and the former Yugoslavia have also been numerous; these applications have been spread across a wide range of countries.

Except in Germany, the employment of CEEC nationals in OECD Member countries did not increase significantly. However, it should be noted that large numbers of immigrants attempted to illegally cross the borders with the aim of reaching Western Europe. This applies in particular to Romanians and to Balkan Gypsies, most of whom sought to reach Germany and Sweden, as well as to Turkish refugees who tried to enter Germany via the former Czechoslovakia. Poland and the former Czechoslovakia have had to accept the responsibility for readmitting those apprehended attempting to clandestinely cross their borders, principally those with Germany.

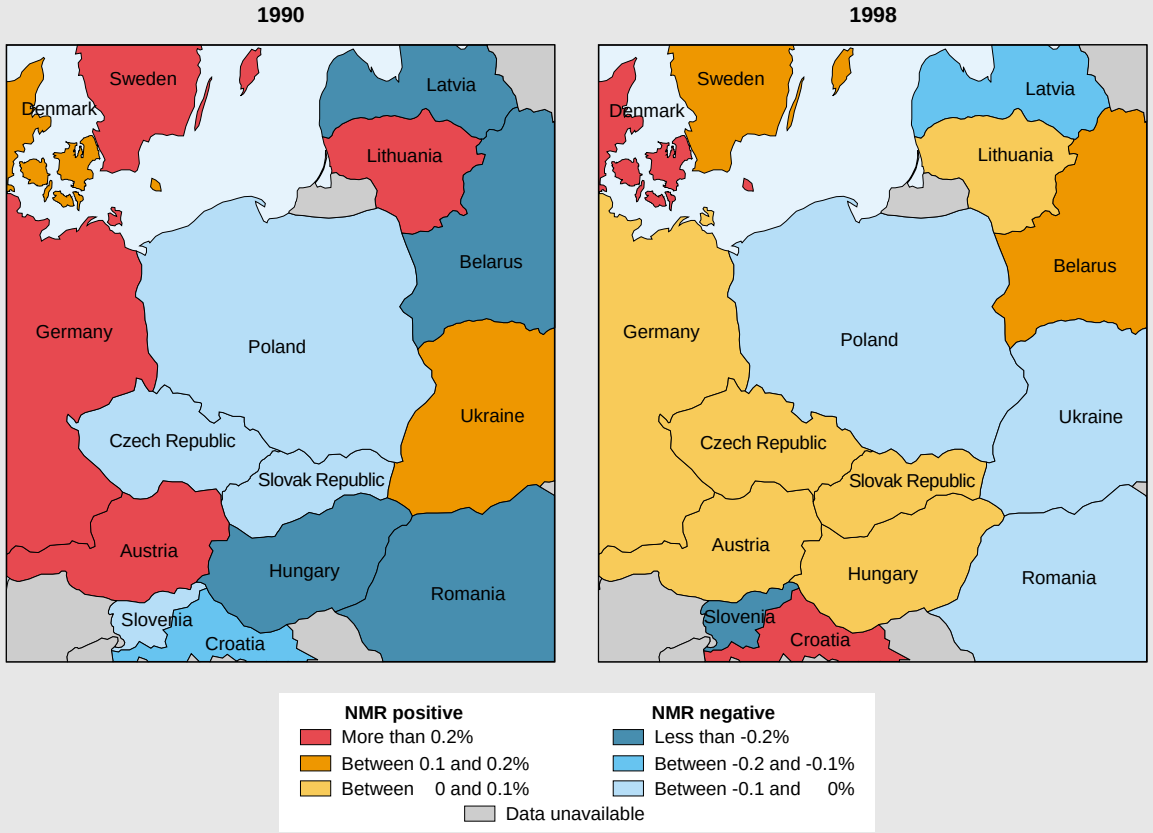
Development of temporary labour emigration

The East-West migration flows which followed the opening of the CEECs' borders were focussed largely on Germany and began to decline from the beginning of the 1990s. Very rapidly, due largely to the restrictive policies implemented in the principal host countries, the emigration of CEEC nationals took on a temporary nature. Certainly, westward emigration flows, particularly those to Germany, are far from being negligible but they have diminished considerably since 1993. They are mostly of temporary workers. Their circulation is facilitated by the fact that the majority of OECD Member countries do not require an entry visa for the citizens of certain CEECs who wish to stay for less than three months.

As a proportion of total inflows, entries of Polish immigrants have decreased since 1991 in Denmark, France, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden. In Germany, since 1993 the net migration flow of Romanian nationals has been very low, indeed occasionally negative (see Statistical Annex, Table B.1.3 regarding Germany). The emigration to Turkey of Bulgarians of Turkish origin has displayed a similar downward trend since 1993. More generally, the movements of Bulgarian citizens towards Western Europe continue to diminish, with the exception of emigration to Austria which remains one of Bulgaria's most important economic and trading partners. It appears that the nature of emigration flows has altered, being characterised now principally by short and frequent movements.

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Map I.4. **Net migration rate (NMR) in Central Europe and bordering countries, 1990 and 1998**
Percentage of the total population



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

Table I.9. **Inflows of ethnic Germans by country of origin to Germany, 1950-1998**
Thousands

	Total	*Of which:*				
		Former USSR	Romania	Poland	Former CSFR	Others
1950-1965	551.6	18.9	15.4	356.7	31.1	129.6
1966-1980	516.0	66.8	91.5	275.5	59.5	22.7
1981-1989	932.0	169.6	135.4	606.2	11.0	9.9
1990-1995	1 509.0	1 120.8	178.4	201.3	3.4	5.1
1996	177.8	172.2	4.3	1.2	–	0.1
1997	134.4	131.9	1.8	0.7	–	0.1
1998	103.1	101.6	1.0	0.5	–	–
Cumulated total	3 924.0	1 781.7	427.8	1 442.0	105.0	167.4

Source: Ministry of the Interior.

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The number of refugees and asylum seekers originating from the CEECs has also declined. Indeed, the OECD Member countries now consider all of the CEECs as "safe" countries, the citizens of which are not eligible, in principle, to lodge asylum requests. Moreover, the introduction in several European OECD countries from 1992 onwards of visa regimes for the citizens of the former Yugoslavia led to a reduction in the number of people obtaining refugee status originating from that region. It should be noted, however, that this reduction was offset to some extent by an increase in the number of those granted temporary resident status on humanitarian grounds, notably from Kosovo in 1997 and 1998.

Whereas permanent emigration to OECD countries is declining, the temporary migration of workers is developing both from East to West and between the CEECs themselves. On the providers' side, the Poles are the most involved, working principally in Germany and Austria, but also in France, the Czech Republic and Sweden. In Germany, in 1998, the majority of Poles in temporary employment did so under inter-governmental agreements for seasonal work and subcontracted employment (see Tables I.10 and I.11). In Austria, in the same year, nationals of the former Czech and Slovak Federal Republic were the most numerous of the holders of short term or limited duration (two year) permits, followed by Poles, Romanians and Hungarians. CEEC nationals there account for approximately one in five of the foreign nationals in possession of a short-term work permit, but barely one in ten of those with a permanent permit.

In other terms, the East-West migration flows correspond now to a process of regional integration limited to border regions and regulated by bilateral agreements (principally between Germany and Poland, as well as those that Austria has signed with Hungary and the Slovak Republic).

Presence of CEEC nationals in the member countries of the OECD

Today, the majority of the OECD Member countries have in their population a significant number of immigrants from the CEECs and the countries to their South and East. In Australia, Canada and the United States the statistics concern those born abroad. In Australia, citizens of the former Yugoslavia followed by those from Poland are the most numerous. In the United States, the Poles are just outnumbered by citizens of the former Soviet Union; in Canada, by contrast, the latter outnumber the former by almost two to one (see Table I.12).

Of the European member countries of the OECD, Germany is the principal host country for citizens of the CEECs and the former Soviet Union. Austria is host primarily to Romanians and Poles as well as smaller numbers of people originating from the former Czech and Slovak Federal Republic and Hungary. That said, in the case of Germany and

Table I.10. **Contract workers employed in Germany by nationality, 1993-1998**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Poland	19.8	13.8	24.5	24.4	21.1	16.9
Hungary	14.4	8.9	9.2	9.0	5.8	5.0
Croatia	4.8	5.3	4.5	4.4	3.6	2.8
Romania	13.5	2.2	0.3	–	1.0	2.6
Turkey	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.1
Czech Republic	. .	1.7	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.1
Slovak Republic	. .	1.4	2.0	1.3	1.2	0.9
Bulgaria	3.8	2.4	1.9	1.0	1.2	0.7
Bosnia Herzegovina	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.7
Slovenia	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.7
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.2
Latvia	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2
Former CSFR	4.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	2.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	1.4	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Total	**70.1**	**41.2**	**49.4**	**45.8**	**38.5**	**33.0**

Source: Ministry of the Interior.

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Table I.11. **Seasonal workers employed in Germany by nationality, 1992-1998**
Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Poland	136.9	143.9	136.7	170.6	196.3	202.2	182.0
Romania	2.9	3.9	2.3	3.9	5.0	5.0	5.6
Slovak Republic	–	7.8	3.9	5.4	6.3	6.4	4.9
Croatia	37.4	7.0	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.8	3.9
Hungary	7.2	5.3	2.5	2.8	3.5	3.6	2.8
Czech Republic	28.0	12.0	3.5	3.7	3.4	2.3	1.8
Slovenia	–	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3
Bulgaria	–	0.7	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	**212.4**	**181.7**	**155.8**	**192.8**	**220.9**	**226.0**	**201.6**

Source: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.

likewise that of Austria, as a result of more recent large-scale migration flows, citizens of the former Yugoslavia are much more numerous than CEEC citizens both in their contribution to the total foreign population and to the labour force. Citizens of the former Yugoslavia are the most numerous in Germany which is followed, with much smaller numbers, by Switzerland and Austria.

In France, of the foreign residents originally from Eastern Europe those from the former Yugoslavia and Poland (respectively 53 000 and 47 000 according to the 1990 Census) are the most numerous. In Italy, Albanians predominate followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia, Romanians and Poles. In Sweden and the Netherlands, after nationals of the former Yugoslavia it is the Poles. In Finland, where nationals of the former Soviet Union predominate, the numbers of those originating from the CEECs and the former Yugoslavia are very low. Excepting those in the United States, the largest Polish and Romanian expatriate communities are located in Germany (283 000 and 100 000 persons respectively).

b) Intra-regional movements in Central and Eastern Europe since the opening of the borders

Due to the heterogeneity of their situations and the lack of reliable data, it is at present difficult to provide an overall view of the intra-regional migration flows or those involving the countries of the former Soviet Union and the former Yugoslavia. Indeed, whilst the pre-1989 situation was relatively homogeneous and was essentially characterised by a virtual absence of movement within the area, the picture today is altogether more complex. In certain countries both emigration and immigration flows are of a considerable scale. In others (most notably the Czech Republic), the emigration flow is much reduced and immigration flows are significant. Finally, some are still essentially emigration countries (see Map I.4).

Certain trends seem to be common across the whole of the area: in particular, they are all experiencing the phenomenon of transit migration towards the countries of Western Europe and the accompanying clandestine employment which is frequently the means by which these migrants survive. This phenomenon is increasingly obliging the CEECs to implement policies designed to control these flows, most commonly within the framework of regional co-operation, including with OECD Member countries. The population movements resulting from the dissolution of the Soviet Bloc and the conflicts in the Balkans as well as the flows of ethnic minorities are also common concerns of all of these countries.

The CEECs are experiencing other types of flow to varying extents. These flows principally concern documented workers, most commonly employed temporarily. Indeed, short-distance inter-regional movements, facilitated by the fact that visas are typically not required for CEEC nationals, appear to be an key component of labour migration flows. Further, the whole of the region appears to experiencing to varying degrees the development of permanent immigration.

Reduction in permanent emigration flows

Permanent emigration flows, largely underestimated in the data sets derived from population registers and insufficiently accounted for in records of cross-border movements, are tending to decline in most of the emigration areas. The principal departure areas in the region are the former Soviet

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Table I.12.

A. Nationals of Central and Eastern European countries residing in some European OECD countries, latest available year

Thousands

	Austria 1991	Belgium 1998	Czech Republic 1998	Denmark 1997	Finland 1998	France 1990
Bulgaria	3.6	0.8	6.0	. .	. .	0.8
Former CSFR[1]	11.3	0.8	49.6	. .	. .	2.0
Hungary	10.6	1.0	. .	. .	0.5	2.9
Poland	18.3	6.3	22.2	5.5	0.7	46.3
Romania	18.5	2.1	2.7	1.1	. .	5.7
Former USSR[2]	2.1	2.2	66.6	3.0	20.5	4.3
Former Yugoslavia	197.9	6.0	6.0	33.9	4.4	52.5
Total foreigners	**517.7**	**892.0**	**219.8**	**249.6**	**85.1**	**3 596.6**
Countries mentioned above (as a % of total foreigners)	*50.7*	*2.2*	*69.6*	*17.4*	*30.7*	*3.2*

	Germany 1998	Hungary 1997	Italy 1998	Netherlands 1997	Sweden 1998	Switzerland 1998
Bulgaria	31.6	1.7	. .	0.5	. .	. .
Former CSFR[1]	24.5	3.7	. .	0.5	. .	4.5
Hungary	51.9	–	. .	1.3	3.0	3.4
Poland	283.6	4.5	28.2	5.7	15.9	4.0
Romania	89.8	57.4	37.1	1.1	3.1	. .
Former USSR	50.4	17.0	3.7	5.2	. .	. .
Former Yugoslavia	719.5	16.0	85.9	28.4	26.0	321.1
Total foreigners	**7 319.6**	**143.8**	**1 250.2**	**678.1**	**500.0**	**1 347.9**
Countries mentioned above (as a % of total foreigners)	*17.1*	*69.7*	*12.4*	*6.3*	*9.6*	*24.7*

B. Immigrants born in Central and Eastern European countries residing in selected OECD countries, latest available year

Thousands

	Australia 1996	Canada 1996	Denmark[3] 1998	Netherlands 1998	Sweden 1998	United States 1990
Former CSFR	. .	41.2	. .	. .	. .	87.0
Hungary	. .	54.2	1.4	. .	14.4	110.3
Poland	65.1	193.4	10.2	15.9	39.7	388.3
Romania	. .	. .	1.4	. .	11.5	91.1
Former USSR[4]	49.8	106.4	4.4	13.7	4.6	389.9
Former Yugoslavia	118.5	122.0	32.2	47.5	120.9	141.5
Total of foreign-born	**3 908.3**	**4 971.1**	**287.7**	**1 513.9**	**968.7**	**19 767.3**
Countries mentioned above (as a % of total foreign-born)	*6.0*	*10.4*	*17.3*	*5.1*	*19.7*	*6.1*

1. This refers to the citizens of the Slovak Republic for the Czech Republic and Hungary.
2. Russian Federation for Finland.
3. Person born abroad by parents who have either foreign citizenship or are also born abroad.
4. Including Baltic States for Australia; Russian Federation for Sweden.

Sources: Census for Austria, France, Australia, Canada and the United States, residence permits for Italy and population registers for the other countries.

Union (notably Ukraine and Belarus), Romania, Poland and Bulgaria to which should be added the former Yugoslavia (the number of refugees from the former Yugoslavia, notably Bosnians and Kosovars, present in the CEECs is relatively high) and the Baltic States.

Bulgaria has not experienced any new wave of emigration since the massive outflow of the years 1989-90. Since 1995, emigration, as measured by recorded border crossings has continually declined due in particular to the reduction in flows to Romania. On the other hand, flows to the Czech Republic and Hungary have increased slightly. Emigration to Turkey has become somewhat dependent on Turkish migration policy. Recently, the Turkish Parliament decided to prolong the validity of temporary passports for foreign citizens of Turkish ori-

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gin; this could improve the status of a large number of migrants from Bulgaria.

In Poland, emigration flows, motivated according to the period by economic or political factors, have always been high. Political repression and the economic difficulties of the 1980s led to huge emigration flows which were clearly not fully accounted for in the official estimates derived from population registers. The opening of the borders in 1990 did not lead to migration flows any greater than before. From 1991 to 1995, 112 600 officially left the country permanently as compared with approximately 150 000 during the period 1986-90. Since 1996, the annual permanent emigration flow has stabilised at around 20 000, a level comparable with that at the beginning of the 1990s. In a context of continual decline in the rate of the population's natural increase, the persistence of permanent emigration deserves to be highlighted.

Finally, the total number of "permanent" Romanian emigrants has continually declined over recent years. The figure for 1998 was 17 500, that is to say less than one fifth of the 1990 figure.

Reduction in return migration and in the migration flows of ethnic minorities

As in the case of East-West migration flows, those within the CEECs induced by the opening of the borders were initially essentially comprised of persons with family links with the host country as well as members of ethnic minorities, largely Hungarian (originating from Romania and the Slovak Republic), Polish (from Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Siberia) and Bulgarian (from the former Soviet Union).

In the Czech Republic, the opening of the borders led at the beginning of the 1990s to a sizeable flow of immigrants returning from Western Europe able to prove their Czech origin. The division of the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic then led to immigration flows from the new Slovak Republic. Some of the people who moved have since taken Czech nationality; dual nationality is not recognised.

Return migration, which is encouraged by the Romanian authorities, has increased significantly, involving 11 000 people in 1998. It is noteworthy that the proportions of those aged between 18 and 40 and those originating from the Republic of Moldova have increased markedly. Further, the number of people of Romanian origin expelled in 1998 amounted to 21 600. Almost one third were expelled from Hungary (this proportion has been increasing continually since 1993) and over a quarter from Germany.

There are sizeable numbers of Gypsies in a large number of the CEECs, in particular in Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic. Migration flows of Gypsies to the countries of Western Europe and within the CEECs have declined considerably. Many have settled down and a number of countries are undertaking active economic and social integration policies in their regard. Despite the implementation of assimilationist policies, sometimes undertaken in an authoritarian manner in certain of the CEECs, the gypsies are very often marginalised and their living conditions are frequently deplorable. In Bulgaria, for example, the numerous gypsy communities which are spread across the whole of the country are often located on the edges of towns and villages with wholly unsatisfactory sanitation. In Hungary, the Gypsies are concentrated in the centre and the East of the country and account for approximately 4% of the total population. They comprise the second largest minority in Romania, after the ethnic Hungarians. Although there are sizeable communities around Bucharest, they are otherwise widely spread across the whole of the country forming very diversified communities, occasionally well integrated in rural areas. In the Czech Republic, the gypsies are mostly concentrated in urban areas under precarious conditions. In the Slovak Republic, they live mostly in the East of the country.

In the majority of cases, the Gypsies have on average a level of education much lower than that of the rest of the population and are more vulnerable to unemployment. Moreover, a degree of rejection by the rest of the population and the problems of delinquency render the success of active policies targeted towards this group much more difficult. A report pointing to the difficulties encountered by Gypsies and proposing appropriate solutions was submitted to the Czech government in October 1997. This report highlighted the need to implement urgently education and labour market integration policies for the Gypsy minority. Classes will be organised and supplementary resources will be allocated to Gypsy children who are having difficulty at school. Measures are to be taken to prevent employers from discriminating against workers of Gypsy origin.

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Persistence of transit migration

For many migrants seeking to illegally enter Western Europe or North America, the CEECs constitute a stage on their journey. Most of these migrants are documented, having entered as tourists or as businessmen or students. Others prolong their stay beyond the duration of their visa. Due to their common border with Germany, the countries most affected by this are Poland and the Czech Republic. Bulgaria and Hungary are also transit countries, in their cases for migrants seeking to enter Greece and Austria respectively. However, since the strengthening of the border controls between Austria and Hungary, transit migrants passing through Hungary are tending now to pass through the more permeable Slovak Republic border in the hope of reaching Germany. Transit migration also concerns the Baltic States. Nationals of the former Soviet Union (the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Belarus) as well as Middle eastern countries pas through these countries with the aim of reaching the Nordic countries, in particular Sweden.

In 1998, the number of persons apprehended at the borders of the Czech Republic increased considerably, due largely to the ethnic conflict in Kosovo. As in the past, most of the apprehensions took place on the border with Germany. The increasing number of apprehensions at the Slovak Republic's borders point to a recent upturn in clandestine transit migration. The majority of the migrants caught attempting to enter the country are apprehended at the borders with Hungary and Ukraine. Those attempting to leave are mostly caught at the borders with the Czech Republic, Austria and Poland. This imbalance allows one to trace the East-West journey of transit migrants seeking to reach Western Europe.

Transit migration is favouring the development of illegal immigration and undocumented employment in many of the CEECs. The migrants come from neighbouring countries such as Turkey, Albania or the former Yugoslavia but also from Bangladesh, India and Iran. The undocumented employment of immigrants in an irregular situation tends to be the most prevalent in those countries with an already flourishing informal economy.

Only a fraction of the transit migrants succeed in reaching the West (principally Germany, Austria, the Nordic countries and, to a lesser extent, Switzerland and Italy); others remain in the transit country or return to their country of origin. This circular migration, as well as contributing to the development of irregular migration and to undocumented employment, also gives rise to commercial activity and to regional trade. The CEECs, confronted with immigration in all its forms are increasingly seeking to adopt policies designed to better control the flows and are progressively instituting restrictive visa policies with regard to certain emigration countries. Various forms of co-operation have been implemented with OECD Member countries in order to elaborate such policies; the CEECs are also beginning to co-operate between themselves in order to frame the rules governing the movement of persons within an enlarged European migration area.

Temporary labour migration

– Trends in labour migration flows

The existence of free-trade areas has an important effect on emigration. The data available show a slight increase in labour migration due to the implementation in the Member States of the Central European Free Trade Area (CEFTA),[5] since economic co-operation between countries in transition favours such migration.

Given the importance of employment in the informal sector, which involves not only foreigners but also the wider population, it is difficult to discern the precise extent and nature of foreigners' employment. That said, the available information points to a significant increase in the temporary employment of foreign labour.

In Hungary, after the fall recorded in 1996 (which was largely due to a change in the regulations) the number of newly issued work permits has continued to rise: from 14 000 in 1996 to 19 700 in 1997 and to 22 500 in 1998. Approximately 9 000 residence permits were granted for practising gainful activities for which a work permit is not required. The number of settled immigrants and refugees who can take employment without further permission was 61 000 in 1998. On the basis of these figures, the number of registered foreigners legally present on the Hungarian labour market can be estimated at 90-95 000. In Poland, the increase in the number of work permits issued has been significant though it is in part explicable by the abolition of business visas which in certain cases substituted for work permits. Between 1997 and 1998 the number of permits issued passed from 17 500 to 20 800.

In the Czech Republic, after peaking in 1995-96, the temporary immigration of foreign workers has

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declined continually due to the deterioration in the labour market situation. The number of work permit holders diminished therefore by 25% between 1996 and 1998. This decline has largely affected Ukrainian workers, who comprise the largest group of foreign workers and who are mainly employed in low skilled jobs in the construction sector and in manufacturing. There is, moreover, the possibility that restrictions will be imposed on Slovak workers who, under an agreement concluded in 1992 between the Czech and Slovak Republics, are allowed free access to the Czech labour market. Immigration by Slovak workers is long-established and is largely motivated by economic factors (wage and unemployment rate disparities). Slovak manpower, which is distributed throughout the economy, sometimes meets a need for special skills not to be found in the Czech Republic.

– Origins of foreign labour

The available statistics on the numbers of foreign workers show that in the Czech Republic, in addition to the Slovak workers who are permitted free access to the labour market, there are sizeable numbers of Ukrainians and Poles (in 1997 approximately 70 000 Slovaks had a job and a further 61 000 foreigners held a work permit). In Hungary, work permits are generally granted for those sectors experiencing labour shortages or to persons with particular expertise or specific experience. The breakdown by nationality of the foreign workers possessing work permits has changed little over the last three years. Almost half (47%) are Romanian, 13% come from the States which formerly comprised the Soviet Union (in particular Ukraine); Poland, the former Yugoslavia, China and Mongolia each account for approximately 4-5%. Almost 16% of the permit holders come from the more economically developed countries of Europe and overseas. A rather large group of foreigners working in Hungary is comprised of senior managers of foreign companies, who, in virtue of the current legislation are not required to apply for a work permit.

In Poland, work permit holders are of diverse origins and occupy for the most part skilled posts. Approximately 40% of new work permit holders are employed in retailing and catering (this proportion has been increasing due to the withdrawal of business visas), one fifth are employed in the transport sector and one tenth in education. Ukrainians hold almost 15% of all the permits; Vietnamese 12%; Belarussian, British, Russian and German nationals each account for between 6 and 8%. Over half reside in the Warsaw region. Certain national groups predominate in some sectors: Chinese and Vietnamese in retailing; British, Ukrainians and Germans in education: by contrast, the breakdown by nationality is widely spread in industry and the transport sector.

– Irregular employment and employment regulations

The political and economic reforms undertaken in Poland and in other CEECs have had the effect of changing the nature of Polish labour emigration. In particular, numerous bilateral agreements have been signed with nearby countries including Germany (the principal host country for Polish workers), the Czech and Slovak Republics, Ukraine, Russia, Belarus, Lithuania as well as with France, Switzerland and Belgium. These agreements define the conditions under which workers can be accepted. Germany, for example, restricts labour immigration to contracts of fixed duration which are frequently subject to a labour market test.

The Czech Republic has signed similar agreements with Germany, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Vietnam, Ukraine and Russia. Negotiations with Mongolia, Belarus, Bulgaria and Austria are on-going. Moreover, an agreement concerning trainees was concluded with Switzerland in 1997 and more recently with Hungary and Lithuania.

In the Czech Republic, tighter requirements governing labour market access by foreigners have had to be combined with tougher penalties for employers illegally recruiting foreigners. Inspections by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Ministry of the Interior have revealed an upsurge in the employment of foreigners without residence and/or work permits. This would indicate that the lower official figures do not necessarily signify a replacement of migrant labour by natives or permanent residents.

The informal sector in Hungary accounts, according to some estimates, for approximately 30% of GDP; the participation of foreigners in this sector is understood to be important. The majority of the undocumented workers enter as tourists and regularly or occasionally undertake a variety of jobs. Their residence is made “legal” by leaving the country once a month to have an exit stamp put into their passports because the visa free agreement allows them to stay only under such conditions. Many of

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these "tourists" from the neighbouring countries work in construction and agriculture doing occasional or seasonal work. Participation of foreigners in retail activities and market/street trading carried out without a valid permit is also commonplace, although its incidence has decreased. Households are often employers; they offer many kinds of work but usually only for short periods, maybe a couple of hours per week or month.

The majority of undocumented labour migrants are from the neighbouring countries, mainly from Romania, but also from Ukraine and the former Yugoslavia. Many are ethnic Hungarians who speak the language and have relatives or other contacts in the country. Migration from neighbouring countries into Hungary is fundamentally of a temporary nature. Those involved try to take advantage of the opportunities presented by the open borders, but do not wish to settle permanently. Even if the phenomenon is less visible, irregular employment also exists among westerners. Most are young, they typically work for foreign companies in media and internet activities or as language teachers.

According to broad estimates made by the National Labour Bureau, each year approximately 200 000 undocumented foreigners take up employment in Poland. Some take up undocumented employment in order to finance their westward journey (this is the case for the majority African and Asian nationals of whom a certain number are regularly readmitted to Poland after having been apprehended at the border, notably that with Germany); for others, Poland is a destination country where contraband activities are often well organised. According to the results of a survey carried out in both Poland and Ukraine, though Ukrainians often undertake various forms of short-term work in the informal sector, their principal activity whilst in Poland consists in buying goods which are then sold in Ukraine.

– The beginning of permanent immigration

A number of factors have facilitated the entry and settlement of new immigrants in the CEECs. Following the liberalisation of the movement of persons which changed considerably the conditions under which foreigners could travel within the region, the CEECs modified their nationality laws, in particular to allow expatriates who had been deprived of their citizenship to recover it. A second set of changes has concerned the introduction of short and long-term residence permits for foreigners; the ratification of the Geneva Convention on refugees; the abolition of visa requirements for the nationals of most OECD countries; and, the establishment of programmes to encourage temporary labour migration to Western countries with the object of developing participants' professional experience and language skills.

Immigration flows are increasing. In some of the CEECs and likewise in the Russian Federation, immigration flows probably exceed those of emigration. It is necessary however to differentiate between the various situations. On the basis of partial information concerning the entries of permanent residents,[6] it would appear that Hungary was host in 1997 to more than 13 000 foreigners. In the Czech Republic and in Poland, entries (including those of returning nationals) numbered in 1998 approximately 10 800 and 8 900 respectively. In Hungary and the Czech Republic, countries where detailed statistics on permanent and long-term foreign residents are available, the number of persons entering under these categories has increased over the last four years, reaching 144 000 in Hungary and 220 000 in the Czech Republic at the most recently available year (see Table I.13). In Bulgaria, just over 51 000 people possessed a long-term residence permit in 1998 (an increase of almost 15% on the previous year) and nearly 40 000 people possessed a permanent residence permit. Together they accounted for less than 1% of the total population.

Romanians in Hungary, Czechs in the Slovak Republic, Ukrainians in Poland or in Bulgaria, foreigners who choose to settle in Central and Eastern Europe originate in the majority from neighbouring countries. Other communities, such as the Vietnamese and the Chinese are present in a number of countries. United States and Western European citizens (principally from Germany) are also present, most commonly in highly qualified employment, notably managing the subsidiaries of their companies set up in Central and Eastern Europe. One observes greater diversity in the nationalities of those holding long-term residence permits. The majority of them entered in order to take up employment whereas permanent residents obtained their permit for family or humanitarian reasons.

The example of the Czech Republic illustrates very well the phenomenon of intensifying immigration flows (as measured by the issuance of long-term and

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Table I.13. **Foreigners residing in some Central and Eastern European countries, by major nationality, latest available year**

Bulgaria (1998)	Thousands	%	Czech Republic (1998)	Thousands	%	Hungary (1997)	Thousands	%
Former USSR	35.1	*38.6*	Ukraine	52.7	*24.0*	Romania	57.4	*39.9*
EU	15.5	*17.0*	Slovak Republic	49.6	*22.6*	Former Yugoslavia	16.0	*11.1*
CEEC	2.7	*2.9*	Vietnam	22.9	*10.4*	Ukraine	12.2	*8.5*
Europe (others)	8.5	*9.4*	Poland	22.2	*10.1*	Germany	8.4	*5.9*
Middle East	8.1	*8.9*	Russian Federation	10.0	*4.6*	China	7.9	*5.5*
Asia	4.5	*4.9*	Germany	6.2	*2.8*	Russian Federation	5.4	*3.8*
			Bulgaria	6.0	*2.7*	Poland	4.5	*3.1*
			China	4.2	*1.9*	Slovak Republic	3.7	*2.6*
			Fed. Rep of Yugoslavia	3.9	*1.8*	Greece	2.0	*1.4*
			United States	3.9	*1.8*	Vietnam	1.8	*1.3*
Others	16.6	*18.3*	Others	38.2	*17.4*	Others	24.4	*17.0*
Total	**91.0**	***100.0***	**Total**	**219.8**	***100.0***	**Total**	**143.8**	***100.0***
% of total population		*1.1*	*% of total population*		*2.0*	*% of total population*		*1.4*

Poland (1998)	Thousands	%	Romania (1998)	Thousands	%	Slovak Republic (1997)	Thousands	%
Former USSR	13.7	*42.0*	Moldova	6.0	*10.9*	Czech Republic	5.8	*23.3*
Germany	3.5	*10.8*	Greece	5.3	*9.6*	Ukraine	3.5	*14.1*
Bulgaria	1.0	*3.1*	China	5.2	*9.5*	Poland	2.8	*11.3*
Greece	1.0	*3.1*	Turkey	4.2	*7.7*	Former Yugoslavia	2.0	*8.2*
Vietnam	1.0	*3.1*	Italy	3.6	*6.4*			
			Syria	3.3	*6.0*			
			Germany	2.5	*4.6*			
			Iraq	2.2	*4.0*			
			Iran	2.1	*3.8*			
			United States	2.0	*3.5*			
Others	12.4	*38.0*	Others	18.8	*33.9*	Others	10.7	*43.1*
Total	**32.5**	***100.0***	**Total**	**55.3**	***100.0***	**Total**	**24.8**	***100.0***
% of total population		*0.1*	*% of total population*		*0.2*	*% of total population*		*0.5*

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

permanent residence permits) and the diversification in the range of origin countries. In terms of stocks, the number of people holding these types of permits grew rapidly during the period 1993-96 and more slowly thereafter. In addition to the flows originating from the traditional origin countries, the Slovak Republic and Poland, flows originating from the former Soviet Union (principally Ukraine and Russia) and from Asia (almost exclusively from Vietnam) which were insignificant in 1990 have increased considerably since. In 1997, they accounted for over 40% of newly registered permanent immigrants. Moreover, flows originating from Bosnia-Herzegovina and Croatia, although still very small, are increasing. These flows originating from countries further away and more diversified than at the beginning of the 1990s are still composed for the most part of people entering for employment-related reasons (the proportion of working-age men is increasing as is the average level of education).

The example of Poland points to the same trends albeit to a less pronounced extent. Until 1992, inflows were largely composed of returning Poles. More recently however, it appears that immigration flows have included greater numbers of foreigners. Indeed, net migration with a number of countries which do not feature among the traditional origin countries is positive. Among these new origin countries are Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Russia, Vietnam and Belarus.

In Hungary, immigration flows increased continually from the mid-1980s through to 1990. In addition to the neighbouring countries' abolition of exit restrictions, the political and economic situa-

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tion as well as the ethnic conflicts that these countries experienced were important underlying factors behind large population movements. In 1990, almost 40 000 people entered the country legally with the intention of settling or of staying for at least one year. Inflows declined rapidly thereafter; the 1992 figure was half that of 1990. Figures for the last four years underline the stabilisation of long-term resident inflows at a level between 13 000 and 14 000 and an increase in the number of undocumented entrants and residents.

By contrast there are few signs of the emergence of stable and durable immigration in Bulgaria, Romania and the Slovak Republic. In Romania, the number of foreigners holding a permanent residence permit is very low and continues to decline (1 400 in 1998); this is due to the fact that there has not existed an institution charged with granting this status since 1990. Further, the legislation governing entry into the country, in particular the fact that tourists do not require a visa, renders otiose any attempt at evaluating the number of foreigners staying temporarily. The Slovak Republic's immigration flows are of a small extent (of the order of 2 000 entries per year) and are composed in the majority of citizens of neighbouring countries (the Czech Republic and Ukraine).

Conclusion

At the end of this overview of migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe, a number of trends emerge. First of all, East-West migration flows persist but at a much lower level than those recorded between 1989 and 1992; certain nationalities predominate and certain host countries are relatively more important than others. The changes which have taken place in Central and Eastern Europe have led to an intensification of migration flows between the CEECs, but above all between the CEECs and their neighbours to the East and South (the CIS and the former Yugoslavia). There are also significant but numerically low level West-East migration flows of managers and highly skilled workers. Overall, migration flows towards the CEECs have increased and, in the cases of the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, have diversified.

The proposition that migration within this area is becoming globalised is, however, subject to some qualification. It is the Czech Republic, where reforms have been undertaken to grant a legal status to foreigners, which most clearly appears to becoming a new host country for foreigners, above all for citizens of neighbouring countries but also for those originating from more distant regions. In Hungary, significant immigration flows began in the mid-1980s and culminated in 1990. Restrictive measures were swiftly implemented in order to check this trend; one observes today a stabilisation of documented flows and increasing undocumented flows. In Poland, a new system for recording flows has just been implemented and should extend the statistical coverage to stays of limited duration. Poland, traditionally an emigration country, is not one where foreigners tend to settle. On the other hand, the phenomenon of short and frequent visits for the purpose of trade is very important.

More generally, in order to give a relatively complete delineation of the Central and Eastern European migration flows taking into account the countries' roles as places of destination, transit and origin, one cannot limit the study to one of permanent and long-term movements: first, because the definitions of these categories are still, in some countries, vestiges of the Soviet statistical system and second because this group of countries is defined less as an area of settlement than as an area of trade and economic activity. The lack of a rigorous regulatory framework (such as that operated in Germany) has the effect that movements of people linked to trading activity and other forms of work are not well captured, especially given that these short-term movements of real and fake tourists do not always require the possession of a visa. It would appear that this phenomenon of very short-term, indeed "pendular", migration is very common in a number of countries. The marked economic disparities within the region or the proximity of a capital or area of relatively high labour demand doubtless explain the frequency of short-term movements in certain frontier regions. The existence of historic and cultural links render "natural" short-term cross-border movements.

C. AN OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION POLICIES[7]

Migration policies in OECD countries can be grouped in several ways. The first consists of measures adopted at national and international level to strengthen the control of flows (including those of asylum-seekers). The second concerns the fight against irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreign workers. The third covers all measures that aim to ensure a better integration of migrants in the host country. The last concerns the links between migration

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and international co-operation, particularly in the context of the projected enlargement of the European Union.

1. Policies for regulating and controlling flows

a) The regulation of flows and the implementation of new legislation

The policy of OECD Member countries regarding the regulation of flows manifests itself not only in frequent changes to immigration legislation and the enactment of new laws, but also in international co-operation between the Member countries themselves and between Member and non-member countries. These two forms of international co-operation in the sphere of migration are not yet highly developed but are, nevertheless, the focus of growing interest.

National policies

Several OECD Member countries modified their legislation between 1998 and 2000 and implemented new provisions governing the entry, residence and employment of foreigners. While some reforms have led to improvements in the status of those already settled in host countries, most have been aimed essentially at tightening border controls and amending the conditions for entry, residence and employment.

– Tightening border checks and entry requirements

In Australia, for example, the number of personnel dealing with border controls was increased in 1997-98 in order to improve the effectiveness, particularly in airports, of checks on nationals from "high risk" countries. In the general context of strengthening measures to combat illegal immigration and the migrant trafficking (see below), the Parliament is at present debating a Bill on border controls which would allow staff from the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA) and customs officers to check vessels sailing in international waters when they are suspected of being involved in the trafficking of persons.

In New Zealand, new measures were introduced in 1999 in the context of the revision of the Immigration Act to deal with certain risks (*risk management*) with regard to immigration. The introduction of a security deposit when entering the country, recoverable on leaving, and of permits limited to certain activities give the government more flexibility in making border checks. The new provisions also include a more effective process for removal, as well as a programme for checking identity documents before arrival in New Zealand in co-operation with airline companies.

Over the last two years, reform of the legislation on citizenship and immigration has been a priority for Citizenship and Immigration Canada. The group of experts appointed by the Minister handed in its report in December 1997, and the legislative revision stage was begun in January 1999. The amendments to the legislation should concern family reunion, the process for the granting of refugee status and the settlement of refugees, the system for selecting skilled workers and the businessmen, the entry of temporary, highly qualified workers and of students, the criteria for obtaining permanent resident status and the appeal processes and discretionary powers as regards immigration. Moreover, the criteria for acquiring Canadian nationality are to be revised and defined more clearly.

Three of OECD Member countries belonging to the European Union – Italy, Portugal and Spain – have recently become immigration countries. They have now decided to recognise the permanent presence of foreigners on their territory and have undertaken to adapt their legislation accordingly.

In Italy, the issue of immigration has been hotly debated since 1997, with the regular arrival of foreigners on the Adriatic coast and the adoption in March 1998 of a new Act relating to the conditions for the entry and residence of foreigners in Italy. The government had hoped that this Act would definitively resolve the problem of the illegal entry of migrants into Italy. Nevertheless, its actual application was approved only at the end of October 1999, and the government has finally decided on a regularisation programme (see below), which was in principle no longer to have been necessary under the Act. The Immigration Act has three main objectives: to regulate the admission of foreigners by setting annual quotas, to deal more severely with illegal immigration and migrant trafficking, and to improve the integration of foreigners residing legally in Italy.

The Act of 8 August 1998 adopted by the Portuguese Parliament relates to the entry, residence, departure and expulsion of foreigners. The new law not only aims to make national legislation able effectively to control external borders as required by the Schengen Agreements (signed by

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Portugal on 25 June 1991) and other agreements it has concluded, but also confirms the policy of integrating immigrant populations. The Act creates seven different types of visa: stopover, transit, short stay, temporary stay, residence, study and work.

New legislation on foreigners entered into force in Spain on 1 February 2000. Entitled "Institutional Act on the Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners in Spain and their Social Integration", this Act replaces the previous one of 1985. It aims to regulate migration flows, in particular by strengthening border controls, systemising the expulsion of illegal immigrants and punishing migrant trafficking. It also reflects a new approach born of the awareness of the Spanish Government that the phenomenon of immigration into Spain is a permanent one. The new Act thus recognises the rights and freedoms of foreigners and promotes their social integration (see below). On 4 August 2000, the government adopted a new Bill, introducing more restrictive controls of undocumented foreigners, which provides in particular for an increase in sentences and sanctions against migrant traffickers and employers who encourage them. Under this Bill, undocumented foreigners would not have their situation regularised till after five years, instead of the two years provided for by the Act which entered into force on 1 February 2000.

Some West European countries with a longer tradition of immigration have recently amended their legislation or adopted new measures to control immigration and adapt existing rules to changes in migration flows and to the new European standards (see below).

The new Aliens Act in the Netherlands, currently being discussed in Parliament, includes several new restrictive immigration measures. These will apply essentially to asylum seekers (see below). An authorisation requirement for temporary stays was reintroduced in December 1998. The nationals of most non-OECD countries are obliged to have such authorisation, which must be obtained in the country of origin before entry into the Netherlands, before being able to apply for a residence permit.

In the United Kingdom, a new Immigration and Asylum Act was discussed by Parliament during 1999 (see the 1999 edition of *Trends in International Migration*) and entered into force in November 1999. It sets out a range of measures aimed at tightening and improving checks at ports of entry. The number of personnel handling checks, notably at airports, is to be increased, and the Immigration Act modernised in order to facilitate verification of legitimate travellers and better identify potential abuses. In addition, in April 1998, the application of carriers' liability was extended to the Eurostar link between Brussels and London, following complaints about the arrival of foreigners without papers on that train. In March 2000, the United Kingdom and French Governments concluded an additional Protocol to the existing one on the Channel fixed link, enabling the immigration authorities in both countries to check travel documents before departure. In May 2000, the United Kingdom Government announced the implementation for six months of a pilot programme introducing a system of financial security (GBP 3 000) for certain categories of visa requested by Philippine and Moroccan nationals. This system seems very similar to the one recently introduced in New Zealand.

When they decide to amend their legislation on aliens, those OECD countries in Europe who are not members of the European Union do so with a view to bringing their provisions into line with those of the European Union.

Thus, Switzerland has just concluded a free-trade agreement with the European Community providing for the gradual liberalisation of the movement of persons as regards entry, residence and labour market access. The Swiss population approved this Agreement, due to enter into force in 2001, by referendum in May 2000. Switzerland is also planning to accede to the Schengen Agreements. Moreover, the law on the residence and establishment of foreigners is being reviewed. The Bill deals with all the general principles of Swiss immigration policy, including legislation on foreigners and asylum, integration policy and external policy.

For their part, the countries of Central and Eastern Europe which are candidates for membership of the European Union are endeavouring to adapt their legislation to European norms. This is the case, for example, of the Czech Republic which has revised its previously liberal approach to the entry and residence of foreigners. A new general Aliens Act, regulating entry, residence, work, integration and naturalisation, entered into force in January 2000 and is to be amended during the year 2000. Under this Act, Czech consulates abroad are now responsible for issuing visas, and short-stay visas have been reduced from 180 to 90 days. The purpose of the stay can no longer be changed on Czech territory, and all long-term visa applications must include justification documents (for example, a work permit). This alignment

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on Community visa policy has been strengthened by the abrogation of agreements concluded with Russia, Ukraine and Belarus, re-establishing a visa requirement for their nationals. Other agreements concluded with certain CIS Republics are also to be revoked.

In Poland, the government recently adopted two legislative initiatives to regulate migration flows. While the first concerns the acquisition of Polish nationality, the second proposes an amendment to the 1997 Immigration Act so as to take account of the comments made on it by the European institutions. Under this Act, the Polish Government in January 1998 introduced a new system for controlling the eastern borders of the country, abolishing the previous rules on the admission of foreigners, deemed too liberal. An entry visa is now required from the nationals of all neighbouring countries who have not said they would conclude a re-admission agreement with Poland. This affects Belarus and Russian nationals in particular. New entry conditions have been imposed for the nationals of several other countries, and border checks have been strengthened.

In Bulgaria, the new Aliens Act adopted in December 1998 entered into force in January 2000. The general thrust of the Act is to restrict entry and transit and to provide a suitable legal framework for regulating the residence of foreigners established in Bulgaria. It introduces several types of visa and residence permits, including short-stay (up to 90 days) and long-stay (one year) permits. This Act also requires all foreigners entering Bulgaria to give an address in the country and the reasons for their stay, and increases considerably the sanctions applicable to foreigners who do not comply with these provisions.

In June 1999, the Romanian Government adopted a priority Ordinance amending and supplementing the 1992 Act on State Frontiers. Upon the entry into force of this Ordinance, a frontier police service was created, answerable to the Ministry of the Interior. The project to modernise Romania's eastern borders, drawn up with the support of the European PHARE 1999 and TAIEX Programmes, was discussed during the course of last year. Personnel numbers have been increased on the country's eastern borders as have the material resources for control.

– Different policies as regards family reunion

It seems that most of the OECD Member countries which have, since 1998, undertaken to revise their legislation on family reunion or to introduce new legislation, are tending to liberalise their admission policy for the family members of already established foreigners, since they have recognised the principle of long-stay immigration and seem to consider that reuniting families constitutes a veritable right for established foreign residents (see below, Part II devoted to family reunion).

In Canada, new proposals on family reunion have been put forward in the context of the legislative reform under way. The new measures strengthen the right to family reunion and policies relating to adoption. They also extend the definition of spouse to include partners and homosexuals. New provisions could also be added to the regulations of April 1997 on the financial solvency of sponsors so as to reduce the effects of insolvency on governments and the Canadian taxpayer by means of an electronic information system enabling the social services of the different Provinces to exchange information.

In Australia, some changes were made in November 1999 to the provisions on the family members of migrants. Like natural and adopted children, step-children may now apply for a visa or be classified as family members for other categories of visa. Children aged 18 or over and any other adult dependent on the family unit will be subject to stricter checks, with the exception of the family members of applicants for refugee status or a humanitarian visa. Moreover, children aged 18 or over who apply for a visa must be less than 25 years of age and be full-time students, unless they are handicapped.

Since March 1999, applicants for family reunion whose application is being processed may request a "designated parent visa" and will be given priority with regard to the processing of applications. More flexible provisions have been introduced for relatives who have applied for a permanent resident permit. In particular, relatives obliged to wait for a lengthy period will be allowed to visit Australia on a temporary basis until their application has been examined.

In New Zealand, family reunion policy is currently being revised. Until now, close family members of New Zealand residents or citizens have been able to obtain a right of residence. However, ascendants have to meet the "centre of gravity" criteria, *i.e.* the number of their adult children residing in New Zealand must be equal to or greater than the

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number of their other children living outside New Zealand.

In Spain, the Act of 11 January 2000 on the Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners and their Social Integration devotes a chapter to the family reunion of foreigners. It expressly recognises the right to family reunion of resident foreigners, a right which applies to the spouse, children under 18 and economically dependent ascendants. In France, the Act of 11 May 1998 introduced several important changes regarding family reunion, including the reduction of the legal residence requirement before an application for reunion can be made, from two years to one year, and changes to the grounds for refusal, in particular the resource criteria. A new type of temporary residence card for co-habitees ("*vie privée et familiale*"), was introduced in 1999, and 20 000 people have already benefited from this measure. The co-habitee card gives entitlement to work and makes it possible to obtain a residence card after five years of uninterrupted lawful residence.

In Greece, several legislative amendments have been adopted to protect the spouse and minor children of foreigners who obtained a "green card" or "white card" as a result of the regularisation procedure implemented since January 1998, from expulsion. The children of green card holders must themselves apply for such a card between the ages of 18 and 21. In Portugal, the Act of 8 August 1998 gave effect to the right to family reunion by granting this right in future to the family members of foreigners residing in Portugal. Reunion is granted provided that the foreigner, when applying, is in possession of a residence permit valid for more than one year, and has adequate lodging and means. In Sweden, the conditions for family reunion are currently being revised with a view to promoting links between elderly persons and residents.

The Commission of the European Communities has prepared a draft Directive on the right to family reunion, which was discussed by the European Parliament in December 1999. Based on certain provisions of Community law regarding the family reunion of citizens of the Union exercising their right to free movement, the proposal establishes a right to family reunion for third country nationals legally residing in a Member State, as well as for citizens of the Union who are not exercising their right to free movement. The draft Directive aims to harmonise national laws to ensure legal security for third country nationals and to make sure that the choice of the Member State in which a third country national wishes to reside is not based exclusively on the more favourable conditions offered by that country. The exercise of this right, recognised by the draft Directive, is subject to compliance with certain conditions specified in the text, in particular that the third party national applying for family reunion is a legal resident.

International co-operation measures

With the exception of the European Union Member States, international co-operation on regulating and controlling flows is not highly developed between OECD Member countries. Certain types of bilateral and multilateral co-operation are, nevertheless, in place as regards visas and border controls. OECD Member countries are gradually becoming aware of the benefits of a joint approach to the problem of controlling migration flows.

Canada has concluded a number of bilateral agreements enabling more effective regulation of migration flows, and also takes part in international initiatives such as the United Nations Convention on Transnational Organised Crime, which includes Protocols on the trafficking of migrants, women and children. On the initiative of Mexico, a regional conference on migration, the so-called "*Puebla Process*" was set up in 1996. This annual advisory conference brings together eleven countries from Central and North America as well as representatives from IOM, UNHCR and several NGOs. At the fourth conference, in January 1999, the participants recognised the positive aspects of migration for development, and that migration flows should be dealt with over the long term through international co-operation. It should be remembered that under NAFTA, Mexico applies special conditions to the entry of businessmen from Canada and the United States (see below, Part III, note on Mexico and, for a more detailed analysis, OECD, 1999, Migration, Free Trade and Regional Integration in North America).

– Co-operation between European Union Member States in the sphere of regulating and controlling migration flows

The countries of Western Europe have traditionally applied unilateral, sovereign policies in controlling immigration taking into account their own economic, cultural and historical interests as well as ongoing links with certain countries and former colonies. Nevertheless, the diversification and continuation of immigrant flows on the one hand, and the economic and political integration of

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Europe and its prospects for enlargement, on the other, have led these countries gradually to accept the idea of co -operation in the sphere of regulating and controlling migration flows.

Since 1995, this willingness to co-operate has been manifested by implementation of the "Schengen Agreements", signed in 1985 and 1990. The five founder members (Germany, Belgium, France, Luxembourg and Netherlands) have been joined by Italy, Spain and Portugal, Greece, Austria, then Denmark, Sweden and Finland. The Schengen Agreements are essentially aimed at ensuring the free movement of all persons inside the Schengen Area, while implementing compensatory measures needed to ensure the Area's internal security. These compensatory measures consist notably of reinforcing controls at the outside borders of the Schengen Area, implementing co-operative measures in judicial, police and customs matters, and setting up a Schengen Information System accessible to the competent authorities of the Schengen States. The Agreements also provide for the drawing up of a joint list of third countries whose nationals are subject to visa requirements, as well as a joint procedure for determining which country is responsible for any given application for asylum.

A the same time, the Maastricht Treaty of 7 February 1992, which modifies the Treaty of Rome and established the European Union, provides a basis for co-operation between Member governments in the spheres of justice and home affairs, in other words "asylum policy, rules governing the crossing by persons of the external borders of the Member States, immigration policy and policies regarding nationals of third countries (entry, movement and residence), judicial, customs and police co-operation". The Maastricht Treaty also gave the European Community jurisdiction over determining which third countries' nationals would be subject to visa requirements. A Community regulation was thus issued in 1995, establishing a joint list of these countries. In fact, however, few legally binding decisions have been made in the context of this co-operation in the fields of justice and home affairs. A number of agreements have, nevertheless, been drawn up, such as the Eurodac Convention, setting up a joint fingerprint database of asylum seekers, and the Europol Convention on European police co-operation, which took effect in October 1998.

The Treaty of Amsterdam of 2 October 1997, which modified the Maastricht Treaty, came into force on 1 May 1999. It places issues relating to immigration and asylum under the jurisdiction of the European Community with the aim of creating an area of "freedom, security and justice" in the Member States. This implies that the Community institutions, in particular the European Commission, will now be competent in this sphere, although the decision-making process has not yet been definitively established. The Treaty also incorporates the Schengen *acquis* in the European Union, and the Council of the European Union, at the end of May 1999, classified the provisions and decisions taken under the Schengen Agreements in terms of those coming under Community responsibility and those involving intergovernmental co-operation.

The United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark have been authorised to defer acceptance of these new provisions relating to policies on immigration, asylum and the free movement of persons. Nevertheless, the United Kingdom and Ireland have recently said they would like to participate in the provisions of the Schengen *acquis* relating to the application of legislation and judicial co-operation in criminal matters, including the Schengen Information System. Since these provisions have not been incorporated into Community law, they fall within the sphere of intergovernmental co-operation. The European Commission gave its approval to such participation in July 1999.

At its special session in Tampere of 15 and 16 October 1999, devoted to the creation of an area of freedom, security and justice in the European Union, the European Council considered that a common European policy should be drawn up with regard to asylum and migration. There would be four main aspects to this policy: partnership with countries of origin, a common European asylum system, fair treatment of third country nationals and more efficient management of migration flows.

To this end, the Commission prepared, in March 2000, a "Scoreboard" describing the action needed, defining responsibilities, establishing a timetable for adoption and recording the "state of progress". The Scoreboard provides in particular that the conditions for the admission and residence of third country nationals should be harmonised on the basis of joint evaluation of economic and demographic trends in the Union and the situation in the countries of origin. It also provides, with regard to the management of migration flows, for the establishment of close co-operation with the countries of origin and transit and a strengthening of measures to combat illegal immigration by striking at the crim-

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inal networks involved. Moreover, the Commission plans to develop a common policy with regard to visas and false documents, and to strengthen checks at the Union's external borders by means of close co-operation between Member States' border control services and by including in this co-operation States that have applied for membership.

The Tampere European Council also considered that matters of justice and home affairs should be included within the definition and implementation of other Union policies and measures, such as external relations. Thus, on 2 December 1999, the Justice and Internal Affairs Council adopted a decision allowing for the insertion in any new co-operation or association agreement concluded with a third country of a standard readmission clause for nationals of that country (or of other countries in the case of transit through the third country in question) illegally present in a Member State of the European Union.

b) *Procedures for admitting asylum seekers and refugees*

At international level, the status of refugees is regulated by the Geneva Convention of 28 July 1951 and the New York Protocol of 31 January 1967, which are applied by all OECD Member countries. The number of applications for asylum has increased considerably since the early 1990s. New types of requests for protection have developed, which are not in line with the definition of a "refugee" as set out in the Geneva Convention. Most OECD countries consider these new asylum seekers to be "economic refugees" fleeing poverty and economic depression in their countries of origin, and therefore as seeking to abuse the refugee status applications process. As a result, these countries have decided to tighten up their laws and accelerate the processing of applications and appeals in order to limit the stay of asylum seekers on their territory. In addition, they have applied new principles to the processing of applications (the definition of "manifestly unfounded" applications, the principle of "safe countries"), and have limited the right of asylum applicants to take up employment. These measures are all aimed at, and have resulted in, limiting entries to these countries.

Nevertheless, some OECD countries have granted territorial asylum to individuals affected by serious political crises in their countries of origin (mainly nationals of Algeria and the former Yugoslavia). This type of asylum accords a temporary right of residence, without granting refugee status. Other countries have expanded the rights of statutory refugees, and taken steps aimed at facilitating their integration (see below the section on the integration of foreigners). European Union countries, for their part, have set up co-operative measures in the sphere of asylum aimed, over the long term, at establishing a common European asylum regime.

Passing or modifying domestic laws on the right to asylum

In order to deal with new types of requests for asylum, several OECD Member countries have introduced new measures into their legislation that enable them to provide new forms of protection. In 1998-99, Citizenship and Immigration Canada revised the list of countries from which the status of asylum seeker may be recognised for humanitarian reasons (*Humanitarian Designated Classes: the Country of Asylum Class and the Source Country Class*). The new list includes Bosnia-Herzegovina, Columbia, Croatia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, El Salvador, Guatemala and Sudan. Over the spring of 1999, Citizenship and Immigration Canada organised the reception of more than 5 000 Kosovar nationals at the request of UNHCR.

The Australian Government has recently introduced a "temporary safe haven visa class" enabling it to offer humanitarian protection for as long as necessary. In 1998/99, this new system was used for the first time to respond to the appeal made by UNHCR for the evacuation of Kosovar refugees in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. A special visa category was created for this purpose. Some 4 000 Kosovars have benefited from temporary protection in Australia. In September 1999, nearly 2 000 visas to refugees from East Timor were issued under this system. New agreements have also been concluded to guarantee that the quotas set under humanitarian programmes are fully used, and to give the government greater flexibility in its reaction to humanitarian crises. Under these arrangements, any quota shortfall during the year of application of a given programme can be carried forward to the following year. Thus, in 1999/2000, some 840 places were added to the 12 000 already allocated for the year.

In April 1999, the Belgian Council of Ministers approved the granting of temporary protection status to the Kosovar refugees. This gave entitlement to residence, access to the labour market and to education as well as to social assistance and health care. These special measures were extended until March 2000. Similarly, Italy received nearly

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30 000 Kosovars in 1999 under a humanitarian emergency plan. Most of these refugees returned to their country of origin, and by September 1999, only 2 000 were still receiving State assistance. In Luxembourg, a Bill setting up a temporary protection regime for Kosovar Albanians was drafted in 1999.

In April 1999, the Czech Government decided to offer temporary protection to Kosovar nationals. Some 800 persons were settled in humanitarian camps, some of whom left after the situation had stabilised. On 25 August 1999, the Swiss Federal Council adopted a decision banning asylum applicants and those admitted temporarily from working for one year (from 1 September 1999 to 31 August 2000) although the latter are entitled to enrol in training programmes. This special measure was aimed at controlling the large increase in persons arriving from Kosovo, and at discouraging persons hoping to find work by using the asylum process.

In Belgium, the government set out its new asylum policy in September 1999. The asylum procedure has been radically simplified so that most decisions can be given within a month, or one year for the most complicated cases. The new procedure defines the grounds for refusing a manifestly unfounded application, such as a stay of more than three months in a third country, a previous application in one of the countries party to the Dublin Convention, the absence of serious aspects or grounds not listed in the Geneva Convention. The government also decided to increase the capacity for welcoming candidates for refugee status and to enhance the quality of their reception. In addition, the financial help offered them is to be replaced by material assistance (housing, food, medical care and support), to combat the abuses noted in Reception Centres.

In April 1999, Greece, which is gradually bringing its legislation into line with international and European standards, introduced the measures required for the recognition and expulsion of asylum seekers, whether or not through an accelerated procedure, and also for the entry of family members of statutory refugees. While the main purpose of the Refugees Act adopted in 1996 in Ireland was to codify procedures for asylum applications, this issue remains controversial and was again discussed by Parliament in November 1999. Although it had previously refused to give asylum seekers the right to work, the Irish Government agreed in July 1999 that as an exceptional measure, asylum seekers who had lived in the country for more than twelve months and who were waiting for a decision on their application, could be allowed to take employment.

Although drafted at the same time as the new 1998 Immigration Act, the Bill on refugees and asylum seekers prepared by the Italian Government is still being discussed in the Chamber of Deputies. The Bill should be approved in the course of the winter of 2000. It provides for increased financial assistance to asylum seekers and for the transfer of responsibility for their housing to municipal authorities so as to encourage them to adopt new measures to promote the integration of asylum seekers and improve their capacity to receive them.

The new Aliens Act currently being adopted by the Netherlands Parliament simplifies and shortens the processing of asylum applications by replacing the objection procedure by an accelerated convocation arrangement together with a so-called procedure of intent, and by imposing a maximum of six months for appraising applications. It also provides for a revision of the conditions for refusing an application, and gives greater coercive powers with regard to the control and expulsion of asylum seekers whose applications have been refused. In addition, the charges for processing asylum applications are to be abolished. Finally, legislation on persons without documents, which entered into force on 1 February 1999, provides that no account will be taken of asylum applications made by persons without papers and who cannot justify the absence of any documents proving their identity.

In the United Kingdom, the main purpose of the new Immigration and Asylum Act, which entered into force in November 1999, is to speed up the procedure for examining asylum applications and to make up the backlog accumulated in this respect. The Act also provides for the geographic dispersal of applicants throughout the country so as to reduce the burden on London and the south-east of England. Lastly, the financial assistance previously given asylum seekers has been replaced by a system of vouchers in order to reduce costs.

The Act on the integration of migrants and the reception of asylum seekers, voted in Norway in 1998, entered into force on 1 May 1999. By a reorganisation of the reception of asylum seekers, the Act aims to ensure that they have enough to live on and are given basic health care. Two important amendments were adopted in 1999. The first transfers, as from 1 July 2000, responsibility for interviewing applicants from the police to the

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Immigration Department. By means of the second, the Norwegian Parliament approved the setting up of an independent commission to judge appeals from refusals to grant asylum, such appeals being heard at present by the Ministry of Justice.

In Lithuania, a new Refugees Act was to be submitted to Parliament in early 2000. This Act provides a legal basis for the temporary detention of asylum seekers and introduces an accelerated procedure for examining applications as well as a new appeals system. Several amendments to the Refugees Act adopted in Estonia in February 1999 entered into force in September of the same year. Responsibility for decisions on asylum applications was transferred to the Migration and Citizenship Department, a Reception Centre closer to the capital was set up and a central register for asylum seekers and refugees was created. Under an amendment to the Aliens Act, which entered into force in October 1999, persons whose application for refugee status has been refused but who cannot be returned to their country of origin may apply for a residence permit in Estonia.

The Czech Republic has also made changes, applicable since 1 January 2000, to its legislation on the right to asylum. Asylum is granted to persons who can prove they are prosecuted in their country of origin and to family members of such persons. A right of appeal is open for one month to persons whose application has been refused by the Ministry of the Interior.

Measures for harmonising asylum policies in the European Union

Since the early 1990s, European Union Member States have treated asylum policy and immigration policy as matters of common interest. Under the Schengen Agreements, Member States decided to implement a joint system for determining which Member State is responsible for any given asylum application. The Dublin Convention of 15 June 1990 also deals with this issue, and since its entry into force on 1 September 1997, it has replaced the equivalent provisions of the Schengen Agreements. The Dublin Convention lays down the principle that any application for asylum submitted to a Member State should be assessed by one Member State, and one Member State only, designated according to jointly established criteria. It aims to prevent asylum seekers from submitting applications to several countries, but also to guarantee that all applications are considered.

The Maastricht Treaty of 1992 considers asylum policy to be an issue of common interest and a matter for intergovernmental co-operation with regard to justice and home affairs. Previously, the European Union Council had adopted several resolutions (the so-called "London Resolutions") in 1992, concerning in particular the definition of "manifestly unfounded asylum request", a harmonised approach to questions relating to host third countries and the determination of countries in which there is no serious risk of persecution. These three principles have since been incorporated into the legislation of Member States and of most of the countries applying for membership of the European Union. Implementation of these principles means that the competent authorities can consider as manifestly unfounded, applications from persons from countries in which there is no serious risk of persecution (safe countries of origin), or from persons who have transited through a third country in which they could have obtained protection (safe third countries). In June 1995, the Council adopted a resolution on minimum guarantees for asylum procedures.

The Treaty of Amsterdam of 2 October 1997 places the matter of asylum and immigration policy under the jurisdiction of the European Community. In July 1998, the Commission established asylum priorities, specified in December 1998 in the "Action Plan of the Council and the Commission on how best to implement the provisions of the Treaty of Amsterdam on an area of freedom, security and justice". In March 1999, the Commission prepared a working document on common standards as regards asylum procedures. It provides that the Dublin Convention will be replaced in due course by a Community law instrument, and also that asylum procedures will be codified in a legally binding Community instrument.

In the Scoreboard of March 2000, which provides in the long term for the establishment of a common European asylum regime, the Commission specifies that the objective is to ensure a full and inclusive application of the Geneva Convention of 1951, and especially the principle that nobody is sent back to face persecution (principe de "non-refoulement"). According to the Commission, in the long term, a common asylum procedure and a uniform status for granting asylum valid throughout the Union must be established, as must a temporary protection regime for displaced persons on the basis of solidarity among Member States. On this

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last point, the Commission presented a proposal in December 1999 relating to creation of a European Refugee Fund, introducing a system for allocating resources in proportion to the costs assumed by each Member State. The European Refugee Fund can also be used for emergency situations without calling into question its long-term actions. The Commission also presented a draft Directive in May 2000 which aims to establish minimum standards for giving temporary protection in the event of a mass influx of displaced persons and measures promoting a balance of efforts between Member States in receiving such persons and bearing the consequences thereof.

2. Combating illegal immigration and the illegal employment of foreigners

OECD Member countries, both traditional host countries and new immigration ones, are having to deal with a continuing rise in illegal immigration. They are also experiencing the need to combat the growth in the trafficking of illegal migrants, now considered to be a form of organised crime similar to drug smuggling and prostitution rings. Several measures aimed at combating illegal immigration, organised or not, have been taken by Member countries. Tightening border controls plays an essential role. Member countries have also introduced, or increased the severity of, criminal and administrative sanctions against undocumented foreigners, smugglers and employers. Combating illegal immigration is essentially a matter of unilateral domestic policy, although there is increasing bilateral co-operation between countries on the readmission of illegal immigrants.

Some OECD Member countries (essentially France, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain and the United States) have, in the last five years, implemented regularisation programmes for undocumented foreigners who, for the most part, reside in their territory, have family links there and work there. Most other OECD countries do not wish to introduce such programmes, mainly because of the risk of attracting new migrants hoping to take immediate advantage of the opportunity or to remain illegally in the country in anticipation of the next regularisation programme. There are, however, advantages to the regularisation programmes implemented recently. In the first place, they provide vital information to the authorities, for example on the number of immigrants meeting the required conditions, on the networks which have enabled undocumented foreigners to remain illegally and on the economic sectors most concerned. In the second place, regularisation often provides an opportunity to accord a status and rights to foreign workers and residents who have been in the country for several years in an illegal situation. Lastly, where numbers of illegal immigrants in a country reach critical dimensions, regularisation can meet public security objectives. It prevents immigrants from being exploited and/or from taking up illicit or even criminal activities.

These programmes were described in the previous edition of this report (*Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 1999). Recent developments concerning the results of these programmes or the adoption of new ones are set out in Table I.14, and the details of the programmes can be found in the notes on the countries mentioned in the above paragraph (see Part III of this publication).

a) Policies to tighten controls and increase sanctions

Measures aimed at tightening border controls have a twin objective: regulating and controlling flows (see above), and combating illegal immigration, be it the entry, residence or employment of foreigners.

In Australia, the government decided to adopt measures to strengthen the resources to combat the increase in the number of illegal arrivals (see above) as well as the development of migrant trafficking and the employment of undocumented foreigners. A high-level reference group has been set up to examine the effectiveness of measures to combat migrant trafficking. In addition to the powers of DIMA and customs officers to carry out checks on vessels on the high sea, a new sanction was introduced in June 1999 punishing the organisation of the entry of groups of at least five undocumented persons. Australia concluded a bilateral readmission agreement with Canada in July 1999 and has done so with several other countries; it is in the process of negotiating similar agreements with some neighbouring and European countries.

In Japan, the Immigration Act was revised in August 1999 to deal with the continuing increase in the number of illegal entries. The new amendments, which entered into force in February 2000, increase penalties, with no limitation in time, for illegal entry into Japan. Previously, the only sanction for illegal entry after a three-year stay in the country was removal. The new penalty is a fine of up to ¥ 300 000 and/or three years in prison. In addition, the ban on

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Table I.14. **Main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in selected OECD countries, by nationality**

Thousands

France				Greece[2]		Italy							
(1981-1982)[1]		(1997-1998)		(1997-1998)		(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996)[3]		(1998)[4]	
Tunisia	17.3	Algeria	12.5	Albania	239.9	Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	23.0		
Morocco	16.7	Morocco	9.2	Bulgaria	24.9	Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	20.2		
African countries	15.0	China	7.6	Romania	16.7	Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	18.6		
Portugal	12.7	Democratic Rep. of Congo	6.3	Pakistan	10.8	Tunisia	10.0	Former Yugoslavia	11.3	China	8.9		
Algeria	11.7	Tunisia	4.1	Ukraine	9.8	Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	8.8		
Turkey	8.6			Poland	8.6	Former Yugoslavia	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	5.9		
Other	39.1	Other	38.1	Other	58.9	Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	62.4		
Total	**121.1**	**Total**	**77.8**	**Total**	**369.6**	**Total**	**118.7**	**Total**	**217.7**	**Total**	**147.9**	**350.0**	

Portugal				Spain								United States			
(1992-1993)		(1996)[5]		(1985-1986)[6]		(1991)		(1996)		(2000)[7]		(1986)[8]		(1997-1998)[9]	
Angola	12.5	Angola	6.8	Morocco	7.9	Morocco	49.2	Morocco	7.0			Mexico	2 008.6	El Salvador/Guatemala	300.0
Guinea-Bissau	6.9	Cape Verde	5.0	Portugal	3.8	Argentina	7.5	Peru	1.9			El Salvador	152.3	Haiti	50.0
Cape Verde	6.8	Guinea-Bissau	4.0	Senegal	3.6	Peru	5.7	China	1.4			Caribbean	110.5	Nicaragua	40.0
Brazil	5.3	Sao Tome and Principe	2.0	Argentina	2.9	Dominican Republic	5.8	Argentina	1.3			Guatemala	64.0	Eastern Europe	10.0
Sao Tome and Principe	1.4	Brazil	0.3	United Kingdom	2.6	China	4.2	Poland	1.1			Colombia	30.3	Cuba	5.0
Senegal	1.4			Philippines	1.9	Poland	3.3	Dominican Republic	0.8			Philippines	25.7		
Other	4.8	Other	3.7	Other	21.1	Other	34.7	Other	7.8			Other	293.5		
Total	**39.2**	**Total**	**21.8**	**Total**	**43.8**	**Total**	**110.1**	**Total**	**21.3**	**126.9**		**Total**	**2 684.9**	**Total**	**405.0**

1. Excluding seasonal workers (6 681 persons) and around 1 200 small traders not broken down by nationality.
2. Persons who had been granted a white card (first stage of the regularisation).
3. These figures only cover permits granted for reasons of work. If spouses and minor children were included, a total of 227 300 permits were granted.
4. Number of applications received. Details by nationality are not available. Morocco, Albania, Philippines, Tunisia, former Yugoslavia are among the main nationalities.
5. A new regularisation programme has started from May 2000. It concerns foreigners without the required papers who entered Portugal before December 31st 1999.
6. Number of applications received.
7. A new regularisation programme has been held from 23rd March to 31st July 2000. Data relate to the number of applications received.
8. Data refer to all persons granted a permanent residence permit (excluding their dependents) during the period 1989-1996 following the 1986 Immigration and Reform Control Act. Data are broken down by country of birth.
9. Foreigners who benefited from the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (November 1997) and from the Haitian Refugee Immigration Fairness Act (October 1998). Data are estimates.

Sources: France: Office des migrations internationales; Greece: National Employment Observatory; Italy, Portugal and Spain: Ministry of the Interior; United States: Immigration and Naturalization Service.

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entry into Japan after expulsion has been increased from one to five years.

In April 1999, the Greek Government introduced a number of measures to combat illegal immigration, including the setting up of a border police force to combat migrant trafficking, and an increase in the number of patrols in urban centres. As a complement to these, Greece has introduced a policy of the expelling migrants who have committed offences and of escorting undocumented foreigners to the border.

Illegal immigration continued to grow in Italy in 1998 and 1999, despite the systematic conclusion by the government of agreements with neighbouring countries, either as regards as readmission or the quota of foreigners legally allowed to enter Italy. In 1998, as in previous years, new measures to combat illegal immigration and migrant trafficking were introduced in the Netherlands. The Information and Analysis Centre for migrant trafficking has entered into action, in co-operation with the police and immigration and naturalisation services. For some years, between 9 000 and 10 000 persons have been turned back at Schiphol airport for lack of proper documents or on other grounds. In 1998, in decreasing order of importance, the nationals concerned were essentially persons from Afghanistan, Iraq, Ecuador, Nigeria and Sri Lanka. Controls prior to embarkation on flights thought to be at risk continued to be carried out regularly. In 1998, Karachi was added to the list of departure points presenting a risk. The new Aliens Act, currently being discussed, provides for an increase in the powers of inspectors, allowing them in particular to arrest anyone "reasonably suspected of illegal residence". Inspectors will also be able to confiscate and keep temporarily identity and travel documents and, in the event of expulsion, send them directly to the customs authorities of the country of readmission.

On the basis of the new United Kingdom Immigration and Asylum Act, carriers (whether by road, sea or air) may, since May 2000, be fined £ 2 000 for each illegal immigrant discovered in their transport vehicle. This measure was accompanied by a code of good practice for road hauliers and drivers of buses or private vehicles.

In 1998 and 1999, the Baltic States amended their legislation on illegal immigration to bring it into line with European Union standards. In Estonia, the Act on removal and prohibition of entry of October 1998 entered into force in April 1999, in parallel with the amendments adopted in February 1999 as to the sanctions applicable to foreigners residing illegally in the country. A regulation on the return of foreigners was adopted in Lithuania in early 1998, at the same time as a reorganisation of border police services and the preparation of a plan to tighten border controls.

In August 1999, a new identity card system was introduced in Bulgaria, replacing Bulgarian passports. Incorporating an anti-fraud device, these cards should help limit illegal entries into the country. In September 1998, Bulgaria, Romania and Greece signed a trilateral co-operation Protocol to combat transfrontier crime, in particular illegal immigration and migrant trafficking. In June 1999, the Romanian Government adopted a priority Ordinance restructuring border police services and introducing sanctions against anyone facilitating illegal immigration. Moreover, under the Ordinance, carriers are responsible for the cost of expelling undocumented migrants.

As regards the European Union, the European Commission expressed the opinion in the Scoreboard it drafted in March 2000 that the fight against illegal immigration should be stepped up, by combating the criminal networks involved while guaranteeing the rights of victims. By the end of the year 2000, the Commission is to submit a proposal on the adoption of measures laying down minimum rules as to the precise definition of criminal offences and to the sanctions applicable in the sphere of organised crime related to migrant trafficking. In the long term, the objective of the Member States and Europol should be to identify and dismantle the criminal networks involved in migrant trafficking, setting the fight against illegal immigration as one of the priorities of international co-operation. The Scoreboard also provides that the European Union should formulate a coherent policy with regard to readmission and returns. On this point, the Council recently decided systematically to include a model readmission clause in any agreements concluded between the European Community and third countries, and the Commission could be authorised to negotiate readmission agreements with several third countries.

b) Different aspects of policies to prevent and combat the illegal employment of foreigners

The fight against the illegal entry, residence and employment of foreigners has become one of the

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priorities of immigration policies in OECD countries. The persistence of illegal migration, albeit at different levels for different receiving countries, is at the heart of current policy debates. This is true both in countries that have expressed a political will to manage migration flows more effectively and to fight against the trafficking of labour, and in those that continue to receive a large number of immigrants as part of an active policy to recruit permanent migrant workers.

By comparing the policies implemented in OECD Member countries to prevent and sanction the illegal employment of foreigners (see Table I.15), it is possible to analyse the categories of sanctions laid down in law against workers without work permits, their employers, and anyone abetting illegal employment, with special emphasis on the administrative organisation of measures to combat illegal employment and on the greater effectiveness of joint action. This analysis was carried out within the framework of the Seminar organised in The Hague on 22 and 23 April 1999 by the OECD together with the Dutch authorities and the support of the United States (see above). The Acts of this Seminar on "Preventing and Combating the Employment of Foreigners in an Irregular Situation" were published by the OECD in July 2000 under the title *Combating the Illegal Employment of Foreign Workers*. It was seen that although they could be effective, very few preventive measures were to be found in the legislation of Member countries. The analysis also shows that the resources used to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation are limited due to the difficulty of control operations in the field, insufficient information to effect such controls and the lack of data for assessing the results of control operations and the bringing of charges. Lastly, the analysis shows that international co-operation in this field is still rudimentary and remains in most cases bilateral. By way of example, the box below describes the situation in the United States with regard to preventing and combating the illegal employment of foreign workers.

c) Recommendations as to preventing and combating the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation

During the Seminar at The Hague (see above), several recommendations were formulated as to the policies which should be implemented with regard to preventing and combating the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation. They are set out below and will be monitored annually by the OECD Working Party on Migration in order to assess the progress made by Member countries in this sphere.

Whatever is done to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation must address the problem of undeclared work in general and not just the employment of illegal immigrants, which is just one element, and not necessarily the most important, of economic activity in the so-called "underground" or "undeclared" economy. However, policies to address this issue must take into account the fact that illegal immigrants are especially vulnerable because their legal status is precarious: at best they do not have the legal right to work nor do they have, in many instances, the right to reside in the receiving country.

Sanctions against the illegal employment of immigrants must be applied against the main actors involved in the relevant breaches of labour and immigration laws. Sanctions must be applied not only against direct employers, but also indirect ones (subcontractors who outsource segments or phases of their operations). They also apply to any persons who actively promote illegal immigration and/or the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation, be these persons intermediaries seeking profit by providing lodging, for example, or professional traffickers of illegal labour. Lastly, sanctions should apply to the undocumented workers themselves.

Effective strategies against the employment of illegal immigrants must be based on a combination of sanctions and of non-punitive measures (such as the dissemination among employers, immigrants and sending countries, of information governing the entry, stay and access to the labour market, or the risks associated with illegal employment).

Better co-ordination and coherence of administrative measures to tackle the employment of illegal migrants is fundamental, both at national and local level. Such co-ordination is all the more important in that labour markets, and therefore illegal hiring practices, have a strong local dimension. A particularly important area of co-operation among agencies is the exchange of information about illegal practices, the measures taken to address them, and their results. This information should be accurate, and the government agencies concerned must have at their disposal effective and accurate methods to evaluate their interventions. However, this information should not be collected at the expense of individual rights to privacy.

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Table I.15. **Recapitulative table presenting the measures undertaken at the national level to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation in some OECD countries**

	Applicable sanctions				Responsible authorities	Preventive measures (in addition to border controls)	International co-operation
	Direct employer	Indirect employer	Employees	Those abetting illegal immigration or employment			
Australia	Maximum fine of AUD 10 000 (but only applicable as for a person who is aiding and abetting a person to commit a crime against the Commonwealth of Australia)	Maximum fine of AUD 10 000 (but only applicable as for a person who is aiding and abetting a person to commit a crime against the Commonwealth of Australia)	Removal to the border, bar on re-entry	As with employers	The Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affaires, police, customs and security forces	Information campaigns aimed at employers; a review of current measures is under way	There may be approaches to relevant authorities in other countries in particular cases
Japan	Fine and/or imprisonment	Fine and/or imprisonment	Removal to the border, fine and/or imprisonment	Fine and/or imprisonment	Regional immigration offices, police, co-operation between authorities	Information campaigns aimed at employers and workers	Bilateral co-operation with neighbouring states
Norway	Fine (criminal or regulatory) or imprisonment	Fine or imprisonment	Removal to the border, fine and/or imprisonment	Same sanctions as those on employers	Immigration services (immigration, justice and police departments)	Information pamphlets for workers	No measures implemented
Switzerland	Criminal sanctions (fine and imprisonment), regulatory sanctions (refusal of work permits for the foreign employees)	Possible fine (reluctant jurisprudence)	Fine or expulsion, possibly with bar of re-entry	Fine and imprisonment	Cantonal labour offices, regional labour inspectorates, cantonal police for foreigners, federal office for foreigners, police, customs authorities; co-operation between authorities (tax and social authorities), but limited due to data protection	Ad hoc police controls, roadside checks, social partners controls	Bilateral co-operation (exceptional)
Turkey	No sanction	No sanction	Expulsion, fine	Fine and imprisonment, specific sanction for illicit brokerage of labour	Police, action possible by the labour inspectorate and the employment authorities	No preventive measures	No measures implemented
United States	Regulatory fine, criminal sanctions in the more serious cases fulfillment of civil responsibility	Considered as direct employer (same sanction therefore)	Removal to the border	Increased enforcement targeting the smuggling of aliens	Department of immigration and naturalizations, labour and employment department, local police officers, co-operation between authorities	Information campaigns aimed at employers required employment eligibility verification	Bilateral co-operation with Mexico

Table I.15. **Recapitulative table presenting the measures undertaken at the national level to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation in some OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Applicable sanctions				Responsible authorities	Preventive measures (in addition to border controls)	International co-operation
	Direct employer	Indirect employer	Employees	Those abetting illegal immigration or employment			
Austria	Fine, withdrawal of trading licence, ineligibility for public contracts, managing contractor liable, back-payment of taxes and social security contributions	Managing contractor may also be held responsible	Expulsion, bar on re-entry	Information not available	Labour inspectorate, police assistance for inspection operations	Information not available	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union
Belgium	Fine and imprisonment, closure of the company, confiscation of equipment, suspension of activity, regulatory fine, payment of living expenses and the cost of repatriating the illegal worker	Information not available	Order to leave the territory in the case of irregular residence status	Same sanctions as those on employer; specific sanction for illicit brokerage of labour	Labour inspectorate (employment and labour ministry); structured and institutionalised co-operation between inspectorates which are more or less in charge with the combat against illegal employment (common controls between labour inspectorates and security forces)	Press campaigns aimed at employers, distribution of brochures	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union
Finland	Fine or imprisonment fulfillment of civil responsibility	Same sanction as the direct employer if the direct employer is foreign	Fine	Fine or imprisonment in case of assisting the entry and stay of illegal immigrants	Immigration department, police, border control officers, employment services, co-operation between authorities	Information disseminated to employers and workers	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union
France	Fine and/or imprisonment, disbarment from activity, ineligibility for public contracts, confiscation of equipment, closure of premises, publication of the judgement, regulatory fine (special contribution), fulfillment of civil responsibility	Criminal sanctions, jointly liable for costs and fines imposed on direct employer	Minor criminal and regulatory sanctions, removal to the border in the case of irregular residence status	Fine and imprisonment in case of assisting the entry and the stay of illegal immigrants, disbarment from activity, bar on re-entry, ineligibility for public contracts for companies	Labour inspectorate, police, gendarmerie,customs officers, co-operation between authorities	Information disseminated to workers and employers, partnership agreements concluded between central government and employers' organisations, financial incentives to encourage the employment of documented workers	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, special bilateral co-operation with the UK and Germany

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Table I.15. **Recapitulative table presenting the measures undertaken at the national level to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation in some OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Applicable sanctions				Responsible authorities	Preventive measures (in addition to border controls)	International co-operation
	Direct employer	Indirect employer	Employees	Those abetting illegal immigration or employment			
Germany	Regulatory and criminal fine, imprisonment in the more serious cases, ineligibility for public contracts, payment of the cost of repatriating the illegal worker, payment of taxes and social security contributions	High regulatory fines	Regulatory fine	Fine or imprisonment in the case of illicit brokerage of labour, in the case of assisting illegal entry or stay under certain conditions; regulatory fine in the case of assisting illegal employment	Illegal entry or stay: border control police, local authorities concerning foreigners, police illegal employment: federal labour office, customs officers, both with the support of tax, social security, health and safety authorities as well as the local authorities responsible of foreigners and of moonlighting co-operation between authorities coordinated by the federal labour office	Information campaigns, financial incentives to encourage the employment of documented workers	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, bilateral co-operation especially with France, UK, Netherlands, Portugal sometimes (on a regional basis or limited to certain subjects), limited co-operation with certain countries of Central and Eastern Europe and Turkey on work contracts
Greece	Fine (regulatory and criminal) and imprisonment	Fine and imprisonment	Fine and imprisonment, payment of departure tax	Fine and imprisonment in case of assisting the entry and the stay of illegal immigrants, confiscation of means of transport, payment of living expenses and the cost of repatriating the illegal worker	Labour inspectorate, police, customs services, co-operation between authorities	Press campaigns	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union
Netherlands	Fine and/or imprisonment, disbarment from carrying on business, closure of the company, fulfillment of civil responsibility	Managing contractor may also be held responsible	Removal to the border in case of irregular residence status	Fine or imprisonment	Police, ministry of justice, labour inspectorate, co-operation between authorities	Information campaigns aimed at employers and foreign workers, financial incentives to encourage the employment of documented workers	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, bilateral agreement with China
Portugal	Regulatory fines, ineligibility for public contracts, disbarment from accessing to Community funds	Information not available	Disbarment from working, removal to the border in the case of irregular residence status, regulatory fines	Imprisonment in the case of abetting illegal immigration	Labour inspectorate and Immigration services	Information not available	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, readmission agreements with France, Spain, Bulgaria, Poland, and Romania, agreements with Brazil, Cap-Vert, Guinea-Bissau and Spain

Table I.15. **Recapitulative table presenting the measures undertaken at the national level to combat the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation in some OECD countries** *(cont.)*

	Applicable sanctions				Responsible authorities	Preventive measures (in addition to border controls)	International co-operation
	Direct employer	Indirect employer	Employees	Those abetting illegal immigration or employment			
Spain	Regulatory fine, expulsion if foreign civil responsibility in certain cases	Information not available	Removal to the border in case of irregular residence status	Regulatory fine	Labour and social security inspectorate, security forces	Information disseminated to workers	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, readmission agreements with Morocco and Portugal
United Kingdom	Fines since January 1997	Information not available	Removal to the home country, fine or imprisonment	Sanction in case of assisting the entry and the stay of illegal immigrants	Police and immigration services, co-operation between authorities	Information sent to employers concerning the new legislation	Co-operation within the framework of the European Union, special bilateral co-operation with France

Source: Combating the illegal employment of foreigners, OECD, 2000.

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Box 6. Preventing and combating the employment of illegal foreign workers in the United States*

The United States Government estimates that the country has a resident illegal population of about 5.5 million persons, and that this population grows by about 275 000 each year. Available data indicate that the resident illegal population is economically active in roughly the same proportion as the rest of the US population; about two-thirds of the illegal population works in the US. This resident illegal population includes only those who have resided in the US for at least one year, thus excluding the seasonal flow of illegal migrants to the country for employment purposes.

Illegal workers can be found working in all parts of the US economy. However, the greatest concentrations of immigrant- and illegal immigrant – workers are in low-skill, low-wage sectors such as agricultural production, garment manufacturing, food processing, catering, hotels, landscaping and, increasingly, in the construction industry.

The United States clearly recognises that employment is the primary impetus – the "magnet" – for illegal immigration. In addition to border control, the US employs two basic strategies to prevent and combat illegal employment in the country – generous legal immigration for employment purposes, and worksite enforcement.

Generous legal employment-based immigration

In recent years, the US has admitted an average of more than 850 000 people each year as legal permanent immigrants for four principal purposes: family reunification, employment, refugee settlement and diversity. Employment-based immigration accounts for 11 to 14% of total legal permanent immigration, including both workers and their immediate family members.

The substantial provisions for employment-based migration serve as a means for US employers to gain access to, and meet their employment needs in, the international labour market, by allowing foreign workers to gain legal entry to the US labour market. The provisions are also designed to constrain illegal migration for employment purposes. This legal employment-based immigration flow is, of course, regulated and preference is increasingly given to higher-skilled jobs and workers. It obviously does not prevent, but may well help control, the scope of illegal migration for employment purposes, at least in some (higher-skill) sectors of the US economy.

Worksite enforcement

Effective control of the borders and ports-of-entry is a principal strategy for preventing illegal immigration to the United States. Border control is supplemented by a comprehensive three-prong approach to addressing illegal employment at US workplaces: "employer sanctions", labour standards enforcement, and immigration law enforcement.

Since 1986, US immigration law has required employers to take steps to verify the employment eligibility – the legal status – of all workers they hire. The law also protects workers against discrimination based on nationality or ethnic origin. This approach, which recognises that employment is the primary reason for illegal immigration to the US, is intended to enlist employers in the "front line" in preventing and combating illegal immigration. The law also provides for sanctions – administrative, civil fines and, in the worst cases, criminal penalties – if employers fail to follow these procedures, knowingly hire illegal workers, or are guilty of discrimination on the grounds of the worker's nationality or ethnic origin.

It would appear that employer sanctions has been ineffective in preventing the illegal employment of unauthorised workers, and the INS has adjusted its strategy to focus increasingly on the manufacturers and purveyors of false or fraudulent documents, and to develop an alternative mechanism for some employers to verify workers' employment eligibility through access to an automated verification database.

The second prong of the US worksite enforcement strategy involves targeted enforcement of basic labour standards such as minimum wage, overtime, and child labour requirements. This should encourage employers to think again about the risks of being sanctioned, and reduce economic incentives for US employers to hire illegal workers. In some cases, the Department of Labor has co-ordinated its endeavours with the enforcement efforts of the INS, or carried them out jointly with INS or other law enforcement agencies.

The third prong of the US worksite enforcement strategy involves immigration enforcement targeted at US workplaces that employ large numbers of low-skill, low-wage workers.

An assessment of the effectiveness of this approach has led the INS to announce a new strategy focusing on the manufacture and purveyance of false or fraudulent documents and on the increasing problem of the organised smuggling of illegal migrants specifically for US employment. Another new tactic is to examine employers' employment eligibility verification documents against the verification database and to advise the employer as to which workers are falsely documented, requiring that these workers be dismissed or the employer will be subject to inspection and possible sanctions.

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Box 6. **Preventing and combating the employment of illegal foreign workers in the United States*** *(cont.)*

Despite massive increased investment in these comprehensive law enforcement efforts, and continuing elaboration and adjustments in the law enforcement strategy and tools employed, the illegal population and employment in the US continues to increase, though hopefully at a lower rate than would otherwise occur. The effectiveness of this increased investment and evolving, improved strategies in turning around this unacceptable situation must continuously be evaluated.

* This box contains extracts from the document prepared by John Fraser (US Department of Labor), published in *Combating the Illegal Employment of Foreign Workers*, OECD, 2000.

The representatives of several OECD Member countries recommended an awareness-raising programme for those operating national court systems, to alert them to the importance of following through with the application of legal sanctions, and ensuring that all imposed fines are paid in full and in a timely manner. This sort of intervention would reinforce and strengthen the role of sanctions in combating illegal hiring practices inasmuch as fines for such practices are generally low and therefore ineffective as deterrents. Moreover, the powers and capacities of inspection agencies are sometimes insufficient, notably in the case of undocumented work in private residences, to which these agencies have extremely limited access.

The general public must be better informed about the risks and penalties involved in the use of illegal labour. This information should be directed at both employers and workers in industries where these illegal practices are prevalent, but they should also be directed at employers that resort to the use of undeclared labour on an occasional basis only.

The specific measures adopted in certain OECD Member countries can serve as a model for other nations. Examples of best practices include the requirement to notify relevant government agencies prior to recruitment, fiscal incentives for the employment of legal workers (through the reduction of, or exemption from, social charges and taxes in certain sectors and in certain types of job), and the streamlining of contractual and administrative requirements associated with service sector employment (notably as concerns the hiring of domestic help). Another example of a best practice is the forging of partnerships between relevant government agencies on the one hand, and employers and business associations on the other, to promote joint efforts to combat illegal employment.

International co-operation is becoming more urgent, in particular to combat labour trafficking networks. European Union members have become aware of this necessity and the Council of the European Union has adopted several recommendations recently concerning the repression of the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation. Likewise, the Commission of the European Union has produced a report on illegal work in general. This report identifies four main groups of participants in the undeclared economy: multiple job-holders, the "economically inactive" population, the unemployed, and third country nationals illegally resident in the EU. In other OECD Member countries, for example the United States, Canada and Mexico, international co-operation measures, when they exist, are essentially bilateral and often highly specific.

3. Policies aimed at integrating immigrants

For many years, changes in the nature of the migration process and in the societies of host countries have altered the conditions for the integration of foreign and immigrant populations. In some host countries, this has led to changes in the very conception of integration itself. Although traditional integration models have not been called into question, they have had to be adapted due to the effect of a number of factors: immigrants are extending their stays in host countries, and a second, and even a third generation of immigrants have settled in those countries, the geographic origin of migrants and the prevailing modes of entry have become more diverse; and, the economic recession and the persistence of high unemployment have exacerbated the problems encountered in integrating certain

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groups of foreigners and have rendered young people's access to the labour market more difficult.

The OECD Member countries are increasingly concerned about the issue of integrating foreigners who are already present as well as those who plan to reside in the host country for an extended period. However, assessing the level of integration achieved by foreign populations and immigrants remains problematic. The conception of foreigners' integration is rapidly changing in several OECD Member countries: some want to further improve the integration policies already in place while others are only now beginning to recognise the permanent nature of the presence of foreigners in their countries. Integration involves complex social relationships; differences in the performance of nationals *versus* immigrants, based on a few indicators, do not therefore necessarily reflect inequalities between the two groups. Similarly, a convergence of behavioural patterns is not a sure indication of successful integration. Several Member countries have focused their efforts on naturalisation policy, integration by means of schooling children and training adults, and specific integration measures aimed at asylum seekers and refugees, as well as combating racism and discrimination, especially in the workplace. This report will focus on the new integration strategies recently adopted by some OECD Member countries, on acquisition of citizenship and trends in mixed marriages and on policies for integrating foreigners into society and the labour market. The issues of the schooling of immigrant children were dealt with at length in the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration* (OECD, 1999) and will not be repeated here.

a) Main measures recently adopted by some OECD Member countries

In New Zealand, the adoption of measures to facilitate the integration of immigrants and refugees is a priority of the government, which has asked the Immigration Service (NZIS) to develop an integration strategy that will meet the needs of immigrants and refugees in a comprehensive and systematic way.

Italy and Spain, which only recently became immigration countries, have both recently found that the presence of foreigners in their countries is becoming a structural phenomenon. In Italy, this trend manifests itself both in the entry of foreigners into the job market and in their social and cultural integration based on family formation and the expansion of social networks. The growing number of foreign minors, family reunions and the number of residence permits issued for family-related reasons, together with the increase in the naturalisation rate and the number of mixed marriages are other indicators of foreigners' permanent settlement. In the light of these structural changes, the Act of 6 March 1998 aims to promote and improve the integration of foreigners living in Italy.

In Spain, the Act of 11 January 2000 deals explicitly with the rights and freedoms of foreigners and their social integration. Although this Act includes a section on controlling the entry, residence and employment of foreigners, its primary aim is to recognise the permanent nature of the presence of foreigners in the country and to extend to them the basic constitutional rights enjoyed by nationals, such as the right to live together with one's family, freedom of movement within Spain, freedom to meet, demonstrate or associate, the right to education, work, social protection and health care, freedom to join trade unions and go on strike and the right of access to justice. Moreover, the Act prohibits all acts of discrimination, *i.e.* "any act that directly or indirectly involves a distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference *vis-à-vis* a foreigner based on race, colour, descent, national or ethnic origin or religious belief or practice that prevents or restricts the recognition and exercise of human rights and basic freedoms in the political, economic, social or cultural field".

The Danish Parliament passed in June 1998 its first law dealing exclusively with the question of integrating foreigners. This new approach has incorporated the lessons learned from the weaknesses and shortcomings of previous integration measures. It is based on the fact that the unemployment rate is much higher amongst foreigners than amongst Danish nationals. The aim of the new law, which came into force in early 1999, is to promote new arrivals' (both refugees and immigrants) chances of finding work, either through direct access to the job market, or with the help of aid and training programmes.

In some Member countries integration measures aimed at refugees are becoming an increasingly important part of overall integration policy. This is the case in Canada and Australia, whose refugee aid programmes are particularly well-developed, and in Germany which due to the political situation in Central and Eastern Europe has to deal with repeated waves of large numbers of refugees. It is also the case in those countries which recently became immigration countries and are

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accepting increasing numbers of refugees, such as the Czech Republic, Greece, Italy, Mexico and Norway.

A number of OECD Member countries, such as Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark and Switzerland, delegate certain responsibilities for implementing integration policies to local authorities. This relatively recent trend shows that these countries have become aware of the need to ensure the integration of foreigners at the local level in order better to meet their needs and also to respect local specificities. However, it is also possible that they view this delegation of responsibilities as a way of sharing the financial burden of implementing integration policies. In Finland, the Act on the Integration of Immigrants and the Reception of Asylum Seekers, which entered into force in May 1999, apportions responsibility for the integration of foreigners. The Ministry of Labour is responsible for developing integration, co-ordination and control policy. The Regional Centres for Economic Development and Employment are responsible for the integration of foreigners into society and working life. Lastly, municipalities have responsibility for preparing integration programmes in co-operation with the competent employment and social authorities.

Having observed the spread of discriminatory practices, in particular with regard to labour market access, a number of OECD Member countries have become aware of the need to adopt measures aimed at combating racism and discrimination (see below).

b) Acquisition of citizenship

Acquiring the citizenship of a host country reflects a process of gradual economic and social integration, and indeed may facilitate it. The number of naturalisations depends essentially on the magnitude and time of migration waves, and how liberal the legislation concerning citizenship is. It is also linked to how much importance foreigners place upon acquiring the citizenship of the host country and the consequences of the possible loss of their original citizenship.

The basis on which countries determine how citizenship can be acquired and granted, be it birthplace, duration of residence or kinship (for the first two the principle is *jus soli*, for the latter *jus sanguinis*), plays a fundamental role in how the integration of foreigners into the host country is conceived and in the distinctions drawn between foreign and national populations. Changes in naturalisation procedures do occur, either to liberalise laws that have been too restrictive, or *vice versa* (for a more detailed discussion, refer to the special chapter on the acquisition of citizenship in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 1995). These modifications may impact on the naturalisation rate and the extent of the foreign population in the host country, particularly when they aim to facilitate the naturalisation of immigrants' descendants.

In the United States, nationals of Haiti, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras were to benefit from a naturalisation programme in 1999, which had been limited to nationals of Nicaragua and Cuba by the Central American Relief Act (NACARA) in 1997, but this Bill has not yet been passed.

A Bill amending certain provisions on Belgian nationality has been under discussion in Parliament since September 1999, and would simplify and relax the procedures for acquiring citizenship. Citizenship may now be obtained by declaration by persons born in Belgium who have a Belgian parent or who have resided continuously in Belgium for seven years, or by naturalisation under a cost-free procedure if the foreigner has resided in the country for three years. The age conditions will be relaxed, and the Bill proposes elimination of the requirement that the applicants state their "desire for integration".

In Germany, the new Citizenship Code entered into force on 1 January 2000. It radically amends the principle of kinship: German citizenship, which until now has been obtained on the basis of *jus sanguinis*, can now be acquired under certain conditions on the basis of *jus soli*. The period of residence that must precede naturalisation has been shortened. Adult foreigners qualify after eight years' legal residence (instead of the 15 years under the previous law). More than 4 million foreigners (out of a total of 7.4 million) fulfil this requirement. Children born in Germany to foreign parents acquire German citizenship at birth if their father or mother has the right of residence and has legally resided in Germany for eight years or has had a permanent resident permit for three years. These children hold dual citizenship until the age of 23. They must decide between the ages of 18 and 23 which citizenship they wish to adopt. A broad-based information campaign to support the reform has been organised by the Federal Government's Office of the Delegate for Foreigners. One month after the Act's entry into force, the number of naturalisation requests has risen sharply, and even doubled or tripled in some cities.

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Several other countries have recently modified their laws on citizenship. In Greece, a new law which came into force on 30 May 1999 states that applications for naturalisation by the foreign spouses of Greek nationals must be processed immediately, provided that they reside in Greece and have given birth to a child (after the date on which the law was published). As well as facilitating access to Greek citizenship, these measures are also in line with the country's demographic policy to compensate for the Greeks' low birth-rate. In February 2000, after a network for counterfeiting the documents required for naturalisation was discovered, a law was passed to reinforce and centralise the naturalisation procedure for Pontine Greeks from CIS countries. Applications must now be screened by an initial committee in the CIS country concerned and then reviewed by a second committee in Greece.

In Sweden, since the beginning of 1999 it is possible for foreigners who can legally establish their identity to obtain Swedish citizenship if they have resided in the country for at least eight years and if they can prove that their customary identity is correct. Recently, a Citizenship Committee proposed that Sweden recognise dual citizenship. Other measures aimed at facilitating naturalisation for the children of unmarried fathers, adopted children and stateless persons have also been suggested.

In Latvia, following an initial round of modifications in 1995, measures easing the provisions of the Citizenship Act were implemented in 1998. These new measures remove the conditions of birthplace and age from the criteria to be fulfilled to obtain Latvian citizenship. In addition, all children born in Latvia after 1991 automatically acquire citizenship. Naturalisation applications have tripled since this date. In 1999, the Lithuanian Government decided to grant nationality automatically to Russians settled in the country, who account for 8% of the population.

In Bulgaria, a law setting out the conditions for acquiring citizenship and allowing the possibility of dual citizenship for Bulgarian nationals was recently passed. The law introduced for the first time specific criteria for naturalisation, including a period of residence of at least five years, having an income and employment, and mastering the language. Marriage to a Bulgarian national automatically qualifies foreigners for Bulgarian citizenship. In the granting of citizenship, administrative priority is given to refugees, foreigners born in Bulgaria, and the spouses and children of Bulgarian nationals. The Romanian Citizenship Act is to be revised in 2000. Nationality might be granted to foreigners if they renounce their nationality of origin and have resided for at least five years in Romania.

The naturalisation rate, in other words the percentage of the total foreign population that acquires the citizenship of the host country in a given year, and the number of naturalisations are good indicators of foreigners' integration. In 1998, there was an increase in naturalisations in a number of OECD Member countries, such as Sweden, the United Kingdom, Denmark, Finland, France, Spain, Canada and Australia. In that same year, Sweden, the Netherlands, Norway, Finland, Denmark and Belgium had the highest naturalisation rates.

In some OECD countries, naturalisations fell sharply between 1997 and 1998, in particular in the United States, Germany and Norway. In other countries, this decrease was small (Japan, Luxembourg and the Netherlands).

c) Mixed marriages

In several OECD countries, marrying a citizen is still the most common way for foreigners to acquire citizenship. In Switzerland, mixed marriages account for approximately 28% of all marriages. This number rose slightly in 1997 (last available year) over the previous year, amounting to nearly 10 900. In France, the number of mixed marriages has been increasing since 1994, with almost 24 000 mixed marriages in 1996, or slightly more than 9% of all marriages. The same upward trend is found in Belgium, where this percentage is over 14%, which is the same as in Germany. In Australia, as in Switzerland, mixed marriages account for a high percentage of total marriages (nearly one-fourth).

The number of mixed marriages as a percentage of total marriages may be seen as an indicator of the level of integration of immigrant groups into society, in the sense that these marriages create permanent ties to the host country. However, a detailed analysis of the demographic structure of the foreign or foreign-born population is necessary to understand the relative importance of mixed marriages in OECD countries and their links with the integration of immigrants in the host country.

d) Policies for integrating foreigners into society and the labour market

Integration policies vary according to the country depending on the nature of the integration problems encountered and the integration models used.

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Integration policies may thus either be designed for all immigrants, or targeted at particular groups. They may be aimed at new arrivals, or at foreigners already settled in the host country. Of foremost concern to the governments of all host countries is that immigrants quickly master the language. This is viewed as a precondition for integration. Many language training programmes have been implemented by OECD Member countries, aimed both at children, via the school system, or at adults, by means of specific training. In several traditional host countries, changes have recently been made in the modalities of financing measures aimed at the integration of foreigners. The German, Australian and United States Governments, for example, as well as those of Denmark and Switzerland, have decided to let private organisations, local associations, local authorities or the federated states finance and implement integration policies and manage public financing earmarked for this purpose, as opposed to having national or federal bodies bear full financial responsibility for these policies.

Assistance to new arrivals

In Canada and Australia, support to immigrants is provided immediately upon their arrival in the country. Such support takes the form of assistance with administrative procedures and formalities and financial and language assistance. In Australia, several government programmes are aimed directly at new immigrants, particularly as regards teaching English to children (Youth ESL) and adults. In the case of adults, the government implemented in 1997-98 an educational system based on teaching in the home or in small groups (ESL Home Tutor Scheme). Programmes to assist ethnic communities (Community Programs) give preference to foreigners with humanitarian status, new arrivals, women and senior citizens, and those living in isolated rural areas. The National Integrated Settlement Strategy is a more general government programme to facilitate the integration of all foreigners and to co-ordinate the programmes of several ministries.

The Canadian Government has implemented several programmes aimed at facilitating the integration of immigrants. The most important of these are: the "Language Program for New Immigrants to Canada"; the "Resettlement Assistance Program" which provides assistance, notably in the form of temporary accommodation and interpretation services, to individuals admitted to Canada as part of the annual refugee plan; the "Introduction Program"; and, the "Program for the Settlement and Integration of Immigrants" which provides funds to community-based organisations involved in the integration of new arrivals (offering interpretation and employment-related services, and cultural awareness programmes).

In European countries, integration policies focus on the schooling of children, vocational training, learning the language of the host country, and assistance in obtaining accommodation and access to health care. In Germany, projects aimed at the integration of foreigners implemented by the Labour and Social Affairs Ministry focus on language teaching, the social and professional integration of young people and women, and on improving everyday relations between Germans and foreigners. In Sweden, a new integration policy has been applied since 1998, which systematically takes into account cultural and ethnic diversity. The policies specifically aimed at foreigners as a group must be limited to the investments and the measures necessary during the first years after their arrival in Sweden. Implementation of this new integration policy is being monitored by the National Integration Office, created in June 1998. One of the Norwegian Government's priorities is to provide new arrivals with the means of becoming independent as rapidly as possible and to reduce unemployment among foreigners.

In Denmark, the new Integration Act of 26 June 1998, which became effective in January 1999, requires local authorities to implement an introduction programme aimed at new foreign arrivals over the age of 18. This three-year programme includes courses in Danish language and culture, as well as training on how to obtain employment. During the introduction period, a special allowance is granted to refugees and immigrants in need of financial assistance. The Integration Act also provides for the setting up of Integration Councils in towns where more than 50 people request it. These Councils may issue public assessments of integration initiatives undertaken by the municipality and of introduction programmes implemented by local authorities.

Several OECD Member countries have recently implemented specific programmes aimed at facilitating the return and reintegration of their nationals. In Korea, a law on the emigration, immigration and status of Koreans abroad was passed in January 2000. Persons of Korean origin may now settle in Korea for two years and have their residence extended. They are also authorised to enter Korea freely for the purpose of visits, and may hold employment and engage

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in economic activities such as the purchase of real estate. Persons who reside in Korea for longer than three months receive medical cover.

In Greece, in February 2000 the government passed legislation transferring responsibility for the integration of return Greek emigrants and persons of Greek origin from the Secretariat-General for Greeks Abroad to the Ministry of the Interior.

Special assistance for refugees and asylum seekers

Several OECD Member countries have been faced with significantly growing numbers of asylum seekers and refugees over the past few years, and have adapted their integration policies and/or implemented special programmes to assist these two categories of foreigners. In New Zealand, assistance is provided to refugees through the Mangere Refugee Resettlement Centre. Refugees may stay there for six weeks and the Centre provides them with accommodation and information services and medical care.

In Canada, several programmes aim to facilitate the introduction and integration of refugees and individuals with humanitarian status, such as the "Private Sponsorship of Refugees Program", the "Refugee Resettlement Model" implemented in 1999 and the "Resettlement Assistance Program" which replaced the Adaptation Assistance Program in April 1998. Most of these programmes are run jointly by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) and private organisations. They aim to provide financial and material assistance to refugees and individuals admitted for humanitarian reasons, as well as to help them gain access to basic services.

The new Danish law on integration, passed in June 1998, transfers the responsibilities of the National Council for Refugees regarding integration to local authorities. An accommodation programme in towns, based on a quota system, requires that local authorities assist refugees in finding accommodation suited to their personal circumstances.

Integrating foreigners into the labour market and combating racism and discrimination

Vocational training and facilitating the access of young people and the unemployed to the labour market are other fundamental elements of OECD Member countries' integration policies. In many OECD countries, foreigners have higher unemployment rates than nationals, and it has proved difficult to integrate them into the labour market. Numerous programmes have been implemented at both the national and local level. Generally aimed at those groups with the highest unemployment (the long-term unemployed and older unemployed people, women with few qualifications and young people leaving the educational system without qualifications), they provide either training or vocational experience contracts or jobs sponsored by the State, both in the public and private sectors. New initiatives aimed at combating racism and discrimination in the workplace attempt to address the problems associated with the integration of the recent waves of immigrants, particularly in those countries that had not previously experienced a foreign population influx.

The Greek Government is preparing a Bill that would transfer the responsibility for economic immigrants now exercised by the Ministry of Public Order to the Ministry of the Interior. This law will contain provisions on the integration into society of foreigners and return Greek emigrants. The Bill also provides for the creation of an Interministerial Committee for Migration Policy and greater involvement of local authorities in the integration of these two categories of immigrants.

In Denmark, the new Integration Act of June 1998 provides for assistance and financial support measures to aid new arrivals in their search for work, so that they can be integrated into the labour market as soon as possible. In France, attempts to facilitate immigrants' integration into the labour market form part of wider efforts concerning the provision of vocational training and promoting the access of young people and the unemployed to the labour market.

In the Netherlands, both general and specific measures are in place to facilitate the integration of foreigners into the labour market. The general law on recruiting job-seekers came into force on 1 January 1998. It requires that municipalities implement measures to facilitate the integration of foreigners into the labour market, specifically by means of linguistic and vocational training. Young job-seekers and the long-term unemployed who find it hard to find work may be placed by municipalities in subsidised positions in public or private companies. In the spring of 1998, a working party on minorities and the labour market was set up by the Ministries of the Interior and Social Affairs. Composed of representatives of the social partners, private organisations and minority groups, it has been given the task of improving the balance between the supply of and demand for jobs for minority groups.

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In Norway, the government has submitted two reforms to Parliament aimed respectively at authorising year-round seasonal permits, which are currently limited to a period between 15 May and 31 October, and at lowering the minimum education level required to obtain a work permit, which is currently set at three years of higher education. In August 1999, the legislation on the issuance of work permits was relaxed for nationals of member countries of the Council of the Barents Sea to allow Norwegian fishing companies to employ Russian staff. Nationals of Central and Eastern European countries should also be able to benefit from this measure. The government has also commissioned a group of legal experts to propose changes in the system of training and education provided to new immigrants so as to make it more coherent and effective.

Measures implemented to facilitate the integration of foreigners into the labour market are aimed not only at providing access to employment, but also at combating racism and discrimination in the workplace. In Norway, the Centre for Combating Ethnic Discrimination, created in September 1998, was officially inaugurated by the Minister for Local Authorities and Regional Development in February 1999. This Centre will provide legal assistance to victims of discrimination based on religion, race, colour or national or ethnic origin. In the Czech Republic, the 1999 Employment Act contains specific provisions aimed at combating the discrimination of which foreigners in particular might be victims.

In Germany, a project on developing strategies aimed at dealing with xenophobia amongst Germans and foreigners was implemented in the Ruhr region in early 1998. This programme aims to resolve inter-cultural conflicts which may arise in the workplace or in everyday relations, and to develop strategies to prevent the isolation of immigrants.

In Belgium, in July 1999 the government undertook to evaluate the effectiveness of the current legislation against racism and revisionism and to adapt it if necessary. The Centre for Equal Opportunity and the Fight against Racism will participate in this evaluation. A general anti-discrimination law, which in particular will prohibit discrimination on the basis of sexual preference, is to be presented to Parliament. A collective bargaining agreement, signed in July 1998, requires that employers may not when recruiting discriminate between candidates on the basis of their age, sex, marital status, medical history, race, skin colour, national or ethnic origin, political or religious beliefs, or membership of a union or any other organisation.

Over the past two years, the French Government has become aware of the extent of discriminatory practices against foreigners and persons of foreign origin and has decided to adopt measures to combat these practices both in everyday life and in the hiring of workers. A round-table discussion on racial discrimination in the workplace was held between the government and the other social partners in May 1999. Several approaches were proposed and discussed. These included how to: broaden knowledge and understanding of discriminatory practices; improve the training of all those in the public and private spheres involved in combating discrimination; develop sponsorship of young job-seekers; and, include clauses on combating racism in contracts signed with municipalities. Proposals to modify legislation in order to increase the effectiveness of measures against racial discrimination were also discussed. A working group on discrimination (*Groupe d'étude des discriminations, GED*), which was set up on 15 April 1999, will present papers and run awareness-raising campaigns aimed at broadening knowledge and understanding of racial discrimination. Its scope will encompass all aspects of society, notably employment, accommodation, contact with public services, culture and education.

Recently transformed into the working group on combating discrimination (*Groupe d'étude et de lutte contre les discriminations, GELD*), it will be responsible for managing the toll-free anti-discrimination telephone number and a toll-free number for filing complaints regarding racial discrimination. Special commissions have been set up in French *départements* (*Commissions départementales d'accès à la citoyenneté, CODAC*) to detect discriminatory acts at the local level. Their responsibilities will be defined in the course of 2000. After organising "citizenship meetings" (*Assises de la citoyenneté*) in March 2000, the government has decided to strengthen the system for combating discrimination and is going to create an interministerial committee comprising representatives of the Ministries of the Interior, Employment and Social Affairs and Justice.

In the European Union in November 1999, the Commission presented a series of anti-discrimination proposals based on Article 13 of the Treaty of Amsterdam, which authorises the Council to take the necessary measures to combat any discrimination based on sex, race or ethnic origin, religion or

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beliefs, disability, age or sexual orientation. One of these proposals concerns implementation of the principle of the equal treatment of persons regardless of race or ethnic origin. In May 2000, after consulting Parliament, the Commission amended this text, extending its application to the public sector, to public bodies and legal persons, as well as to unpaid and voluntary work, practical training programmes and medical and home care. The proposal is followed by a report on its impact on firms, particularly small and medium-sized enterprises. The Commission considers that legislation protecting persons against arbitrary discrimination helps to promote participation in social life and prevent social exclusion. It ensures that firms have at their disposal the most highly qualified workers and requires employers to justify their decisions in fields such as recruitment, promotion, access to training and other working conditions.

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

Together with co-operation to control flows, co-operation on regional economic integration and sustainable development is also a means of eventually reducing the incentives to emigrate in those countries with high emigration potential. Linking migration and development is a way of prompting policy-makers in host and sending countries to take more broadly into account the impact on migration of measures taken in international economic relations. In this regard, there is a growing desire to develop real partnerships with sending countries in order to involve them in the fight against illegal immigration. In this connection, this report will examine recent developments in partnership policies with sending countries in the field of joint development and assistance to returning immigrants, followed by developments in association agreements between the European Community and a number of third countries. Lastly, special attention will be given to the new migration policies that candidate countries will be required to adopt with a view to acceding to the European Union.

a) Partnership for joint development and assistance to returning immigrants

National policies

In the Netherlands, a new law on the return of immigrants entered into force on 15 June 1999. Prior legislation was aimed at facilitating the voluntary return of non-Dutch refugees and immigrants from Mediterranean countries. The new law offers long-term unemployed persons over the age of 45 a monthly allowance if they return to their country. The new provisions comprise supplementary medical insurance, the introduction of a special visa facilitating visits to family members still residing in the Netherlands, the indexing of the monthly allowances and an option to return to the Netherlands one year after returning to the home country. The law also comprises individualised allowances in the event of divorce, financial provisions for orphans until they reach their majority and a specific provision for disabled persons who did not request an allowance under the former system; in addition, this system also includes nationals of EU countries from former recruitment countries (Greece, Italy, Spain and Portugal).

Germany is currently implementing a programme of joint development and assistance to returning immigrants intended mainly, but not only, for refugees who wish to return to their country of origin. This programme, established by the Ministry for Economic co-operation and Development, is based on financial aid, a system of special loans and job-search assistance to enable trained foreigners and refugees to use the skills and experience that they have acquired in Germany to promote development in their own country. In this framework, Germany has signed bilateral agreements with a number of countries, including Turkey, Chile, Vietnam, Slovenia, Croatia, the ex-Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Albania and the Palestinian Authority. An agreement with Bosnia-Herzegovina is currently under discussion.

After having launched the "local development/ migration" programme in 1995, in 1998 France drew up a joint development policy with sending countries, and established an "interministerial delegate for joint development and international migration" under the supervision of the Minister for Employment and Solidarity. One of the first measures taken under this policy was the initiative to find timely solutions to enable foreigners who did not qualify for regularisation to return to their country under acceptable conditions. This policy is based on two different schemes, *i.e.* re-integration assistance and a contract for re-integration in the country of origin. Re-integration assistance is aimed only at foreigners who have to leave France, some of whom are accompanied by their families. Psychological assistance,

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administrative and material and financial aid are provided in France before their departure. Assistance for the resettlement of persons and for starting up small self-employment projects is also granted to return immigrants in the country of origin.

A contract for re-integration in the country of origin is currently available to nationals of Mali, Morocco and Senegal who are asked to leave France. This contract entitles immigrants to training in France, followed by additional training in the country of origin following their return. Six months after the return, the *Office des migrations internationales* (OMI) generally confirms that returnees have been effectively re-integrated, and may recommend that they be granted a visa allowing them to travel between their country of origin and France.

European policy of partnership with sending countries

One of the facets of the common European policy on asylum and immigration, as defined by the Tampere European Council in December 1999, consists of establishing partnerships with sending countries. The comprehensive approach to migration that is to be developed will encompass political aspects, human rights and development issues in the sending and transit countries and regions, on the basis of a partnership aimed at promoting joint development.

To this end, the High Level Working Group on Asylum and Migration created in December of 1998 was instructed to develop action plans for specific countries (Afghanistan and bordering regions, Morocco, Albania and bordering regions, Somalia, Sri Lanka and Iraq) aimed primarily at analysing the political, economic and human rights situations in these countries and the causes of migration and the reasons that lead people to leave their country. These action plans contain proposals for concrete, operational measures for co -operation with the countries concerned in three integrated fields: foreign policy, economic development and assistance and migration and asylum. The Group's mandate is to be extended and further action plans may be prepared for other countries and regions that have yet to be determined.

b) Agreements between the European Community and Turkey and the countries of the Maghreb

The association agreement with Turkey

In virtue of the association Agreement concluded in 1963 between the European Community and Turkey, the signatories have agreed to draw on the provisions of the Treaty of Rome in order gradually to effect the free movement of workers, the freedom of establishment and the free provision of services, as well as the adoption of the measures necessary in the areas of social protection for Turkish workers taking up employment within the Community. Three decisions of the EC-Turkey Association Council have related to the conditions for renewing Turkish nationals' work and residence permits and the co-ordination of social security regimes for Turkish workers and their families. Although complete freedom of movement for Turkish workers within the European Community has not yet been granted, numerous rulings of the European Union Court of Justice have specified the legal scope of the provisions of the Association Agreement and the decisions of the Association Council. Little by little, the Court has recognised a direct effect of many of these provisions, thereby conferring rights and guarantees to Turkish workers and their families residing in Member States of the Community. In the Surul decision of 4 May 1999, the Court recognised the direct effect of an article of Decision 3/80 of the Association Council of 19 September 1980, which set down the principle of equality of treatment with respect to social security.

The Nazli decision of 10 February 2000 confirmed the right to work of a Turkish worker who had been given a suspended prison sentence and who had been held in pre-trial detention for over a year, as well as his right to obtain an extension of his residence permit pursuant to Decision 1/80 of the EC/Turkey Association Council. Furthermore, the Court ruled that his deportation could not be justified merely as a means of deterring other foreigners, but must be ordered on grounds of maintaining law and order, as defined by Community Law, *i.e.* if it is considered that the individual's personal conduct constitutes an immediate threat to law and order.

In the Savas decision of 11 May 2000, the Court ruled that, since the practical provisions governing the right of free establishment (and therefore of residence) of Turkish nationals had not been determined by the Association Council, the provisions of the Association Agreement and its Additional Protocol do not have a direct effect in EU Member States. The Court also ruled that the standstill clause provided for in the Additional Protocol has a direct effect and clearly prohibits the contracting States from introducing new national restrictions to the

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freedom of establishment and right of residence of Turkish nationals, as from the date of entry into force of the Protocol, 1 January 1973.

Co-operation Agreements with Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria

The agreements signed by the Community, Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco in 1976 simply provide for the non-discriminatory treatment of workers from these countries with respect to working conditions, wages and social benefits. Recent judgements of the European Community Court of Justice confirm the desire to provide enhanced protection at the Community level for immigrant workers from the countries of the Maghreb. The El Yassini decision of 2 March 1999 recognises notably the direct effect of paragraph 1 of article 40 of the EC-Morocco Agreement, which set down the principle of equality of treatment for Moroccan workers and their families regarding their pay and conditions of employment. Moroccan workers can now take direct advantage of this principle. Nevertheless, the Court has refused to allow, by analogy with the principles of jurisprudence drawn from the EC-Turkey Agreement, that Moroccan workers have the right to reside in a Member State of the Community once they have been granted the right to work in that same State. The Court has in fact taken the view that "the free movement of workers is not the objective of the EC-Morocco Agreement".

In the Fatna Mesbah decision of 11 November 1999, the Court laid down the rules of application of the co-operation agreement in the case of a worker with dual citizenship as a result of having acquired the nationality of the host Member State. The Court ruled that in such cases the conflict of nationalities should be resolved under the law of the Member State concerned and that the EC-Morocco Agreement only applied if the courts of the Member State ruled that the worker was of Moroccan nationality. In the same decision, the Court gave an extensive interpretation of the concept of "family members" of a Moroccan worker, considering that the worker's ascendants and those of his spouse were family members as well as his spouse and children.

Three new Association Agreements based on a uniform model have been established in place of the co-operation agreements of 1976. The Agreement signed with Tunisia on 17 April 1995 came into force on 1 March 1998. On the basis of this agreement, a working group was established in September 1999 by a decision of the EC-Tunisia Association Council and was instructed to evaluate the implementation of the social provisions contained in the agreement.

The Agreement with Morocco was signed on 10 November 1995 and came into force on 1 March 2000. Negotiations on an Agreement with Algeria continue. The measures for workers remain largely similar to those of the earlier agreements, with the addition of the principle of non-discrimination for dismissal from employment. The agreements specify in a common statement that the granting, renewal, and refusal of residence permits is regulated solely by the legislation of member States and the bilateral agreements between these States and each country. The measures on the right of establishment and provision of services remain very limited, and in contrast with what is provided for in the European Association Agreements concluded with the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, they are only applicable to companies from Maghreb countries and not to their nationals. The possibility of including the right of establishment and liberalisation of service provision within the scope of the EC-Maghreb Agreement is to be reviewed by the States no more than five years after their entry into force.

The initiation of a social dialogue is planned, addressing notably "all the problems relating to the quality of life and work of migrant communities, migration movements, illegal immigration, and policies and programmes favouring equal treatment between the nationals of third Mediterranean countries and EU countries". In addition, the re-integration of nationals found to be in an irregular situation who have been repatriated to their country of origin is considered a priority issue.

These new agreements are an integral part of the policy of regional integration of the Mediterranean Basin being conducted by the European Union as part of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership that it established in Barcelona in 1995. This partnership is to be structured in three parts: a political and security partnership making it possible to define a common area of peace and stability, an economic and financial partnership making it possible to build an area of shared prosperity, and a partnership in the social, cultural and human fields aimed at developing human resources, promoting understanding between cultures and exchanges between civil societies.

The migration issue is addressed in the third part, through an approach involving controlled

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management of immigration. The participants in the Barcelona Conference decided to step up their co-operation for easing migratory pressures, to establish closer co-operation in the field of illegal immigration and to adopt bilateral readmission agreements. At the same time, the States undertook to protect all rights recognised by the existing legislation for immigrants legally settled in their respective countries. Furthermore, the European Commission had already pointed out that a considerable proportion of the immigrants in the Community were from this region, with which they often maintained close ties and to the economy of which they often made a welcome contribution through their remittances.

c) Association Agreements between the European Community and the countries of Central and Eastern Europe

These association agreements and their main provisions regarding the movement of workers, the right of establishment and provision of services were presented in the previous edition of this report (*cf. Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 1999). The present report will confine itself to describing the CEECs' strategy of accession to the European Union.

The accession strategy of the CEECs was developed on the basis of the "Copenhagen principles" (European Council of June 1993). The Europe Agreements were considered to be part of an overall "pre-accession strategy" and then a "reinforced pre-accession strategy", the principles of which were established by the Commission in Agenda 2000 and ratified by the Luxembourg European Council in December 1999. The PHARE Programme, which is the financial instrument of the reinforced pre-accession strategy, and which had been extended in 1994 to the field of home affairs and justice, was reoriented at the end of 1998 so as to concentrate more effectively on the objectives of accession. The programme gives particular priority to enabling the candidate States to strengthen their administrative and judicial capacity, especially in the field of home affairs and justice. It can also co-finance investments to equip candidate countries with infrastructure, and as from 2000, it will be supplemented by new financial instruments that will make it possible to support public or private investment in this field. As from this same date, the PHARE Programme will devote part of its budget to regional development and social cohesion.

Accession partnerships were established with each candidate country, which set out the short- and medium-term priorities. In conjunction with these partnerships, each country prepares a national programme for the adoption of the *acquis communautaire* (NPAA), which indicates the resources and timetable for the implementation of partnership priorities. In addition, all candidate countries from Central and Eastern Europe have been allowed to participate in Community programmes, in particular in the fields of education, vocational training, small and medium-sized enterprises and public health.

At the Luxembourg European Council in December 1997, it was decided in particular to start accession negotiations with Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Slovenia, and these negotiations began in March 1998. At the same time, the Commission implemented a process of annual evaluation ("screening") of the progress accomplished by the candidate countries in applying the *acquis*; the latest evaluation dates from October 1999. On the basis of the Commission's proposals, the Helsinki European Council gave a new dimension to the enlargement process.

The overall report on the progress of each candidate country on the road to accession was released by the Commission on 13 October 1999 for consideration at the Helsinki European Council in December 1999. Since the Cologne European Council in June 1999 had emphasised the importance of establishing the prospects of accession for the candidate countries with which negotiations had not yet been initiated, the Commission, in its overall report, endeavours not only to evaluate the progress towards meeting the Copenhagen criteria, but also to make proposals for an accession strategy for all candidate countries. Most of its proposals were approved by the Helsinki European Council.

In the field of justice and home affairs, the Commission has observed that in the ten candidate countries of Central and Eastern Europe, progress is uneven across sectors and in relation to adoption and implementation. Immigration, asylum, police, drugs, border controls, the fight against corruption, judicial co-operation and the general reform of the judicial system are essential issues that the candidate countries must address. According to the Commission, Lithuania, Estonia, Slovenia, Latvia and Bulgaria have made major progress, but Hungary has made little progress, and Poland, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic have progressed only slowly. Lastly, much remains to be done in Romania. On the whole, it seems that the imple-

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mentation of an effective border management system poses great difficulties in most candidate countries, in particular in Poland, Romania and the Czech Republic. In this connection, the Tampere European Council devoted to home affairs and justice asked in October 1999 that the candidate countries be rapidly included in the co-operation and technical mutual assistance that needs to be developed between the border control services of EU Member States.

d) The new dimension of the EU enlargement process: implications for the migration policies of countries that are candidates for accession

The Helsinki European Council on 10 and 11 December 1999 marked a new stage in the enlargement process. Recalling that accession to the European Union is conditional upon compliance with all the Copenhagen criteria, it "reaffirms the inclusive character of the accession process, which now comprises 13 candidate States within a single framework". This being the case, on the basis of the Commission's reports, the European Council decided to organise in February 2000 bilateral intergovernmental conferences with a view to initiating negotiations with Romania, the Slovak Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria and Malta on the terms of their accession.

Nevertheless, the European Council recalled, as had been agreed when the first negotiations began in March 1998, that each candidate State would be judged on its own specific merits. Furthermore, in its overall report the Commission considered that "the opening of negotiations should be determined on the basis of the 'principle of differentiation', in particular to take account of the fact that some candidates are not immediately in a position to meet the Copenhagen criteria in the medium term". This principle of differentiation will therefore apply whenever a new chapter is to be opened for negotiation.

The application of the Amsterdam Treaty will lead to fundamental changes in immigration and asylum, since there is virtually complete agreement among the EU Member States that a genuine common policy must be developed in this field and that they must agree on the means of attaining this goal. The countries wishing to accede to the European Union must now consider the new measures as being part of the *acquis* of the European Union, and will therefore have to incorporate them into their national legislation. In particular, they will be subject to specific constraints regarding the surveillance of foreign borders and compliance with international standards on asylum, visas and immigration. Although the European Union is providing assistance to help candidate countries overcome these difficulties through financial and technical aid programmes, such as the PHARE Programme, this aid will not in itself be sufficient to solve all problems, in particular those concerning the adjustment of government departments and the upgrading of human resources.

A number of Central and Eastern European countries, such as the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, which are in the pre-accession phase, have adopted the measures necessary for this adjustment, and have in particular concluded a series of readmission agreements to counter illegal immigration. The Czech Republic has recently revised its immigration legislation and visa policy (see above). For Hungary, this adjustment concerns two main aspects: ensuring the free movement of persons in the European Union and reinforcing foreign border controls. Specific provisions are also being prepared to align Hungarian legislation with the Association Agreement concluded with the European Community. In particular, these provisions include preferential treatment for EU citizens, and others that have recently been adopted concern the status of the key corporate staff.

The issue of refugees and the right of asylum raise special difficulties: the candidate countries, which have been transit countries for asylum seekers wishing to reach the European Union, are now themselves becoming destination countries. They have as a general rule ratified the 1951 Geneva Convention on refugees, as well as the other international treaties on human rights. They will have to adopt the 1990 Dublin Convention on determining the State responsible for examining applications for asylum, which is now in force in the EU Member countries. The Commission foresees that it will ultimately be necessary to establish a common asylum procedure and a uniform status valid throughout the Union for granting asylum. Candidate countries will also have to adapt their legislation accordingly.

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Box 7. Migrations and the labour market in the CEECs in the context of European Union enlargement

It can now be seen to be essential to establish the links between migration and labour markets, which the Bratislava seminar proposed to do for CEECs in the context of their accession to the European Union. This seminar was organised in March 2000 by the OECD, the Slovak authorities and the Austrian Federal Chancellery with the support of the Swiss Confederation. The principal objectives of the seminar were to analyse the employment characteristics of foreign workers in selected Central and Eastern European countries, to analyse in greater depth the functioning of the labour market at the regional level (including frontier areas) and to propose measures to better regulate the movements and exchange of foreign workers between the CEECs themselves on the one hand and between the CEECs and the European Member countries of the OECD on the other. Four main topics were examined during the seminar. They are described below and include the key proposals formulated.

Migration flows and the status of foreign workers in the CEECs. Both in terms of flows and in terms of status of foreign workers, clear differences are apparent across the CEECs. A first category of countries, which includes Hungary and the Czech Republic, are highly open, notably as regards FDI and trade. Their management of work permits is insufficiently regulated. They are experiencing the emergence of stable immigration, accompanied in the case of Hungary by the diversification of the countries of origin (Asian countries in particular). A second category of countries are experiencing unfavourable economic and social conditions and have a closed attitude with regard to immigration even though inflows are very low. This is true notably of Bulgaria and Romania. A third category of countries, comprised of the Slovak Republic and Poland, can be considered as the intermediate case: the Slovak Republic's migration flows are quite low, and Poland is experiencing both high emigration and immigration flows (these latter are mostly temporary). The idea that the CEECs constitute a "buffer zone" between the EU and the principal regions of emigration in the Republics of the former Soviet Union (in particular Ukraine and Belarus) was also discussed in depth.

The examination of work permit exemptions accorded to foreigners reveals a cleavage between the CEECs: Poland grants them mostly to professors, researchers and medical practitioners, whereas the Czech Republic grants them mostly to self-employed workers, employees and, like Hungary, managers of foreign-owned companies. This difference would appear to be linked to the fact that Hungary and the Czech Republic receive the most FDI. With regard to the status of residents and foreign workers in some of the CEECs, the existence of legislative lacunae in these countries was identified, notably with regard to the unauthorised employment of foreigners. There exist in fact few sanctions which can be imposed on foreign workers in an irregular situation, and there exist no provisions to impose sanctions against their employers or the intermediaries who facilitate unauthorised employment. Legislation in the majority of the CEECs is much more liberal in this regard than that prevailing in the Member States of the EU. This is doubtless due to the fact that immigration, both legal and illegal, is for the CEECs a relatively new phenomenon. In general, the procedures for granting work permits are very restrictive with regard to salaried workers, whereas the legislation is typically imprecise and occasionally very liberal with regard to self-employed workers.

Aggregated data on the labour market, for example unemployment and participation rates, demonstrate that the levels and the degrees of variation are broadly the same in the CEECs and the Member States of the EU. This implies that the decision to emigrate does not depend solely on the labour market situation and that more in-depth analysis is necessary in order to better identify the causes of migration in the region. The differences in wages across common borders are at the moment very high and are contributing to economic development in the majority of the frontier regions. These differences, which vary considerably, can be expected to diminish. Nevertheless, unemployment persists in the CEECs and long-term unemployment is developing in some of them, creating contrasting situations across countries.

Migration and regional integration. Some participants took the view that governments should encourage, indeed facilitate, the economic integration of frontier areas, where personal mobility is often high, as this would progressively moderate the economic disparities across frontier regions. Switzerland was mentioned in this regard to point out the nature and intensity of the socio-cultural links formed in the frontier regions, and the positive influence of cross-border employment on Switzerland's economic development and its labour market. This Swiss example might serve as a basis for deeper reflection on the role of regional economies and the movement of cross-border workers in the context of EU enlargement. This model could also inform reflections on the development of exchanges between the CEECs, notably with a view to better promoting the economic and social integration of ethnic minorities.

The adjustment of the CEECs' migration policies. In the CEECs, migration flows are becoming more diverse both in their origin and in their nature (labour migration, permanent or temporary, family-linked migration, refugees and asylum applicants, etc.). Border controls and the control of flows, visa policy, combating the employment of foreigners in an irregular situation should be the subject of more precise legislation and the implementation of measures in their regard should be more efficient. Furthermore, the status of migrant salaried

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Box 7. **Migrations and the labour market in the CEECs in the context of European Union enlargement** *(cont.)*

workers should be improved, in particular as regards the issuance and renewal of work permits and the roles in the recruitment process accorded to specialised public or private agencies. Finally, to varying extents according to the country concerned, the legal framework regulating the situation of self-employed foreign workers needs either to be more clearly defined in order to prevent potential immigrants from abusing this channel of entry (the Czech Republic, for example), or to have the gaps filled in (Hungary, for exa mple). Lastly, the CEECs need to co-ordinate their strategies in the area of migration policy with regard to the countries with which they will share the external borders of an enlarged EU.

The CEECs could in this regard anticipate the accession process by developing a real social dialogue, on the one hand, between the social partners in their respective countries and, on the other, between themselves. For its part, the EU should attempt to draw up common principles concerning equality of treatment and non-discrimination with regard to nationality in the context of access to the labour market. The European Commission did in fact present proposals to this end in November 1999; these are currently under discussion in the Council (see above).

The prospective enlargement of the EU to include the CEECs. The CEECs are in the middle of a transition period with regard to their relations with the EU. On the one hand, the association agreements, called the Europe Agreements, are in their implementation phase. On the other hand, the accession negotiations which began with the majority of the CEECs have since been extended to include all of them. The EU has progressively defined the new bases of European policy with regard to immigration and asylum, which renders difficult at the moment the precise definition of the "acquis" which the CEECs are required to respect and integrate into their national legislations. The institutional reforms which are currently being undertaken by the EU, which have the aim of receiving the candidate countries under conditions acceptable to all, can be expected to contribute to easing some of these difficulties. An improvement in relations and co-operation with the institutions of the EU is also necessary, notably as regards the CEECs' participation in Community programmes (for example, in the areas of education and vocational training) and the issue of the right of establishment during the transition period which will follow their accession to the EU.

Notes

1. This sub-section was drafted by John Simpson, Consultant to the OECD, on the basis of the national reports delivered by the experts having participated in the workshop on "Migration and the labour market in Asia" organised by the Japan Institute of Labour and the Japan Ministry of Labour, in collaboration with the ILO and the OECD and held in Tokyo in January 2000.
2. Unskilled nationals from countries other than Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand are permitted to work in Malaysia on an exceptional basis only.
3. A revision from the figure of 30% quoted from the Ministry of Finance in last year's report.
4. Due to the fall in the number of documented foreign workers and the requirement that they contribute 9% of their gross wage to the Malaysian Employees Provident Fund (which is, in principle, to be reimbursed when they leave) the amount of remittances transmitted through official channels by foreign workers in Malaysia fell by almost 50% in 1998 to MYR3.2 billion.
5. Founded in 1992 by the Visegrad countries, the Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA) comprised, at the middle of 1999, the founding members (Hungary, Poland, The Czech and Slovak Republics) joined by Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia.
6. The present state of the CEECs' migration statistics is such that they adequately cover neither migration movements, the number of foreigners in the population nor the number of foreign workers.
7. Section C has been drafted with the co-operation of Lucile Barros, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.

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Part II

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE LEGISLATION AND THE PROCEDURES GOVERNING THE IMMIGRATION OF FAMILY MEMBERS IN CERTAIN OECD COUNTRIES

A. INTRODUCTION

This study[1] focuses mainly on the following OECD countries: Australia, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as on Bulgaria and the Slovak Republic. These countries have had to deal with the presence and growth of substantial groups of foreign workers who have been settled there for long periods of time; they have accordingly introduced family reunion, and turned it into a specific right that is generally restricted to foreigners, although some countries apply this procedure to the foreign families of their own nationals.

The arrival of families enables immigrant workers to lead normal family lives, contributes to their security, and integrates them into the countries where they have settled. Furthermore, since restrictions were applied to immigration in several OECD countries in Europe, family reunion has become the main legal means of entering certain countries. However, in non-European OECD countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States, permanent immigration is not subject to major restrictions. In 1998, family immigration accounted for two-thirds of all immigration into the United States, and over a quarter of all immigration into Australia and Canada (see Table II.1). In all three countries, the most common form of family immigration is when permanent migrants enter the country accompanied by their families. It should be noted, however, that this is not usually an automatic right in the case of temporary migration.

The legal basis for family reunion is set out in international instruments and national laws (A), but since the principle was first established, it has been interpreted in different ways in all the countries under discussion.

A distinction is generally drawn between permanent and temporary workers in European countries; the exception is the United Kingdom. As far as permanent workers are concerned, the process involves authorising family members to join the worker when he has been settled in the country for a shorter or longer period of time, and issuing them with residence permits. Temporary workers are normally denied this option, although exceptions may be made in the case of highly skilled workers, who may be accompanied by their families (accompanying families); the latter are not allowed to enter the labour market.

This question is tackled quite differently in non-European countries (*i.e.* Australia, the United States and New Zealand) and the United Kingdom. These countries do not issue residence permits, and authorisation to remain in the country is linked to visas of which there are many categories (*e.g.* in the United States), and whose number is limited by predetermined quotas. This means that it is no longer the immigrant who applies for reunion, but the family member who puts in for the visa that is appropriate to his category; this will be issued to him if he meets the qualifying conditions. Visas certainly favour members of the families of permanent residents, but they may also be issued to temporary workers, particularly when they enable foreigners to arrive directly with their families (accompanying families). This situation is generally more like to arise in the above countries than in European countries.

The large number of visas and the programmes that have been specially designed to cater to certain categories of immigrant foster definitional issues that makes it difficult to draw comparisons and develop syntheses. Reference should also be made

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Table II.1. **Inflows of permanent settlers by entry class in Australia, Canada and the United States, 1990-1999**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
					AUSTRALIA[1]					
IMMIGRATION PROGRAMME	94.0	102.8	89.3	54.5	46.7	57.7	67.0	56.6	47.3	49.6
1. Family	49.9	53.9	48.6	32.1	33.6	37.1	46.5	36.5	21.1	21.5
2. Skill	42.8	48.4	40.3	22.1	12.8	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0	27.9
3. Special eligibility	1.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.2
HUMANITARIAN PROGRAMME	11.9	7.7	7.2	10.9	11.4	13.6	13.8	9.9	8.8	8.8
NON-PROGRAMME MIGRATIONS	15.3	11.1	11.0	10.8	11.7	16.1	18.3	19.3	21.2	25.7
TOTAL	**121.2**	**121.7**	**107.4**	**76.3**	**69.8**	**87.4**	**99.1**	**85.8**	**77.3**	**84.1**
					CANADA[2]					
Immediate family	41.4	46.8	54.8	67.9	52.3	44.1	43.7	39.7	36.7	40.8
Parents and grandparents	32.9	39.1	42.0	42.6	41.4	33.1	24.6	20.2	14.2	14.5
TOTAL FAMILY	74.4	85.9	96.8	110.4	93.7	77.2	68.3	60.0	50.9	55.2
Skilled workers – Principal applicants	32.7	31.4	26.6	29.8	28.6	34.6	42.1	44.9	35.9	41.5
Skilled workers – Spouses or dependants	44.3	31.4	27.4	33.1	40.5	46.9	55.7	60.7	45.3	50.9
Business – Principal applicants	4.7	4.3	7.0	8.3	7.0	5.3	6.2	5.6	3.8	3.6
Business – Spouses or dependants	14.0	12.8	21.4	24.4	20.4	14.2	16.3	14.3	10.0	9.4
TOTAL ECONOMIC	95.6	80.0	82.3	95.7	96.6	100.9	120.3	125.5	94.9	105.4
Live-in Caregiver – Principal applicants	–	–	–	3.0	4.8	4.7	3.8	2.3	2.4	2.6
Live-in Caregiver – Spouses or dependants	–	–	–	–	0.2	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.6
Other	3.6	4.2	5.5	7.8	7.5	0.8	4.1	3.4	2.5	1.5
TOTAL MIGRATION PROGRAMME	173.6	170.2	184.6	216.9	202.7	184.4	197.5	191.6	151.2	165.4
REFUGEE PROGRAMME	36.1	35.9	37.0	24.9	19.7	27.8	28.3	24.1	22.6	24.4
Backlog	6.7	26.7	33.2	15.0	1.9	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1
TOTAL	**212.8**	**228.5**	**249.3**	**249.0**	**216.9**	**212.9**	**226.1**	**216.0**	**174.1**	**189.8**
					UNITED STATES[3]					
Immediate relatives of US citizens[4]	231.7	237.1	235.5	255.1	249.8	220.4	300.4	322.4	284.3	
Relative preferences[5]	214.6	216.1	213.1	226.8	212.0	238.1	294.2	213.3	191.5	
TOTAL FAMILY	446.2	453.2	448.6	481.8	461.7	458.5	594.6	535.8	475.8	
WORKERS PREFERENCES[6]	58.2	59.5	116.2	147.0	123.3	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5	
REFUGEES[7]	97.4	139.1	117.0	127.3	121.4	114.7	128.6	112.2	54.7	
IRCA legalization[8]	880.4	1 123.2	163.3	24.3	6.0	4.3	4.6	2.5	1.0	
Legalization dependants	–	–	52.3	55.3	34.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.0	
Diversity Programme[9]	–	–	33.9	33.5	41.1	47.2	58.8	49.4	45.5	
Others	54.3	52.2	42.6	35.0	16.8	10.2	11.6	7.9	6.0	
TOTAL	**1 536.5**	**1 827.2**	**974.0**	**904.3**	**804.4**	**720.5**	**915.9**	**798.4**	**660.5**	

1. Actual arrivals of permanent settlers. Counts include both primary applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any. Data refer to fiscal years (July to June of the given year).
2. A landing corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad. Including accompanying dependents for economic and humanitarian categories.
3. With the exception of immediate relatives of US citizens, immigrants in a class of admission include "principal beneficiaries", *i.e.* those aliens who directly qualify for the class of admission under US immigration laws, and "derivative beneficiaries", *i.e.* the spouses and unmarried children of principal immigrants. Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the given year).
4. Numerically unrestricted immigrants comprising spouses, unmarried minor children, and orphans adopted by US citizens as well as parents of adult US citizens.
5. Numerically restricted relatives comprise the following four preference classes: *i)* Unmarried adult sons and daughters of US citizens; *ii)* Spouses and unmarried sons and daughters of permanent resident aliens; *iii)* Married sons and daughters of US citizens; *iv)* Brothers and sisters of adult US citizens.
6. Prior to fiscal year 1992, data include members of the professions or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences and arts, skilled and unskilled workers in short supply, and special immigrant visas. Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas from fiscal year 1992 on.
7. Refugees were admitted under various laws. The Refugee Act of 1980 now governs all refugee admissions.
8. Under the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act, foreigners who had been accorded temporary legal status could apply, between December 1988 and December 1990, for a permanent residence permit.
9. Under the Immigration Act of 1990, a 3-year program (1992-1994) authorized 40 000 visas annually for natives of the 34 countries determined to have been adversely affected by the 1965 immigration reform. In 1995, a permanent programme authorized 55 000 visas annually.

Source: DIMA Overseas arrivals and departures data, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA); Citizenship and Immigration Canada; US Department of Justice.

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to the frequent use of the "sponsor" technique whereby family members may obtain a visa if they are sponsored, that is to say if a citizen or permanent resident undertakes to provide for all their needs for a variable period of time. This approach opens up a broader interpretation of the family that encompasses a sponsor's fiancé(e), cousins and more distant relatives such as nephews, nieces, grandchildren or orphans.

It follows that family reunion is a concept that varies according to economic factors and to more or less restrictive conceptions of the family. There is hence a need to identify those who are likely to benefit from reunion (B), and we shall then examine the conditions governing family reunion and the entry of the accompanying family (C). Lastly, family members come under legal systems that may vary from one country to the next, for example in respect of access to the labour market and social welfare (D).

B. THE LEGAL FOUNDATION OF FAMILY REUNION

1. International conventions

Many international agreements contain references to the individual's right to family life: Article 16 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 10 December 1948 says that anyone has the right to marry and found a family; Article 8 of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights says that everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life; Article 19 of the European Social Charter of 8 October 1961 says that countries must make every effort to facilitate the family reunion of migrant workers who themselves have permission to stay in the country; Article 12 of the Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers of 24 November 1977 makes provision for family reunion; and lastly, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child of 26 January 1990[2] stresses the protection of the child's interests, which in turn relates to family life. The same applies to bilateral agreements, but these go no further than articulate the principle of family reunion, and leave practical details to national laws.[3]

2. National laws

Many countries have brought in legislation on family reunion during the last 25 years or so. It should be pointed out in this context that as family reunion was introduced at the same time as a ban on permanent immigration, it is the only means, apart from asylum, of enabling foreigners to settle permanently in most of the countries under examination.

Germany refused to be an immigration country for a long time, but it has now finally accepted family immigration. Family reunion was initially the responsibility of the *Länder*, but a right now covers it under a federal Law on foreigners of 9 July 1998.

Since 1989, the question of which visa should be issued to members of a foreigner's family has been dealt with in Australia by the "Migration Regulations", backed up by the "Procedure Advice Manual" and the "Migration Series Instructions". The "Migration Regulations" were amended on 1 November 1999. In Belgium, the right to family reunion is covered by the Law of 15 December 1980, as amended in this respect by the Laws of 6 May and 6 August 1993. In Bulgaria, the issue comes under Article 8(*a*) of the Law on foreigners living in Bulgaria; family reunion is also covered in Article 25 of the draft law on foreign citizens in Bulgaria and Article 24 of the draft law on refugees.

In Canada, the Immigration Act of 1976 and related regulations cover family reunion. However, a draft reform of immigration law is currently under way. In Spain, the conditions for family reunion are set out in Article 54 of Royal Decree 155/1996 of 2 February 1996 and the Implementation Decree of Organic Law 7/1985 on the rights and freedoms of foreigners in Spain. Family reunion is not understood in the same way in the United States and Canada as it is in European countries.

American law is traditionally favourable to family immigration. The *US Immigration Act* deals with family immigration, and manages the situation through the issue of visas. As far as immigrant workers are concerned, the entry of family members is based on the "family preference" system (see Table II.2), and most immigration quotas have promoted family reunion. The *US Immigration Act 1990* also contains a long list of visas to suit various circumstances, particularly those that are issued to family members who are deemed to be non-immigrants.

The 1990 Act also introduces quotas for members of families of American citizens who are not "immediate relatives", that is to say relatives other than spouses, children under the age of 18 and parents. This provision previously existed for foreigners' family members, the foreign members of families of American citizens not being covered by quotas. However, the 1990 Act provides that the

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Table II.2. **Family reunification, by type of relationship with the sponsor 1992-1998, United States**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Family members of an American citizen	**235.5**	**255.1**	**249.8**	**220.4**	**300.4**	**322.4**	**284.3**
Spouses	128.4	145.8	145.2	123.2	169.8	170.3	. .
Children	42.3	46.8	48.1	48.7	64.0	76.6	. .
Other relatives	64.8	62.4	56.4	48.4	66.7	75.5	. .
Family-sponsored immigrants	**213.1**	**226.8**	**212.0**	**238.1**	**294.2**	**213.3**	**191.5**
Non married children of an American citizen	12.5	12.8	13.2	15.2	20.9	22.5	. .
Spouses and children of permanent immigrants	118.2	128.3	115.0	144.5	182.8	113.7	. .
Married children of an American citizen	22.2	23.4	22.2	20.9	25.5	21.9	. .
Brothers and sisters of an American citizen	60.2	62.3	61.6	57.5	65.0	55.2	. .
Total	**448.6**	**481.8**	**461.7**	**458.5**	**594.6**	**535.8**	**475.8**
Total (% of total inflows of permanent immigrants)	*46.1*	*53.3*	*57.4*	*63.6*	*64.9*	*67.1*	*72.0*

Source: Statistical Yearbooks of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, Department of Justice.

total number of an American's immediate family members who entered the country in the previous year must be set against the total number of visas issued for family reunion or family preference in the previous year. This has had the effect of further reducing the number of visas issued to members of foreigners' families.

In Finland, the question is governed by the Law on foreigners of 1997, and by Ministerial Instructions of 1993 relating to family reunion for refugees and residence and work permits. In France, apart from a Decree of 24 December 1945 enabling the families of foreigners to settle, it was not until 1976 that a desire to integrate foreigners prompted regulations on family reunion designed to enable foreign people to lead normal family lives. A Decree of 26 April 1976 set out the conditions under which family members of a foreigner living legally in France could come and join him or her. The right of foreigners in a regular situation to be joined by their families[4] has had legal protection since the Law of 24 August 1993 and is also covered by Articles 29-30 *bis* of the Ordinance of 2 November 1945 as amended by the Law of 11 May 1998.

Family reunion in Italy is dealt with by Law No. 40 of 19 February 1998 and a Presidential Decree of 30 December 1965. In Norway, it is covered by the Immigration Law of 24 July 1988. In the Netherlands, the main legislation is contained in the Law on foreigners of 13 January 1965 (recently amended in 1998), the Decree and Regulation on foreigners, and a Circular with no real legal standing which contains the instructions given to the immigration and nationality services and to the local immigration police.

In the United Kingdom, the 1984 Immigration Rules have been amended on several occasions, the most recent being in 1997. Slovakia has legal provisions on family reunion in Law 73/95 on foreigners' residence, Law 283/95 on refugees, Law 387/96 on employment, and Law 70/97 on ethnic Slovakians. In Sweden the relevant provisions are set out in the 1989 Law on foreigners. The relevant legislation in Switzerland is the Law of 26 March 1931 on the residence and settlement of foreigners, and its Implementation Ordinances, particularly the Ordinance of 6 October 1986. In the Czech Republic, the Law of 1992 on foreigners living in the Republic, as amended in 1994 and 1996, contains provisions relating to family reunion.

C. BENEFICIARIES OF FAMILY REUNION

Generally speaking, a distinction may be drawn between permanent and temporary workers, in that the former have a right to family reunion whereas the latter do so only rarely. Family reunion for temporary workers appears to be out of kilter with the temporary nature of their residence.

That is why family reunion is denied to temporary workers in Germany where, like temporary residents, family members must have a work permit. In Canada, temporary workers may usually be accompanied by members of their family but these are usually not entitled to work. However, a recent regulation permits employment authorizations to be issued to the spouses of highly skilled temporary workers so they may accept employment in Canada without job validation. The spouses of foreign students who are not full-time students themselves may be issued employment authorizations without requiring job validation.

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The United States takes a more lenient line by allowing temporary workers to be joined by their families, but it does not give them an entitlement to work. In France, family reunion for temporary workers is not normally possible unless it is subject to the accompanying family procedure: it may only be used in exceptional cases where those concerned appear to have a good chance of adapting to life in France; it does not give them a right to get a job.

Switzerland excludes certain categories – seasonal workers, people with short-stay residence permits, trainees and people taking the waters – from any entitlement to family reunion. Some countries also include members of the families of their own nationals in specially amended family reunion laws. Examples of this include Bulgaria, Canada, the United Kingdom where permanent residents are treated as nationals, Australia and the United States where nationals have preference over foreigners, and Finland, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Switzerland and the Czech Republic where the criterion for a worker (whether a national or a foreigner) to be joined by his family is permanent residence.

By contrast, under French and Belgian law, foreign members of a national's family receive a residence permit automatically. In Germany, protection of the family is covered by Article 6 of the Fundamental Law; although it covers everyone, it is designed to apply to nationals first and foremost. The foreign members of the family of a German living in Germany are entitled to a residence permit (Article 23 of the Law of 1990).

Australia distinguishes between two kinds of immigration: that of family members and that of skilled workers. The former are allowed to enter Australia on the basis of their family links[5] with a "sponsor" who may be a national, a permanent immigrant (Canada is the same in this respect) or a New Zealand national; the latter have to meet specific criteria relating to skills and knowledge of the language. Several types of visa reflect different kinds of family link, but nationals have priority when it comes to being joined by their families.

The concept of the family, whether it is that of a worker, a student or a refugee, is open to broad interpretation. In all the countries under consideration, the family includes the spouse and children under the age of 18, but it is sometimes extended to embrace older relatives and, in certain cases, other family members (see Table II.3).

However, a special point needs to be made in connection with member countries of the European Community: strictly speaking, under EC law, there is no such thing as family reunion, as family members have a right to follow or join an EC national who exercises his right to freedom of movement; they receive a residence permit immediately. In addition to the spouse and children under the age of 21, the family (irrespective of the members' nationalities) includes an EC national's dependent relatives in the ascending line and his spouse.

1. The worker's family

a) The spouse

The notion of spouse is open to a large number of definitions. In practice, the question is whether it incorporates co-habitees or the wives of a polygamous foreigner. Replies vary. Most countries insist on married couples living together.

The status of spouse

The status of spouse has to be proved; it is usually contained in a certificate that sets out the holder's civil status. Where the marriage has taken place abroad, or if there is any doubt as to the authenticity of the certificate that has been produced, in Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands, the diplomatic or consular authorities may be asked to authenticate the claim.

A marriage of convenience acts as an impediment to family reunification in France, the Netherlands, Spain, and Switzerland, whether it is between foreigners or between a Swiss national and a foreigner. The marriage must have taken place at least two years earlier for family reunion to be permitted in Bulgaria. By way of combating the forced marriages of very young children, Belgian law states that both spouses must be at least 18 years of age.

Co-habitees

A distinction may be drawn between countries that reject co-habitees for family reunion and those that accept them. The former category includes Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Italy and the United States.[6] Here, particularly in the case of homosexual unions, co-habitees have no right to family reunion. However, it should be noted that, under France's Law of 15 November 1999,[7] two adults of the same or different gender may sign a "civil covenant of solidarity"

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Table II.3. **Family members eligible to benefit from the family reunification procedure**

	Spouses[1]	Non married partners	Minor children	Parents	Brothers and sisters	Others
Australia	X	X The relationship (homosexual included) must have existed for at least 1 year	X	X	X	X Nephews, nieces, fiancé(e)s
Belgium	X		X	X Only of Belgium nationals	only in exceptional circonstances	
Bulgaria	X		X			
Canada	X	(Under review)	X	X	X[2]	X (Nephews, nieces, grandchildren)[2] Fiancé(e)s
Czech Rep.	X		X		X	X
Finland	X The couple must have cohabited for at least 1 year	X	X	Only in exceptional cases	Only in exceptional cases	X Fiancé(e)s
France	X		X			
Germany	X		X			
Italy	X		X	X	X	Dependent parents (first, second or third generation only)
Netherlands	X	X (Including homosexual partners)	X		X	
Slovak Rep.	X		X			
Spain	X		X			
Switzerland	X	X	X			
United States	X		X Quotas		X American nationals' Quotas	Married children of an American national

1. Polygamous spouses are not allowed to benefit from family reunification in the countries presented in this Table.
2. Must be orphans, unmarried and less than 19 years of age.

(*Pacte civil de solidarité*, or *PACS)* as a basis for co-habitation. The new arrangements will probably have implications for family reunion. For the time being, they entitle co-habitees to a temporary residence permit (marked *"vie privée et familiale"),* provided that the two have already lived together for at least three years in the case of co-habitation with a French or EU national, or five years for co-habitation with a non-EU national.

By contrast, in Finland, Norway, and the United Kingdom if the relationship has existed for at least two years, Switzerland, Australia, the Netherlands and Sweden, co-habitees do have entitlement to family reunion. In the two last-named countries, a homosexual relationship is no obstacle to family reunion, while in Australia it must have been in existence for a year. A homosexual relationship is acceptable as long as one of the parties is a

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national, or has a settlement permit, or has been given asylum.[8] There is no reference to this criterion in Bulgaria.

Polygamous husbands

The question as to whether polygamous families should benefit from family reunion has been raised in many countries, particularly in European countries. The current situation is quite clear: lawmakers only acknowledge the European family, and polygamous marriages are therefore ruled out. This is the solution that has been adopted in all the legislative systems examined.[9] Justification for this exclusion is based on the idea that family reunion is designed to further the integration of foreigners in the society in which they are living, and polygamy, a matter on which western law is totally silent, makes integration into western society much more difficult, not to say impossible. Generally speaking, polygamous husbands may only be joined by one wife and her children. However, in Australia, polygamous husbands do not meet the statutory definition of "spouse" and they are therefore unable to take advantage of any family link; however, they may bring over all of their (natural and adopted) children as long as they are dependent.

In France, the Council of State decided in 1980[10] that the right to lead a normal family life meant that a polygamous husband could bring his wives into the country. This solution was replaced by the Law of 24 August 1993,[11] and the regularisation exercise carried out in June 1997 excluded foreigners living in polygamous relationships.

An obligation to co-habit

To be sure that a marriage has really taken place, many countries insist that the spouses (or co-habitees) live together for a period of time. Failure to do so may encourage suspicions that it is a marriage of convenience (*e.g.* in the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United States). Separation and divorce therefore affect the spouse's leave to remain, particularly if it happens during a waiting period following effective reunion. Countries respond differently to death: some (*e.g.* Australia, Canada, the Netherlands, Slovakia and Switzerland) assimilate it into divorce; in Canada, death does not affect the right to remain provided the spouse has arrived in Canada, and most of the other countries in the survey adopt the same attitude.

In most countries, divorce means that the spouse's right to stay is withdrawn. This is the situation in Spain, for instance, unless the spouses had been living together for the previous two years, in France if the divorce occurs within one year of reunion, in the Netherlands and in Sweden when it occurs within two years of reunion, and in Switzerland when it occurs within five years of reunion. A similar solution is employed in Slovakia where the residence permit cannot be renewed, particularly if the couple have no children of their own.

A waiting period of one year applies in Belgium and France. Under Belgian law,[12] the Minister has a one-year waiting period that may be extended by three months during which he may decide whether a spouse may stay; he may therefore check on the cohabitation rule during this period.[13] If the spouses no longer live together, or if they are in the process of getting divorced during the year following their entry into France, the card issued to the spouse may not be renewed (temporary card) and may even be withdrawn (resident's card).

In Finland, divorce within two years of family reunion cancels the entitlement to stay if the spouses have no children of their own. In the Netherlands, if the marriage (or co-habitation) breaks up in the three months that follow family reunion, the spouse no longer has any right to stay except for humanitarian reasons. After three years of marriage, the spouse has a personal entitlement to stay as long as he has lived legally in the Netherlands for a year as a result of his marriage, and can support himself. He also has free access to the labour market without the need for authorisation. A refusal to grant leave to remain must take account of Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights. Finally, when the spouse or co-habitee has been living in the country legally for five years, he is entitled to a permanent residence permit as long as he has the means to support himself, and is no threat to public order and public or national security.

In Germany, failure to comply with the co-habitation rule results in the residence permit being withdrawn if the couple have lived in the Federal Republic for under four years. In Bulgaria, the right to family reunion is cancelled if the marriage breaks up within five years, or there is sufficient evidence that co-habitation has ceased. However, in the case of refugees, divorce does not terminate the right to stay of spouses and children. In Norway, the right to stay terminates if the marriage ends within three years of reunion, through either divorce or death.

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In Switzerland, the right to stay granted to spouses terminates as soon as they cease living together or get divorced within five years of family reunion. The government then has discretionary powers to allow the individuals to stay. Different provisions apply to spouses who have been given an entitlement to settle: they only lose their right to stay if they commit breaches of public order or if their settlement entitlement is revoked. Children have the same status as the parent in whose charge they are.

However, in some countries, the break-up of a marriage and death make no difference to family members. This is true of Australia or Italy (where the residence permit may be altered to include a right to work or follow a course of study). It is also true of the United Kingdom if the spouse or children have been granted permanent leave to remain. The solution is more uncertain for those with only temporary leave to remain. In the Czech Republic, a foreigner's residence permit may expire if he fails to declare an absence of more than 180 days. Fraud and failure to comply with criminal law will similarly cause a residence permit to be withdrawn. In most countries, when a couple no longer live together as a result of a death, this does not result in the refusal of a residence permit.

In Germany, the death of a spouse does not automatically lead to the loss of a residence permit; this can be renewed from the time that the co-habitation became effective. The same provisions apply in Belgium and in Spain where people who have benefited from family reunion have a right that cannot be taken away from them: spouses and children are entitled to their own residence permit if the initiator of family reunion was a legal resident in the country at the time of death. In the Netherlands, the residence permits of family members are not renewed following the death of the initiator of family reunion. Death has no effect on the right to stay in Bulgaria, Canada (if permanent resident status has been granted), Finland, Italy and the Czech Republic. In France, where there are no specific provisions, cases are looked at compassionately.

Conversely, in Norway the death of a spouse within three years of reunion leads to the loss of a residence permit. In Sweden, death within two years of reunion is an obstacle to further residence in the country, while in Switzerland death has the same effect as divorce if it occurs within five years of reunion.

In many countries, the government may refuse to issue residence permits to foreigners who have entered marriages of convenience. Examples include Germany,[14] Spain, France,[15] Switzerland and the United States where a fraudulent marriage blocks rights to family reunion,[16] or even invalidates them. In order to establish whether it is fraudulent, the US authorities (Immigration and Naturalization Service) check on the facts surrounding the co-habitation.

b) Children

The children taken into consideration are usually legitimate or natural children with a legally established relationship. Children who have been adopted (in Australia, France, Germany and Spain) or are in the process of being adopted (Canada) may benefit from family reunion procedures (See for the case of France, the distribution of persons who have benefited from family reunion according to their family ties in Table II.4.) Australia also allows in stepchildren.[17]

Generally speaking, family reunion concerns the applicant's unmarried children, under the age of 18, or who do not live independently of their parents (Spain), but the age limit varies from country to country: 16 years of age in Germany (raised to 18 in the case of the children of refugees); 18 in Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland and the United States; and 19 in Canada. The age limit is 21 for the children of nationals of a country that was signatory to the European Social Charter of 18 October 1961.[18] In Australia the age limit is 25 if the child is a full-time student or disabled person. Some countries, like the Czech Republic, have no age limit for children.

The right to family reunion is often extended to children who are dependent on the applicant's spouse, and who must obviously meet the same entry requirements as the applicant's children (Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland (as long as they arrive with the foreigner's spouse), France, Italy, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland). Specific conditions are sometimes attached: for example, in Germany, family reunion is an entitlement for children both of whose parents live legally in the country, while the reunion of children aged over 16 is at the discretion of the relevant authorities; in Bulgaria, the children of Bulgarian citizens and of permanent residents are included under family reunion procedures, although adopted children aged over 18 are excluded.

In France, family reunion also concerns children under the age of 18 (in Canada, under the age of 19)

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Table II.4. **Family reunification by type of relationship with the applicant, France, 1992-1998**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Related to a French national	**23.0**	**24.3**	**16.1**	**16.5**	**15.6**	**14.4**	**15.6**
Related to a permanent resident	**32.7**	**32.4**	**20.6**	**14.4**	**13.9**	**15.5**	**21.7**
By type of immigration							
Entry of family members	26.5	25.2	15.7	12.4	12.0	13.2	15.2
Regularisation of family members	6.1	7.2	5.0	1.9	1.9	2.4	6.5
By relationship with the applicant							
Husband	3.7	3.5	2.2	1.5	1.5	1.9	1.8
Wife	11.4	11.3	7.5	5.8	5.8	6.6	7.0
Child	16.7	16.7	10.7	7.1	6.6	7.1	12.8
Other	0.8	0.9	0.1	–	–	–	–
Family members of refugees or stateless persons	**1.1**	**1.2**	**0.8**	**0.7**	**0.9**	**1.1**	**1.0**
Total	**56.8**	**58.0**	**37.5**	**31.6**	**30.4**	**31.1**	**38.3**
Total (% of total inflows)	*50.6*	*61.6*	*58.5*	*62.6*	*65.1*	*66.3*	*70.6*

Source: Migration yearbooks, OMISTATS, Office des migrations internationales.

of an earlier marriage of the applicant or his spouse, whether their relationship has been established in that parent's name or the other parent has died or has no longer any claim to his parental rights (in France, this also includes polygamous people). In Switzerland, family reunion rights are open to children under 20 of nationals of Portugal, Spain and Italy. However, if the parents and children have been living separately for many years and only come together as the children reach their majority, requests for family reunion are turned down on the grounds of suspected fraud. In the Czech Republic, all children qualify for family reunion, whether they are the children of the couple or just one of the parents, and whether they are dependent on these parents or are independent.

In some countries, older children also qualify for family reunion if they are dependent on their parents and/or have a disability: they include Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Italy (when reunion is requested by an Italian citizen, his children – and those of his spouse who are over the age of 18 and independent – may also benefit), the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland. Australia allows children who are over the age of 18 and are not dependent on their parents to apply for a skilled worker's visa, and not one that covers family immigration. Generally speaking, the break-up of a marriage makes no difference to the children's leave to remain, although the Netherlands insists that the child should have resided in the country for at least a year.

c) Relatives in the ascending line

Relatives in the ascending line, or elderly dependants, are often excluded from family reunion, except in unusual circumstances where the government has discretionary powers. In this context, some countries draw a distinction between the parents of foreign nationals who have no right to family reunion, and the parents of their own nationals who do qualify: they include Belgium, Bulgaria (new Bulgarian legislation restricts the right to family reunion to the parents of Bulgarian citizens; in the past, it had also been granted to the parents of permanent residents), the United States (it is much more difficult for the foreign parents of a foreigner living in the United States than for the foreign parents of an American citizen to obtain a visa) and Switzerland.

In Germany, family reunion of an immigrant's parents is normally not allowed except where refusal could have serious consequences, when the foreigner requesting family reunion is under 18 years of age, and when the decision is justified by humanitarian considerations. In Australia, there are no provisions specifically dealing with parents and grandparents, although they may be permitted to enter the country as "family members dependent" on the foreigner or national. They qualify for a special visa issued under family immigration rules, but it may only be requested if the "sponsor" has been "established" in Australia for two years.

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Canada and Finland permit family reunion where the beneficiaries are parents. Canada even allows reunion for grandparents when the request is made by a Canadian national or a permanent resident aged 19 or over. In France, the elderly dependants of a foreign national may not use family reunion procedures, and may only enter the country as visitors if they can show that they have sufficient means to live and pay for health insurance. A statement that their children living in France will see to their needs may be taken into account in determining financial contribution.

Spain allows the family reunion of a foreigner's elderly dependants on condition that they are financially dependent on the foreigner and there are reasons justifying their continued stay in Spain. Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and the Czech Republic allow family reunion of parents and grandparents; the latter country also allows the reunion of close family members and, for humanitarian reasons, elderly persons and people living alone. The parents of a child under 18 years of age qualify for family reunion rights in Slovakia.

d) Brothers and sisters

Most countries exclude brothers and sisters from family reunion: they include Belgium (except under terms set out in an agreement);[19] Finland (although the close relative of a foreigner may exceptionally be allowed to enter Finland if he is entirely dependent on the foreigner living there); France; Germany; Slovakia; and Switzerland. However, certain countries do admit brothers and sisters: in Australia, for instance, the category of brothers and sisters is larger than that of "remaining relatives" and "carers". This latter group consists of people who wish to, and are able to, give substantial assistance to a family member, or to an Australian if he has a serious handicap that would disable him/her for at least two years. However, there must be no Australian person or organisation able to cover this cost. The family of a foreigner's fiancé(e) is also allowed to enter.

Canada provides for the family reunion of brothers and sisters, of a nephew or a niece, and of grandchildren if they are orphans, single and under 19 years of age. It also allows family reunion for the applicant's fiancé(e)[20] and for anyone else related to the applicant if he has no relatives, whether Canadians or permanent residents. Italy also offers this option to family members up to the third degree of consanguinity providing that the applicant takes responsibility for him (this condition is not required of Italian citizens requesting family reunion), and, as prescribed by Italian law, to family members with disabilities. The Netherlands and the Czech Republic also allow the family reunion of brothers and sisters: if the applicant is a Czech national, he may also ask for his uncles, aunts and cousins to join him as well.

2. The families of students

Wide ranges of solutions are adopted according to the country. Some countries deny students the right to family reunion; this is the case in Spain and Switzerland. Others allow it, or only do so in certain circumstances: the United States and the Netherlands allow a student's family to enter the country as long as they do not work. In Canada, where family reunion mainly concerns permanent immigrants, a student's spouse may work. In France, students normally have a right to family reunion since the Constitutional Court quashed the Law of 24 August 1993 (they were denied under this latter legislation),[21] but in practice they rarely qualify because they are unable to show that they have sufficient financial resources. In Italy, only students with residence permits qualify.

Like Belgium, Germany gives no right of family reunion to the spouses of foreign students, but does not rule out the possibility either.[22] Under Belgian law, reunion of a student's family is conditional on the student having sufficient means to live and satisfactory accommodation. In Finland, students only have entitlement to family reunion if their studies extend over a period of several years, and if they have permanent leave to remain.

3. The families of refugees and asylum seekers

The conditions governing the family reunion of refugees are usually set out in more flexible terms than in common law. In Germany, a refugee's spouse and family members have a full entitlement to family reunion.

In other countries, family reunion may be granted to refugees more easily than to other foreigners: in Bulgaria, this applies to refugees, foreigners with humanitarian status, and asylum-seekers providing they have acquired this status; in Finland, family reunion is open to refugees and people who have been given a permit for humanitarian reasons, or because they are in need of protection, and who

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have permanent leave to remain. In the Netherlands, a refugee's children under the age of 18 and his spouse qualify for family reunion without having to meet conditions relating to income and accommodation, if they have the same nationality as the refugee and asked to enter the Netherlands as the same time as him/her, or have the same nationality as the refugee and have followed him to the Netherlands from their country of origin or a third country within a short space of time.

Some countries issue residence permits without making the refugees pass through the family reunion procedure; these include Belgium and France. In Belgium, the family members of a foreigner who has asked for refugee status receive a statement of registration that has the same duration as the foreigner's residence permit. In France, the families of refugees are not covered by family reunion provisions, but by Article 15(10) of the Ordinance of 1945. This law grants a full resident's card, except where there is a threat to public order, to a refugee recognised as such by the OFPRA (*Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides*), to his spouse, to children who are under the age of 18 or will celebrate their 18th birthday in the following year, when the marriage has taken place prior to this recognition as a refugee. If the marriage has taken place subsequently, the resident's permit is issued under the conditions that would apply to the foreign spouse of a French person, the marriage must have taken place at least a year before, and the couple must effectively be living together. They must also obtain a temporary residence permit during the first year of their marriage.

In the Czech Republic, a refugee's spouse qualifies for reunion, and both here and in Slovakia, reunion may be authorised for reasons linked to the interests of foreign policy.

The definition of family reunion beneficiary varies considerably from one country to the next, but there is an increasing convergence of practice on the conditions.

D. THE CONDITIONS FOR FAMILY REUNION

Although the conditions for family reunion vary from country to country, they share certain features with regard to the basic conditions and procedure. These conditions do not apply to members of the families of EC nationals exercising their right of freedom of movement: they are covered by the same provisions as EC nationals.

1. The basic conditions

The basic conditions needed for family reunion cover both the immigrant and his family members.

a) Conditions that must be met by an immigrant requesting family reunion

The foreign applicant, who is known in Australia and Canada as the "sponsor", is normally required to fulfil the following three conditions : they relate to length of stay, means of subsistence and accommodation (see Table II.5). However, in Slovakia, only foreigners of Slovak origin, refugees, members of the diplomatic corps and representatives of international government organisations may have their families join them.

Length of stay

A minimum period of stay is normally required before a foreigner can be joined by his family (except in Slovakia). This often involves applying for a particular residence permit that is not obtainable until after a certain period of stay: for example, in Germany, the spouse's entry and residence are protected by law if the first-generation immigrant holds either a resident's card (obtainable after a stay of seven years) or a simple permit to stay if he was married when he entered the country. An exception is made in respect of migrants who are allowed to come into Germany for humanitarian reasons and who have exceptional leave to remain: in such cases, family reunion may be granted if it is not possible in the country of origin (Article 31 of the *Ausländer Gesetz*).

However, family reunion is not open to foreigners who have received the court's "tolerance" (*Duldung*) or have been found guilty of a criminal offence. Second-generation foreigners must be over the age of 18, they must have lived in Germany for eight years, and they must have indefinite leave to remain; this permit is only issued after five years of living in a regular situation. In Australia and Canada, the "sponsor"[23] is a national or a foreigner with resident status (*i.e.* someone who has a visa entitling him live in the country on a regular basis). For a foreigner to be joined by his family in Belgium, he must have been given authorisation either to stay for over three months or to settle. Family members may stay, but they must meet the same conditions as other foreigners, that is to say they must have permission to stay for over three months or permission to settle.

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Table II.5. **Conditions required of applicants for family immigration in some OECD countries**

	Required residence status/ permit	Minimum duration of stay	Financing conditions	Housing conditions
Australia	Permanent visa Students are therefore excluded	A permanent visa (often granted on arrival) suffices except for the admittance of certain categories of family member for whom an additional 2 years of residence is required	X	X
Belgium	3-month authorisation of stay	I.n.a.		
Bulgaria	Permanent residence permit	I.n.a.		
Canada	Permanent visa[1] Students are therefore excluded	A permanent visa suffices	Proof of the sponsor's ability to support incoming family members	X
Czech Rep.	Permanent residence permit	I.n.a.	X	X
Finland	I.n.a.	I.n.a.		
France	1-year temporary residence permit or permanent residence permit (10 years)	The obtention of a temporary residence permit is sufficient for the procedures to begin	X	X
Germany	Permanent residence permit	Resident permits may only be obtained upon 8 years legal residence	X	X
Italy	Permanent residence permit or 1-year residence permit (permit obtained for reasons of work)	5 years	X	X
Netherlands	Residence permit valid for more than 1 year	I.n.a.	X	X
Slovak Rep.	Foreigners of Slovak extraction, refugees, diplomats	I.n.a.	X	
Spain	Permanent residence permit (Students are therefore excluded)	6 years	X	
Switzerland	Permanent residence permit (Students are therefore excluded)	10 years (5 years in some exceptional cases)	X	X
United States	Permanent visa (green card)	A permanent visa suffices	X	

I.n.a. means information not available.
X: Financing/Housing conditions required.
1. Permanent status refers to three kinds of persons: family, skilled workers, refugees.

In Canada and Australia, only nationals and the holders of a permanent residence permit may act as sponsor. In Bulgaria, Spain, Italy and the Czech Republic, foreigners must have permanent leave to remain; this means that they have already been in the country for a certain time. To obtain the

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documentation, they must have spent at least six months in Spain, and five years[24] in Italy. In Italy, foreigners may also hold permits allowing them to spend at least a year in the country for the purpose of taking employment or working in self-employment, or other documentation giving them asylum status, allowing them study, and granting them entry for religious reasons.

In Finland and the Netherlands, foreigners must have permanent leave to remain for at least a year. The same rule applies in France where the applicant must have lived there legally and had at least a one-year permit[25] (*i.e.* leave to remain or a resident's card). In Switzerland, a foreigner has no entitlement to family reunion unless he holds a permission to settle: this permit is only issued after a stay of ten years (five years in the case of some foreigners).

Financial resources

Family members must not be a charge on the public purse of the receiving country. For this reason, the applicant must provide evidence of regular and sufficient personal financial resources to cater for his family's needs: in most cases this means he must have a job and be covered by a social insurance scheme. This is a normal condition for permanent or long-term leave to remain. These provisions also apply in Germany and the Netherlands where the right to family reunion is withheld from people who are in receipt of benefits and social assistance.

In Australia, the sponsor has to make an undertaking to pay for his family members' needs for at least two years, and possibly take out an insurance policy against having to rely on social aid. In Canada, although state aid can be taken into account, the sponsor normally has to prove that he had enough money during the twelve months preceding the application, and promise to cater for his family's needs for a period of ten years. Failure to comply with this undertaking may prevent him from standing again as a sponsor.

In Switzerland and the Czech Republic, it is necessary for an applicant to provide evidence of sufficient financial resources accruing from his goods or his spouse's job, or else set out in a bank statement that he has the equivalent of the monthly minimum wage each month for a year. In Slovakia, the person receiving family members must also pay for their expenses.

No condition attached to money or having a job is imposed in Belgium (family members are not covered by Article 3(1) of the Law of 15 December 1980 whereby, to enter the country, a foreigner must manifestly have means of subsistence) and in Bulgaria.

In Finland, means-testing is applied, but there is no obligation to have a job. Means-testing is not required of refugees, people who are in need of protection, or those who have been granted entry for humanitarian reasons.

In France, an entrant's financial resources must be no less than the SMIC[26] and these are assessed independently from any family contributions he may receive. A regular source of income is the sole condition demanded of EC nationals.

In Italy, with the exception of refugees, foreigners who seek family reunion must show evidence of a legal income of no less than the Family Assistance Benefit (*i.e.* FRF 1 500 per month) if they want to bring in only one family member; this minimum is doubled for two or three people, and tripled for four or more. Total income is calculated on the basis of the incomes of all the people living with the foreigner, but this condition does not apply to Italian citizens who request reunion.

The Netherlands say that a foreigner who has worked uninterruptedly for three years, and earned the minimum wage set by law, is deemed to have sufficient means of subsistence[27] as long as the payment of this minimum wage is guaranteed for six months. Compensation payments received for short periods of unemployment are counted as employment income.

Special conditions apply to four particular types of applicant: Dutch nationals, refugees, refugees with leave to remain (status C), and people with permanent leave to remain. Furthermore, the means-testing condition is waived in respect of some people: people aged 57 and over**,** a parent living alone with one or more children aged under 5, people with a total, permanent disability, and some cases of long-term unemployment. These exceptions only apply to the family reunion of the spouse and children of a couple belonging to the four aforementioned categories.[28]

Accommodation

In Australia, Canada, Germany and the Netherlands, the applicant must show evidence of adequate accommodation in which to house his family when he makes the application.

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This condition is waived in the Netherlands in the case of people with Dutch nationality, refugees and those who have been granted asylum; the same condition is required in France where the applicant must, when the family reunion takes effect, have accommodation deemed to be normal for a similarly constituted family living in France. In Italy, applicants must have suitable accommodation that meets statutory requirements. The consent of the owner of the accommodation is necessary in the case of family reunion affecting children under the age of 14, although this condition is waived for Italian citizens seeking reunion; refugees are not covered by this rule. Similarly, in Switzerland, suitable accommodation and child-care arrangements are compulsory.

In the Czech Republic, the applicant must own the property, and be able to present the title deed or lease. This accommodation test is not applied in Belgium, Bulgaria, Spain, the United States, Finland or Slovakia.

b) Conditions that must be met by family members who come in under a family reunion scheme

No threat to public order

In no country may family members constitute a threat to public order, public security or national security (see Table II.6). In France, they must not have been expelled from a country or banned from entering another, and in Canada, Finland and the Czech Republic they must not have a criminal record. In Italy, family members must not be a threat to public order either in Italy or in another country that implements the Schengen agreements. In the Netherlands, family members over the age of 18 must hand in a signed statement that they do not have a criminal record; imprisonment for a criminal offence with no possibility of remission may be grounds for refusing reunion. More lenient rules apply to a Dutch person's family members, refugees and those who have been given asylum. In Slovakia, a family member must not have committed a serious offence or worked in the country illegally.

The health test

In some countries, people covered by a family reunion procedure must not have an illness or condition that endangers public health, public order or public security. In Canada, Spain, France and the Netherlands, they must produce a valid medical certificate. In Canada, the medical certificate must be valid at the time of landing. This condition is not enforced in other countries.

"Once-and-for-all" *reunion and cascade reunion*

Only some countries have regulations covering this. Australia limits sponsoring the reunion of a spouse, fiancé(e) or homosexual partner to two occasions within a space of five years. Moreover, a spouse, fiancé(e) or homosexual partner who has been sponsored may not act as a sponsor for another five years. There are a few exceptions to this rule in the case of death and in the event of separation where there are children.

Since the law of 1984, Belgian law has banned cascade reunion except where a treaty states to the contrary.[29] Therefore, when a foreigner has been given permission to stay under provisions relating

Table II.6. **Conditions to be fulfilled by family members seeking to be accepted under family reunification procedure**

	Not known to be a threat to public order	Absence of criminal record	Health conditions	Possibility of changing status
Australia	X		X	X
Belgium	X			X
Bulgaria	X			
Canada	X	X	X	
Czech Rep.	X	X		
Finland	X	X		X
France	X	X	X	
Germany	X			in some exceptional cases
Italy	X			X
Netherlands	X	X	X	X (only refugees)
Slovak Rep.	X	X		
Spain	X		X	
Switzerland	X			
United States	X			

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to family reunion, he is not allowed to benefit from this procedure again. Moreover, when family reunion has been requested in respect of some family members, the reunion of other members may not be requested during that year or in the year following the initial reunion.

The Law of 1993 in France states that family reunion may be requested in respect of all family members, but lawmakers included an exception when they decided the family reunion could be granted for reasons linked to the child's interests. The law provides for Prefects to have wide powers of discretion in this regard; these provisions do not apply to Algerians. In the Netherlands, family members who have entered the country under family reunion procedures since 17 September 1993 cannot themselves apply for family reunion for another three years.

Regularisation of family members already in the country

Family members frequently need not have lived in the country in order to use the family reunion procedure, but this right is subject to amendment in certain countries; it is even abolished when the law provides for possible regularisation. In Germany, regularisation very rarely applies in the event of a marriage that takes place after immigration and when a child is born in the country; however, regularisation is out of the question if the family member holds an ordinary tourist visa.

In France, no regularisation is possible under family reunion rules for foreigners already living in the country; however, the Circular of 25 June 1997 on the regularisation of certain foreigners provides for the regularisation of children under 16 who entered France in breach of the family reunion procedure.[30] The principle of non-regularisation has applied in the Netherlands since the Law of 11 December 1998 whereby foreigners have to request a long-stay visa from their country of origin. Exceptions are made in the case of refugees. Regularisation is officially impossible in Switzerland.

By contrast, some countries allow the regularisation of family members who are already in the country. For example, Australia allows them to apply for a permanent visa when they are already in Australia. In Belgium, a check is made to ensure that entry into the country was regular, but a foreigner who presents papers proving that he falls into one of the categories contained in Article 10 of the Law of 1980 must be listed on the register of foreigners. The local authority informs the Minister and gets his agreement; this means that the foreigner's presence in the country is not an obstacle to family reunion.

In Finland, regularisation is possible if a refusal would be unreasonable. This is also true in Italy where a valid permit to stay may be turned into a permit to stay issued for family reasons, although it does not apply to members of an Italian's family who hold a residence card and therefore have an entitlement to live in Italy. Bulgaria and Slovakia dispense with this limitation.

2. The procedure

In most countries, the government has wide discretionary powers to allow or reject family reunion, although there are cases where reunion is a right (Germany) or where the government cannot turn down an application for reunion if the conditions are met (Belgium and France). The procedures vary: in some countries they are operated by special organisations; in others the immigration authorities control them. The latter system applies in Australia, Belgium and Canada.

a) The competent authorities and the processing of requests

Competence to decide on family reunion lies with the Federal governments (Foreign Ministries), Foreigners' Offices in the *Länder*, and authorities specialising in the status of foreigners in certain cities. The application is made to the department at the Mayor's Office in the main town in the region with responsibility for foreigners. The applicant must provide all necessary documentary evidence. Because of the wide powers of discretion available to the government, failure to meet these conditions does not necessarily mean that the application will be turned down.

In Australia, the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs has authority to grant immigration papers and issue permanent entry visas. In Belgium, the normal procedure for foreigners entering the country is used. A foreigner with leave to remain only has to provide the government with proof that he falls into one of the categories listed in Article 10 of the Law, and in particular paragraph 4. He is given full leave to remain if he meets these conditions, the government's role being simply to check that the conditions are met. An initial examination phase looking at the admissibility of the application to remain is the task of local authority; a second

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phase that focuses on the cogency of the request is the responsibility of the Foreigners' Office.

In Bulgaria, the application is addressed to the Ministry of the Interior, the national law-and-order enforcement department with authority to issue visas and passports. In Finland, the Director of Immigration (Ministry of the Interior) has authority to allow family reunion; he takes advice from the Foreign Embassy and local law-and-order agencies. In Canada, family members are given permission to enter the country by the immigration authorities or by the immigration services in Quebec for people wishing to settle there. If there is a crime or security issue, responsibility is passed to the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and the *Canadian Security Intelligence Service*.

In France, a request for family reunion is submitted to the DDASS (*Direction départementale de l'action sanitaire et sociale*), which examines admissibility. If the applicant meets the conditions relating to stay and period of stay, and family members meet conditions set out in Article 29 of the Ordinance of 1945, the DDASS issues the applicant with a statement in support and sends a copy of the file to the Prefecture, and to the OMI (*Office des Migrations Internationales*) which oversees conditions relating to the applicant's accommodation[31] and finances. The Prefecture is then contacted to check that family members are not a threat to public order.

In Italy, the Commissioner of Police grants permission in the applicant's town of residence; the applicant may appeal against refusal to the court in the area where he lives. If the applicant is an Italian citizen, the visa is issued by the Italian embassy or consulate abroad. In the Netherlands, the competent authorities are the Department of Immigration and Naturalisation (at national level), which comes under the Ministry of Justice, and the Foreigners' Police (at local level). In Switzerland, authority lies with cantonal governments.

In Slovakia, the responsibility rests with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as far as people of Slovakian origin are concerned, and the Ministry of the Interior for the others. Similarly, in the Czech Republic, it is a matter for the Ministry of the Interior's Department of Foreigners' and Border Police. The request is submitted in the first instance to representatives of the district.

b) The decision

In general terms, there is hierarchical and/or administrative, and sometimes legal, recourse to decisions blocking family reunion. Finland is the only exception. In Germany, reasoned decisions are taken by the local or regional government to which the application was made; a refusal, or the absence of a reply after a period of three months, brings the matter to the attention of the Administrative Tribunal. This challenge must be preceded by a hierarchical approach, and it is not possible if the applicant is abroad.

If a visa application is refused in Australia, application can be made for review by the *Migration Internal Review Office (MIRO)* and for appeal to the *Immigration Review Tribunal (IRT)*. In Belgium, the decision is taken by the competent Minister within one year; this period may be extended once by three months; the foreigner's name is then listed on the local authority's register of foreigners. Refusal to grant permission triggers a hierarchical recourse in law by way of a review before the Minister; the latter must seek an opinion from the Consultative Commission of Foreigners, and possibly seek annulment before the Council of State.

In Bulgaria, the person who is refused family reunion may take his case to the Regional Court within 7 days of being notified of the decision, or to the Supreme Administrative Court within 14 days, depending on the department that took the decision.

In Canada, the person whose sponsorship application for family reunion has been refused may appeal to the *Immigration Appeal Division of the Immigration and Refugee Board* (IRB). The *Immigration Appeal Division* sends the decision and reasons for refusal to the government department responsible for visas.

In France, the Prefect may, within six months of the initial application being submitted, decide in a reasoned argument to permit family reunion if the conditions are met. Appeals against possible refusals are heard by the Ministry of the Interior (*Direction des libertés publiques et des affaires juridiques*, or *DLPAJ*), the Ministry of Social Affairs (*Direction de la Population et des Migrations*, or *DPM*), depending on the competence of each of its departments. Actions *ultra vires* may be brought before Administrative Tribunals at a later date.

In Italy, appeals against a decision to refuse family reunion are heard by the regional administrative tribunal of the foreigner's legal hometown. In the Netherlands, an administrative challenge may be made to the Ministry of Justice's Department of Immigration and Naturalisations; the case may then go on to the district tribunal specialising in immigration law.

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In Switzerland, cantonal decisions that are also administrative decisions may be challenged under each canton's procedural law. Where the federal authorities have competence, a challenge is possible under federal procedural rules. Lastly, when a foreigner has a permit to stay, he can take his case to the Federal Tribunal.

In Slovakia, a decision must be taken within 60 days of the application being made; ordinary administrative procedures may be invoked in the event of refusal. In the Czech Republic, the applicant may appeal against the district authorities' decision to the Minister of the Interior's Department of the Foreigners' and Frontier Police; their decision is final. In Finland, there is no way of appealing a refusal to grant entry. Draft legislation provides for the possibility of an appeal, but it has not yet been voted on; however, the family member who is already in the country may go to the administrative tribunals to appeal against a decision to refuse.

E. THE EFFECTS OF FAMILY REUNION

The granting of family reunion brings with it a number of rights: they include leave to remain, the right to work, social protection, and protection from being removed from the country. The situation varies considerably from country to country (see Table II.7).

1. The granting of a permit to stay

Generally speaking, family members are granted the same permit to stay as the person they have come to join; it may be temporary or permanent, although there are sometimes exceptions. In Germany, for example, when the foreigner has a permit that has limitations of time or space (*Aufenthaltbesichtigung*), family members are only entitled to limited leave to remain renewable every year (*Aufenthalterlaubnis*). He may be issued with an *Aufenthaltbewilligung* (*Ausländer Gesetz*, Article 29), a temporary residence permit for a maximum of two years if the initiator of family reunion is on mission or has a specific activity to conduct in Germany for a limited period (*e.g.* a course of studies), or a special permit for family reunion (*Familienzusammenführung*). The spouse or other family members are entitled to an indefinite residence permit once they have lived in the country for five years with a temporary permit, provided that they speak sufficient German, meet the relevant accommodation criteria, have sufficient means and are not likely to be deported. With regard to the foreign members of the family of a German citizen living in Germany, they are given an indefinite permit after three years' residence, provided that they speak sufficient German and have not committed breaches of the peace. Children allowed into the country on grounds of family reunion are entitled to an unlimited residence permit if, on their sixteenth birthday, they have held a temporary residence permit for eight years.

A one-year permit is issued in most countries, but a permanent visa is issued in Australia and Canada. In Australia, this is issued within the limits of the quota applying to specific categories of foreigners and it entitles the holder to live in the country for an indefinite period. In Canada, the holder may take out Canadian citizenship after a permanent stay of three years.

In Belgium, like ordinary foreigners, family members may ask to be listed in the register of foreigners when they receive a permit to stay; this permission is granted for an unlimited period, but the leave to remain that gave the initial entitlement is valid for only one year. The applicant must seek extension or renewal from the local authority for his place of residence. Family members qualify for a settlement permit if the foreigner for whose benefit the family reunion has taken place also has one. In Spain the first residence permit is valid for one year and renewable for two further years. The ordinary permit is valid for three years. A permanent residence permit is issued to foreigners after six years in the country as a legal resident. In Finland, family members receive the same kind of leave to remain as foreigners, but for a maximum of one year. The spouse of a Finnish citizen receives permanent leave to remain that is based on the marriage; the permit is valid for one year and is renewable.

In France, family members receive a one-year, unconditional temporary permit to stay[32] (family member rules) or a ten-year resident's card, depending on the circumstances. When the Prefect rules in favour of family reunion, the OMI is handed the task of bringing the family into the country. The Prefect also makes a small charge. The permit is rendered null and void if reunion does not take place within six months of the Prefect announcing his favourable decision.

In the Netherlands, the permit to stay sets out the purpose of the stay (*e.g.* marriage or co-habitation); it is valid for one year and is renewable. A refugee's spouse and children are entitled to

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Table II.7. **The rights accorded to those entering under family reunification procedures**

	Authorisation of stay granted		Access to the labour market	Social security	Protection against expulsion	Reexamination of family reunification in the case of:	
	Permanent	Temporary				Death of the sponsor	Divorce
Australia	After 2 years of stay	2-year visa (quota) 9-month visa (quota) for fiancé(e)	X	Usually after 2 years			
Belgium		1 year	X	X	X		X If it occurs within 1 year
Bulgaria		5 years	X				X If it occurs within 5 years
Canada	Permanent visa (Canadian citizenship may be obtained after 3 years of residence)		X	X (same rights as other categories of permanent residents)	X (same rights as other categories of permanent residents)		
Czech Rep.		5 years	X				
Finland	If the sponsor has this status	1 year	X[1]				X If it occurs within 2 years
France	10-year permit if the sponsor has this status	1 year, if the sponsor holds this kind of permit	X[2]	X	X	Cases are treated on their merits, sympathetically	X If it occurs within 1 year
Germany		1 year (3 years for the family members of a national)	One year to obtain a *Betugnis;* 4 years to obtain a *Aufenthalterlaubnis;* 6 years to have unrestricted access to the labour market	X	X		X If it occurs within 4 years
Italy	If the sponsor has this status	If the sponsor holds this kind of permit	X Except for parents	X			
Netherlands		1 year	X			X	X If it occurs within 3 years
Slovak Rep.		1 year	X			Death is treated in the same way as divorce	X
Spain	I.n.a.	I.n.a.	X				X
Switzerland		2 years (permanent permit) or 1 year if the applicant holds a temporary residence permit	X			Death is treated in the same way as divorce	X
United States	I.n.a.	I.n.a.	Depends on the kind of visa	Partial	X[3]		

1. The right to take up employment is granted immediately to the spouses of Finns, to refugees and to other persons who have been permitted to enter for humanitarian reasons.
2. Those family members who arrive with the sponsor are however not permitted to work.
3. The possibility to claim that expulsion would cause particular hardship to the family is left open.

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a derived refugee status with the right to permanent stay. After five years as a legal resident, the spouse or co-habitee may apply for a permanent settlement permit, provided that the family has an adequate, stable income and that no serious offence has been committed. The children obtain a settlement permit on their eighteenth birthday, with no conditions in respect of resources, if they have been legal residents in the country for five years.

In the United Kingdom, if the person at the origin of family reunion is a British national or has permanent leave to remain in the country, family members will be given unlimited leave to remain. Otherwise, the family members will be given temporary leave to remain and will only be able to obtain unlimited leave to remain after four years in the country.

In Slovakia, the stay is normally permanent, but the permit is issued for one year renewable. In Italy, the validity of a permit to stay issued for family reasons is copied from the foreigner's leave to remain, and is renewable at the same time. If the applicant is an Italian citizen, the authorisation given to family members takes the form of a permanent resident's card unless they commit certain offences (Articles 380 & 381 of the Italian Criminal Code). Under legislation applying the Strasbourg Convention of 5 February 1992 on the Participation of Foreigners in Public Life at Local Level, this card allows the holder to enter the country without a visa, take any job in Italy, make use of public services, and exercise the right to vote.

In Switzerland, a spouse who joins a foreigner with settlement papers has a right to the same entitlement as long as the couple lives together; the settlement permit allows permanent stay, but is renewable after two years. After a regular and uninterrupted stay of five years, the spouse has a personal right to a settlement permit. If the foreigner only has permission to stay, his family members are only entitled to a permit to stay for one year renewable as long as reunion conditions are complied with. The same one-year permit is issued to the foreign spouse of a Swiss citizen, although he has a right to a settlement permit after he has lived in the country for five years. The law makes no provision for a Swiss citizen's foreign, single children under the age of 18. Analogously, case law contains legislation covering the children of foreigners who have settled in Switzerland subject to keeping public order and abuse of rights. A child qualifies for a settlement permit, although in certain circumstances he may only receive a permit for one year renewable.

In Bulgaria, there are foreigners' identity cards valid for five years, permanent residents' cards and refugee cards. Travel documents are given to refugees and stateless persons.

2. The right to work

In this area, there is a difference in approach between countries that allow family members to work, and those that deny them this right or apply more or less stringent conditions.

a) Countries that allow family members to work

In many countries, family members have the right to work as soon as they arrive in the country. A distinction is sometimes drawn depending on whether family members come to join a foreigner, a national or a refugee. In Belgium, Work Permit A, which gives unlimited leave to remain, is issued to the spouse and children of foreigners who already hold that Permit. In Bulgaria, foreigners with an identity card may perform any job except one that foreigners are banned from taking under the Constitution. In both Canada and Australia, a foreigner may work as soon as he has a permanent resident's visa.

Spain allows family members to work and places no obstacles in their way. In Finland, the right to work immediately is only extended to people who have refugee status, are in need of protection, or are the spouse of a Finnish citizen. In France, both the temporary permit to stay and the resident's card give the holder the right to take any kind of employment permitted by current legislation. In Italy, a person with leave to remain for family reasons is allowed to start work immediately in employment or self-employment.

The Netherlands allows family members to start work immediately; the same right applies to the family members of refugees, of people with Dutch nationality, of foreigners with permanent or one-year leave to remain with no restrictions, and of foreigners with limited leave to remain. However, a student's family is not allowed to work.

In the United Kingdom, the right to work stems from the right to remain and, as soon as family members have been authorised to stay, they may take up employment. In Slovakia, foreigners of Slovakian origin who have a right to stay may take employment without a work permit; the same applies to refugees. Otherwise, only long-term permits give a right to work, but only if they have been issued for that purpose. Both Sweden and Norway require

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family members to hold work permits if they are to be authorised to work, unless they have settlement permits. In Switzerland, a permit to stay includes the right to start work immediately. In the Czech Republic, a foreigner with permanent leave to remain is deemed to be a Czech citizen except in respect of the right to vote and conscription.

b) Countries that do not allow family members to work

There are very few countries in this category. In fact, only in Germany are family members not allowed to enter the labour market immediately. Holders of an *Aufenthalterlaubnis* must wait for four years, whereas those with a permit specifically linked to family reunion (*Betugnis*) may enter the labour market after one year. The employment situation is uneven as far as they are concerned: on the one hand, family members may only obtain a work permit without restriction after being in the country legally for six years.[33] On the other hand, a foreign family member of a German person who lives in Germany and holds an *Arbeitsberechtigung* faces no restrictions to labour market access. A similar situation is found in Switzerland where family members cannot enter the labour market immediately. They have to wait for a work permit to be issued by the cantonal authorities. However, there is no minimum waiting period before the permit is granted.

Generally speaking, in the United States, the family members of non-immigrants are not allowed to work. Some distinctions need to be drawn according to the different visas that family members hold. The following family members may not work: temporary workers holding an H-4 visa, employees on inter-company transfers (L-1 visa), investors and businessmen with entitlements under a treaty (E-1 and E-2 visas), foreigners with exceptional skills, athletes and performers (O-3 and P-4 visas), representatives of the information sector and news media (I visa), students (F-1 and M-1 visas), religious (R-2 visa), and exchange visitors (*i.e.* researchers and university teachers) (J-2 visa); the latter may be allowed to work in certain circumstances. The same procedure is applied on a case-by-case basis, and, subject to reciprocal arrangements, to the family members of a foreign diplomat (visas A-1 and A-2) and the families of foreign representatives of international organisations (visas G-1 and G-4). Those holding visas G-2 and G-3 may not work.

In France, the accompanying family[34] admitted for exceptional reasons with a temporary worker (particularly an executive on secondment) may not work.

3. Entitlement to social protection

Foreign workers in Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Spain normally qualify for the same social protection as nationals; this protection is extended to family members who live legally in the country, particularly with regard to social benefits. However, there are differences in the kind of protection sought. In Australia, social protection is only made available after a period of two years starting from the date of arrival in the country, or from the issue of a permanent visa. In the United Kingdom, entitlement to social protection varies according to the category of leave to stay. Furthermore, the situation regarding access to social security and social assistance is highly complex.

4. Protection against being removed from the country

Not all countries have a system of protecting family members from removal, but such protection is relative as it only makes removal more difficult, and does not rule it out altogether. The fault often lies with the kind of permit. In Germany, in the event of removal, Article 45(2) of the Law on foreigners obliges the government to take account of the foreigner's period of stay, particularly any family links he may have with the country, and the consequences that exclusion may have for the family members with whom he lives legally in Germany.

In Belgium, the husband or wife of a Belgian, foreigners living in Belgium legally and uninterruptedly for at least ten years, foreigners settled in Belgium but have become incapable of working, and foreigners permanently incapable of working are protected against removal or expulsion except where there is a threat to public order or public security (Article 21 of the Law of 1980). Similarly, in France, Article 25 of the Ordinance of 1945 expressly provides for those affected to be accompanied to the frontier, and for expulsion never to be used in the case of the following: a child under the age of 18, a foreigner who can show he has lived normally in France since the age of 10 at the most (or at least 15 years), the spouse of a French person where they are still living together and the spouse still has French nationality, the foreign mother or father of a French child, or a foreigner in receipt of an occupational accident or illness pension paid by a French

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organisation, or who has a permanent disability of at least 20%.

There is no question of absolute protection as committing a crime that results in an unsuspended sentence of five years' imprisonment leads to a loss of immunity (except in the case of children under the age of 18), and to expulsion because of the need to ensure the safety of the state or public security.[35] In this context, it is important to refer to the protection given in European countries under Article 8 of the European Convention of Human Rights: it has been frequently used to place restrictions on the removal of family members.

In Canada, once migrants have obtained the status of permanent resident, the conditions under which they are protected against removal from the country are the same, regardless of their status upon entry (with the exception of Convention refugees).

In the United States, family members cannot avoid expulsion, but, in seeking to have the immigration judge's decision overturned, they may point to the particular "hardship" that the measure is causing to family life. In Spain, the removal of family members after two years' legal residence is subject to restrictions. In particular, the family members of a migrant with a permanent residence permit may not be removed. The same applies if the migrant was previously Spanish or was born in Spain and has lived there for five years, or if he receives a pension in respect of an occupational disease or accident.[36]

In Norway, settlement permit holders are protected against expulsion, unless they have committed serious offences[37] and provided that the sanction is not disproportionate with the family life of the person concerned. In the Netherlands, children aged under 18 living with a parent may not be removed, nor can foreigners born in the Netherlands or allowed in before the age of ten if they have lived in the country for at least 15 years. After 10 years' residence, removal is only possible if the person has been convicted of a major drug-dealing offence.

In Sweden, those who have spent more than four years in the Kingdom will only be subject to expulsion under exceptional circumstances. Expulsion is not possible for foreigners who entered Sweden before the age of 15 and have lived there for over five years.

F. CONCLUSIONS

This comparative study of family reunion highlights certain lines of convergence: the recent introduction of legislation covering family reunion, the exclusion of temporary workers from entitlement, the more favourable status given to refugees, the rejection of polygamy, the obligation to cohabit, and the right of family members to have a job. There are also great similarities in the requirements that the applicant must meet with respect to financial resources and accommodation, and the absence of any threat to public order by the incoming family members. Governments play a key role in allowing reunion, and their decisions are usually appealable before the courts. Appeals against refusals to issue a visa stand little chance of success.

This similarity that marks family reunion law does not mean that, for example, there are no divergences affecting the definition of family members: there is widespread agreement that this term includes the spouse and children of a foreigner or even a national, but a wider range is achieved by extending the family, for example to include co-habitees, elderly dependants, brothers and sisters. The concept of the accompanying family, too, triggers differences. There is also disagreement in respect of the length of stay giving entitlement to family reunion, the possibility for family members already in the country to be legalised by procedures other than those governing family reunion, and the kinds of permit issued to family members.

This study has not provided scope to look in depth at the social protection afforded to family members. Furthermore, the concept of the family needs to be more clearly defined. This is because there would appear to be a number of situations that do not necessarily require the same solutions:

- The immigrant's family, consisting of no more than the spouse and children, may already exist when the immigrant arrives. This leaves us with two scenarios: either the immigrant arrives with his family, and we are dealing with an accompanying family, or he leaves his family in his country of origin and seeks family reunion as soon as he settles in the receiving country.
- The immigrant settles his family in the receiving country, and this in turn gives rise to three situations: either the immigrant marries a national of the receiving country, or he marries someone who has the same nationality but who lives in the receiving country, or he returns to his country temporarily in order to marry someone with his nationality. All three

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possibilities could give rise to quite different legal approaches.

– A sponsored family avoids this dichotomy, as ultimately this is a purely financial matter.

Depending on how the law and regulations deal with these various situations, the economic impact will always vary, particularly as far as access to the labour market and social protection are concerned. Consideration might also be given to how much account is taken of the status of the family in the country of origin, as this would result in a more accurate picture of the status of legally constituted polygamous families in countries of origin.

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NOTES

1. This part was written by Mrs Nicole Guimezanes, Professor at the Faculty of Law of Paris-Saint-Maur, Université de Paris XII. This study is based on certain laws and on replies to a questionnaire sent to national representatives.
2. Art. 9.: 1. Parties shall ensure that a child shall not be separated from his or her parents against his or her will. 2. Parties shall respect the right of the child who is separated from one or both parents to maintain personal relations and direct contact with both parents on a regular basis.
3. O. de Schutter, Le droit au regroupement familial au croisement des ordres juridiques européens, Rev. dr. des étrangers, 1996, p. 531.
4. The Constitutional Council has acknowledged that the right to have a normal family life is incorporated into the fundamental constitutional freedoms and rights accorded to all who live in the country and enjoy the protection of the provisions of public order: Discussion No. 93-325 DC, 13 August 1993: OJ of 18 August 1993; JCP 1993, Ed. G III, 66372.
5. The amendments made to the "Migration Regulations" in 1999 restructured and simplified the visa categories for family members.
6. US Court of Appeals, 9th Circuit, 1982, 673 F.2d 1036.
7. Law No. 99-944, 15 November 1999, published in the *Journal Officiel* of 16 November 1999.
8. In the Netherlands, the relevant legislation is at Article 47 of the Decree on foreigners of 19 September 1966, and Article 24 of the Prescription on foreigners of 22 September 1966.
9. This limitation on the reunion of polygamous families is expressly covered in Germany (Article 17 of the Law of 1990, Administrative Court of Lower Saxony 6 July 1992, InfAuslIR 1992); Belgium (Council of State 9 July 1986, Rev, dr. étr 1986, No. 40, p. 114); Canada, Spain (Article 54.6 of the Implementation Regulation of the Law of 1985 on foreigners – this legislation states that a residence permit may only be issued to one spouse); France (Article 30 of the Ordinance of 2 November 1945); Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the Czech Republic (where foreigners may only be joined by one spouse, although the problem has not really arisen yet in practice).
10. Council of State, 11 July 1980.
11. This ban was backed up by a dual sanction: on the one hand, a polygamous husband who brings more than one wife into the country will have his residence permit withdrawn whether it is a temporary authorisation or a resident's card; on the other hand, the resident's permit will be refused, or even withdrawn, if it has been issued to the second wife. Only resident's permits issued after the 1993 Act came into force may be withdrawn. The Prefect has a linked competence in this matter as long as the conditions legally associated with the withdrawal are met. However, attention should also be drawn to an exception in that Algerians are not covered by the 1945 Ordinance, but by the Franco-Algerian Accord of 27 December 1968. The Marseille Administrative Tribunal determined that the ban on polygamy did not only apply to them: 28 March 1997, Mr. Drizi, No. 95-6277.
12. Article 10.4 of the law of 15 December 1980. Council of State, 20 October 1989 and 24 November 1989.
13. Article 12*bis* of the Law of 15 December 1980, as incorporated by the Law of August 1993.
14. Requesting a residence permit when the marriage is one of convenience is an offence punishable by up to a year's imprisonment or a fine.
15. Council of State 16 June 1995. It has been decided that, where family reunion has been authorised for the benefit of a foreigner residing in France, the aim is to make it possible for the couple to live together. However, if they cease to live together between the point at which the spouse enters the country and the date when the government decides on the request for a residence permit, the conditions for family reunion are no longer met on that date.
16. S.H. Legomsky, *Immigration and Refugee Law and Policy*, Foundation Press 1997, p. 146.
17. That is why there is an exception in France that is enshrined in the Franco-Algerian Accord of 27 December 1968, as amended on 22 December 1985; this relates to children under the age of 18 whose applicant has legal responsibility arising out of a decision handed down by an Algerian court. It is set out in a judgement (Circular of 14 March 1986) sanctioning a child's legal adoption ("kafala").
18. This convention covers Cyprus, Iceland, Malta, Norway and Turkey in addition to members of the European Union.
19. Under the terms of an agreement between Belgium and Turkey relating to the jobs of Turkish workers in Belgium, Turkish workers qualify for the right to have elderly dependants join them (Council of State 29 November 1991).

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20. The proportion of fiancé(e)s entering Canada was 5.72% in 1996, 5.14% in 1997 and 3.77% in 1998.
21. Constitutional Court 13 August 1993, Dec. No. 93-325 DC.
22. Article 10 (final paragraph) of the Law of 15 December 1980: this provision does not outlaw family reunion; it requires the authorisation of the Minister of Justice (Article 10*bis*). The Federal Constitutional Court in Germany has decided that a foreigner who wants to be joined by his spouse while pursuing his studies in Germany may be refused.
23. The same idea is to be found in Italian legislation of 1998 which appoints a "Garante" to "sponsor" foreign citizens wishing to come into Italy to find work.
24. In this case, the applicant asks for permits to be issued directly for his family members.
25. The period of one year is waived in the case of Algerians with a one-year or ten-year certificate of residence.
26. The monthly SMIC (Salaire minimum interprofessionnel de croissance) has stood at FRF 6 797.18 since 1 July 1998.
27. The following money is deemed to be income: income from employment or self-employment; payments that replace income when liable for deductions, income for work carried out under the aegis of the Law on social work, income from capital where it has enabled the foreigner to live for a year with enough left over for another year.
28. People under the age of 23 are also deemed to have enough money if they can show evidence of receiving a salary for a job lasting at least 32 hours a week, irrespective of the size of the salary. As for those aged over 23, a salary of 70% of the minimum wage is deemed to be enough if it has been earned over the course of at least a year.
29. Council of State 15 July 1992: the entitlement to family reunion under the terms of the Belgo-Moroccan agreement is broader than that provided for under the Law of 15 December 1980; it does not ban cascade reunion.
30. Exceptional regularisation measures were introduced from 28 July 1989 to cover Algerian nationals who were under the age of 18 when they entered France before 22 December 1985 in breach of family reunion procedures.
31. OMI staff carry out on-the-spot checks to ensure that accommodation conditions are complied with: they may only enter the premises with the occupant's consent in writing; if the occupant refuses entry, the accommodation conditions are deemed not to have been met.
32. Article 12*bis* of the Ordinance of 1945, as amended by the Law of 11 May 1998, provides for unconditional temporary leave to remain to be granted both to foreigners under the age of 18, or in the year following their 18th birthday, if at least one parent has temporary leave to remain and as long as there is no threat to public order, and to a foreigner who enters the country legally and whose spouse holds the same permit.
33. Article 27 of the Law on foreigners, 1990.
34. There is draft EC legislation (1991) designed to regulate the status of the joining family in a more restrictive manner.
35. Article 26 of the Ordinance of 2 November 1945.
36. Article 99 (4) of Royal Decree 155/1996.
37. Article 12 (2) of the Immigration Act.

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Part III

RECENT CHANGES IN MIGRATION MOVEMENTS AND POLICIES

(COUNTRY NOTES)

This Section is comprised of detailed notes on the trends in migration flows and policies in each of the countries studied. The characteristics of each country are presented as follows:

– Trends in migration movements.

– Structure and changes in the foreign population.

– Migration and the labour market.

– Policy developments.

New Zealand, which has just joined the SOPEMI network, is the subject of a detailed report which is to be found at the end of this Section.

AUSTRALIA

Introduction

Numerous changes to Australia's migration policy have recently been implemented. Some initiatives are aimed at promoting the country's economic development, and others at giving the government some leeway to pursue its goals. Many of the visas issued every year are accorded to skilled workers, and the government plans to appreciably increase the number of Working Holiday Maker visas made available between 1998 and 2000.

A series of measures have been taken to reduce the volume of new immigrants in certain categories or to exert greater control over their access to the labour market. Thus, students must now have begun their studies before they can take up employment. Entry conditions have been slightly relaxed for elderly people and dependent parents, in particular to overcome the slowness of the procedure.

The Australian economy grew at a rate of 4.5% in 1998/99. Sustained employment growth continued and unemployment fell to its lowest level since 1990, averaging 7.6% in 1998/99.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreign-born persons

Permanent and long-term migration

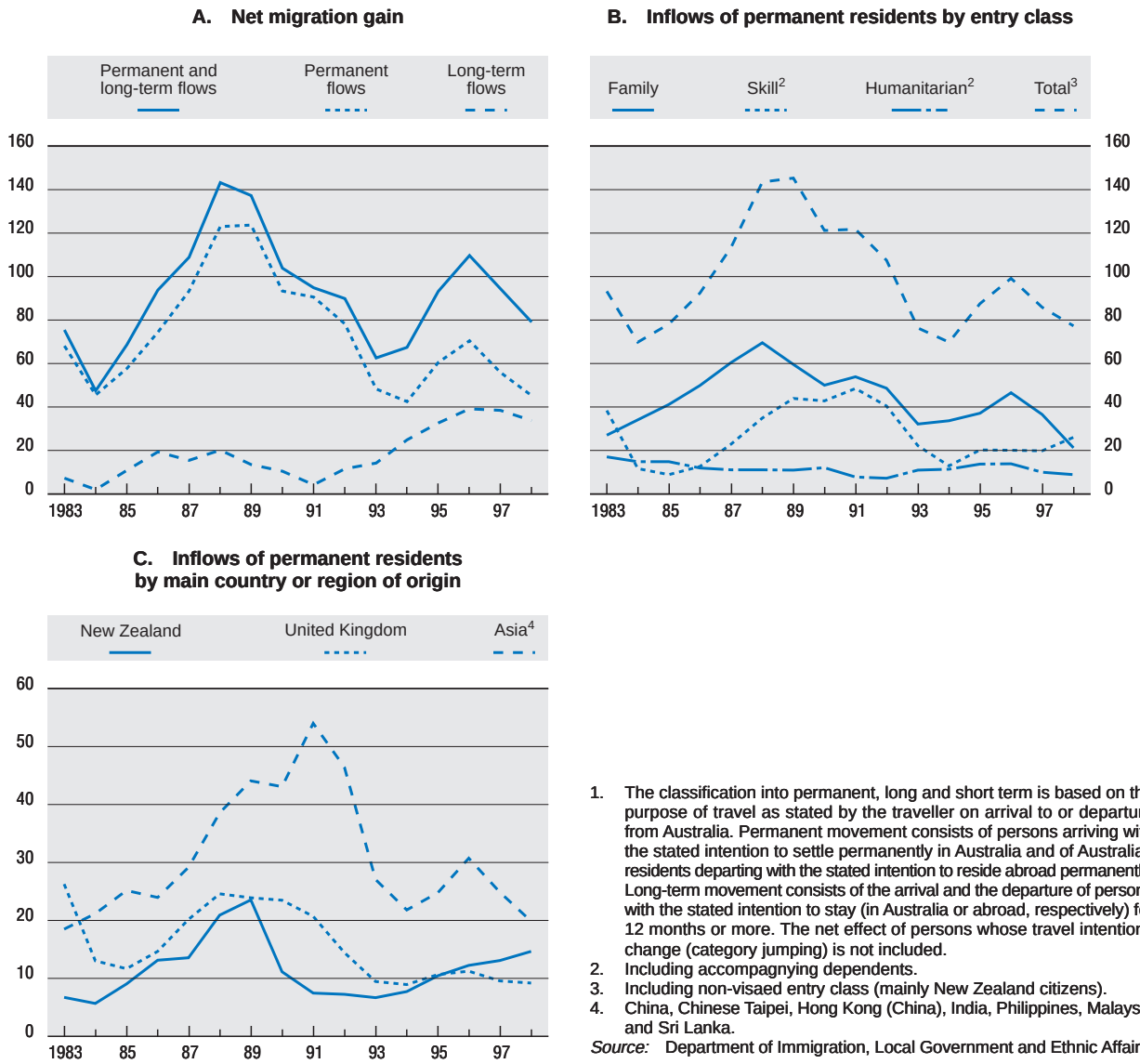
Net migration during 1998/99 was an estimated at 96 500, namely 84 100 permanent entries, 35 200 definitive departures, 187 800 long-term entries (12 months or more) and 140 300 long-term departures.

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The increase of almost 9% in the number of permanent entries was mainly due to a 27% increase in the number of permanent entries from New Zealand (24 700 in 1998/99 compared with 19 500 in 1997/98). Almost 51% of the definitive departures involved permanent residents. The number of such departures is almost 10% up on the previous year, and the highest figure since 1973/74.

In 1998/99, net long-term movements (12 months or more) totalled 47 500 (see Chart III.1). A period of strong economic growth in Australia is generally accompanied by a rise in the number of long-term entries. In 1998/99 ten countries (United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand, Indonesia, Japan, Singapore, Malaysia, China, India and Korea) each accounted for between 4 and 16% of long-term entries. For the third consecutive year, United Kingdom nationals formed the largest group, with over 20 000 entries.

Chart III.1. **Flows of permanent and long-term residents,[1] Australia**
Fiscal years 1982/83-1997/98
Thousands



1. The classification into permanent, long and short term is based on the purpose of travel as stated by the traveller on arrival to or departure from Australia. Permanent movement consists of persons arriving with the stated intention to settle permanently in Australia and of Australian residents departing with the stated intention to reside abroad permanently. Long-term movement consists of the arrival and the departure of persons with the stated intention to stay (in Australia or abroad, respectively) for 12 months or more. The net effect of persons whose travel intentions change (category jumping) is not included.
2. Including accompagnying dependents.
3. Including non-visaed entry class (mainly New Zealand citizens).
4. China, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), India, Philippines, Malaysia and Sri Lanka.

Source: Department of Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs.

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Under the Permanent Migration Programme, which systematically targets skilled migrants, just under 68 000 people obtained entry visas in 1998/99, and the government is planning to grant 70 000 in 1999/2000 (see Table III.1).

Temporary migration

Under Australia's Temporary Resident Programme (which excludes students), the number of visas granted off-shore and on-shore rose from 125 700 in 1997/98 to 136 200 in 1998/99, an increase of 8.4% (see Table III.1). Under the Working Holiday Maker Programme, some 65 000 visas were issued in 1998/99, 62 600 of them off-shore, compared with a total of 57 000 in 1997/98. There are plans to award 78 000 such visas for 1999/2000.

The Skilled Temporary Resident Programme covers entries of business people (holders of Temporary Business Entry Long-Stay visas), people in the medical profession and academics. The number of Temporary Business Entry Long-Stay visas fell slightly to 33 200 in 1998/99, from 33 600 in 1997/98. One-third of these visas are issued to managers and administrators. Business Visitor visas were down again in 1998/99 from 218 000 in 1997/98 to 210 000, as a result of new criteria introduced in 1997, of the impact of the Asian crisis and of the number of such visas accorded for multiple entry.

Also granted were 6 000 Business Skills visas under the Business Skills Migration Programme, the aim of which is to attract managers, entrepreneurs and investors and to provide assistance for business people who

Table III.1. **Permanent and temporary migration programme outcomes, 1996-1999[1] and planning levels for permanent settlers for 2000 and 2001, by category, Australia**

Thousands

	Actual				Planned	
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Migration Programme[2]						
(excluding the Humanitarian Programme)	**82.5**	**73.9**	**67.1**	**67.9**	**70.0**	**76.0**
Family	56.7	44.6	31.3	32.0	32.0	32.4
Preferential family	48.7	37.2	31.3	32.0	32.0	32.4
Concessional family	8.0	7.3				
Skill	24.1	27.5	34.7	35.0	35.0	40.0
Employer nomination/labour agreements	4.6	5.6	6.0	5.6	6.0	. .
Business skills	4.9	5.8	5.4	6.1	6.0	. .
Special talents	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	. .
Independents	10.6	15.0	13.3	13.6	14.3	. .
Skilled Australian linked[3]	. .	. .	9.5	9.3	8.4	. .
Other	3.8	1.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	. .
Special eligibility	1.7	1.7	1.1	0.9	3.0	1.6
Humanitarian Programme[2]	**15.1**	**11.9**	**12.1**	**11.4**	**12.8**	. .
Refugees and special humanitarian	8.2	5.9	8.6	8.3	. .	. .
Special assistance	6.9	3.7	1.8	1.1	. .	. .
Other	–	2.3	1.6	1.8	. .	. .
Temporary Resident Programme[4]	. .	118.9	125.7	136.2	. .	. .
Economic programme	. .	31.7	37.3	37.0	. .	. .
Social/cultural programme	. .	16.5	17.2	20.0	. .	. .
International relations programme	. .	70.7	71.2	79.2	. .	. .
of which: Working Holiday Maker (WHM)[5]	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6	. .	. .
Student Programme[5]	**63.1**	**68.6**	**63.6**	**67.1**	**. .**	**. .**

1. Data refer to fiscal years (July to June of the given year).
2. Figures include persons who change status (temporary to permanent).
3. Certain family members (brothers and sisters, nephews and nieces, children and parents of working age) can be sponsored by the Australian relatives or by permanent residents. In order to be eligible, they must meet certain conditions, regarding professional qualifications and linguistic aptitudes.
4. Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
5. Comprises only those applications made outside Australia.

Source: Department of Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs.

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have started up companies in Australia. The criteria for issuing visas to business people were revised in 1998 and 1999 and forwarded to the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in November 1999. This has made it possible to envisage ways of adjusting policies to improve results.

Just over 67 000 off-shore visas were issued to students in 1998/99, up 5% on 1997/98. The main source countries were Indonesia, Japan, the United States, Korea, Malaysia, India, Singapore and China. New legislation covering the entry of immigrant students has been in force since 1 December 1998. This prevents students from taking up employment until they have begun their studies in Australia and, for a maximum of twelve months, from enrolling in an educational institution other than that to which they were enrolled when applying for a visa, except under exceptional circumstances.

Visitors

Some 2.9 million visitor visas were granted in 1998/99, 1.4% up on 1997/98. A sharp rise was noted in the number of visas issued in some countries, particularly the United Kingdom (up from 309 000 in 1996/97 to almost 490 000 in 1998/99) and the United States (up from 210 000 in 1996/97 to 307 000 in 1998/99). The overall rise in the number of visitor visas is all the more noticeable given the decrease in visas issued for some of the countries hit by the Asian crisis (down from 217 000 in 1996/97 to 85 000 in 1998/99 for Korean nationals, and from 717 000 to 673 000 for the Japanese, for instance). The decline has also affected Indonesian and Thai nationals. However, the number of visas issued to applicants from the Philippines has gradually risen over the past three years, from 26 500 in 1996/97 to 30 000 in 1998/99.

Illegal immigration

The bulk of illegal immigration is made up of visitors, temporary residents and students who entered the country legally and then remained after the date allowed by their visa ("overstayers"). Their number was estimated at over 53 000 on 30 June 1999 (*i.e.* 5% more than in June 1998). According to the information available on immigrants who have unduly extended their stay, over 25% are believed to have been in the country for less than a year and over 50% for more than four years.

Until recently, very few people could in theory enter Australia without identity papers because of the "universal" visa system and the fact that Australia has no land borders. However, the number of people refused entry for that very reason has continued to increase, from 485 in 1994/95 to over 2 000 in 1998/99. The number of illegal entries by boat is also on the rise (2 100 in 1998/99 compared with 1 000 in 1994/95).

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 1998/99, just over 11 300 visas were granted under the Humanitarian Programme, some 9 500 off-shore and the remainder on-shore. Most of them went to nationals of the former Yugoslavia (over 4 600 in 1998/99), followed by countries in the Middle East (in particular Iran, Iraq and Afghanistan) and Africa (Sudan, Somalia, Ethiopia and Eritrea).

The number of asylum applications came to some 8 200 in 1998/99, slightly up on 1997/98. As in the previous year, applications from Indonesia, the Philippines and China accounted for some 40% of the total. Applications from Philippine nationals have steadily decreased from 1 700 in 1996/97 to just over 400 in 1998/99. That the percentage of visas issued has been stable for the past two years is probably due to the administrative changes implemented in 1997/98 to shorten overall processing time and discourage unfounded applications. Just over 7 100 applications were accepted in 1998/99, compared with 11 300 in 1997/98 and 13 6000 in 1996/97. Nearly 1 800 protection visas were granted to asylum seekers in 1998/99.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

Numerical trends

The 1996 census provided quite a detailed account of the overseas-born population (see Table III.2). Apart from the United Kingdom, no single country of origin stands out from the rest. This is due to the fact that since the post-war period there have been waves of immigration from a wide range of countries. Today over

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Table III.2. **Socio-demographic characteristics of the native and foreign-born population, Australia, 1996 Census**

	Born in Australia		Foreign-born	
	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent
Total	**14 614.4**	**100.0**	**3 908.3**	**100.0**
Country of birth				
United Kingdom			1 072.5	27.4
New Zealand			291.4	7.5
Italy			238.2	6.1
Former Yugoslavia			175.5	4.5
Vietnam			151.1	3.9
Age				
0-14	3 452.7	26.1	226.1	5.8
15-24	2 097.9	15.9	385.8	9.9
25-49	4 718.4	35.7	1 824.9	46.7
50-64	1 540.0	11.6	850.6	21.8
65+	1 418.9	10.7	620.9	15.9
Sex ratio: Males per 100 females	97.4		99.7	
Nature of occupancy				
Owner/purchaser	9 107.0	72.0	2 579.9	69.5
Tenant	3 426.3	27.1	1 100.1	29.6
Other	113.9	0.9	31.1	0.8
Highest qualification				
Degree/Diploma	1 579.2	16.2	705.6	19.2
Skilled/Basic vocational	1 382.4	14.1	481.5	13.1
English proficiency				
Uses English only	12 309.5	94.1	2 027.1	52.5
Speaks English very well/well	638.7	5.2	1 401.2	36.3
Speaks English not well/at all	94.2	0.7	435.2	11.3
Main language spoken at home				
1. English	13 781.4	94.3	2 028.4	51.9
2. Italian	175.4	1.2	215.0	5.5
3. Greek	146.1	1.0	164.1	4.2
Labour force status				
Employed	5 691.0	91.4	1 870.4	89.3
Unemployed	535.7	8.6	225.1	10.7
Not in labour force	3 466.6	35.8	1 545.7	42.5
Occupation (skill level)				
Managers/Admin./Prof.	1 507.0	27.2	499.7	27.5
Technician/Assoc. Prof.	639.0	11.5	215.5	11.9
High skill-trade clerical	994.5	17.9	318.7	17.5
Intermediate skill	1 408.1	25.4	456.3	25.1
Low skill-clerk labourer	1 001.1	18.0	326.0	18.0
Individual income				
Less than $300 per week	4 659.8	49.8	1 861.5	52.8
$800 per week or more	1 020.8	10.9	379.8	10.8

Source: 1996 Census, Australian Bureau of Statistics.

20% of Australia's population are people born overseas, principally in New Zealand, Europe (Italy, the former Yugoslavia, Greece) and Asia (Vietnam, China, Philippines).

Naturalisation

The number of people acquiring Australian citizenship fell from almost 112 400 in 1997/98 to 76 400 in 1998/99. In August 1998, the government established an Australian Citizenship Council to consider issues

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such as citizenship rights and appropriate policies in this field. In 1999, the Council distributed "Contemporary Australian Citizenship", an issue paper calling for submissions from the community. These will be the subject of a report to the government.

Programmes to promote migrant integration

There are plans to provide English language tuition for adult migrants, together with a 24-hour Translating and Interpreting Service by telephone. A network of 30 Migrant Resource Centres, including the four Migrant Service Agencies added in 1999, offers all kinds of assistance, including multilingual information, legal advice, educational, social and cultural activities and other specialist services.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In August 1999, overseas-born workers accounted for nearly a quarter of the total labour force; almost 56% came from non-English-speaking countries. The participation rate of those born overseas is 57% (52% for nationals of non-English-speaking countries and 65% for those of English-speaking countries) compared with 66% for persons born in Australia.

For a wide variety of reasons, such as knowledge of English, age, skills, type of migration and length of residence in Australia, unemployment tends to be higher among foreigners than among Australian nationals. In August 1999, overall unemployment stood at 7%: 7.7% for those born overseas and 6.7% for people born in Australia. Unemployment is lower among nationals of English-speaking countries (6.5%) than of other countries (8.7%).

Box III.1. **Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Australia**

The findings of the Survey of Immigrants to Australia, launched in March 1994 using information collected from 5 000 foreign households in Australia for 6, 18 or 42 months, are now available. They show, for instance, that unemployment among foreigners varies substantially across visa classes (ranging from 81% in the "humanitarian" class after six months in the country to 36% in the "independent" class) but also that, on average, unemployment falls from 38% after six months in the country to 15% after 42 months. The average labour-market participation rate after the same periods of time rises from 57% to 65%.

A further survey, commissioned by the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA), will be conducted among some 3 000 migrants and their families who entered the country between 1 September 1999 and 31 August 2000. The main aim of the survey is to provide the Commonwealth and other institutions with reliable data to enhance immigration and settlement policies, but also to analyse policy changes made since 1996.

4. Policy developments

New legislation on admission and residence

A number of changes have been made to Australia's migration policy, largely to give the government more flexibility in meeting its economic and social objectives on migration.

For the year 1999-2000, the government introduced an extra quota of 5 000 places, in addition to the Migration Programme and confined to skilled migrants. These will be available once the 35 000 Skill Stream places have been filled.

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On 1 November 1999, changes were made to the arrangements regarding migrants' family members. Step-children may now, like natural or adopted children, apply for visas or be included with family members for other classes of visa. Children aged 18 or over and other dependent adults in the family unit will be subject to closer scrutiny, with the exception of the family members of an applicant for refugee status or a humanitarian visa. Furthermore, children aged 18 or over who apply for visas must be under 25 and full-time students, unless they are disabled.

In April 1998, the government announced a series of reforms concerning the entry of and support for parents and elderly relatives of people residing in Australia, to take effect as from 1 November 1998. The changes were aimed at ensuring that these people, and their relatives residing in Australia, could afford the cost of such support. However, these reforms were disallowed by the Senate in March 1999.

Two measures have since been adopted. In November 1999, new visas were introduced for applications from parents that had not been processed by the date on which the Senate voted to disallow the new classes. The new regulation applies solely to those who had undecided applications for one of the disallowed classes on 31 March 1999. It allows them to apply for a Designated Parent visa and gives them priority in the processing queue. The second measure, viewed as a short-term solution, introduces more flexible arrangements for parents who have applied for permanent residence. Parents who have to undergo a long wait can come to Australia as temporary visitors until their application is reviewed.

New measures were adopted in December 1998 to replace the Special Need Relative visa class, where abuses had been observed. The new measures, carer provisions, allow a foreigner to provide continuing assistance to an Australian relative or member of their family who has a medical condition causing impairment of their ability to attend to the practical aspects of daily life. The need for assistance must be likely to continue and cannot be obtained from any other relative in Australia. The person requiring care must undergo a medical assessment by Health Services Australia (HSA).

On 1 November 1999, the Family Stream visa class was restructured to cover fewer categories, and is now easier to understand. The system had been criticised by civil society and decision-makers for being too complex and making it too difficult to choose which visa class was applicable.

The government also facilitated the permanent settlement of skilled foreign students who had successfully completed their studies in Australia.

Finally, the government pursued the introduction of measures aimed at allowing state and territory governments to play a fuller part in selecting skilled migrants and to foster a more balanced distribution of such migrants across the country. On 1 July 1999, the government introduced the Skill Matching visa, allowing skilled foreigners to apply for highly specialised job vacancies or jobs for which there were labour shortages in some parts of the country. This new type of visa is very similar to the State/Territory Nominated Independent scheme (STNI) but is aimed mainly at supplementing the reform of Skill Stream selection which entered into force on the same date.

The new visa enables state and territory governments and employers to designate skilled people to enter Australia. It is not subject to the points test system and initially costs AUD 150. The professional and personal profile of applicants, who must meet the minimum criteria based on age, skills and knowledge of English, are recorded in an electronic database disseminated to all state and territory governments and some regional development agencies. State and territory governments and employers may designate applicants using this database.

Stronger measures to prevent illegal migration and the employment of illegal immigrants

Given the rise in illegal entries (see above), together with the spread of people smuggling and the employment of illegal immigrants, the government decided to take steps to enhance the prevention of such activities. On 3 November 1999, the Minister for Immigration and Multicultural Affairs announced the creation of a high-profile Reference Group to advise on Australia's effectiveness in combating people smuggling. A law to tighten up border controls has gone before Parliament. One provision allows DIMA and customs officers to intercept boats in international waters if suspected of involvement in people smuggling. In June 1999, changes

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were made to the 1958 Migration Act to include a new offence of knowingly organising the illegal entry of groups of five or more people. This offence carries a 20-year jail penalty and a fine of up to AUD 220 000.

The Minister for Immigration and Multicultural Affairs recently accepted the recommendations of a study on illegal workers, announced on 1 March 1999. These include the introduction of a fair and reasonable system of penalties for employers, to discourage both employers and workers from breaking the immigration laws. Furthermore, steps are to be taken to make it easier for employers to check the immigration status of prospective workers.

Australia has signed bilateral agreements on re-admission with several countries, including Papua New Guinea in 1994 and Canada in July 1999. Agreements are being negotiated with neighbouring and European countries.

Humanitarian Programme

The government has introduced a Temporary Safe Haven visa class enabling Australia to respond rapidly and usefully to humanitarian crises by according protection for as long as necessary. This new visa class demonstrates the Australian government's awareness that return to the country of origin, as soon as possible and under the requisite conditions of safety and dignity, is the preferred long-term solution. In 1998/99 the new system was used for the first time in response to the UNHCR's call to help evacuate the Kosovars from Macedonia, and a special visa was introduced. Some 4 000 Kosovars were given temporary safe haven in Australia. In September 1999 nearly 2 000 similar visas were also granted to refugees from East Timor.

New agreements have been drawn up to guarantee that the full quota of these safe haven visas is granted, and to give the government more flexibility in responding to humanitarian crises. Some of the arrangements stipulate that any safe haven visas not granted by the end of the year may be carried forward to the following year. In 1999/2000, the agreements added 840 such visas to the 12 000 already planned for the year.

AUSTRIA

Introduction

In spite of turbulence from the crisis on global financial markets, economic growth proved to be stronger than expected in 1998 (3.3%). This excellent performance enabled the country to become a founder member of Economic and Monetary Union on 1 January 1999. Membership should benefit the labour market, particularly in terms of part-time work which is more popular with women, the service sector and industries with low labour costs. The total number of people in employment rose by 0.6% in 1998 and demand for foreign labour increased. Social security data show a 1.7% increase in labour force participation by foreign workers, mostly to the benefit of EEA nationals. However, the total labour supply (nationals plus foreigners) was not fully absorbed by demand and unemployment rose by 1.9%.

Among the Member countries of the OECD, Austria has one of the lowest rates of population growth. Over recent years, the rate of natural growth has declined sharply, passing from 1.0 per 1 000 inhabitants in 1996 to 0.4 in 1998. With a positive migration balance and a rate of natural growth considerably higher than those of nationals, foreigners are making a positive contribution to population growth (see Table III.3 and Chart III.2).

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

As the Austrian labour market is well integrated with that of its neighbours (in particular Germany and Switzerland), flows are particularly strong between these countries. More Austrians are leaving to work abroad, a trend reflected in the migration loss recorded since the early 1980s and gathering speed since 1998.

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Table III.3. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Austria**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

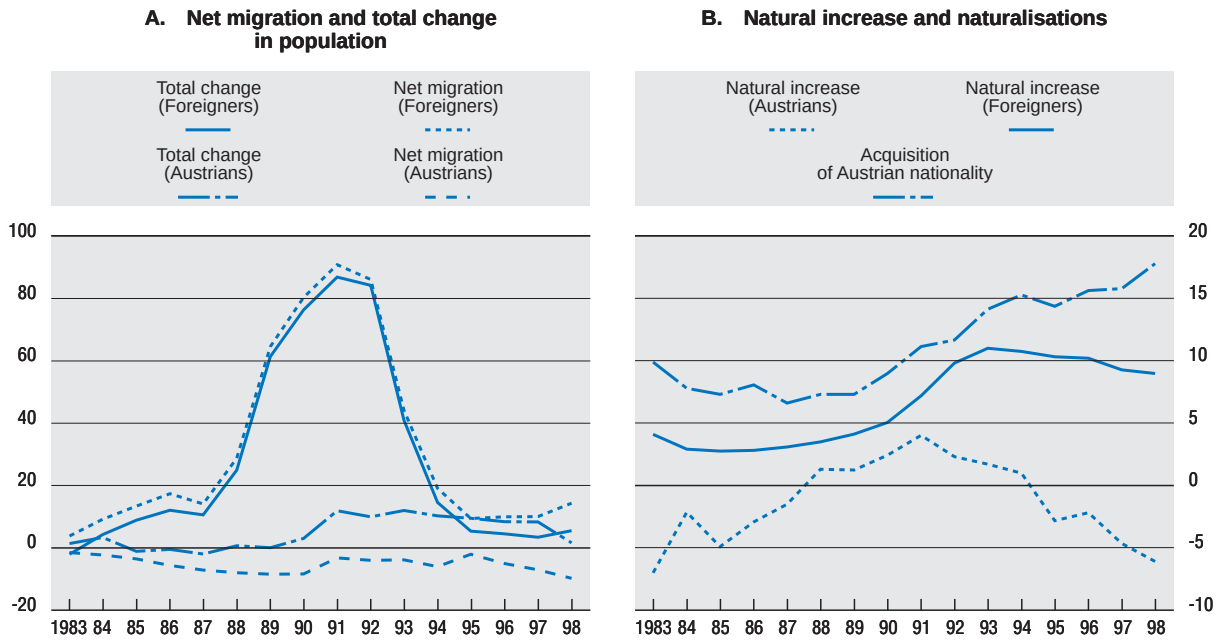
	1995	1996	1997	1998
Components of population change[1]				
Total population				
Population (annual average)	8 046.5	8 059.4	8 072.2	8 078.4
Population increase	14.9	13.0	7.6	7.4
of which:				
Natural increase	7.5	8.0	4.6	2.9
Net migration	7.4	5.0	3.0	4.5
Austrians				
Population (annual average)	7 323.1	7 331.2	7 339.5	7 341.2
Population increase	9.5	8.4	4.1	1.9
of which:				
Natural increase	–2.8	–2.2	–4.7	–6.1
Net migration	–2.0	–5.0	–7.0	–9.8
Naturalisations	14.4	15.6	15.8	17.8
Foreigners				
Population (annual average)	723.5	728.2	732.7	737.3
Population increase	5.4	4.6	3.5	5.5
of which:				
Natural increase	10.3	10.2	9.3	9.0
Net migration	9.4	10.0	10.0	14.3
Naturalisations	–14.4	–15.6	–15.8	–17.8
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Asylum seekers	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8
Outflows of refugees	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.7

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Stocks of foreign workers, by nationality[2]	**300.3**	**300.4**	**298.8**	**298.6**
Former Yugoslavia (%)	49.2	49.3	49.3	49.7
Turkey (%)	18.2	17.8	17.7	18.2
EU (%)	7.0	7.8	8.3	9.0
Other (%)	25.6	25.0	24.6	23.0
Share of foreign employment in total employment (%)	9.8	9.9	9.8	9.7
Total of employed workers, by category of permit[3]	**269.7**	**257.2**	**247.3**	**240.5**
Short-term work permits	58.8	43.7	36.6	28.9
Work entitlements	109.1	92.3	67.3	45.5
Permanent permits	101.9	121.2	143.4	166.1
Work permits issued to foreigners, by category	**131.7**	**127.5**	**119.5**	**110.3**
Initial permits issued	56.1	51.9	52.7	47.7
Extensions issued	48.6	35.8	24.3	20.9
Permanent licences issued	27.0	39.8	42.5	41.7
Unemployment rate, total[4]	**6.6**	**7.0**	**7.1**	**7.2**
Unemployment rate, foreigners	7.7	8.4	8.4	8.7
Employment of Austrians abroad[5]				
Austrian employees in Federal Republic of Germany	83.6	79.4	74.8	72.2
Austrian employees in Switzerland	14.4	13.7	12.8	11.5
Legal measures taken against foreigners				
Total rejections at border	134.7	134.0	80.7	25.5
Removals to home country	3.9	3.5	4.8	6.6
Refusals of residence	12.7	12.9	13.3	12.0
Expulsions from Austria	17.9	22.0	18.9	15.5
Total	169.2	172.4	117.7	59.6

1. Calculations are based on the 1991 census. The naturalisations refer to persons residing in Austria.
2. Annual average. Employment of foreigners based on social security data records.
3. Data given as an annual average. The data exclude the unemployed and self-employed and citizens of the European Economic Area (EEA).
   Several types of permits are issued:
   – Short term permits: granted to an enterprise for a maximum duration of one year (renewable) and for a specific activity. Data include persons entering the labour market for the first time, seasonal workers, those who are changing jobs or taking up activity after a period of unemployment of at least six months and holders of provisional permits (when the application process takes more than four weeks). Extensions of permits are also included.
   – Work entitlements: granted for a maximum duration of two years (renewable). May be obtained after one year of work in Austria.
   – Permanent licences: granted after five years of work and valid for five years (renewable).
4. Data are based on the unemployment register.
5. Data as of June for Germany, August for Switzerland.

Sources: Central Alien Register; Central Statistical Office; Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs; Social Security database on labour force.

Chart III.2. **Components of population change,[1] 1983-1998, Austria**
Thousands



1. Components of national and foreign population change are: natural increase, net migration and naturalisations.
Source: Austrian Central Statistical Office.

In August 1999, there were over 26 000 Austrian workers in Switzerland, just under 60% held permanent residence status, almost 30% were cross-border workers or held one-year permits. The significant labour surplus in Germany, particularly of highly skilled Germans from the new federal states, may have reduced the openings for Austrian workers.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1999, Austria's population numbered just under 8.1 million, a little over 10% of whom were foreigners. The Austrian authorities divide migration flows into four broad categories, namely foreign workers, family members, students and refugees. Various annual quotas are applied, depending on status, by the governors of the federal states, in collaboration with the Ministry of Domestic Affairs and the Ministry of Labour.

Inflows of foreign workers are broken down by type of work permit. Work permits are compulsory for all foreign citizens (except EEA nationals) entering the labour market for the first time (*Erstantrag*) or re-entering after at least six months' unemployment or a change in the place of work (*Neuantrag*). The procedure begins with an initial permit issued to the employer. After one year, the permit is transferred to the foreign worker who, five years later, is entitled to permanent status giving full mobility anywhere in Austria.

Excluding permanent entitlements, nearly 48 000 work permits were issued in 1998, a fall of almost 10% on 1997 due to a decrease in new entries (*Neuantrag*), in particular of non-EEA nationals. After five years in Austria, foreigners must have their residence permit extended but this will depend on openings in the labour market. However, the extension is not required for the foreign spouses of Austrian nationals or for second-generation foreigners.

Over one-quarter of all short-term permits are issued to Turks, followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia. The Balkans account for almost 50% of all such permits.

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Illegal immigration

Between January and May 1999, just under 3 000 foreigners were deported from Austria, most of them for illegal residence and only 2% for being illegally employed. Over 10 000 people were refused entry to Austria and fewer than 5 000 failed to obtain a residence permit, mainly on grounds of inadequate financial resources.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After peaking in 1991 at over 27 000, the number of asylum applications dropped considerably (to between 5 000 to 8 000 applications a year from 1993 to 1997) when the Act on Refugee Status was amended in 1992. The conflict in the Balkans radically altered the situation, generating some 14 000 applications in 1998. In 1999, the Balkans accounted for 40% of the overall applicants, Asia 35% and Africa 9%. For the period January to October 1999, the acceptance rate stood at 40%. Some refugees have joined the labour market. By June 1999, for instance, over 40 000 Bosnians had found work and over 50% had been granted permanent status.

Family reunion

The flow of non-EEA immigrants settling in Austria amounted to some 5 000 in the first six months of 1999, with two-thirds entering as family members. But foreigners entering Austria on those grounds represent only a small proportion of the waiting list. There is at least a one-year wait before entering the country on the grounds of family reunion.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Naturalisation

The naturalisation procedure varies in length depending on where the application is filed. In Vienna a work permit valid for 4 or 5 years used to suffice to apply for naturalisation, whereas other parts of the country required almost 10 years' residence. Since 1993, Vienna has toughened its stance on citizenship. Yet the number of naturalisations is higher than in 1991, reflecting the growing difficulty for foreigners (particularly non-EEA nationals) to obtain work permits. Instead they prefer to apply for Austrian citizenship. Almost 18 000 were accepted in 1998 and just under 25 000 in 1999. Turks and nationals of the former Yugoslavia head the list, followed by Romanians.

Mixed marriages

The number of marriages has remained stable over time. There has been a decline in the share of marriages between Austrian nationals (70% of the total) and a corresponding rise in marriages between foreigners (18%) and mixed marriages (12%).

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

There are two types of permit. One gives the holder permanent status (after at least 5 years' residence) and allows free access to the labour market anywhere in Austria, while the other is a work permit (transferred from employer to worker after one year), confining the right to work to the region in which the worker lives. Over 166 000 foreigners held permanent status in 1998, 16% more than the previous year, and two-thirds were men (see Table III.3). The number of work-permit holders has been declining since 1995 as they become eligible for permanent status, and as the policy on labour market access for foreigners has been tightened (see Chart III.3). Nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia are the most numerous, ahead of the Turks, Croats and Bosnians.

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Labour market integration

In 1998, social security figures show that some 300 000 foreigners were in employment, roughly the same number as the previous year. They account for just under 10% of the total population in work, but it is interesting to note how the situation varies depending on their country of origin. Those who benefit most are EEA nationals (9% of all foreigners on the labour market), whose numbers have been increasing by an average of 2 000 a year. Conversely, the number of workers from outside the EEA fell by 2 000 in 1998. Moreover, some have acquired Austrian citizenship but are still counted as foreigners, owing to the time it takes to alter the administrative files.

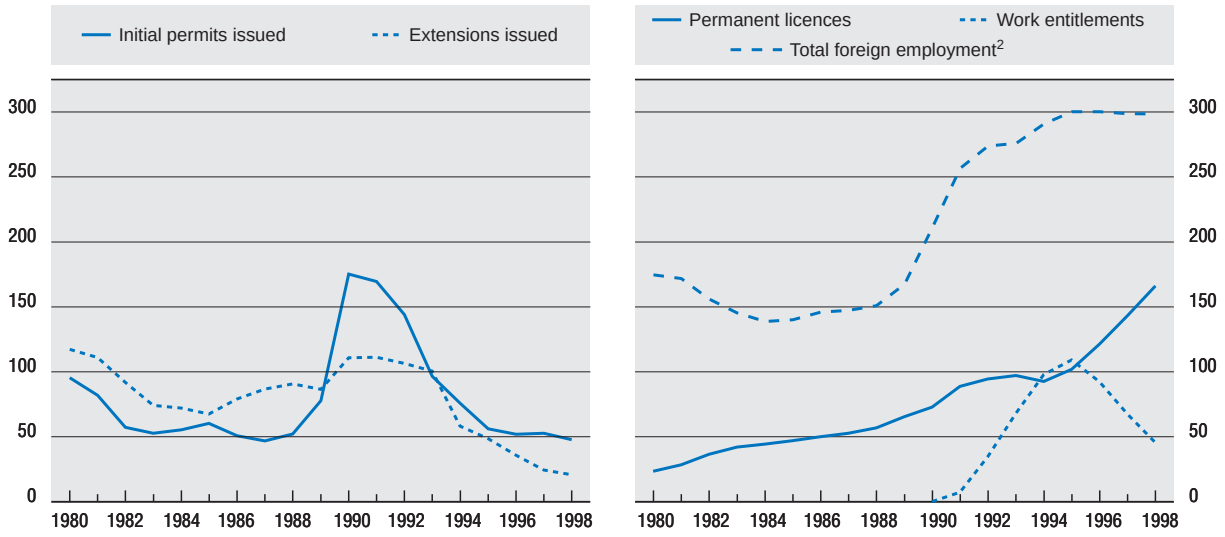
Foreign workers are mainly employed in the primary sector (25% in July 1999), boosting the labour supply in an industry suffering from a shortage of Austrian workers. The construction sector comes second (with 18%), ahead of domestic and business services. It is worth noting that construction now employs fewer foreigners, particularly non-EEA workers, than in the past.

With regard to total unemployment, the share of jobless foreigners has remained unchanged for a number of years, at around 12%. A study of the unemployment structure by nationality and type of activity shows, first, that the Turkish community is still traditionally the hardest hit and, second, that the unemployment rate for foreigners is generally higher than for Austrian nationals, except in seasonal employment, domestic service and the textile industry, *i.e.* sectors with a less skilled, more mobile workforce. In 1998, the number of unemployed foreigners rose by 3% (compared with 1.7% for Austrians).

4. Policy developments

The integration of foreign workers is expected to improve over the coming years. The two major reasons are institutional factors and a better economic outlook.

Chart III.3. **Stocks of foreigners holding a work permit[1] in Austria, 1980-1998**
Thousands



1. Data on work permits are given as an annual average (except for short-term permits which relate to the number of permits issued in the given year). Figures exclude the self-employed and from 1994 on, citizens of the European Economic Area.
2. Figures are given as an annual average and are based on Social Security records.

Source: Ministry of Labour; Social Security Department; Labour Market Service.

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The institutional factors, while somewhat ambiguous, take the form of a new law on the settlement and residence of foreigners which came into force in 1997. Designed to promote the integration of foreigners who have spent several years in the country as legal residents, it places the emphasis on a more accessible labour market for families who entered Austria prior to 1992. Furthermore, checks have been stepped up on hiring practices involving non-EEA foreigners. To obtain an initial work permit for a foreign national, firms must now prove that they have already turned down at least four unemployed applicants with suitable profiles. This limits the chances of employment for foreigners who have never worked in Austria but facilitate the integration of those already living there.

The economic outlook has improved and the forecasts suggest, given the declining labour supply of Austrian nationals (many of whom are retiring) and the growth in demand, that this will herald a more liberal approach to immigration and a more accessible labour market.

THE BALTIC STATES

Introduction

The available migration statistics presented and analysed below are solely of reported long-term (or permanent) movements. It is understood that unreported entries and exits, clandestine entries and the overstaying of visas are very high. Judicious estimates of their extent are, however, unavailable. Data relating to these long-term movements come from two sources: population censuses and current migration statistics. The most recent censuses were conducted in 1989; the next will be in 2000-2001. For this reason, the present report is based solely on current migration statistics.

1. Trends in migration movements

The scale of population movements in the Baltic States has been declining over recent years. Immigration flows, having begun to decline in the late 1980s fell sharply in the early 1990s since which time they have stabilised at a low level. In 1998, slightly more than 3 100 immigrants registered in Latvia, just over 2 700 in Lithuania, and almost 1 600 in Estonia. Emigration flows peaked in 1992. Data for 1998 indicate the continuation of the downward trend. Just under 3 300 left Latvia (a decline of two thirds on the 1997 figure), just over 3 000 Estonia (a fall of one quarter on the 1997 figure) and just over 2 100 Lithuania (a fall of almost 15% on 1997). Net migration, after more than 30 years of being positive, became negative for all three countries the first time in 1990 (see Chart III.4). It was increasingly so in Latvia and Lithuania until 1993 and in Estonia until 1994. Although the migration balance remains negative in Latvia (–3 200) and in Estonia (–1 500), Lithuania's migration balance became positive once more in 1997 though it was less than 100; in 1998 it was almost 600.

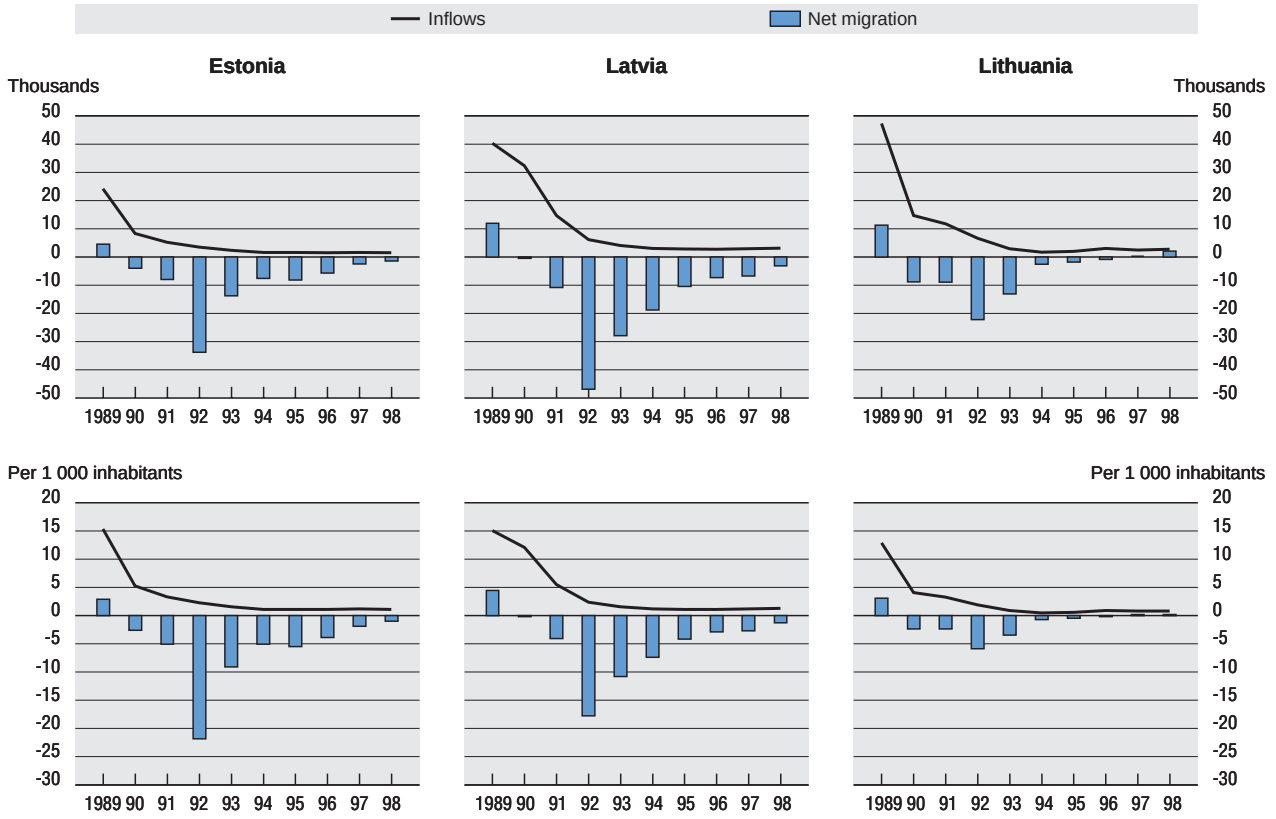
Emigration and return migration

The return migration of the so called "Russian speaking population" – Russians, Belarussians, Ukrainians – though diminishing, remains the dominant component of emigration flows from the Baltic States. In the case of Latvia, the proportion declined from 80 to 70% in 1998 and in the case of Lithuania, from almost 60% to less than 55%. Data on the ethnic composition of Estonia's emigration flows have not been available since 1996 when the proportion was almost 80%.

Emigration flows to the West, although they are not increasing in absolute terms are increasing in proportion. In 1990 they accounted for 11% of the total from Estonia, 14% from Latvia and 12% from Lithuania. The most recent available figures are 22% (1997), 33% (1998) and 38% (1998) respectively. With the exception of Poland, which used to be a major destination for emigrants from Lithuania, the main destination countries

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Chart III.4. **Migration flows[1] to the Baltic States, 1989-1998**
Thousands and per 1 000 inhabitants



1. Data on immigration refer to the flows of migrants who hold a residence permit and who had been registered during the year. Emigrants are counted if they declare their departure to a country where they wish to settle.

Sources: Demographic Yearbooks of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, 1998.

remain unchanged: Finland, Germany and the United States for Estonia; the United States, Germany and Israel for Latvia and Lithuania.

Immigration and return migration

Whereas the visa requirements for the temporary stay of nationals of countries other than the Commonwealth of Independent States have become less strict, all three countries retain restrictive policies with regard to entry for permanent settlement. Such entry is essentially limited to three categories of person: returning nationals (*i.e.* those of Estonian, Latvian or Lithuanian ethnic affiliation), family reunion and business-linked migration (which is still not numerous). This policy, which to a considerable extent promotes or blocks the arrival of certain categories of migrants, has the effect of shaping the ethnic structure of migration flows. Hence, in 1998 80% of the immigration flow to Latvia and nearly 85% of that to Lithuania was comprised of the relatives of past-migrants (most notably Russians, Belarussians and Ukrainians) or of persons whose ethnic affiliation was to their country of destination (the proportion of this latter group is steadily increasing). (Data on the ethnic origin of Estonia's immigrants have not been made available since 1996 when the corresponding figure was over 80%.) Migrants from Western countries, the majority of whom come from Germany, the United States and, in the case of Estonia, Finland, are still few in number.

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Illegal migration

The emergence of illegal (transit) migration and migrant trafficking in the Baltic States and its gradual increase can be understood only in the context of its development in a broader area, mainly the former Soviet Union. During the Soviet period any kind of illegal foreign migration (immigration, emigration, transit migration) within the Baltic States as well as all over the former Soviet Union was practically impossible. With soldiers as border guards, and pursuing a closed door immigration/emigration policy, the Soviet Union (and the Baltic States as part of it) was neither an easily accessible nor attractive country for migrants. Such a migration policy had a lot of negative consequences, but it also resulted in practically non-existent illegal migration. Following the collapse of the Soviet Union the situation changed.

The phenomenon of illegal migration and illegal transit migration in the Baltic States first manifested itself in Estonia. However, due in large part to the strong support from the Nordic countries this illegal flow was reduced to a very low level by the mid-1990s. Since this time the phenomenon has mainly concerned Lithuania which is the only one of the Baltic States sharing an overland border with the West (Germany via Poland). This country has in turn, with the support of the international community, improved its border controls and implemented additional measures to combat traffickers. That the number of illegal immigrants detected in Lithuania has fallen from 1 500 in 1997 to 550 in 1998 and to 320 for the first 11 months of 1999 would indicate that the increased efforts are enjoying some success. The majority of those apprehended were from Afghanistan, Pakistan, Vietnam and Bangladesh.

It is the view, however, of the border police of both Lithuania and Belarus (through which the majority of illegal migrants enter Lithuania) that the decrease in illegal migration through the Baltic States is due mainly to the illegal migrants and traffickers having altered their routes; any diminution in the efforts made to combat these flows is likely to be met by an increase in the phenomenon.

Although during 1997-99 Lithuania succeeded in returning nearly 2 000 illegal migrants (predominantly to Bangladesh, China, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka), all three Baltic States continue to be concerned by the problem of returning of illegal immigrants to their countries of origin or of transit. Though they have signed readmission agreements with the countries of Western Europe they have, with the exception of that with Ukraine, been unable to secure agreements with the principal source countries. The reluctance of Belarus and Russia in this regard is a particular source of concern.

Refugees and asylum seekers

By the middle of 1997 all three Baltic States had passed special laws on refugees and asylum seekers and had ratified the relevant Geneva Convention and Protocol. Nevertheless, real implementation of these laws, *i.e.* consideration of claims for refugee status could start no earlier than the establishment of refugee reception centres and the introduction of a computerised system for data collection, processing and transmission. Therefore, until mid-1998 only that part of these laws which is related to the creation of the infrastructure for accepting refugees was in force. With very limited support from the governments of the three Baltic States, this work is mainly dependent on outside financial contributions (from the UNHCR, the IOM and the Nordic countries).

Applications remain few in number and are mostly made by Afghans, Pakistanis, Somalis and Vietnamese. These applications typically follow apprehension as an illegal immigrant: by applying for asylum the person can remain in the Baltic States under better conditions than those for illegal migrants. For all three countries combined, the total numbers of applications were 240 in 1998 and 122 in 1999, of which, mirroring its position as the country the most affected by illegal immigration, two thirds were made in Lithuania.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

During the Soviet period, the proportion of Russians, Belarussians and Ukrainians steadily increased in all three Baltic States; following the reversal in migration flows in early 1990s it has been diminishing (see Table III.4 and Chart III.5).

Foreigners (including stateless persons) account for less than 2% of Lithuania's total adult population. By contrast, in Latvia and Estonia up to 30% of permanent residents are foreigners or stateless persons. This

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Table III.4. **Components of total population change in the Baltic States, 1995-1998**

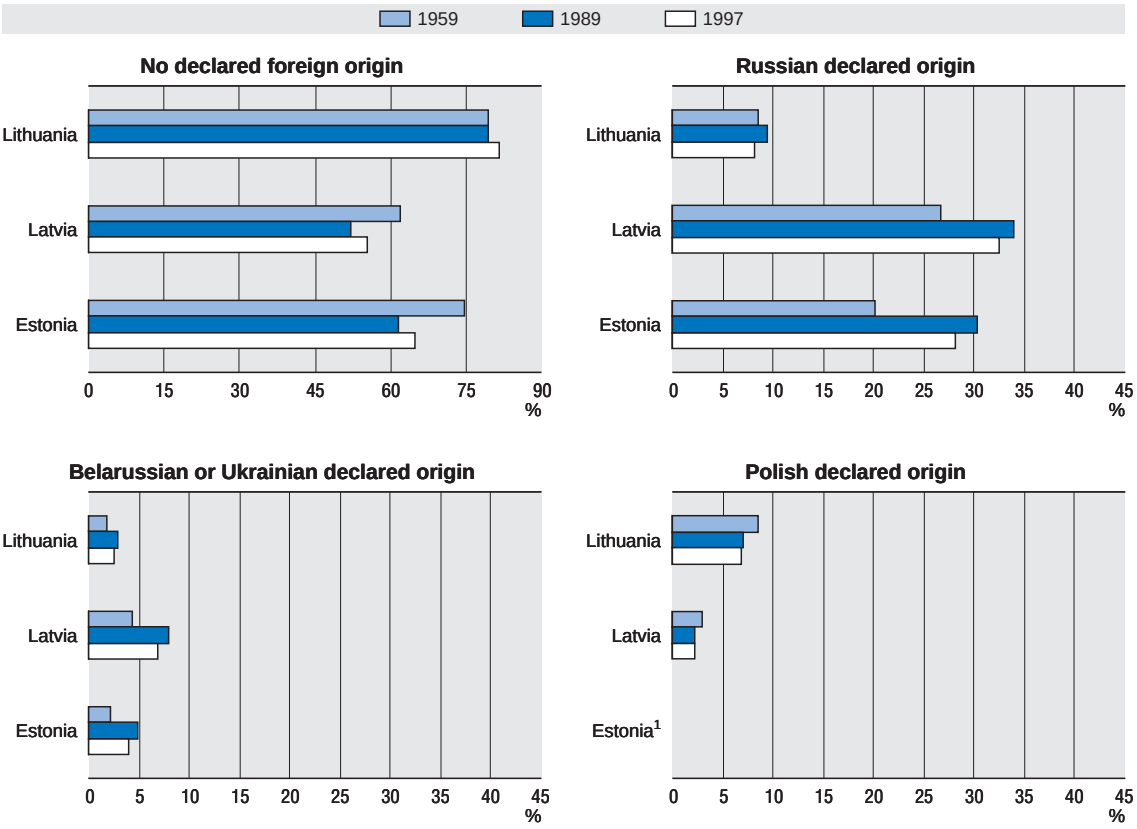
	1995	1996	1997	1998
Lithuania				
Population (annual average)	3 714.8	3 709.5	3 705.6	3 702.4
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–1.6	–1.2	–0.9	–0.9
of which:				
Natural increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–1.1	–1.0	–0.9	–1.0
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	**–0.5**	**–0.2**	**–**	**0.1**
Immigration (thousands)	2.0	3.0	2.5	2.7
Russians	0.8	1.1	0.9	0.9
Lithuanians	0.5	1.0	0.9	0.9
Belarussians	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.7
Emigration (thousands)	3.8	3.9	2.5	2.1
Russians	1.9	1.8	1.1	0.8
Lithuanians	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Belarussians	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Other	1.2	1.5	0.9	0.8
Estonia				
Population (annual average)	1 483.3	1 469.2	1 458.0	1 449.7
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–10.4	–7.8	–5.9	–5.9
of which:				
Natural increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–4.9	–3.9	–4.0	–4.9
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	**–5.5**	**–3.9**	**–1.9**	**–1.0**
Immigration (thousands)	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Russians	0.8	0.8	. .	. .
Estonians	0.4	0.4	. .	. .
Ukrainians	0.1	0.1	. .	. .
Other	0.3	0.3	. .	. .
Emigration (thousands)	9.8	7.2	4.1	3.0
Russians	6.5	4.8	. .	. .
Estonians	0.6	0.6	. .	. .
Ukrainians	1.0	0.6	. .	. .
Belarussians	0.4	0.3	. .	. .
Other	1.3	0.9	. .	. .
Latvia				
Population (annual average)	2 515.6	2 490.8	2 469.1	2 448.9
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–11.1	–8.8	–8.7	–7.8
of which:				
Natural increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	–6.9	–5.9	–6.0	–6.5
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	**–4.2**	**–2.9**	**–2.7**	**–1.3**
Immigration (thousands)	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.1
Russians	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3
Latvians	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9
Belarussians	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Ukrainians	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Emigration (thousands)	13.3	10.0	9.7	6.3
Russians	8.4	6.3	5.6	3.4
Latvians	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5
Ukrainians	1.5	0.9	1.1	0.5
Belarussians	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.5
Other	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4

Sources: Demographic Yearbooks.

difference will in all likelihood persist in the future since, according to various sociological surveys, over 50% of Russian "non-citizens" do not intend to apply for local citizenship. Quantitative differences in the sizes of the foreign populations have led to certain qualitative differences in the manner in which their residence status has been resolved. Whilst Lithuania could afford to use traditional methods (*i.e.* the way those problems are solved in most European countries), Estonia and Latvia had to seek a new solution. Therefore, special laws

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Chart III.5. **National composition of the population based on declared ethnic origin, Baltic States, 1959, 1989, 1997**
Percentages



1. Data not available.
Source: National Demographic Yearbooks.

specifically governing the rights, obligations and legal status of aliens (former USSR citizens) were adopted. These were outlined in the 1999 edition of this report.

3. Policy developments

In all three Baltic States, the general approach towards migration related policy was established in the early 1990s. The various changes in migration policy introduced since then have for the most part been made in conformity with the established approach or, as has been the case most recently, with the primary aim of bringing their laws and regulations into line with those prevailing in the European Union.

Combating illegal immigration

Aware that actions taken to combat irregular migration should be taken on the basis of national and international laws and should not violate international conventions providing for basic and fundamental human rights (which rules out a previous practice of detaining illegal immigrants on the sole basis of Ministerial instructions, for example), the Baltic States modified their relevant pieces of legislation in 1998 and 1999 in order to bring them into line with the requirements of the European Union.

In Estonia, the Obligation to Leave and Entry Ban Act passed in October 1998, which set out the legal basis and rules concerning the detention of illegal migrants and their return or deportation, came into force in

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April 1999 at the same time as the amendments passed in February 1999 to the Alien's Act which set out the sanctions which may be imposed on aliens staying in Estonia unlawfully. On the basis of this latter Act, persons who facilitate illegal immigration through providing employment or accommodation are also liable to punishment.

The Lithuanian Ministry of Internal Affairs started implementing active measures against illegal migration in January 1997 with the establishment of the Foreigners' Registration Centre in Pabrade which accommodates all apprehended illegal foreign nationals. At the beginning of 1998, the Regulations for the Return of Foreigners were passed. At the same time, the administration of the Border Police was reorganised and the personnel redistributed in order to tighten the control of the border with Belarus. Moreover, in view of the extensive involvement of traffickers in the illegal migration process, the Criminal Code was amended to increase the maximum punishment for migrant traffickers to 15 years' imprisonment along with the forfeiture of their property (the most severe punishment for trafficking in Europe). This legislative change has been accompanied by increased efforts on the part of the police to apprehend them.

Asylum seekers and refugees

Lithuania has prepared a new Refugee Act, a draft of which is expected to be submitted to parliament at the beginning of 2000. Most significantly, it will provide the legal basis for the temporary detention of asylum applicants, introduces an accelerated examination procedure for asylum applications, sets out new appeal procedures and deals with family reunion matters.

Amendments to the Estonian Refugees Act passed in February 1999 came into force in September of the same year. Responsibility for decisions on asylum applications was thereby transferred to the Citizenship and Migration Department, an initial reception centre closer to the capital was created and a state register for asylum seekers and refugees was established. An amendment to the Aliens Act passed in February 1999 and which came into force in October of the same year rendered persons who have been refused refugee status but who cannot be sent back to their countries of origin eligible to apply for an Estonian residence permit.

Social integration

The issue of social integration in the Baltic states concerns two aspects in particular: the integration of foreigners who seek asylum and who are either declared refugees, deemed humanitarian cases or are rejected but cannot return to their countries of origin; and, the integration of "non-citizens", predominantly of Russian origin. The latter mostly concern Latvia and Estonia.

Estonia

In Estonia there are over half a million persons of non-Estonian origin (about 35% of the population of 1 476 000) of whom only one quarter are Estonian citizens (by naturalisation or through transitional measures). The issue of their social integration has received the attention of both of the Government and of international donors. The Ministry of Internal Affairs established the Non-Estonian Integration Foundation in March 1998. It is responsible for drawing-up government programmes on integration and for launching and facilitating various projects including language and vocational training. The UNDP is active in social integration issues through language training, and in collaboration with the Nordic countries is implementing an Integration of non-Estonians into Estonian Society Project which includes activities in formal education system development, adult training, youth affairs, cultural exchanges, regional development, and public awareness campaigns. The EU PHARE programme earmarked funds in 1999 for social integration issues in Estonia, which included an Estonian Language Training Programme. The IOM has been active in this field since 1997: a joint IOM/OSCE project (supported by the United States) on integration through training is assisting the most vulnerable non-Estonian women, including the widows of former Soviet military personnel.

Latvia

In Latvia, issues concerning the social integration of former migrant groups who are now termed "non-citizens" are under the responsibility of the Naturalisation Board within the Ministry of Justice. "Non-citizens" are understood to number approximately 640 000, equivalent to 28% of the total population.

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The Naturalisation Board was established in 1994 and began work in 1995. It reviews the applications of stateless persons and non-citizens who wish to gain citizenship through naturalisation. It operates through a headquarters and 12 regional branches and has some 160 employees. Support is provided through the Council of Europe, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Denmark, Finland, Switzerland and the United States. Applications for citizenship through naturalisation have increased threefold to 1200-1300 per month since November 1998 when, following a referendum, amendments to Latvian Citizenship Law were passed.

The Naturalisation Board, through the Cabinet of Ministers, put forward for public discussion in September 1998 a framework document for a "National Programme on Social Integration: The Integration of Society in Latvia". The programme's priority areas include Latvian language training; acculturation, citizenship and naturalisation; and, migration, collaboration with Latvians abroad and repatriation (one of the goals is to promote the voluntary return of non-Latvians to their ethnic homelands). Public discussion of the programme began in March 1999; its implementation is expected to commence in early 2000. With financial support from the United States and assistance from the IOM, non-citizens of Russian origin who have not succeeded in integrating or who are unwilling to do so are being offered help to return to their countries of origin. It is expected that approximately 1 000 such people will be assisted.

Lithuania

In Lithuania, the Russian 8% of the population was automatically granted citizenship in 1999. The issue of social integration is therefore deemed to be of less importance than in Estonia and Latvia. The main bodies dealing with integration issues include the Ministry of Social Security and Labour and the Council of Refugee Affairs.

The Ministry of Social Security also deals with the issue of returning deportees, *i.e.* those persons who were deported from Lithuania during the 1940s and 1950s. The process of reintegrating the deportees which began in 1992 is nearing completion: even by 1992 the number of returning deportees had fallen to 4 000 from the 1989 figure of 7 000. The social integration programme established in 1992 includes assistance in obtaining accommodation and employment and language training. Until 1997 such activities were financed by the state budget; since then the funds, mostly for housing, have been provided by the European Union's Social Development Foundation.

BELGIUM

Introduction

The Belgian economy, which began to experience an upturn in 1996, grew by 1.9% in 1999. GDP is expected to grow by 2.5% in 2000. This recovery, combined with lower wage costs, has led to net employment growth. The Ministry of Employment and Labour estimated that between June 1998 and June 1999 some 40 000 jobs had been created, primarily in the retail sector while some 10 000 jobs had been lost, mainly in agriculture and industry. The unemployment rate, which has been falling since 1998, stood at 9% in 1999.

1. Trends in migration movements

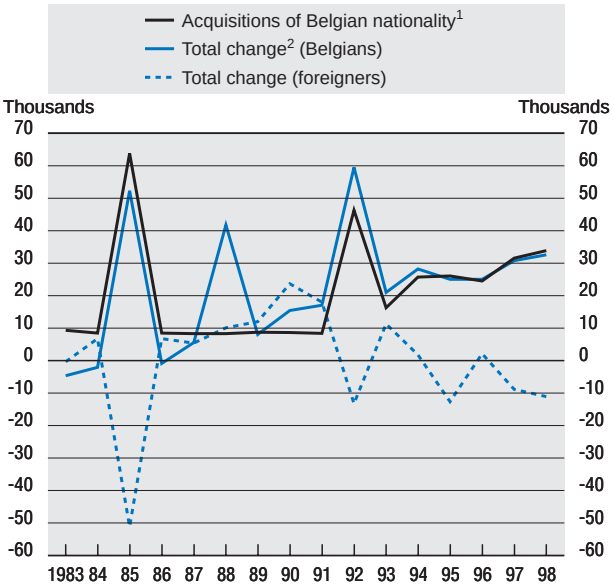
Emigration and the return of nationals

Net migration was negative for Belgian nationals (–4 400) in 1998. In all, slightly over 16 000 Belgians left the country, to which must be added immigrants returning to their country of origin, who were mainly French, Dutch and United States nationals (see Chart III.6).

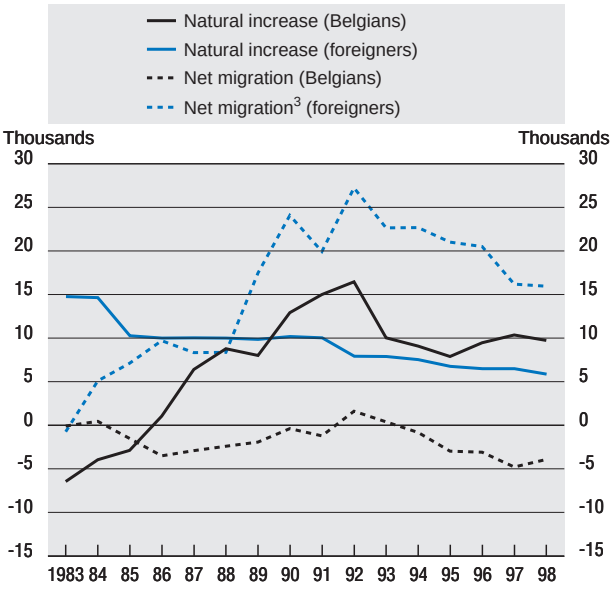
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Chart III.6. **Changes in the populations by component, 1983-1998, Belgium**

A. Naturalisations and total change in population
Belgians and foreigners



B. Natural increase and net migration
Belgians and foreigners



Note: Data are from population registers.
1. Peaks in 1985 and 1992 can be explain by changes in nationality laws.
2. Peak in 1988 can be explained by changes in calculation methods.
3. Figures include some asylum seekers up to 1995.

Source: Population registers, Institut national de la statistique.

Inflows of foreigners

The 1990s were characterised by substantial net migration gains, which averaged slightly over 19 800 between 1989 and 1998 (see Table III.5). The influx of foreigners was largely due to the arrival of EU nationals. This type of flow is largely attributable to Brussels' role as a host to European institutions. On the whole, French and Dutch nationals were the largest groups in total inflows, followed by Moroccans. Turkish nationals accounted for 13% of net migration flows.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications filed in Belgium increased between 1988 and 1993, peaking at just over 26 400 at the end of this period. However, over the next four years the annual average was lower (12 500 applications). There appeared to be a fresh upturn in 1998 with slightly more than 22 000 applications filed. For refugees to be admitted, their application must first be ruled admissible by the Office for Foreign Nationals, following which their case is examined closely in conformity with the Geneva Convention. Since 1995, nationals of the Republics of the former Yugoslavia have constituted the largest group of applicants (35% in 1998 and 15% in 1999). Nationals of Zaire are the next largest group, followed by applicants from Romania, Albania and Rwanda. More than 90% of applications were filed inside Belgium.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

At 31 December 1998, Belgium had a population of just over 10 million, of which slightly less than 900 000 were foreigners, or 8.7% of the total population, a figure that has been stable since 1990. Between 1985 and 1998, twelve nationalities accounted for more than 85% of the foreign population resident in Belgium. Some 60% were EU nationals, predominantly from Italy, France, the Netherlands and Germany (see Table III.5). The largest non-EU communities were the Moroccans (125 000) and Turks (71 000).

In 1998, some 48% of the foreign resident population were women, which was four points lower than the percentage of women in the Belgian population. The annual average increase in the total population over the last ten years has been 0.2%.

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Table III.5. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Belgium**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Components of population change				
Total population				
Population (on 31 December)	10 143.0	10 170.2	10 192.3	10 213.8
Population increase from beginning to end of year	12.5	27.2	22.1	21.5
of which:				
Natural increase	9.6	11.1	12.1	9.7
Net migration	13.4	12.7	6.0	6.7
Statistical adjustment	–10.5	3.4	4.0	5.1
Nationals				
Population (on 31 December)	9 233.3	9 258.3	9 289.1	9 321.8
Population increase from beginning to end of year	25.0	25.0	30.8	32.6
of which:				
Natural increase	5.4	7.2	8.2	7.5
Net migration	–6.6	–6.7	–8.6	–7.7
Acquisitions of nationality	26.1	24.6	31.6	33.9
Statistical adjustment	0.1	–	–0.2	–0.3
Foreigners				
Population (on 31 December)[1]	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0
Population increase from beginning to end of year	–12.6	2.2	–8.8	–11.1
of which:				
Natural increase	4.2	3.9	3.9	3.2
Net migration	20.0	19.5	14.7	14.4
Acquisitions of nationality	–26.1	–24.6	–31.6	–33.9
Statistical adjustment	–10.7	3.4	4.1	5.3
Inflows of foreigners by group of nationality	**53.1**	**51.9**	**49.2**	**50.7**
EU	26.6	28.7	27.6	27.4
Other European countries	6.9	3.4	5.2	6.4
Africa	7.4	7.7	7.1	7.8
America	4.9	4.9	5.0	4.7
Asia	6.6	6.7	4.0	4.1
Oceania	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Region not specified	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.1
Asylum seekers	**11.4**	**12.4**	**11.8**	**22.1**
Mixed marriages	**6.3**	**6.2**	**6.0**	**6.4**
% of total marriages	12.2	12.3	12.5	14.4
Marriages with an EU citizen	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.1

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total work permits issued (Initial and renewed) by nationality[2]				
United States	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.7
Former Yugoslavia	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.2
Japan	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
Morocco	2.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
Other	7.2	5.4	5.9	7.3
Total	**12.3**	**8.7**	**9.0**	**11.8**
of which: Initial work permits	8.5	4.6	5.2	7.3
Migration flows of cross-border workers by country of origin/destination				
Inflows by country of origin	**16.0**	**17.6**	**18.6**	**20.5**
of which:				
France	11.2	12.0	12.7	14.1
Netherlands	4.3	4.8	5.2	5.5
Outflows by country of destination	**44.8**	**46.7**	**48.5**	**51.6**
of which:				
Luxembourg	17.2	18.3	19.4	21.0
Netherlands	13.3	13.5	14.2	15.1
France	5.8	5.9	5.8	5.9
Labour force by group of nationality[3]				
Nationals				
Employed	3 418.8	3 433.5	3 453.1	3 498.8
Unemployed	463.2	451.4	445.7	413.9
Participation rate (%)	51.4	51.2	51.2	51.2
Unemployment rate (%)	11.9	11.6	11.4	10.6
Foreigners				
Employed	271.3	276.2	285.3	289.6
Unemployed	92.0	93.5	94.9	91.4
Participation rate (%)	48.1	48.8	49.9	50.4
Unemployment rate (%)	25.3	25.3	25.0	24.0
Total (nationals and foreigners)				
Employed	3 690.1	3 709.7	3 738.4	3 788.5
Unemployed	555.3	544.9	540.6	505.3
Participation rate (%)	51.1	51.0	51.1	51.2
Unemployment rate (%)	13.1	12.8	12.6	11.8

Note: Figures on European Union include the 15 members of the Union.

1. The decrease in 1995 can be explained by the removal from the register of almost 11 000 asylum seekers awaiting a decision.
2. Work permits are issued either for unlimited periods (A permits) or for limited periods (B permits). EU citizens do not need a work permit.
3. Data refer to the population on the 30 June of the years indicated (except the data on the self-employed from 1995 on which refer to the 31 December).

Source: Institut national de la statistique and Registre national de la population; Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail; Office national de l'emploi, Commissariat général aux réfugiés et apatrides; Institut national d'assurances sociales pour travailleurs indépendants (INASTI).

In this respect, the foreign population makes an important contribution in three areas: the natural increase in foreigners (which accounts for 38% of the total natural increase), positive net migration and the number of naturalisations.

Naturalisation

In 1998, 70% of those naturalised came from ten countries. Of the 116 430 foreigners naturalised between 1995 and 1998, more than one-third were Moroccan, 23% Turkish and 6% Italian.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Two categories of work permit are issued: A permits, of unlimited duration and which are valid for all paid occupations, and B permits, which are only valid for a maximum of twelve months and are limited to a single employer. For the past five years, the proportion of B permits granted has been increasing, accounting for 80% of total permits granted to new immigrants in 1997. Approximately 2 500 permits were issued in 1997. In that same year, the largest number of permits were issued to nationals of the United States, followed by Poland, Japan, Morocco and Turkey.

At 30 June 1998, the total labour force was estimated at slightly less than 4 300 000, of whom 381 000 were foreign, accounting for 9% of the total. Between 1989 and 1998, the Belgian labour force increased by 3.5%, as compared with 28.9% for the foreign labour force (see Table III.6). The overall participation rate in 1998 was approximately 50%. More than two-thirds of foreign workers were from EU countries, the largest groups being the Italians (27%) and French (15%). Among non-EU nationals, Moroccan workers were the largest group (12%). The disaggregation by nationality of those in salaried employment closely mirrored these proportions. In 1998, there were more than 2 800 000 Belgian wage-earners and 236 000 foreign wage-earners (62% of the foreign labour force). However, the breakdown for self-employment was different: the Italians, Dutch and French were the main groups of self-employed workers. The Moroccans, who were the largest non-EU community, only ranked seventh among the non-EU self-employed workers.

Of the slightly more than 500 000 people who were unemployed at 30 June 1998, nearly 82% were Belgian nationals. The proportion of foreigners unemployed has risen by two percentage points over the last ten years. Foreigners have the highest unemployment rate, standing at 24% in 1998 as compared with 11% for nationals. The Italians (26%), Moroccans (21%) and Turks (13%) were the communities hardest hit by unemployment (see Table III.6).

4. Policy developments

The new government formed in July 1999 has focused in particular on three aspects concerning the residence of foreigners.

Firstly, it intends to change the procedures for acquiring Belgian nationality through naturalisation, which is in its view an important factor for integration. The naturalisation procedure will be free of charge, and applicants will be required to promise to respect Belgium's Constitution and laws. A number of administrative formalities have also been changed in order to facilitate the process.

Next, the government wishes to develop a realistic and humane asylum policy. It has begun to prepare a consistent new temporary and renewable status for persons displaced by war. Procedures will be shortened, improved and simplified, while upholding the rights of applicants. With regard to persons residing illegally in Belgium, an independent body will decide on a case-by-case basis whether individuals should be regularised – this on the basis of whether or not they fall into one of the four categories below:

– Persons who having applied for asylum and passed through to the final stage of the procedure have been waiting for the final decision for more than four years (three years for families with children of school age). In addition, they should not represent a threat to law and order and have not provided clearly fraudulent documents or information.

– Persons who, for reasons beyond their control, cannot return to their country of origin.

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Table III.6. **Labour force in Belgium, by nationality, 1990, 1995 and 1998**[1]

Nationality	1990				1995[2]				1998[3]			
	Salaried workers	Self-employed	Unemployed	Total	Salaried workers	Self-employed	Unemployed	Total	Salaried workers	Self-employed	Unemployed	Total
Belgium	**2 894 674**	**610 139**	**305 210**	**3 810 023**	**2 791 744**	**627 034**	**463 213**	**3 881 991**	**2 870 337**	**628 503**	**413 916**	**3 912 756**
Italy	63 332	12 194	20 835	96 361	62 912	12 279	26 976	102 167	66 271	12 721	23 534	102 526
France	30 262	7 645	6 246	44 153	34 414	7 494	9 858	51 766	40 304	7 775	9 558	57 637
Morocco	21 124	. .	10 254	31 378	23 986	1 844	18 708	44 538	23 662	1 899	18 924	44 485
Netherlands	16 025	5 882	1 504	23 411	18 633	9 032	2 943	30 608	20 867	10 519	2 234	33 620
Turkey	13 039	. .	7 700	20 739	16 442	1 620	12 332	30 394	16 208	1 742	11 994	29 944
Spain	17 249	1 301	3 336	21 886	16 735	1 783	4 330	22 848	17 469	1 989	3 779	23 237
Portugal	3 953	1 092	641	5 686	7 355	1 678	1 579	10 612	8 448	1 748	1 825	12 021
Germany	4 898	1 330	831	7 059	5 289	1 839	1 314	8 442	5 880	2 057	1 116	9 053
United Kingdom	4 814	1 489	343	6 646	5 446	2 105	805	8 356	5 796	2 176	657	8 629
Greece	3 744	1 073	1 505	6 322	3 744	1 433	1 778	6 955	3 916	1 499	1 625	7 040
Zaire	1 268	. .	282	1 550	2 303	273	1 030	3 606	2 373	345	1 606	4 324
Algeria	1 579	. .	972	2 551	1 717	226	1 468	3 411	1 674	233	1 385	3 292
Tunisia	1 266	. .	490	1 756	1 319	283	751	2 353	1 241	253	654	2 148
Luxembourg	926	388	167	1 481	876	366	278	1 520	901	364	219	1 484
Other nationalities	10 796	7 465	4 380	22 641	20 287	7 605	7 889	35 781	21 374	7 932	12 256	41 562
All foreigners	**194 275**	**39 859**	**59 486**	**293 620**	**221 458**	**49 860**	**92 039**	**363 357**	**236 382**	**53 252**	**91 366**	**381 000**
of which: EU	142 046	33 427	35 456	210 929	157 473	42 695	50 023	250 191	172 200	46 851	44 745	263 796
Total	**3 088 949**	**649 998**	**364 696**	**4 103 643**	**3 013 202**	**676 894**	**555 252**	**4 245 348**	**3 106 719**	**681 755**	**505 282**	**4 293 756**

1. Data refer to the stock on the 30 June of the years indicated.
2. The number of self-employed in 1995 is that on 31 December 1995.
3. The number of self-employed on 30 June 1998 is estimated by averaging the data for 31 December 1997 and 31 December 1998.

Sources: Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail; Office national de l'emploi; Institut national d'assurances sociales pour travailleurs indépendants.

– Persons who are seriously ill.

– Persons who can invoke humanitarian circumstances and who have built up enduring social ties in Belgium.

Those who are being sent back to their country of origin and who have resided in Belgium for a considerable time may be granted an interest-free loan in order to facilitate their resettlement.

Lastly, to combat racism and intolerance, the government has committed itself to evaluating the effectiveness of the current legislation against racism and revisionism and to adapting it where necessary. To this end, new general anti-discrimination legislation, which in particular prohibits discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation,will be put before Parliament.

Since September 1999, the new immigration and asylum policy has been focusing on six areas:

– Radically simplifying the asylum procedure with the aim of making it possible to reach decisions within a month of the application being filed (in the most complex cases, within one year). An application will be deemed unacceptable if applicants: have previously requested asylum in another signatory country to the Dublin Convention; have provided clearly fraudulent documents or information about their identity or nationality; have been ordered to return to their country or deported within the past ten years; have resided in a third country for longer than three months; lack serious proof; or, present their case on grounds that fall outside the Geneva Convention.

– A procedure of forced departure for immigrants in an illegal situation or to whom asylum has been denied will be encouraged by providing psychological support, with special provisions for minors (particularly with regard to school). Deportation procedures for those who refuse to leave and for delinquents will be reinforced.

– A case-by-case regularisation procedure.

– The creation of a supervisory board, an advisory body that will make recommendations to government.

– An increase in the capacity to receive candidates for refugee status, together with improvements in the quality of this reception.

– The replacement of monetary assistance to refugees with material assistance (lodging, meals, medical care and guidance).

The new legislative measures concern five main themes:

– The Act of 27 January 1999 grants nationals of EU Member States the right to vote in local elections.

– On 9 April 1999, the Council of Ministers decided to grant Kosovo refugees special status (freedom to settle in the commune of their choice, work permits, residence permits renewable every six months) and BEF 200 million in humanitarian aid. This status was rescinded for Kosovars who entered Belgium after 3 September 1999, but remained in force for the remainder until 2 March 2000.

– The Act of 30 April 1999 and the Royal Decree of 9 June 1999 fundamentally revised the earlier legislation on the employment of foreign workers, in particular as regards the responsibility of regions for issuing employment authorisations and work permits.

– In September 1999, a bill was tabled amending the Nationality Code in such a way as to simplify and relax the procedures for acquiring Belgian nationality. Nationality could be acquired by the person concerned making a formal declaration, provided he/she met one of the three following conditions: have been born in Belgium, have a Belgian parent or have resided continuously in Belgium for seven years. Through a procedure guaranteed free of charge, foreigners who have resided in the country for three years would be eligible to apply for naturalisation. The bill also proposes that the verification of applicants' "desire to be integrated" cease.

– On 22 December 1999, Parliament approved a government project for regularising the status of some categories of foreigners provided that they meet the criteria mentioned above (impossibility of returning to their country of origin, serious illness, humanitarian circumstances or failure to grant refugee status after four years of procedure). On 2 February 2000, the Ministry of the Interior announced that 33 000 applications for regularisation had been filed.

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BULGARIA

Introduction

The Bulgarian economy has entered a phase of gradual return to broad-based balance. While GDP is still below the level of ten years ago, the growth rate was close to 2.5% in 1999, and projections for 2000 are more optimistic (3.9%). After spiking to very high levels between 1995 and 1997, the inflation rate has dropped sharply, to an average rate of less than 0.5% in 1999. Despite relatively low wage costs, the unemployment rate has continued to rise, climbing to approximately 16% in 1999, versus 12% the year before. This trend has extended into early 2000, since a record jobless rate (19%) was recorded in April. It is difficult to assess the employment situation very precisely, however, because the informal economy is flourishing, and also because official statistics fail to include some of the jobless due to low unemployment benefits and inadequate active labour market policies.

In this context migration flows, which have been stable since the mid-1990s, do not pose any major policy problems at this time because of the small numbers involved. Even so, the Bulgarian authorities have undertaken to step up the fight against illegal migration and to harmonise the relevant legislation, in particular the laws governing the entry, residence and employment of foreigners in Bulgaria, in order to bring them gradually into line with European Union norms.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

The National Statistics Institute estimates that in recent years emigration has levelled off to an annual rate of some 35 000 to 40 000 people. The country has not experienced any new wave of emigration since the massive outflows of ethnic Turkish Bulgarians in 1989 and 1990. Since 1996, and more particularly in 1997 and 1998, officially recorded emigrants have gone primarily to Central European countries, in particular to the Czech Republic and Hungary. It is difficult to gauge the magnitude of emigration flows precisely, since the National Statistics Institute bases its figures on a survey conducted in 1996 and since then has merely provided estimates based on statistics on foreign travel and information gathered in destination countries.

Since 1994, the number of foreign trips by Bulgarian residents has declined by roughly two-thirds, from over 4 400 000 to approximately 2 600 000 in 1998. While tourism still explains the bulk of such travel, it has declined sharply, and there has been an increase in trips for family-related reasons (primarily to Turkey) and to pursue studies abroad [in the United States and certain European Union countries (Germany, Austria, France, the United Kingdom and Greece)]. The large volume of cross-border traffic with the former Yugoslavia and with Romania stems largely from bilateral agreements instituting very liberal visa requirements.

Official statistics on temporary outflows of Bulgarian workers hired on the basis of bilateral agreements confirm the sharp downward trend of several years, which has brought the number of people concerned to fewer than 1 500 (as compared with more than 2 700 in 1996). Moreover, the number of applications for asylum filed by Bulgarians abroad has dropped sharply, to fewer than 1 500 in 1998, as compared with more than 3 000 in 1997.

Illegal immigration

The number of foreigners living in Bulgaria illegally (which some estimates put at 10 000) is believed to be relatively low compared with the situation in other European countries. Most illegal immigrants overstay a visa, cross the border illegally, hold false papers or residence permits or attempt to stay in Bulgaria rather than board a connecting flight. It is the intention of most illegal immigrants to enter other Central European or European Union countries (Greece, Austria, Germany) from Bulgaria.

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Refugees and asylum-seekers

By the end of 1998, a total of 460 persons had obtained refugee status in Bulgaria. Among the 2 000 recorded applicants for that year, most were nationals of Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Armenia or Ethiopia. Many of these people had been students in Bulgaria who for various reasons did not want to return to their home countries.

Persons with official refugee status have the same rights as Bulgarian citizens, except that they may not vote, hold certain positions in the civil service, enlist in the Bulgarian army or own land or forests. Refugees are entitled to travel documents and may be joined by close relatives. Members of a refugee's family have the same rights and obligations as the refugee. Refugees may apply for Bulgarian citizenship after three years. Training for refugees constitutes an important aspect of integration policies, and the government has set up apprenticeship and loan programmes to enable refugees to create their own businesses. The financial burden of assisting refugees is shared between the Bulgarian government and the UNHCR. In 1998, two transit centres for asylum seekers were created with support from the European PHARE programme.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

Apart from censuses (the latest data available being from 1992), the National Statistics Institute does not collect data on Bulgaria's foreign population. Immigration flows are therefore estimated on the basis of the number of residence and work permits issued, and the number of people obtaining refugee status or applying for asylum. In addition, the National Statistics Institute publishes data on visits to Bulgaria by foreign residents.

For the first time since 1989, there are now data on Bulgaria's foreign population that can be broken down into two categories: permanent residents (a status generally obtained after ten years, or after marriage to a Bulgarian national) and residents holding a so-called "long-term residence permit" (valid for periods of between three months and one year, and renewable) (see Table III.7).

The number of permanent residents, which has increased slightly since 1991, was approximately 40 000 in 1998, representing a very small proportion of the total population (less than 0.5%). Most permanent residents came originally from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) or other former socialist countries. Traditional economic ties between Bulgaria and the region's other countries have underpinned expansion of joint business ventures and fostered mixed marriages. People from the Middle East, Africa and Arab countries together account for approximately 10% of all foreign permanent residents in Bulgaria. In 1998, a slight increase was recorded in the presence of nationals of Moldova, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey, most of whom were of Bulgarian extraction. The number of permanent residents from Central Europe also rose in 1998 following the issuance of such residence permits to Poles, Czechs and Hungarians – in most cases following their marriage to a Bulgarian.

Holders of long-term residence permits are entitled to stay in the country for one year, but most get their permits renewed regularly. Over the past eight years, the number of these long-term residents has more than doubled, from approximately 22 000 in 1991 to nearly 52 000 in 1998. In 1998, the number of permits issued to European Union and CIS nationals was up sharply on 1997.

Nationals of European Union countries (a majority of whom are Greek) account for over a quarter of long-term residence permit-holders, followed by Turks, Syrians, Armenians, Russians, nationals of the former Yugoslavia, Ukrainians and citizens of the United States. Most of these people are self-employed, heads of business enterprises or associates of Bulgarians in joint ventures.

Naturalisations

One of the requirements for obtaining Bulgarian nationality is a minimum residency period of several (normally five) years. The law does provide for a number of exceptions, however, for ethnic Bulgarians, for foreigners who marry Bulgarian citizens and for foreigners who have performed particular services for Bulgaria. In 1998, Bulgarian citizenship was granted to more than 2 300 foreigners (more than double the 1997 figure).

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Table III.7. **Current figures on the stocks of foreign population in Bulgaria**
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Stock of foreign citizens				
Permanent residents				
CIS	26.7	27.2	28.8	28.9
Central Europe	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5
EU	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9
Other Europe	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0
Middle East	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7
Africa	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
America	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Asia	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Stateless	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8
Other	0.9	1.5	1.4	1.3
Total	**37.3**	**38.8**	**40.6**	**41.1**
Long-term residents				
EU	12.4	10.4	11.9	13.6
Central Europe	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other Europe	4.5	4.3	5.5	6.5
Middle East	9.3	8.3	8.8	6.4
CIS	2.7	3.3	4.7	6.2
Africa	4.9	4.8	5.0	5.1
Asia	3.2	3.0	3.4	4.1
America	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.6
Other	4.4	3.4	5.2	5.7
Total	**43.7**	**40.0**	**45.4**	**51.7**
Asylum seekers	0.1	1.4	0.4	0.2
Naturalisations	2.2	3.0	1.1	2.3

Sources: National Employment Service, National Statistical Institute and UNHCR.

Most of the applications were filed by ethnic Bulgarians coming mainly from Ukraine, Greece, Turkey and Moldova, as well as by foreign spouses of Bulgarians.

3. Migration and the labour market

In 1991 and 1992, Bulgaria concluded a number of bilateral agreements with Germany concerning the employment of Bulgarians (mainly employees seconded from Bulgarian businesses and workers in the hotel and restaurant trade) and their vocational and language training. Fewer than 2 000 Bulgarian workers benefited from these agreements in 1997 and 1998, and the number of people taking advantage of them has been falling continuously.

In 1995, Bulgaria and Switzerland signed a bilateral agreement on the exchange of apprentices, but to date only a tiny number of Bulgarian apprentices have benefited from it. Bilateral agreements on the exchange of specialists have been under negotiation for several years now – *inter alia* with France, Greece and Italy. The ratification and entry into force of the recently signed bilateral agreement with Greece to facilitate the seasonal employment of Bulgarian workers can be expected to result in a normalisation of emigration flows to Greece. Work on a draft worker-exchange treaty between Bulgaria and the Czech Republic has been in progress since 1994. It is expected to cover, *inter alia*, social benefits, travel expenses and the legal and occupational requirements for prospective beneficiaries. The conclusion of such an agreement would have a positive impact on the regulation of migration flows and would help to reduce illegal migration.

Statistics on the employment of foreigners in Bulgaria cover only work permits issued, while the number of foreign self-employed persons, who constitute the largest group of people obtaining long-term residence permits (see above), is not monitored. A majority of the work permits issued by the national employment

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authorities have been for managers working for multinational enterprises. Most of the workers come from European Union countries or the United States. Over the past two years, the number of Greek, Turkish and Romanian workers has risen due to the volume of foreign direct investment flows in Bulgaria and Bulgaria's cross-border activities with these three neighbouring countries.

4. Policy developments

Three new laws on immigration, asylum and nationality were adopted in 1997 and 1998, not only to repeal regulations from the previous regime, but also to establish legislative provisions fully compatible with European Union norms, with a view to Bulgaria's accession to the EU. The August 1999 Refugee Act (as amended in November 1999) lays down a coherent set of measures covering the entire process of granting refugee status and tightens the requirements for the admission, residence and settlement of asylum-seekers. The three main objectives of the Act are to create a refugee agency, establish procedures for granting refugee status and accelerate the review of applications.

The Bulgarian Nationality Act has replaced the 1968 Act. For the first time, it sets out comprehensive and straightforward naturalisation criteria, including requirements for residency (over five years), income, employment and linguistic ability. Also for the first time, it allows Bulgarian nationals to have multiple citizenship, and it lays down the principles of a policy to integrate Bulgarians living abroad in order to promote their economic and social ties with Bulgaria. Like the 1968 Act, the new Act automatically grants Bulgarian citizenship to any foreign spouse of a Bulgarian national, but it also institutes restrictions to combat marriages of convenience. Preferential treatment is granted to refugees, foreigners born in Bulgaria, and the spouses and children of Bulgarian citizens. The Act lays down simple and transparent procedures for acquiring citizenship, the aim of which is to prevent fraud. Lastly, the Act abolished the principle under which Bulgarian emigrants lost their citizenship by leaving the country, and it enabled Bulgaria to sign the European Convention on Nationality.

The Foreigners Act replaced the 1972 Residence of Foreigners Act. Enacted in December 1998 and in force since 1 January 2000, it governs the admission and residence of foreigners and stateless persons, and provides for several different types of permits and visas: transit visas (for journeys by air or other modes of transport), and short-term (up to 90 days) and long-term (12 months) residence permits. Long-term permits are granted for highly specific reasons, such as possession of a work permit, managing a business, pursuing studies, marriage to a Bulgarian national, being the relative of a permanent resident foreigner, or health considerations. These permits may be renewed. The Act requires carriers to check the travel documents of their passengers and imposes sanctions on them if they transport foreigners who lack the necessary papers. Finally, the Act lays down specific criteria for denying the extension of a residence permit and increases the penalties to be imposed on foreigners who are in the country illegally.

In 1997, a specialised border control service ("frontier police") was created within the Ministry of the Interior. Since March 1997, visas have no longer been required for nationals of European Union countries, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland, who are granted a 30-day right of stay.

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CANADA

Introduction

The downward trend in permanent immigration has continued, and has indeed become much more marked. In 1998, 42 000 fewer entries were recorded than in 1997, a reduction of some 19.4%. Despite the buoyant performance of Canada's economy (3% growth between 1997 and 1998, and a fall in unemployment from 9.1 to 8.3% over the same period), the bulk of the decline is attributable to lower immigration by skilled workers and business persons (down by 30 000).

The revision of the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act, launched in 1996 and designed to modernise immigration law and practice, should swiftly lead to a clearer selection policy more tailored to the needs of the labour market.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreign-born persons

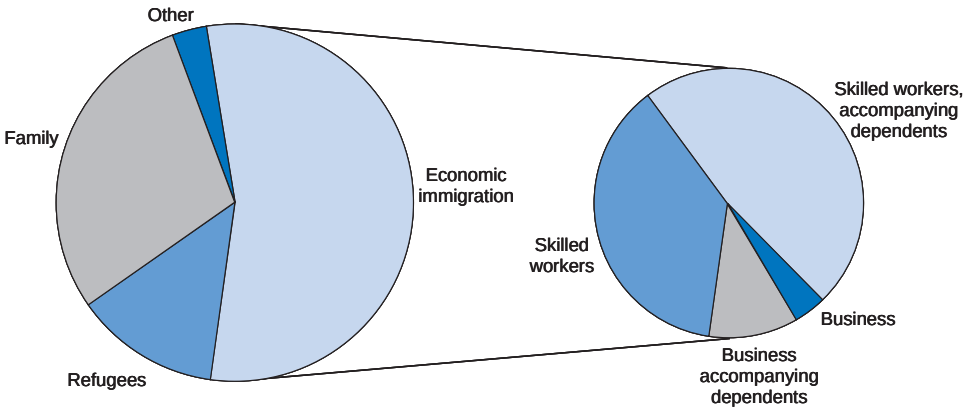
In 1998, 174 100 permanent residence permits (see box) were issued. The figure, a decline of 19.4% on 1997, is well below the lower range anticipated by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC), which had expected to attract between 200 000 and 225 000 immigrants.

A little under a third of permanent immigrants entered on the basis of family reunion (50 900 people: minimum expected 53 500, shortfall 4.9%), 54.5% in the skilled worker and business classes (94 900 people: minimum expected 115 900, shortfall 18.1%) and 13% as refugees (22 650 people: minimum expected 24 100, shortfall 6%) (see Chart III.7).

The targets for 1999 are the same as for the previous year. Projections in October based on permits issued by then indicate that the 1998 trends, while not gaining momentum, will continue (estimate for 1999: 180 000 immigrants, including 21 900 refugees).

Between 1997 and 1998, unlike in the preceding period, the greatest decline occurred with the skilled worker and business class (down 23.1%, and 30.9%, respectively, including dependants) although family reunion immigrants continue to fall (down 15.2% between 1997 and 1998) (see Chart III.8).

Chart III.7. **Immigration landings[1] by type, Canada, 1998**

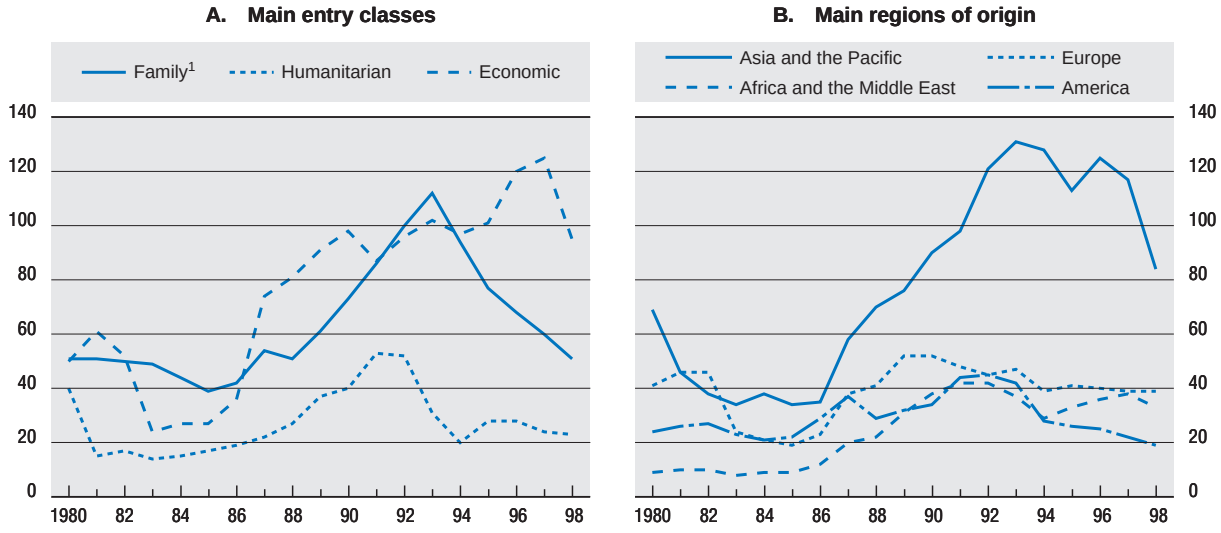


1. A landing corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad.
Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

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Chart III.8. **Inflows of permanent settlers by entry class and region of origin, Canada, 1980-1998**

Thousands



Note: Except for the family class, counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any. Figures include backlog clearance.
1. Immigrants sponsored by Canadian residents (spouses, dependent children, parents and persons in their charge).
Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

In 1998, 48.3% of immigrants were from the Asia-Pacific area (54.2% in 1997) and 22.1% were from Europe (17.9% in 1997). Once again, immigration from Hong Kong, China declined (1996: 30 000; 1997: 22 200; 1998: 8 000). It is now only the fourth largest source of immigration to Canada (see Table III.8).

In 1998 China ranked first (19 750), followed by India (15 300) and the Philippines (8 200). More broadly, the trend is for immigration sources to diversify, the share of the ten leading countries having fallen from 54.7% in 1997 to 50.2% in 1998. With regard to immigration from OECD countries, there was a marked increase in entries from France (1997: 2 900; 1998: 3 900), though Korea (4 900), the United States (4 800) and the United Kingdom (3 900) continued to dominate the inflow in 1998.

As in the past, the majority of residence permits issued in 1998 were for Ontario (53.2%), followed by British Columbia (20.6%) and then Quebec (15.1%), the latter showing a significant proportional rise over the previous year (see Map III.1).

The demographic characteristics of immigration are relatively stable: three-quarters of those entering Canada were aged between 15 and 64, with women slightly over-represented (approximately 105 women per 100 men in 1998). Due to the selection criteria, immigrants have relatively high levels of education, with 53% of them having a post-secondary qualification.

Economic immigration

As noted above, immigration by skilled workers and business persons and their dependants fell considerably in 1998 after an upward trend in the previous years (1995-96: +19.2%; 1996-97: +4.3%; 1997-98: –24.4%). The slowdown in 1997 could be attributed in part to stricter eligibility criteria for foreign investors, while the trend reversal in 1998 could be due to the economic crisis in Asia.

With regard to immigration by skilled workers, the most significant change over 1997 is the fall of around 70% in immigration from Hong Kong, China (1997: 5 400; 1998: 1 700). But with the exception of China (+15.6%), immigration of skilled workers from Asia systematically and significantly declined: –51.5% for Chinese Taipei,

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Table III.8. **Immigrant landings[1] by type and by country of birth, 1993 and 1998, Canada**
Top ten countries of origin in 1998
Thousands

	Skilled workers Principal applicants					Business Principal applicants			
	1993		1998			1993		1998	
	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank		Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank
Total	**34.0**		**35.9**		**Total**	**8.3**		**3.8**	
China	0.8	10	5.9	1	Hong Kong, China	3.5	1	0.8	1
Pakistan	. .	. .	2.1	2	Chinese Taipei	1.8	2	0.6	2
India	1.0	7	2.0	3	Korea	0.6	3	0.6	3
France	2.2	4	2.1	4	China	0.1	15	0.4	4
Hong Kong, China	3.0	2	1.7	5	Iran	0.1	16	0.2	5
Iran	. .	. .	1.6	6	Germany	0.1	5	0.1	6
Chinese Taipei	0.2	29	1.6	7	France	. .	. .	0.1	7
Russian Federation	. .	. .	1.2	8	United Kingdom	0.1	7	0.1	8
Philippines	5.3	1	1.1	9	Pakistan	. .	. .	0.1	9
United Kingdom	1.8	5	1.1	10	Netherlands	. .	. .	0.1	10
Top ten (% of total)	42.0		56.8		*Top ten (% of total)*	75.5		82.8	
	Family members					Total immigrants Principal applicants and dependents			
	1993		1998			1993		1998	
	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank		Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank
Total	**112.1**		**50.9**		**Total**	**255.8**		**174.1**	
India	17.3	1	10.0	1	China	9.5	5	19.8	1
China	7.2	4	5.1	2	India	20.5	2	15.3	2
Philippines	8.1	3	3.3	3	Philippines	19.8	3	8.2	3
United States	4.8	8	2.6	4	Hong Kong, China	36.6	1	8.1	4
Jamaica	5.0	6	1.8	5	Pakistan	4.2	14	8.1	5
Hong Kong, China	9.3	2	1.8	6	Chinese Taipei	9.9	4	7.2	6
Pakistan	. .	. .	1.6	7	Iran	. .	. .	6.8	7
Vietnam	5.6	5	1.5	8	Korea	. .	. .	4.9	8
United Kingdom	2.7	11	1.3	9	United States	8.0	8	4.8	9
Haiti	. .	. .	1.0	10	Russian Federation	. .	. .	4.3	10
Top ten (% of total)	53.5		58.9		*Top ten (% of total)*	42.4		50.3	

1. A landing corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad.
Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

–49.3% for the Philippines, –38% for Pakistan and –39.4% for India. Among the movements showing increases, the main features were the inflows of workers from France (+51.5%) and Russia (+22.2%). Quebec was the province to benefit most from this trend, since in 1998 it took in 13.3% of skilled foreign workers, as compared to just 8.7% in 1997.

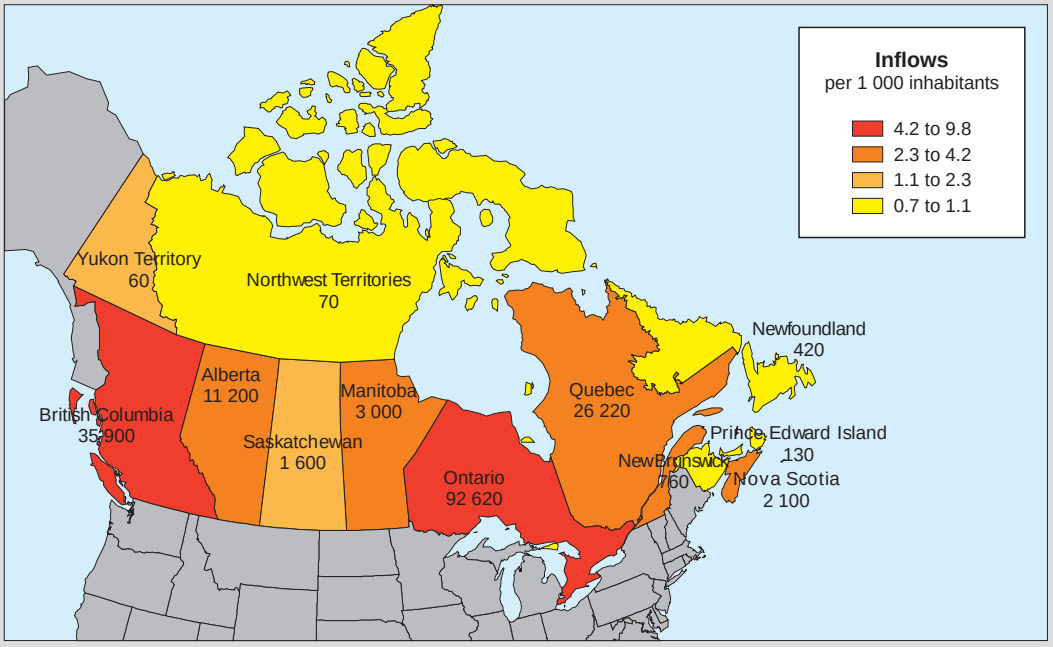
The inflow of investors and entrepreneurs (business persons), followed a similar pattern, both in terms of numbers and structure. Immigration from Asia was down (–57.4% for Hong Kong, China, for example) everywhere except for China (+43.9%). Here again the provincial breakdown was markedly to the advantage of Quebec, which was more or less alone in having an increase in business persons in 1998 (+7.5%). By comparison, this component of immigration declined by 42.4% in Ontario between 1997 and 1998.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Each year, in line with its humanitarian traditions and international commitments, Canada takes in between 20 000 and 30 000 refugees and displaced persons. In 1998, 22 650 refugees obtained permanent resident status. The number of refugees has nevertheless been falling steadily (1996: 28 350; 1997: 24 100; 1998: 22 650). The trend is apparent in all categories (see Table III.9) but in 1998 the decline was appreciably more

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Map III. 1. **Permanent immigration to Canada by provinces in 1998**



Note: Figures on the map indicate the number of immigrants (including the accompanying dependents).
Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

marked for privately sponsored refugees (–17.5%). That may be due to the tighter conditions for family sponsorship which came into force in April 1997 (see Box III.2). A little over half of all refugees were selected overseas, while the remainder claimed asylum on arriving in Canada and had their claim accepted by the Immigration and Refugee Board.

Nationals of Bosnia-Herzegovina accounted for 15.8% of all refugees, followed by Sri Lankans (9.4%) and Iranians (6.5%). The number of those from Somalia and Croatia showed the only substantial increases on the 1997 figures (+65.1% and +28.8% respectively). It should be noted that the vast majority of Somalis, Sri Lankans, Algerian and Iranians obtained refugee status as asylum seekers.

In 1998, 5 100 people who did not receive refugee status were removed from Canada, accounting for 63% of all removals, 6% up on 1997 (and 100% up on 1996).

In spring 1999, in close conjunction with the UNHCR, the IOM, the International Red Cross and European countries, Canada took in a substantial number of Kosovar refugees: a total of 7 000 people including special needs and family reunion cases.

Family reunion

Immigration under family reunion arrangements is the second largest category. In 1998, 50 900 people obtained permanent residence permits via this channel, a little over 29% of the total.

While this component of immigration has been falling steadily since 1993 (see Figure), the 1998 fall was less sharp than the fall in total immigration. Accordingly, family reunion's share of total immigration rose slightly (from 27.8% in 1997 to 29.2% in 1998).

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Table III.9. **Immigrant landings[1] by type, 1995-1998, Canada**
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Family	77.2	68.3	60.0	50.9
Skilled workers[2]	81.5	97.8	105.6	81.1
Principal applicants	34.6	42.1	44.9	35.9
Accompanying dependents	46.9	55.7	60.7	45.3
Business	19.5	22.5	19.9	13.8
Principal applicants	5.3	6.2	5.6	3.8
Accompanying dependents	14.2	16.3	14.3	10.0
Refugees	27.8	28.3	24.1	22.6
Government assisted[3]	8.2	7.9	7.7	7.4
Privately sponsored[3]	3.2	3.1	2.6	2.1
Recognised refugees[4]	16.3	17.4	13.8	13.1
Live-in-Caregiver[5]	5.5	4.8	2.7	2.9
Principal applicants	4.7	3.8	2.3	2.4
Accompanying dependents	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.4
Retirees	0.3	0.1	–	–
Other[6]	0.5	4.0	3.4	2.5
Backlog	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3
Immigrant landings, total	**212.9**	**226.1**	**216.0**	**174.1**
of which, by nationality:				
Hong Kong, China	31.8	30.0	22.2	8.1
India	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.3
China	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.7
Chinese Taipei	7.7	13.2	13.3	7.2

1. A landing corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad. Including accompanying dependents for economic and humanitarian categories.
2. Figures include the Independent class and the Assisted Relatives class. Selection criteria are only applied to the principal applicants.
3. Including persons in "designated classes", who do not strictly satisfy the United Nations convention on refugees criteria but are resettled for humanitarian reasons.
4. Asylum seekers who have been granted refugee status and also dependants (of a refugee landed in Canada) who live abroad.
5. Program for child care workers and assistants for elderly people in private households.
6. Mainly Deferred Removal Order Class but may include Post-Determination Refugee Class and Provincial/Territorial Nominees.

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

India continues to be the leading source of family reunion immigrants, though the numbers declined by 17% between 1996 and 1997 and by 11% between 1997 and 1998. In the latter year the only increases were in the numbers from Pakistan (+14.8%), the United States (+4.1%) and China (+2.5%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

The 1996 census put Canada's total population at 28.5 million. The number of immigrants (*i.e.* persons born abroad who have been granted permanent resident status) was 5 million, 18% of the total, and rose by 27% between the 1986 and 1996 censuses. Immigrants from Europe were still the largest group (2.3 million) in 1996, but for the first time this century they accounted for less than half of all immigrants. Although the numbers of immigrants from other parts of the world increased strongly over those ten years, only immigrants from Asia formed particularly significant groups in 1996 (Asia: 1 562 800; Africa: 229 300; Central and South America: 553 700).

In 1996 new immigrants, *i.e.* those who had arrived since 1991, had a higher level of education than the native-born population. More than one-third of the new immigrants aged 25 to 44 had completed university education, compared with 19% of the Canadian-born. Within the total immigrant population, 77.7% spoke English only, against 64.8% of the non-immigrant population.

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Box III.2. An overview of the structure and approach of Canada's immigration programme

There are two main mechanisms through which foreigners may legally enter Canada for periods longer than allowed under short-term tourist and business-travel arrangements: *i*) with permanent residence status through the permanent immigration programme, and *ii*) on a temporary basis as students, refugee claimants or for temporary employment. Because it is possible to transfer from temporary to permanent resident status, total issues of permanent residence (often referred to as "landed immigrants") include many who have been in the country for some length of time as temporary residents. About 15% of applications for permanent residence are processed in Canada; the remainder are processed overseas.

Permanent immigration

Acquisition of permanent residence status is possible under three main classes of entry: *i*) the "family class" who enter on the basis of having close relatives in Canada; *ii*) those entering for employment and business reasons, the "skilled worker and business classes"; *iii*) those entering as refugees. The system works through a highly developed set of rules for each class of entry. There are no numerical limits, or other mechanisms for capping the number of permanent immigrants, the source of control being solely through the rules of entry. As a result, there is no mechanism for effecting immediate and precise determination of the numbers granted permanent residence status (in contrast to the system used in Australia). By 1 November of each year, the Minister responsible for Citizenship and Immigration Canada issues a statement on the "planned" migration intake for the following year, which is based on an assessment of the numbers who are likely to enter under the existing set of regulations. Note that the Canadian authorities often refer to issues of permanent residence as immigrant landings.

Entry under the family class is based on sponsorship by a Canadian citizen or permanent resident. There must be evidence of the sponsor having a *bone fide* relationship with the applicant. In addition, the sponsor must demonstrate an ability to provide financial support for those sponsored.

Entry under the skilled worker class is based on a selection test consisting of criteria against which points are awarded to determine whether persons can become successfully established in Canada. The mix of specific selection criteria and their weighting pattern are designed to reflect what is needed to succeed in Canada's labour market. Only the principal applicant is assessed.

Entry under the business class is based on a requirement to make a minimum investment in a Canadian business (or business investment fund) or a requirement to establish, purchase or invest in a designated business that will create employment opportunities for others. The business class comprises investors, entrepreneurs and self-employed.

Refugee status is granted both to Geneva Convention refugees and those who do not quite satisfy the conventional refugee requirements but are nonetheless admitted for humanitarian reasons. There are three major sub-groups of refugees: government-assisted refugees selected abroad; privately sponsored refugees selected abroad; and asylum seekers who come to Canada and claim refugee status and who subsequently receive a positive determination on their claim. Asylum seekers are issued an employment authorisation for a period of nine months once certain requirements are met such as a credible basis for their claim and a medical examination.

Temporary immigration

Temporary immigration to Canada is tracked through data on employment authorisations (by law, no persons other than a Canadian citizen or permanent resident is permitted to be employed in Canada without an employment authorisation). The motivation for issuing temporary employment authorisations is both humanitarian and economic. Some authorisations have to be "validated", *i.e.* Human Resources Development Canada ensures that there is no Canadian citizen or permanent resident available to fill the position. However, the majority of authorisations are exempt from validation. Those exemptions include a wide variety of applicants such as persons awaiting results of an application for permanent residence within Canada and applicants for refugee status.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) allows for temporary entry to Canada by citizens of the United States or Mexico under four categories of employment: "trader and investor", "business visitor", "professional" and "inter-company transferee". Most of the entries under NAFTA are in the "professional" category where entry is based on an agreed list of specific professions.

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3. Migration and the labour market

Data from the 1996 census show that immigrants account for approximately 19% of Canada's labour force. In aggregate terms, their labour market participation, as illustrated by employment and unemployment rates, is very similar to that of native-born Canadians: the employment rate is slightly lower (60.7% against 66.9%), but unemployment rates are virtually the same (10.5% against 9.9%). But, probably as the result of the significant recession that Canada faced in the early 90's, the statistics for new immigrants are markedly less satisfactory. According to the 1996 census, the employment rate of new immigrants is 59.1%, and 18.6% of them are seeking employment.

By law, no person other than a Canadian citizen or resident is permitted to be employed in Canada without a specific authorisation. The Canadian authorities do issue temporary work permits to asylum seekers whose applications have provisionally been determined to be acceptable, and to people with special skills lacking on the labour market, as well as to United States, Mexican and Chilean citizens eligible under free trade agreements (NAFTA and the Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement).

In 1998, 65 150 people held temporary work permits (asylum seekers not included). Their number has been rising for several years (1996-1997: +3.9%; 1997-98: +4.5%) but the breakdown by country of origin has remained relatively stable. The bulk of temporary work permits are issued to nationals of OECD countries: United States 24 000, United Kingdom 5 100, Japan 4 500, France 4 050, Australia 3 700, Germany 2 100 and Mexico 1 800. In all these cases, temporary immigration is on a larger scale than the permanent inflows. The reverse is generally true for other countries. For instance, just 927 people from China received temporary work permits in 1998, as against 19 750 permanent immigrants, of whom 5 930 were skilled workers.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence of foreigners

In December 1996, the Immigration Department established a three-person legislative advisory group to prepare the revision of current legislation governing immigration and refugees, in order to put forward recommendations to enable Canada to achieve its immigration objectives. The group submitted its findings to the Ministry on 31 December 1997 (*Not Just Numbers: A Canadian Framework for Future Immigration*). The report covers all aspects of immigration in Canada and proposes substantial changes in virtually every area. In January 1999 the Minister responsible for citizenship and immigration outlined the government's main approaches in modernising policy and legislation on immigration and refugee protection. Revising the law should assist family reunion while enforcing strict rules on sponsorship, modernise the system for selecting skilled workers and business persons wishing to enter as immigrants, and facilitate the temporary admission of highly skilled workers. In April 2000, the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act was placed before the House of Commons. The Citizenship of Canada Act is also in a process that should result in significant revisions, for the first time in twenty years.

Under the 1976 Immigration Act, Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) has recently signed agreements with provincial governments regarding immigration. The agreements on nominees, for instance, enable the provinces to introduce active recruitment policies: agreements of this kind were concluded in March 1998 with Saskatchewan, in May 1998 with British Columbia, in June 1998 with Manitoba, in February 1999 with New Brunswick and in September 1999 with Newfoundland and Labrador. Settlement services agreements, designed to simplify the administrative procedures relating to settlement, were concluded with Manitoba in June 1998 and with British Colombia in May of that year. Following an earlier special agreement, Quebec now has sole responsibility for the selection of independent immigrants and refugees from abroad and administers federally funded integration services. CIC continues to set national standards for Canada's immigration programs.

From its inception, the immigrant investor programme has been the subject of regular discussion with the provinces (although Quebec has conducted its own programme since 1991). A new programme was introduced in April 1999, simplifying administrative procedures and cutting the potential for abuse, while increasing decentralised benefits. The new programme requires candidates to invest at least CAD 400 000

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and to hold liquid assets of CAD 800 000. Nine business immigration centres were established in June 1998, in Beijing, Berlin, Buffalo, Damascus, Hong Kong (China), London, Paris, Seoul and Singapore.

Mention may also be made of Integration-net, the National Clearinghouse on Settlement, for information exchange among agencies involved in settlement, including federal and provincial government, service providers and the immigrants themselves. Preliminary work was carried out in 1997/98, with operational start-up scheduled for the last quarter of the 1999/2000 fiscal year.

Refugees and asylum

Refugee status is granted to Geneva Convention refugees and to eligible persons who apply for it for humanitarian reasons.

In 1999 Citizenship and Immigration Canada revised the list of countries for which asylum seeker status may be granted on humanitarian grounds (Humanitarian Designated Classes: the Country of Asylum Class and the Source Country Class). The earlier list was revised to include Bosnia-Herzegovina, Colombia, Croatia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, El Salvador, Guatemala and Sudan.

CZECH REPUBLIC

Introduction

The economic recession experienced by the Czech Republic since 1995 is drawing to a close. Since the second quarter of 1999 there has been a slight recovery, and a growth rate of around 1.5% is forecast for 2000. However, unemployment is still rising and had reached nearly 10% at the beginning of 2000. As a result, the number of new work permits issued to immigrant workers has been falling since 1997. However, the Czech Republic is still an immigration country, mainly attracting nationals from the Slovak Republic and Ukraine. In all, foreign residents account for some 2.3% of the population, as compared with 1% in 1994. Asylum applications, which have been steadily rising since 1994, numbered just over 4 000 in 1998. This trend was confirmed in 1999 with 8 600 applications. Illegal immigration persists. In 1998, there was a considerable increase in the number of undocumented foreigners intercepted at the border (over 45 000, as compared with 29 500 in 1997). The same trend was seen in banning orders against undocumented people already in the country.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1998, there was a fall in the number of immigrants applying for permanent residence permits (to around 10 800, from 13 000 in 1997) (see Table III.10). Whereas at the beginning of the 1990s, immigrants from European countries accounted for almost the entire inflow of permanent residents (94% in 1990), their relative share has since then declined markedly and now barely exceeds 70%. Conversely, there has been a marked increase in the proportion of Asian nationals (18% in 1997, as compared with 2% in 1990). The fall in migration from European countries is largely attributable to diminishing inflows from the Slovak Republic. The Slovak Republic remains nevertheless the principal source country of immigrants to the Czech Republic, followed by nationals of the former Soviet Union (mainly Ukrainians and Russians), Vietnam (two-thirds of all Asian immigrants) and the former Yugoslavia. As for inflows of new permanent residents from the European Union, Germans predominate, even though their numbers have been declining since 1993 (some 900 entries in 1997 compared with 1 390 in 1993).

Changes in the breakdown by origin country of immigrants to the Czech Republic have been accompanied by an increase in the relative share of male immigrants and a very clear improvement in their level of

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Table III.10. **Current figures on flows and stocks of migrants in Czech Republic**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total population[1]	**10 321**	**10 309**	**10 299**	**10 290**
Total population change from beginning to end of year	–9	–10	–9	–10
Natural increase	–21	–22	–21	–19
Net migration	10	10	12	9
Inflows[2]	**10.5**	**10.9**	**12.9**	**10.7**
Arrivals (excluding those from Slovak Republic)	6.7	7.4	9.8	7.8
Arrivals from Slovak Republic	3.8	3.5	3.1	2.9
Outflows[3]	**1.9**	**1.5**	**1.4**	**1.3**
Departures (excluding those to Slovak Republic)	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.9
Departures to Slovak Republic[4]	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.4
Inflows of asylum seekers	**1.4**	**2.2**	**2.1**	**4.1**
Stocks of foreign residents by type of permits and nationality				
Holders of a permanent residence permit				
Slovak Republic[5]	6.5	9.9	12.7	14.1
Poland	12.1	12.1	11.9	12.0
Vietnam	1.5	2.5	5.1	6.8
Ukraine	2.1	2.8	4.6	6.2
Russia	1.7	2.0	2.5	2.9
Bulgaria	2.7	1.8	2.4	2.3
Other	11.9	14.7	17.1	19.6
Total	**38.6**	**45.8**	**56.3**	**63.9**
Holders of a long-term residence permit				
Ukraine	26.0	43.5	38.8	46.4
Slovak Republic	33.2	40.3	39.5	35.5
Vietnam	12.7	15.1	15.8	16.1
Poland	11.0	12.4	13.1	10.1
Russian federation	2.7	4.7	6.5	7.2
China	4.2	4.7	4.4	4.1
Bulgaria	1.6	2.5	4.2	3.6
Other	28.6	29.6	31.2	32.8
Total	**120.1**	**152.8**	**153.5**	**155.8**

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Registered foreign workers by nationality[6]				
Ukraine	26.7	42.1	25.2	19.3
Poland	12.1	12.8	13.7	9.9
Bulgaria	0.8	2.8	3.3	2.7
Belarus	0.3	0.9	2.5	2.0
Moldavia	. .	. .	2.0	2.0
Germany	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
United States	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4
Other	9.3	9.3	11.3	11.0
Total	**52.5**	**71.0**	**61.0**	**49.9**
Slovak workers[7]	**59.3**	**72.2**	**69.7**	**61.3**
Holders of a business authorisation by nationality				
Vietnam	7.7	17.0	24.7	15.5
Ukraine	0.8	2.7	8.7	9.9
Slovak Republic	2.9	5.9	7.6	6.2
Germany	0.6	1.2	1.5	0.9
Other	24.9	18.7	21.0	12.5
Total	**37.0**	**45.5**	**63.5**	**45.0**
Czech workers employed in Germany				
Contract workers	2.5	2.3	1.4	1.1
Seasonal workers	3.7	3.4	2.3	1.8
Illegal migrants caught at the border	**19.2**	**23.7**	**29.3**	**44.7**

1. Population on the 31 December of the given year.
2. Permanent residents who had their change of address registered.
3. Czech and foreign citizens leaving the Czech Republic permanently are supposed to report their departure to the authorities. Figures represent the total number of registered departures.
4. The data are issued by the Slovak Statistical Office until 1997 and refer to the registrations of permanent residence in the Slovak Republic. Data for 1998 are provided by the Czech Statistical Office.
5. Up to 1 January 1993, Czechoslovak permanent residents were registered in the National Population Register. Since the split of the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovak citizens residing in the Czech Republic are subject to the same rules as any other foreign resident and they are therefore registered in the Central Register of Foreigners.
6. A foreigner can be employed only as the holder of a residence permit and an work permit. A written offer by the employer is needed to apply for a work permit. These rules do not apply to Slovak citizens.
7. Under the Treaty on Mutual Employment of Citizens signed by the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic in October 1992, nationals of the two Republics have free access to both labour markets. The estimates of the number of Slovak citizens are made by the local labour offices.

Sources: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic (Czech Statistical Office); Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

education. At the same time, the proportion of immigrants of working age has risen from 73% in 1990 to 82% in 1997.

The downward trend in the return migration flow of Czech emigrants was confirmed in 1997 (2 900, as compared with 3 500 in 1996).

Refugees and asylum seekers

The first asylum applications were submitted in 1990, as soon as the borders opened. From then until the end of 1998, some 18 000 people sought asylum in the Czech Republic, but only 10% obtained refugee status. This relatively low acceptance rate can be partly explained by the fact that many asylum seekers had left the reception centres before the Czech authorities could rule on their applications. In 1998, 4 000 applications were submitted, the most numerous being those from nationals of Afghanistan, followed by the former Yugoslavia, Sri Lanka and Iraq.

In April 1999, the Czech Republic decided to grant temporary protection to refugees from Kosovo. By the end of June 1999, some 750 had been granted this status.

Illegal migration

In 1998, 44 700 people were intercepted trying to cross the border illegally, over 50% more than the previous year.

The flow of illegal immigrants has grown continually since 1994. Most of them intend merely to pass through the country, as shown by the large number of migrants arrested trying to leave Czech territory and enter Germany (85% of all arrests). Of all those intercepted, nationals of the former Yugoslavia are the most numerous, followed by Afghans and Romanians. In 1997, measures were introduced to strengthen border controls. Their impact can be gauged from the increase in the number of persons apprehended whilst attempting to cross the frontier (44 700 in 1998 as compared to 29 300 in 1997).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Trends in the stock of foreign residents

The number of foreigners in the country continues to grow. In 1997 and 1998, the number of persons possessing a permanent residence permit (generally granted following marriage to a Czech national, on family reunion or humanitarian grounds or for reasons of State) rose faster than that of holders of long-term permits (generally granted for employment or studies, valid initially for a maximum of one year but renewable). In 1999, some 67 000 immigrants obtained permanent permits and 162 000 long-term permits. The overall number of permits issued has been rising steadily since the early 1990s and the number of foreign residents is just under 230 000.

In 1998, for the first time, Ukrainian nationals (some 53 000) outnumbered Slovaks (50 000), followed by Vietnamese, Polish and Russian nationals. Of all those holding permanent residence permits, however, Slovaks are still the most numerous (see Table III.10).

Naturalisations

Of the foreigners residing in the Czech Republic, 1 130 acquired Czech nationality in 1998, as compared to 5 600 in 1997. Naturalisation is generally obtained after five years of permanent residence in the country, but this restriction does not apply to those granted special status (former Czechoslovak nationals, people born in the Czech Republic, and the adopted children and spouses of Czech citizens). The prevailing legislation makes no provision for dual citizenship. In 1998, Ukrainian and Bulgarian nationals were the largest groups obtaining Czech citizenship, followed by the Vietnamese and the Romanians.

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3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

From 1993 to the end of 1996, the number of foreign workers rose from 52 000 to 143 000. In 1997, their number began to decline and the trend was confirmed in 1998 (111 000) (see Table III.10). The fall was largely due to the poor economic climate and rising unemployment. The Czech authorities have made it more difficult for foreigners to obtain work permits. Tighter requirements governing labour market access have been combined with tougher penalties for employers illegally recruiting foreigners. Inspections undertaken by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Ministry of the Interior have revealed an upsurge in the employment of foreigners without residence and/or work permits. This would indicate that the lower official figures for foreign workers do not necessarily signify a replacement of migrant labour by natives or permanent residents.

Most foreign workers are Slovaks, Ukrainians and Poles. Slovaks, unlike the nationals of other countries, do not have to apply for a work permit to take up employment in the Czech Republic. Since 1996, their number has declined, from over 70 000 to around 55 000 in 1999. The trend is the same for Ukrainians and Poles.

The relatively liberal Czech legislation on commercial activities has made it easier for foreign businesspeople and entrepreneurs to settle on Czech territory by obtaining a business licence from the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The business licence acts as a residence permit and remains valid for as long as a commercial activity is conducted in the country. The Vietnamese are the largest community to hold such licences, followed by the Ukrainians and the Slovaks. Included under the heading of foreign workers, the number of such persons rose between 1994 and 1997 but since then, in line with the trend in residence permits for other categories of foreign workers, the number of business licences has declined, with 45 000 issued in 1998 as compared with 63 500 in 1997.

Employment of Czechs nationals abroad

The Czech Republic has signed bilateral agreements, in particular with its neighbours Germany and Austria, on the admission of a fixed quota of workers. Since 1994, there has been a marked decrease in outflows of Czech workers, owing primarily to the restrictive measures adopted in most European Union Member States, but also to the reduction in wage differentials between the Czech Republic and EU countries. Most Czech workers employed abroad live in Germany. In addition, according to official estimates, Germany employs some 10 000 Czech border workers. The number of seasonal workers has sharply declined, from almost 11 000 in 1993 to just over 2 000 in 1998. There has also been a decline in the number of Czech workers taking part in exchange schemes to upgrade their vocational and language skills (320 in 1998 as compared with 1 300 in 1993).

4. Policy developments

Entry and residence of foreigners

Amendments to the Czech Republic's regulations governing the entry and residence of foreigners came into force on 1 January 2000. In particular, Czech consulates abroad have been made largely responsible for issuing visas, and the requirements for obtaining a visa on Czech territory have been tightened. Furthermore, any application for a visa with a view to obtaining a long-term permit must be accompanied by a supporting document (for example, an employment contract). The validity of short-stay visas has been shortened from 180 to 90 days.

In parallel to this, amendments to the legislation concerning asylum also came into force on 1 January 2000. The principal objective of these amendments is to accelerate the processing of asylum applications and to improve the legal protection granted to refugees in such a way as to bring it into line with the principles of the Geneva Convention.

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Issuance of work permits

New permits are now being issues only when no worker residing on Czech territory and seeking employment is in a position to carry out the work for which the application has been made. Furthermore, the work permit is linked to a specific activity and is initially granted for a period of no more than one year (renewable). When foreign workers lose the post for which their residence permits were issued, they must find another job and inform the Employment Office; otherwise they must leave the country.

Visa restrictions

As Czech migration policy is being brought into line with the legislation prevailing in the European Union, the Czech authorities have decided to make visas compulsory for nationals from Russia, the Ukraine and Belarus. Similar arrangements are being planned for the other new republics of the former Soviet Union.

DENMARK

Introduction

As a result of the strong and sustained growth in output that took place between 1993 and 1998, unemployment declined steadily over the period from 10 to 5.2%. Although a tightening of fiscal policy in 1999 was accompanied by a modest deceleration in output growth, from 2.5% to 1.6%, the rate of unemployment held constant.

The number of foreign citizens in Denmark rose from 256 300 at the end of 1998 to 259 400 at the end of 1999. They account for 4.9% of the total population. The immigrant population (persons born abroad of parents who either had foreign citizenship or who themselves were also born abroad) numbered 297 000, accounting for almost 5.6% of the total population. The rate of growth in their numbers approached 11% in 1995, due largely to the granting of refugee status, and thereby permanent residence permits, to asylum applicants from the former Yugoslavia. It has since fallen back to the rates of 4.5 to 6% recorded earlier in the decade. Despite the recent improvement in the labour market situation and the consequent increases in their employment, the average rate of unemployment of the immigrant population remains almost three times higher than that of the total population. It is particularly high among the recently arrived refugee communities, a problem which the authorities are actively seeking to address.

1. Trends in migration movements

Only those who have lived in the country for a full year and, in the case of citizens of non-Nordic countries, have in addition acquired a permanent residence permit are recorded as long-term immigrants. The long-term immigration statistics that became available in 1999 relate therefore to 1997. Given the requirement of a permanent residence permit, these figures for new long-term entrants include persons who have resided in the country for over two years. This is notably the case of refugees admitted on a temporary basis and asylum seekers; they do not receive a permanent residence permit until they have been granted permanent refugee status.

Migration flows of Danish citizens

Since 1990, the long-term immigration flow of Danish citizens has fluctuated between 11 100 and 13 400 per year. In 1997, they numbered just under 12 200, corresponding to 37% of the total long-term inflow for that year. This inflow may be divided into two streams: that of those coming from Greenland and the Faeroe Islands, which are part of the Kingdom of Denmark, and the much greater numbers of returning expatriate workers, NGO volunteers, civil servants and accompanying family members.

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Having comprised in 1989 approximately 76% of the total annual outflow, the proportion of Danish citizens among the long-term emigrants has since then followed a declining medium-term trend. Although in 1997 they numbered just under 14 000, an increase for the fifth consecutive year, they accounted for 68% of the total outflow.

The net migration flow of Danish nationals, having approached –6 000 in 1988 and 1989, increased almost continuously through to 1994 in which year the figure was positive for the first time in over a decade. Since then the trend has reversed with immigration declining and emigration increasing, both however only slightly (see Table III.11).

Migration flows of foreigners

The long-term immigration flow of foreigners, having been broadly stable between 1985 and 1994 (at approximately 15 000 on average) rose sharply in 1995 due largely to the granting of refugee status, and thereby permanent residence permits, to asylum applicants from the former Yugoslavia. The figure fell back to 24 700 in 1996 and to 20 400 in 1997. It is likely to have since increased due to the granting of refugee status to persons from Kosovo.

Although the annual long-term outflow of foreigners has been increasing steadily since 1992 it remains much lower than the corresponding inflow. The figure in 1997 was 6 700, an increase of slightly under 13% on 1996 and almost 50% more than the 1990 figure. The majority of foreign emigrants are nationals of OECD Member countries.

Asylum seekers and refugees

Asylum seekers

Applications for asylum can be made in two ways: by delivering an application to a Danish Embassy or Consulate or by travelling to Denmark and applying for asylum after arrival. These persons are categorised as spontaneous asylum seekers.

Applications for asylum delivered abroad fluctuated considerably during the first half of the decade and seldom resulted in approvals. It is understood that these fluctuations were the result of rumours concerning the likelihood of obtaining asylum in Denmark. Since the 1995 amendment to the Aliens Act, which *inter alia* restricted asylum applications from countries that Denmark considers to be safe, the number of such applications has declined sharply. Having numbered almost 5 000 in 1995 they fell to 1 500 in 1996 and to 350 in 1998.

Since 1994, the total number of spontaneous asylum applications has remained within the range of 5 and 6 000 per year; the 12% increase to 5 700 recorded in 1998 brought the figure to a level comparable with that of 1996. Within this overall stability three trends in particular can be observed since 1995: first, whilst applications from the other countries of the former Yugoslavia have declined from 700 to 600 per year, those from Croatia have increased from less than 50 to almost 300; second, applications from Africa, almost three quarters of which have been made each year by Somalis, have declined by one half; and, finally, applications from Asian citizens have almost doubled to over 3 000, an increase which is largely due to applications from Iraqis which numbered over 1 900 in 1998 (see Table III.11).

Refugees

The statistics on refugees distinguish between two groups:

– Persons granted a residence permit with refugee status. They are either given convention status or *de facto* status. Quota refugees are also given *de facto* status in accordance with agreements signed with the UNHCR.

– Persons granted a humanitarian residence permit or a temporary residence permit on other special grounds. These are unaccompanied minors or asylum seekers who have had their application for refugee status rejected but are not in a position to return to their country of origin. In general, few persons are granted a residence permit on these bases. 1996 and 1997 were exceptional in this regard in that large numbers of Bosnians and nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (2 100 and 1 500 in 1996

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Table III.11. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Denmark**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Long-term immigration by group of nationality[1]	**45.9**	**37.1**	**32.6**	**. .**
Denmark	12.9	12.4	12.2	. .
Other Nordic countries[2]	3.2	3.3	3.2	. .
Other European countries	22.2[3]	11.7	8.4	. .
Asia	3.8	4.5	4.6	
Africa	2.3	3.6	2.8	. .
Other	1.4	1.6	1.5	. .
Long-term emigration by group of nationality[1]	**18.0**	**19.8**	**20.7**	**. .**
Denmark	12.7	13.8	14.0	. .
Other Nordic countries[2]	1.4	1.6	1.9	. .
Other European countries	2.2	2.4	2.9	. .
Asia	0.7	0.9	0.8	. .
Africa	0.3	0.4	0.4	. .
Other	0.7	0.8	0.7	. .
Grants of residence permits, by category[4]	**37.9**	**32.3**	**29.5**	**30.9**
Family reunification	6.3	8.7	7.7	9.7
EU provisions	3.8	5.9	5.9	6.1
Refugee	20.3[3]	8.7	5.9	4.8
Employment	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.3
Other	5.2	6.3	6.9	7.0
Asylum seekers by region of origin	**5.1**	**5.9**	**5.1**	**5.7**
Europe	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4
of which: Former Yugoslavia	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9
Asia	1.5	1.9	1.8	3.0
of which: Iraq	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.9
Africa	1.7	1.7	1.5	0.9
of which: Somalia	1.2	1.4	1.2	0.6
Other regions	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.4

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Acquisition of Danish nationality, by region of origin	**5.3**	**7.3**	**5.5**	**10.3**	**12.4**
Nordic countries[2]	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Other European countries	0.2	0.3	0.3	2.8	4.7
Asia	2.2	3.1	2.0	4.5	4.8
Africa	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.9
America	1.5	2.1	1.7	0.2	0.2
Other	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.6	1.5
Stock of foreigners[5]	**222.7**	**237.7**	**249.6**	**256.3**	**259.4**
Nordic countries[2]	27.1	28.7	29.9	30.6	31.3
Other European countries	110.5	118.8	123.9	127.2	12.8
Asia	48.9	50.5	53.2	54.8	56.1
Africa	15.7	19.2	22.1	23.9	25.4
America	9.1	9.3	9.6	9.8	10.2
Oceania	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2
Other	10.5	10.2	9.9	8.7	7.7
Immigrants by region of origin	**249.9**	**265.8**	**276.8**	**287.7**	**296.9**
Nordic countries[2]	31.8	33.0	33.8	34.2	34.5
Other European countries	117.3	125.1	129.3	133.0	135.6
Asia	68.6	72.0	75.3	80.1	84.5
Africa	18.2	21.5	23.8	25.5	26.8
America	11.7	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0
Oceania	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
Other	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
Descendants by region of origin	**58.8**	**64.5**	**70.3**	**75.7**	**81.2**
Nordic countries	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.7
Other European countries	27.2	29.4	31.5	33.5	35.3
Asia	20.5	23.0	25.4	27.8	30.2
Africa	5.0	5.8	6.9	7.9	9.1
America	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.5
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3

Labour force and unemployment rates among immigrants and their descendants	1996	1997
Immigrants		
Participation rate	. .	55
Unemployment rate	20	17
Descendants		
Participation rate	. .	68
Unemployment rate	10	8

1. A long-term immigrant/emigrant is defined as a person who has lived in/out of the country for over one year.
2. Data include figures from Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.
3. Including former Yougoslavs who have been recognised as refugees after 2 years of temporary residence in Denmark.
4. All foreigners (except Nordic countries citizens) who want to reside for more than 3 months in Denmark need a residence permit. The duration of the permit depends on the reasons for granting it but it generally does not exceed two years.
5. An immigrant is defined as a person born abroad by parents who have either foreign citizenship or are also born abroad. A descendant is a person born in Denmark with parents who are either immigrants or descendants of immigrants.

Source: Danmarks Statistik.

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and 1997 respectively) who had had their application for refugee status rejected were considered as not being in a position to return.

As was noted above, the long-term inflow of those refugees admitted on a temporary basis and asylum seekers are not included in long-term immigration statistics until they have been granted permanent refugee status and hence a permanent residence permit. This being the case, persons granted such a permit appear in the long-term inflow figures some two to three years after their initial arrival in the country. Since 1993, nationals of Iraq, Somalia and the former Yugoslavia have comprised the majority of asylum seekers accorded a permanent residence permit, indeed, since 1995 they have each year accounted for over 70% of the total. The large inflow of asylum seekers from the former Yugoslavia which took place mainly in 1992 and 1993 did not begin to appear in the figures for long-term immigration until 1995 when 16 700 of them were granted a permanent residence permit; a further 4 300 were given a permit the following year. The number of Iraqi nationals accorded a permanent residence permit has been rising steadily since the mid-1990s, the figure in 1998 being almost 1 800, an increase of almost 50% on the preceding year. Having gone through a similarly rising trend, the number of Somali nationals granted a permanent residence permit declined by almost 50% in 1998 to 950. Given the recent trends in asylum applications from these two countries, outlined above, this pattern is set to continue.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Change in stocks

The broadest measure of the immigrant population (persons born abroad of parents who either had foreign citizenship or who themselves were also born abroad together with their descendants), has increased by 67% to 378 165 from the beginning of 1991 to the end of 1999. During the same period, the number of persons holding foreign citizenship and possessing a permanent residence permit has risen by 61.5%. These foreign citizens, who number 259 400, account for 4.9% of the total population. The annual rate of growth in their numbers, having been quite stable at approximately 5% between 1990 and 1994 and as high as 13% in 1995 (due largely to the granting of refugee status, and thereby permanent residence permits, to asylum applicants from the former Yugoslavia), has decelerated over the past four years, the rates of increase in 1998 and 1999 being 2.7 and 1.2% respectively.

Turkish citizens, who numbered 37 000 at the end of 1999, an increase of almost one quarter since the beginning of 1991, continue to constitute the largest group of foreign citizens. They are followed by citizens of the former Yugoslavia whose numbers have risen from just over 10 000 to 35 500 over the same period. This follows the large grants of refugee status between 1995 and 1999. For the same reason, the number of recorded Somali citizens has risen from 600 in 1991 to 14 300 in 1999 and that of Iraqis from 2 800 to 12 700. For employment-related reasons the four other most important national groups, the Swedes, of whom there are 10 800, the British, the Germans and the Norwegians, which each number between 12 600 and 12 700, have increased by between one quarter and one half over the same period.

Naturalisations

Between the beginning of 1991 and the end of 1999, just under 63 000 persons took Danish citizenship. From 1991 to 1995, the number fluctuated at between 5 and 6 000 per year; in 1999, there were slightly less than 12 500 naturalisations (see Table III.11). This increase was due mainly to a high number of naturalisations of Asian citizens, in particular of Iraqis, Iranians and Lebanese, to an increase from 700 to 1 500 in the number of previously stateless citizens acquiring Danish citizenship and finally to a considerable rise in the naturalisations of Turkish citizens.

The proportions of foreign nationals taking up Danish citizenship varies considerably by country of origin. Approximately 50% of those from Asia and South America have changed citizenship during their stay in Denmark. On the other hand, less than 20% of immigrants from Turkey and from the former Yugoslavia have done so. The low proportion of Turks who have applied for citizenship reflects the disincentives that existed prior to the 1995 amendment of the Turkish law on nationality. This amendment enabled those who take up foreign citizenship to retain their rights and property in Turkey. The number of Turks choosing to take up Danish citizenship, having registered modest increases between 1996 and 1998, increased almost threefold in 1999 to

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3 150. That at present only a small proportion of nationals of the former Yugoslavia have applied for citizenship is due to the fact that once granted refugee status they must then reside in the country for a further six years before becoming eligible.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour force participation

The working-age population totalled 3.6 million on 1 January 1998 (latest year available). Of these 243 200 (6.8%) were immigrants and their descendants. The labour force participation rate of this group was 56% as compared to 79% for the remainder of the population. For males it was 63% as compared to 83% and for females 49% as compared to 75%.

The participation rate of immigrants from European Union countries and their descendants was 68% (73% for males, 62% for women) and from Turkey 60% (71% for males, 49% for females). Reflecting in large part their relatively recent arrival in the country, predominantly as refugees, the participation rates of those from Somalia, Iraq and the former Yugoslavia were 14, 27 and 43% respectively.

Employment

On 1 January 1998, the total number of persons in employment was 2.69 million, the same as at the beginning of the previous year. Of these, 114 000 (4.3%) were immigrants and their descendants. In 1996, total employment had increased by approximately 30 000 (1.1%); during this year, employment among immigrants and their descendants increased by 10 000 (10%).

The majority of immigrants in employment, 87%, work as salaried employees, 12% are self-employed (as compared to 8% among the rest of the population) and the remaining 1% assist their spouse.

Almost one third of immigrant workers are employed in public and personal services, 22% are employed in commerce, clerical work, and catering, and 20% are employed in industry (see Table III.12). Compared with the rest of the population, immigrants are under-represented in agriculture, building, and public and personal services, and are particularly over-represented in commerce, clerical work, catering and industry. No significant shifts in the employment distribution of immigrants have taken place over the last five years.

Unemployment

Particularly susceptible to long-term unemployment, the average rate of unemployment of the immigrant population remains three times higher than that of non-immigrants. Their unemployment rates do vary considerably however according to national group which in turn is strongly linked to the original reason for entering Denmark (for example, labour migration, as a refugee or seeking asylum, or for family reunion). Together with their level of education and the duration of their stay in Denmark this would explain why immigrants from Turkey and the former Yugoslavia have unemployment rates of 27 and 23% respectively whereas those of immigrants from Norway, the European Union and North America are similar to that of the non-immigrant population: the Turks, who originally entered as labour migrants and were subsequently joined by their families, are predominantly employed in low-skilled occupations which are diminishing in number; the nationals of the former Yugoslavia are a new immigrant group which having completed the initial social integration process are only now beginning to integrate themselves into the Danish labour market.

4. Policy developments

On 26 June 1998, the Danish Parliament passed its first law on integration; it came into effect on 1 January 1999. The purpose of this law is to promote the integration of immigrants and refugees into Danish society. The integration programme focuses essentially on newly arrived immigrants, who are helped to adjust to the requirements of the Danish labour market. Where such adjustment does not seem to be immediately possible, education or vocational training is offered.

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Table III.12. **Employed immigrants,[1] by main occupation and country of origin, 1 January 1999, Denmark**

Thousands

	Agriculture, fishing, mining and quarrying	Manufacturing	Energy and water supply	Construction	Trade, hotel and restaurant	Transport and telecom.	Finance	Public administration and other services	Unknown	Total
Total	**3.2**	**23.1**	**0.3**	**3.1**	**25.2**	**8.2**	**16.7**	**35.2**	**1.6**	**116.6**
EU	**1.4**	**5.5**	**0.1**	**1.5**	**6.1**	**2.3**	**4.7**	**12.6**	**0.4**	**34.5**
of which:										
Germany	0.3	2.1	0.1	0.5	1.7	0.7	1.3	4.0	0.2	10.8
Sweden	0.1	0.8	–	0.2	1.0	0.6	1.0	3.0	0.1	6.9
United Kingdom	0.2	1.1	–	0.4	1.1	0.4	1.0	2.1	0.1	6.4
Other European countries	**1.1**	**9.6**	**0.1**	**1.0**	**8.5**	**2.8**	**5.8**	**11.5**	**0.5**	**40.8**
of which:										
Turkey	0.2	2.9	–	0.1	4.0	0.8	1.5	2.4	0.3	12.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	3.7	–	0.3	1.5	0.9	1.6	2.0	–	10.2
Norway	0.1	0.7	–	0.2	0.9	0.4	0.8	2.8	0.1	6.0
Africa	**0.1**	**1.0**	**–**	**0.1**	**1.4**	**0.6**	**1.6**	**2.2**	**0.1**	**7.1**
America	**0.1**	**0.7**	**–**	**0.2**	**0.8**	**0.4**	**1.0**	**1.3**	**0.1**	**5.5**
Asia	**0.4**	**6.2**	**–**	**0.4**	**8.1**	**2.3**	**3.5**	**6.3**	**0.5**	**27.7**
of which:										
Iran	–	0.5	–	0.1	1.4	0.3	0.5	1.3	0.1	4.0
Vietnam	0.1	1.3	–	0.9	1.2	0.1	0.2	0.4	–	3.6
Other	**–**	**0.1**	**–**	**0.1**	**0.2**	**–**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**–**	**0.9**

1. Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad by parents who have either foreign citizenship or are also born abroad.
Source: Danmarks Statistik.

As a result of the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam on 1 May 1999, the European Community now possesses considerable powers regarding the right to asylum, immigration and external border controls. Once the European parliament has been consulted, the Community regulations will be adopted by the Council unanimously. Thereafter, these issues will come within the jurisdiction of the Court of Justice. However, by virtue of a Protocol concerning it contained in an Annex to the Treaty, Denmark will be able to decide on a case-by-case basis whether or not to adopt measures which develop the *Acquis* Schengen.

FINLAND

Introduction

In 1998, Finland's economy continued to grow steadily, with GDP rising by some 5.6%. It was the fifth consecutive year of strong growth. Employment naturally benefited from the healthy economic conditions and unemployment fell back by more than a percentage point, though it is still over 11% (*i.e.* comparable to the levels in Germany and France).

Trends in migration in 1998 show increases in both immigration and emigration. The rise in the latter was more marked, however, so that the net migration gain fell slightly between 1997 (3 700) and 1998 (3 370). Over eight years, the foreign population in Finland has risen threefold and more.

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1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

As mentioned above, emigration had a significant impact on migration trends in 1998. Some 10 800 people left Finland, 9.7% more than in the previous year. Of these emigrants, 9 100 were Finns and 1 700 other nationals.

Although the numbers of Finns returning increased (1997: 5 400; 1998: 5 850), the net migration loss in this group is still considerable and is rising in absolute numbers.

During the 1990s, Finns moved chiefly to Sweden (over 2 500 a year, or between 30 and 50% of departures). In 1998, 2 900 emigrated to Sweden (+5% over 1997), 1 300 to Norway (+35%), 670 to Spain (+27%) and 660 to the United Kingdom (+25%). Other destinations include Germany, the United States, Denmark and Belgium, though the figures are much lower. Over 78% of Finnish emigrants went to other Nordic countries and the European Union. Movements to Belgium may reflect the mobility of managers following Finland's EU accession, while movements to Spain appear largely to concern retired people.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and foreign-born persons

Immigration increased in 1998, but at a more moderate pace than in earlier years. Entries totalled 8 340, an increase of 2.4% between 1997 and 1998 (+8% between 1996 and 1997). Except for 1996, outflows of foreigners have been relatively stable since the start of the decade. They rose slightly in 1998 since 1 700 foreigners left Finland (+7% over 1997). The migration gain for the foreign population rose marginally between 1997 (6 565) and 1998 (6 650) (see Table III.13).

According to Statistics Finland, immigration is estimated to have risen by 2% in the first six months of 1999 over the previous year, while emigration rose by 28%.

As was the case in the previous four years, the largest inflows were from Russia (1998: 2 500), followed by Sweden and Estonia. These three groups alone represented 47.5% of total immigration (45.3% in 1997). Around 25% of foreigners who officially left Finland in 1998 were Swedes, reflecting the recent upturn in the Swedish economy. In 1998, outflows of Russian, United States and United Kingdom nationals fell appreciably, while slightly more Estonians left Finland.

Asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications in Finland has fluctuated substantially over the last ten years. Prior to 1990, there were at most a few dozen claims each year. Between 1990 and 1993, some 2 000 applications were filed a year, the number then falling back to under 1 000. In 1998, asylum applications again rose, to 1 270 against 970 in 1997.

In the first half of 1999, the number of applications was 700 greater than for the whole of 1998. The reason lies in an exceptional inflow of Slovak asylum seekers (1 208 in the first six months of 1999).

In 1998, the largest number of applications were from nationals of the former Yugoslavia, followed by Somalis. A little under 100 asylum seekers were from Turkey and Iraq. The Ministry of the Interior issued rulings on 866 applications, of which 27.7% were rejected. The proportion of refusals was down by nearly 10% on the previous year.

The Finnish Parliament establishes a quota every year for the attribution of refugee status. It was set at 600 in 1998 (650 in 1999). However, only 124 people were admitted to Finland on these grounds in 1998 and 307 additional refugees were accepted on family reunion grounds. In all, 958 people obtained refugee status, some 32% down on 1997 and one of the lowest levels this decade. Virtually all refugees in 1998 were from Africa (349) or the Middle East (482). The main nationalities are Iraqis (323), Somalis (256), Iranians (142) and Yugoslavs (55).

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Table III.13. **Current figures on flows and stocks of the foreign population in Finland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Inflows by main nationality	**12.2**	**13.3**	**13.6**	**14.2**
Nationals	4.9	5.8	5.4	5.9
Foreigners	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3
of which:				
Former USSR[1]	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5
Estonia[1]	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7
Sweden	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Net migration by main nationality	**3.3**	**2.7**	**3.7**	**3.4**
Nationals	–2.6	–1.8	–2.9	–3.3
Foreigners	5.8	4.5	6.6	6.7
of which:				
Former USSR	1.7	1.6	2.3	2.4
Estonia	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.5
Sweden	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.8
Asylum seekers	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3
Foreign population by main nationality[2]	**68.6**	**73.8**	**80.6**	**85.0**
Former USSR[1]	15.9	17.0	19.0	20.5
Estonia[1]	8.4	9.0	9.7	10.3
Sweden	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.8
Somalia	4.0	4.6	5.2	5.4
Acquisition of nationality by former nationality	**0.7**	**1.0**	**1.4**	**4.0**
Former USSR	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.8
Somalia	–	–	–	0.5
Vietnam	–	0.1	0.2	0.4
Other countries	0.6	0.7	0.9	2.3
Mixed marriages	**2.1**	**2.4**	**2.4**	**2.6**
% of total marriages	8.8	. .	. .	. .

1. A great part of the Russians and of the Estonians have Finnish origins.
2. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 30 September of the years indicated.

Source: Statistics Finland.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Foreign or immigrant population

At 31 December 1998, some 85 000 foreigners were resident in Finland, an increase of nearly 6%, or 4 500, over the previous year. The proportion of foreigners in the total population is still extremely small, however, at just 1.6%.

Detailed analysis of trends in the foreign population between 1997 and 1998 shows 8 340 new immigrants, some 1 700 emigrants, 1 340 children born to parents of foreign origin, some 300 deaths and 4 000 naturalisations. But the breakdown conceals substantial differences by nationality. While a total of over 5 000 Somalis have been born in Finland, fewer than 500 obtained Finnish nationality. Conversely, 550 Vietnamese were naturalised, whereas there have been just 450 children born to parents of Vietnamese origin.

The largest group of foreigners in 1998 was certainly the Russians, followed by the Estonian and Swedish communities. These three nationalities represent 47% of the total foreign population (the same as their proportion of total immigration in 1998) (see Table III.13). The number of European Union nationals settling in Finland increased by some 6%, in the same proportion as the total number of foreigners between 1997 and 1998.

Naturalisations

In 1998, a little over 4 000 people obtained Finnish citizenship (only 25 of them were born in Finland). Since 1997, when fewer than 1 500 applications were accepted, naturalisations have thus risen almost

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threefold. Nationals of the former Soviet Union still accounted for the largest share of naturalisations (20%), followed by Somalis (11.8%) and Vietnamese (9.5%) (see Table III.13). Between 1995 and 1998, the proportion of European nationals in all naturalisations has fallen substantially, from 50 to 31%.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Foreigners migrate to Finland as refugees and asylum seekers rather than to find work. This explains to some extent the high rate of unemployment among foreigners from countries other than the United States, Canada or European Union members.

At the end of 1998, people of working age accounted for 73% of the foreign population, compared with 67% for nationals. The most recent data on labour force participation rates date back to 1997, when the participation rate for foreigners was 56%, compared with 71% for nationals.

In December 1998, 13 800 foreigners were seeking jobs, an unemployment rate close on 40% (1996: 45.6%; 1997: 42.1%). At the same time, around 10% of Finns were without work. The breakdown by nationality underscores the scale of the problem for some ethnic groups, such as Iraqis, Vietnamese, nationals of Bosnia-Herzegovina and Iranians. Over 70% of the members of these communities were unemployed at the end of 1998. The position has in fact worsened markedly since 1996 for Iraqis, who are virtually all unemployed. But the largest numbers of unemployed are among Russians and Estonians, 4 600 and 1 690 respectively in 1998.

The particularly stark picture which has just been drawn of foreign employment in Finland needs to be qualified, however. There is a requirement for refugees to register as job-seekers in order to receive training and certain benefits. They are not capable of holding down a job in Finland, however, since they do not speak Finnish.

There are no reliable statistics on foreigners in temporary employment in Finland, with the exception of trainees. In practice there are few temporary workers, and most of them are employed by foreign firms established in Finland. Estonians and Russians are employed to harvest the raspberry crop, on a seasonal basis. Unemployment in Finland is still too high, in any case, to warrant intensive recourse to outside labour.

4. Policy developments

The Finnish Government approved a programme relating to its policy on immigration and refugees in October 1997. The Ministry of the Interior is responsible for immigration controls and security, together with the issue of residence permits, while the Ministry of Labour, in co-operation with the Ministry of Education, has responsibility for preventing all forms of racism and ethnic discrimination.

New measures concerning integration

New legislation on integration and asylum came into effect in May 1999. The aim is to assist the integration of immigrants and to promote equal opportunity and freedom of choice through the acquisition of knowledge and skills. The Act further guarantees minimum support and access to health care.

The asylum procedure has not been significantly amended, however. The most significant change concerns the regulatory procedure, which is now defined by law rather than by government order.

Development, monitoring and co-ordination of immigrant integration is now to be overseen by the Ministry of Labour. At regional level, the employment and economic development centres are responsible for integrating immigrants into society and the labour market. At local level, municipal authorities are bound to draw up individualised integration programmes in conjunction with the relevant government bodies. All immigrants resident in Finland must be covered by an integration programme.

To qualify for an integration programme, immigrants must be looking for work or receiving benefit. Eligibility runs for three years from the start of residence in the area.

During the integration programme, immigrants receive a subsistence allowance, which may be cut by 20% if individuals refuse to take part in activities under the programme. In the event of persistent refusal, 40% of the allowance may be withheld.

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FRANCE

Introduction

The analysis of recent migration movements and policies in France reveals that flow control and the integration of immigrants are still among the key objectives of migration policy. It is still too early to assess the impact, in terms of flows and stocks or on migration policy, of the major legislative changes which took place in 1998. These concerned, on the one hand, the conditions for entry and residence and the right to asylum (Law of 11 May 1998) and, on the other, the conditions for acquiring French nationality (Law of 16 March 1998). The substantial increase in the number of foreigners entering in 1999 may be regarded as due largely to the initial outcome of the regularisation programme which was run from 1997 to June 1998.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Permanent immigration

Permanent immigration (*i.e.* for which residence permits valid for one year or over are issued) is composed mainly of family immigration (see below), "visitors", and workers (see Section 3, *Migration and the labour market*).

The downward trend in permanent entries observed since 1994 had been reversed in 1997 (see Table III.14). In 1998, permanent immigrants totalled 138 000, including 24 500 nationals of the European Economic Area (EEA) and 113 500 nationals of other countries (compared with 78 000 in 1997, of whom 19 000 were regularised), an increase of 45%. These figures mark a new stage in the rise in entries, consecutive to that of 1997 and in contrast with the falls observed between 1993 and 1996. The number of entries for 1998 was the highest since 1990 (when the method of calculating entries was altered) and concerns nationals of non-EEA countries alone; since 1995, inflows of EEA nationals have remained steady at between 24 000 and 25 000.

The substantial increase in the number of entries in 1998 primarily reflects the impact of the review of the situation of certain categories of foreigners who lack the required residence documents. Among the non-EEA nationals, some 51 000 were regularised under the programme approved in June 1997. According to the data from the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) following medical examinations, around 69 800 people were regularised between the start of the review programme in June 1997 and 31 December 1998, this figure being the total of those counted individually and those included as family members. For 1998, the 45 800 people "counted individually" share several significant characteristics, similar to those for 1997. Family members predominate within this group, as follows naturally from the criteria set out in the Ministerial Circular of 24 June 1997 dealing with the regularisation programme (*cf. Trends in International Migration* 1999, p. 139). Regions of origin are unevenly represented, with Africa accounting for 72% of the overall flow, Asia for 20% and the other continents 8%. Last, just five nationalities account for half the flow recorded in 1998 (Algerian, Moroccan, Chinese, Malian and former Zaire).

The disaggregation by main reasons for admission shows that, more than ever before, family reunion is the chief reason for immigration, and that employment is becoming less and less significant, now systematically less than the arrival of "visitors". The "visitors" category, which was redefined in 1997, consists of persons who have been granted a temporary residence card (valid for a one-year period and renewable) as researchers or university teachers, members of artistic or cultural professions, or for reasons related to private and family life. Around 30% of foreigners in the visitor category are spouses of French citizens, and hence are in fact entries of family members. Entries under the visitor category totalled nearly 17 000 in 1998. African nationals accounted for 51% of "visitors", Asian nationals 19%, nationals of the Americas 15% and nationals of non-EU Europe (including the former Soviet Union) 14%.

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Table III.14. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, France**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Permanent immigration				
Registered flows by category				
Family reunification (broadly defined)	31.6	30.4	31.1	38.3
Family members of French nationals	16.5	15.6	14.4	15.6
Family members of foreigners	14.4	13.9	15.5	21.7
Family members of refugees	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.0
Workers	14.1	11.9	11.7	11.6
Wage earners	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3
Self-employed	1.0	0.5	0.7	1.3
Visitors	6.4	8.9	15.1	16.9
Refugees	4.7	4.3	4.1	4.3
Regularisation of foreigners in an irregular situation	–	–	18.9	45.8
Total	**56.7**	**55.6**	**62.0**	**116.9**
of which: EEA	7.9	7.2	6.4	6.2
Estimated flows by main category [1]				
Visitors	2.4	7.5	7.8	8.2
Family members of foreigners	4.3	6.5	8.5	8.0
Other	5.0	4.4	5.2	5.0
Total	**11.6**	**18.4**	**21.5**	**21.2**
of which: EEA	8.2	15.4	17.9	18.4
Total registered and estimated flows	**68.3**	**74.0**	**83.5**	**138.1**
Temporary immigration by category				
Asylum seekers	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4
Students	15.1	16.0	19.2	23.5
Holders of a provisional work permit[2]	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3
Trainees	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5
Total	**40.4**	**38.7**	**45.8**	**50.7**

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Readmissions[3]	. .	. .	**3.7**	**12.5**
Registered outflows of foreigners[4]				
Expulsions	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.7
Actual removals to the borders	10.1	11.6	9.2	7.2
Assisted departures	1.6	1.6	1.0	1.7
Foreigners involved in an assisted departure procedure by category (Cumulated figures since 1984)	. .	. .	**73.4**	**73.6**
of which: Workers[5]	. .	. .	32.7	32.9
Acquisition of French nationality				
Legal procedures	40.9	58.1	60.5	58.1
of which: Naturalisation	24.7	34.7	35.7	34.7
Declarations	21.0	21.9	23.2	23.8
of which: Decision following a wedding	16.7	19.1	20.8	22.1
Declaration of becoming French[6]	30.5	29.8	32.5	25.5
Total	**92.4**	**109.8**	**116.2**	**122.3**
Mixed marriages	23.8	24.0	. .	. .
% *of total marriages*	9.4	9.6	. .	. .
Stocks of foreigners aged 15 and over according to work status[7]				
Total foreign population	2 803	2 836	2 818	2 875
Labour force	1 573	1 605	1 570	1 587
of which: employment	1 232	1 217	1 205	1 211
Participation rate (%)	56.1	56.6	55.7	55.2
Unemployment rate (%)	21.7	24.2	23.2	23.7

1. Estimates made by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of residence permits issued.
2. Provisional work permits (APT) are granted for a 9 month period and are renewable.
3. Readmissions undertaken within the framework of international agreements.
4. In the absence of a population register, the only available data on the departures of foreigners are those which are due to administrative decisions and judicial orders concerning expulsions, removals of illegal immigrants to the border and voluntary departures assisted by the State.
5. The others are accompanying dependents of workers involved in an assisted departure procedure.
6. People born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.
7. In March of the year indicated.

Sources: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides (OFPRA); Ministry of the Interior; Labour Force Survey.

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Temporary immigration and seasonal immigration

Temporary entries mainly consist of foreigners who are granted an initial residence card valid for less than a year, and students. Since the mid-1990s, the category of provisional work permit holders (APT permits, valid for a maximum of nine months and renewable) includes, between 10 and 15% depending on the year, Brazilian gold panners living in Guyana. For metropolitan France, the annual numbers of APT holders have ranged between 4 000 and 4 800 a year since 1994 (4 300 in 1998). This workforce has high skill levels, as a rule, and is around 30% female. Most of these permit holders come from North America, Europe (Poland and Russia), and then from Africa (in particular the Maghreb countries) and Asia (China, Japan).

The previous year's rise in the number of students continued in 1998, from all areas of origin. Nearly 23 500 students from non-EU countries entered France in that year. At the same time, between 14 and 15 000 residence cards are issued every year to EEA students, mostly German and British, followed by Spanish and Italian students. Women regularly account for over 50% of foreign students, but the proportion for 1998 was slightly down on the two earlier years (55%, as against 57 and 56%). These proportions vary substantially by continent of origin: 66%, 64% and 60% respectively for Europe, the Americas and Asia, and 40% for Africa (37.5% for Morocco).

The number of seasonal workers has been falling steadily since 1992 and totalled 7 500 in 1998, down 8% on the previous year. The fall concerns both agricultural employees and seasonal workers in industry and commerce. It primarily concerns Polish nationals, who provide 34% of this workforce, and then Moroccans (54%).

Departures from France

In France, the only departures recorded are those prompted by administrative action, *i.e.* forced departures and assisted departures. All other types, termed spontaneous departures, go unrecorded since no population registers are kept. Therefore, no annual migration balance can be established, except very approximately.

Forced departures cover expulsions, removals to the frontier and readmission under international conventions. In 1998, the number of expulsions (900 in 1997) fell again by some 30% to 650. After the fall observed in 1997 following the introduction of the regularisation programme, the number of removals ordered by courts returned in 1998 to the average level observed since the start of the decade (around 44 000 a year). But the number of actual removals to the frontier continued to decline (from 9 200 in 1997 to 7 200 in 1998), bringing the actual enforcement rate to little over 27%. Last, a sharp increase brought the number of readmission recorded in 1998 to over 12 500 (as against 3 700 in 1997), either under the Schengen Agreements or other international conventions. Nearly all the readmission orders are enforced.

Illegal immigration

In June 1997, the French Government decided to implement a regularisation programme for foreigners who did not possess the required papers. This operation was concluded at the end of 1998 and 74 000 of the 143 000 applications were accepted, according to data based on IOM medical examinations as available at 30 June 1999. A significant number of those accepted are family members in the broad sense (including 10 000 spouses of documented foreigners, 10 000 adult members of long-established foreign families and 19 000 parents of children born in France). It should also be noted that the bulk of applicants and of those regularised were nationals of African countries.

The largest number of applicants were Moroccans, Algerians and Malians, followed by Congolese (nationals of the Democratic Republic of the Congo) and Chinese, and then Tunisians, Turks, Senegalese and Congolese (nationals of the Republic of the Congo), and lastly Sri Lankans, Filipinos and Pakistanis.

There are considerable disparities in the regularisation rates for each nationality. During the operation, it came to light that most of the foreigners who were regularised belonged to the better-off social categories with relatively high employment rates in their country of origin, rather than to the poorest classes of the population. Moreover, most applicants for regularisation had entered France legally.

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Box III.3. Assisted departures

Assisted departures take two main forms: government aid for the resettlement of certain wage-earners and job-seekers, and aid for the resettlement of foreigners who are instructed to leave the country.

Government aid for the resettlement of workers and job-seekers plays an extremely modest role, confirmed by the figures for 1998, the lowest to date. During the year, 21 conventions were signed (26% down on 1997) and fewer than 200 people (including family members) left France, as against around 300 in 1997.

The resettlement of foreigners instructed to leave France is based on two schemes, one established in 1991 and still in force, and the other introduced in January 1998. Information on the application of the 1991 scheme, as yet fragmentary for 1998, shows an attenuation of its effects: the number of people involved (887) was 12% down on 1997. As in 1997, final rejection of applications for asylum triggers 85% of the requests for resettlement aid.

On similar lines to this general scheme, a further measure was introduced in January 1998. It is also based on the policy of resettlement and co-development which France set out in that year. The policy rests on two distinct schemes: resettlement aid, and a resettlement contract in the country of origin. Psychological help as well as administrative, material and financial assistance are provided in France prior to departure. France also makes available a resettlement subsidy and aid for small business start-up projects upon the migrants' arrival in their country of origin.

The resettlement aid is only for those who were unable to obtain the required papers under the 1997 regularisation programme and are required to leave France. According to early information for 1998, the IOM received over 35 000 individual reports from *prefectures* and received 842 completed applications. Around 630 people, including family members, have returned to their country of origin. They include 567 applicants for the supplementary assisted resettlement programme, of whom 56% were nationals of African countries (chiefly Algeria and Mali).

The resettlement contract in the country of origin is currently offered to nationals of Mali, Morocco and Senegal who are asked to leave France. This contract entitles them to training in France, followed by additional training in their country of origin upon their return. The IOM has generally observed that six months after their return the individuals have succeeded in resettling; such success may be followed by a recommendation from the IOM that they be issued with a visa enabling them to travel between their country of origin and France.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After six years of steadily declining numbers of refugees (between 1992 and 1997), the 1998 figures show a halt in the trend: over 4 300 people were granted refugee status, as against 4 100 in 1997, an increase of 4.9%.

Calculated on the number of decisions taken by the *Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides* (OFPRA) and the appeals board, some 22 500 in 1998, the acceptance rate was slightly over 19%. This average figure can vary by a factor of 4 (under 8% for Europe, 29% for Asia). It may be noted that appeals and reviews of applications which occur outside the twelve-month period tend to push these figures up.

Of persons granted refugee status in 1998, 66% were of Asian origin (around 2 600), the bulk being nationals of Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam, and then Sri Lanka, Turkey and Iraq. Fewer than a thousand were from Africa (23%). Europe (including the former Soviet Union) takes third place, having increased by 25% in 1998. Last, Central and South America contribute under 2% to the total flow of certified refugees, with the majority being Haitians.

The increase in the number of asylum applications which took place in 1997, reversing the trend observed since 1990, continued in 1998: having received nearly 21 400 applications in 1997, OFPRA received over 22 400 in 1998. The overall increase in 1998 does not reflect substantial variations which have appreciably altered the geographical breakdown. Europe and Africa show the greatest changes (down 28% and up 38% respectively). Other regions of origin all show increases: Asia (China, Turkey and Sri Lanka), Central and South America (Haiti) and the former Soviet Union. The ranking of areas of origin has thus changed significantly over 1997: Asia is again in first place with 41% of the total, Europe (including the former Soviet Union) and Africa are on a

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similar footing (28.5 to 29% of the total) and Central and South America have doubled their numbers, boosting the already predominant role of Haitians, who account for over two-thirds of the applications from this region.

In 1998, OFPRA examined 25 000 applications, and the "automatic" refusal rate was 80.5%. It is over 90% for applications from European nationals, and 78% for African nationals, the lowest figure for over ten years. Two factors need to be borne in mind here: first, the "revised" refusal rate (after completion of the appeals procedures) is always several percentage points lower than the "automatic" rate and, second, no allowance is made for unsuccessful asylum applicants who subsequently obtain the papers required to remain in France.

Family reunion

Family reunion (in the broad meaning of the term under French law) is still the main reason for permanent entry into France, well ahead of inflows of permanent workers, both wage-earners and self-employed. Total inflows under this category were over 38 300 in 1998, as compared with 31 000 in 1997. Two-thirds of spouses admitted on family reunion grounds or as members of a French family are of African origin, and 70% of those joining a refugee or stateless person are of Asian origin.

The number of people admitted as family members of foreigners (family reunion in the strict meaning of the term under French law) rose from 15 500 in 1997 to 21 700 in 1998. The regularisation programme was a key factor in this sharp increase of over 40%: 80% of the increase in 1998 was comprised of people who had entered the country in 1998. This particular circumstance doubled the rate of admission for residents, in other words the proportion of family reunion entrants who did not come in from abroad (30% in 1998), but has very little effect on the size of families measured on entry (1.56 persons per application in 1998 as against 1.53 in 1997). Morocco, Algeria and the sub-Saharan countries strengthened the predominance of Africa (69% in 1998 as compared with 60% in 1997). Asia's share fell from 26 to 20%, this despite an increase in the number of spouses and children. The share of those from the Americas and non-EU Europe (including the former Soviet Union) have fallen (to respectively 7% and 4% of the total inflow).

The number of family members of French nationals entering France was 15 500 in 1998, as compared with 14 500 in 1997. Spouses were most numerous (over 80% of the total), followed by the parents of French children (approximately 10%) and ascendants and children of French citizens. Algeria and Turkey account for the bulk of the increase, and Africa continues to predominate with two-thirds of admissions.

The number of family members of refugees and stateless persons was less than 1 000 in 1998, of whom nearly 70% were spouses. Asia continues to be the main continent of origin, on account of the Turks and Sri Lankans.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Trends in the foreign population

France, as a whole, has a low rate of demographic growth, the principal component of which is the natural increase. The foreign population accounts for less than 7% of the total population. Every year, naturalisations reduce the foreign population and increase the French population correspondingly. In 1996, a total of just under 735 000 births were recorded: of these, 6% were to two foreign parents and 5.8% to one foreign parent. The proportion of foreign births in total births was higher in 1996 than the proportion of foreigners in the total population (approximately one and a half times more). The net migration balance for that year (40 000) accounted for nearly 17% of France's total population growth.

Acquisition of French nationality

Taking all procedures together on the two statutory bases (Law of 22 July 1993 for the first eight months of the year, then the Law of 16 March 1998), it is estimated that between 122 000 and 123 500 foreigners acquired French nationality in 1998. Adding to these the grants of French nationality at birth to children born in France of foreign parents, estimated at 5 500 in 1998, the number of persons who acquired or were granted French nationality totalled around 128 000.

Approximately 58 000 of these acquisitions were made by decisions of the public authorities, including 51 000 naturalisations and 7 000 restorations of nationality by decree. Marriage to a French national gave rise

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to 35 000 acquisitions by declaration, and it is estimated that 11 000 13-18 year olds born and resident in France made use of the acquisition procedure by way of declaration which came into effect on 1 September 1998. The formal statement procedure available under the 1993 Act (which ceased to have effect on 31 August 1998) was used by 25 500 people aged between 16 and 21. Finally, 4 000 acquisitions were granted automatically under the transitional provisions of the 1998 Law; this was used by children born in France of foreign parents who attained the age of majority between 1 September and 31 December 1998.

Over a ten-year period (1989-98), the proportion of women among those acquiring French nationality by declaration has increased from 40 to 47%, indicating that increasing numbers of foreign spouses are women. Over 85% of acquisitions by formal statement were from nationals of four countries: Morocco (36%), Portugal (28%), Tunisia and Turkey. Moroccans, Tunisians and Turks are also the leading groups of those who obtain French nationality by decree. Finally, declarations of nationality were mainly made by Algerians (17.5%) and Moroccans (12%), followed by Portuguese and Tunisians.

Mixed marriages

After peaking during 1990-92 (an annual average of 31 500), the number of mixed marriages then fell significantly, rising again from 1994 onwards (+3% on a cumulative basis between 1994 and 1996); there were some 24 000 mixed marriages in 1996. This increase is largely one of marriages between French women and foreign men. The disaggregation of foreign spouses by nationality has been relatively stable, and the number of marriages between French citizens and nationals of African countries, particularly those of the Maghreb, continues to grow.

Schooling of migrants' children

The schooling of migrants' children represents a key element in France's integration policies. At the beginning of the 1997 school year, some 11.9 million pupils were enrolled in the primary and secondary schools of Metropolitan France, of whom 739 000 were of foreign nationality, *i.e.* 6.2% of the total (see Table III.15). This is nearly 190 000 fewer than during the 1994-95 school year. This decline has occurred at all levels of the system. By nationality, the number of pupils varies according to a number of factors, such as the dominant trends of migration flows, birth rates, geographical patterns of departures and acquisitions of nationality. In absolute terms, Moroccan pupils are still the largest group (slightly less than 200 000), followed by Algerians (110 000), Portuguese (84 000), sub-Saharan Africans (80 000) and Turks (76 000).

Table III.15. **Foreign pupils attending public and private schools,[1] France**
Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

School year	Primary level	Secondary level			Total
	Pre-primary and primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Special education	
1994-95	551.8	228.5	130.0	16.8	927.1
1996-97	. .	199.3	122.4	14.8	. .
1997-98	424.8	183.2	118.5	12.3	738.9
1998-99	395.0	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of foreign pupils in all pupils					
1994-95	8.4	7.0	6.0	15.3	7.6
1996-97	. .	6.2	5.6	12.6	. .
1997-98	6.7	5.7	5.4	11.6	6.2
1998-99	6.2	. .	. .	. .	. .

1. On the assumption that the pupils' nationalities have been recorded on the same basis across all levels of the system and across the public and private sectors.

Sources: Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, DPD.

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3. Migration and the labour market

Labour migration and work permits

The inflow of permanent workers from non-EU countries totalled 5 400 in 1998 (a little over 4 100 wage-earners and a little under 1 300 self-employed). The inflow of permanent wage-earners has never been so low. Around two-thirds were regularised, the proportions vary appreciably from one continent or country to another (37% for the Americas, 92% for Africa). Six countries accounted for nearly half: the United States, Algeria, Morocco, Japan, Lebanon and Canada.

The proportion of women fell back after increasing in the two previous years (under 30% in 1998, as compared with 31.5% in 1996 and 32.5% in 1997). The service sector accounted for over 80%, chiefly due to expansion in the property, rentals and business services sector (over 32% in 1998, against 26% in 1997). The rising level of qualifications of new wage-earners, who for example included 60% technicians, engineers or managers in 1998 as compared with 50% in 1997, has had no effect on disparities in the skill levels by nationality. The virtual doubling in one year of the number of self-employed has been almost identical in Metropolitan France and some overseas *départements* such as Guadeloupe and Guyane, but no data is at present available on occupational breakdown.

According to IOM data, a little over 6 100 permanent workers arrived from the EEA in 1998, a fall on the previous two years. The further decline, of around 4%, primarily affects recruitment of Portuguese (–16%) and Italians (–4%). Conversely, the number of nationals of the United Kingdom (+14%) and Spain (+9%) rose. The proportion of women fell slightly in 1998, to average 37%.

At the same time, the continuing fall in the inflows of EEA nationals has not changed their economic profile, either in relation to their distribution by sector of activity or in relation to occupational skills. These EEA nationals continue to work largely in the tertiary sector. Skill levels vary appreciably by nationality. For 1998, 36% of incoming workers had little or no qualifications, the figure largely resulting from the make-up of Portuguese labour: nearly 65% of Portuguese workers are unskilled, and Portuguese labour accounts for over 80% of hiring in the farm and construction sectors, whereas it is little more than 15% in property and business services.

Foreign labour force

According to the January 1999 Labour Force Survey, the foreign labour force, in employment or not, numbers around 1.6 million, accounting for 6.2% of the total labour force (the percentage has been in decline over the past twenty years). A little over three-quarters (77% in 1999) are in employment, and 365 000 are unemployed. Of the employed, the numbers and proportions of wage-earners have fallen steadily since 1996, but the most recent figures indicate a 3% rise in the number of wage-earners. Having previously increased, the proportion of women remained constant in 1999: as in 1998 women accounted for 37% of the foreign labour force, less than 36% of those in employment and over 41% of the unemployed.

The tertiary sector is the main employer of foreign wage-earners (62% of the total), followed by manufacturing (21%), construction (15%) and agriculture. Women account for close to two-thirds, or more, in three sectors: real estate activities (around 75%), personal services (67%) and education, health and social welfare (64%).

Unemployment of foreigners

The unemployment rate among foreigners has fallen slightly, from 23.7% in 1998 to a little under 22.9% in 1999, while the overall unemployment rate held steady (11.8%) and unemployment among French citizens was 11%. In 1999, unemployment was 10.4% for EU nationals and 30.3% for non-EU nationals. Foreign nationals accounted for 12% of those unemployed in 1999 against 12.3% in 1998. In the category of unemployed who have never been in employment, a substantial proportion are women: 69% of first-time foreign job-seekers are women, whereas the figure is just 54% for French nationals.

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Labour market integration

Major programmes for vocational training and for labour market access for young people and the unemployed comprise the essential elements of the policies aimed at promoting migrants' entry to the labour market. The integration of immigrants in urban areas is also of concern to policymakers at local and national levels. Significant measures have been taken in France over the past two years to improve housing and working conditions in certain distressed urban areas and to improve the quality of transport and the availability of public services, which are key factors for urban development.

In 1997, foreigners accounted for 8.4% of the participants in training programmes for employment subsidy schemes. The proportion of foreign women participating in these various schemes was almost the same as that of foreign men, all nationalities combined, and was in fact higher in work experience and training schemes (15% as against 12%). Discrepancies remain in the proportion of foreign participation according to the type of aid measure: when a scheme prepares participants directly for employment (as in apprenticeships) it is around 3%, while in ordinary training programmes it is over 12%.

4. Policy developments

The June 1997 regularisation programme: a provisional assessment

In June 1997 it was decided to carry out a programme to regularise certain categories of foreign nationals. This programme ended in May 1998. The operation was aimed primarily at regularising the unlawful status, with regard to their entry or residence, of people married to French citizens, of foreigners having entered France legally outside the family reunion procedure, of the spouses of refugees, and of long-established foreign families. It also applied to certain categories of children who had entered France outside the family reunion procedure and, under certain conditions, other clearly specified categories of foreigners (foreigners with no family responsibilities, foreigners who were seriously ill, students pursuing higher-level studies and people refused asylum). According to the most recent available information, around 143 000 applications were received. Nearly 19 000 applications were approved in 1997, and nearly 51 000 in 1998. At 30 June 1999, the IOM, following the medical examinations which it conducts, reported that over 74 000 had received residence permits. Most of these permits (around 85%) were granted on family-related grounds.

International dimension of immigration policy

In March 1999, France ratified the Amsterdam Treaty amending the Treaty on European Union, signed on 2 October 1997. The Constitution first had to be revised, as the Constitutional Council had stated during its review of the Treaty. In particular, the revision authorised France to transfer powers relating to the free movement of persons and connected areas. The Amsterdam Treaty, ratified by all European Union Member States, came into force on 1 May 1999 (see *Overview of Migration Policies* above).

In May 1999, a law was passed concerning the accession of Denmark, Finland and Sweden to the Convention applying the Schengen Agreements, and a further law on the co-operation Accord between Schengen Member States and Iceland and Norway. The latter Accord was signed in June 1999 to take account of amendments flowing from the Amsterdam Treaty, and in particular the clauses which provide for the integration of the Schengen Agreements into European Union law.

Domestic dimension of immigration policy

The French Government, taking note of the existence and spread of discrimination against foreigners and those of foreign origin, has decided to adopt measures to curb such discrimination, whether in everyday life or in access to employment, and organised a broad public meeting, *Assises de la citoyenneté*, in March 2000.

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GERMANY

Introduction

In 1998, for the first time since German reunification, the decline in the volume of employment halted. At the same time unemployment fell back across Germany, in the old and new *Länder* alike. Unemployment for the whole country stood at 11.1%.

For the third consecutive year, inflows of foreigners slowed and the migration balance was negative, a new feature since 1997 attributable to Bosnians returning home in large numbers. As a result, the proportion of foreigners in the total population declined slightly.

With regard to migration policy, the government continues to place emphasis on the economic and cultural integration of foreigners. From that standpoint the new Nationality Code, which came into effect on 1 January 2000, relaxes the procedure for the naturalisation of foreigners with a long period of residence in Germany.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

German reunification and the opening of frontiers in Eastern Europe in 1989 led to a massive inflow of ethnic Germans (*Aussiedler*). From 400 000 in 1990, the flows fell back quickly to 200 000 immigrants each year between 1991 and 1995 and 103 000 in 1998. The very great majority come from the former Soviet Union.

Migration flows of foreigners

For the second consecutive year and more significantly in 1998, the migration balance for the foreign population was negative, chiefly on account of Bosnians returning home (over 100 000 departures recorded in 1998) (see Table III.16 and Chart III.9). Poles continue to form the chief group of immigrants, though their number has trended downwards since 1995. Then come nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (including Kosovo), whose flows virtually doubled between 1997 and 1998, from 31 200 to 59 800.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Following government measures introduced in 1993, the number of applications fell fourfold between 1992 and 1994. Of the 98 650 claims filed in 1998, over 35% were by people from the former Yugoslavia (chiefly Kosovars) and 12% by Turks (who, the previous year, had been the principal group of asylum seekers).

There exists in Germany moreover a humanitarian programme for the temporary reception of nationals from countries in crisis (particularly in South-East Asia, South America and the former Yugoslavia). The majority of Bosnians accepted by Germany under this programme have now returned home. When return becomes possible, the Federal Government provides financial support to refugees and offers resettlement programmes in their countries of origin. Bilateral agreements have already been signed with Turkey, Chile, Vietnam, Slovenia, Croatia, Macedonia, Albania and the Palestine Authority.

Illegal immigration

The only data available on illegal immigration are the figures for foreigners arrested for illegal entry to Germany. In 1998, 40 200 foreigners were intercepted, 14.2% more than the previous year. While illegal flows have actually increased, stronger border controls have also helped to raise the figures. The largest numbers of attempted entries are at the Czech and Austrian borders, followed by the border with Poland. The migrants concerned, from a large number of Central and Eastern European countries, in particular the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (13%) and Romania (4%), but from Afghanistan (2.7%) as well, were in all probability largely being taken to Western Europe by smuggling networks, often highly organised.

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Table III.16. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Germany**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Components of population changes				
Total population (total change)	288.6	195.4	45.4	–20.3
Natural increase	–119.4	–86.8	–48.2	–67.3
Net migration	408.0	282.2	93.7	47.1
Germans (total change)[1]	288.1	256.5	245.5	163.1
Natural increase	–206.3	–179.7	–141.7	–153.6
Net migration	180.7	133.3	115.4	80.6
Acquisition of German nationality	313.6	302.8	271.8	236.1
Foreigners (total change)	0.6	–61.1	–200.0	–183.3
Natural increase	86.9	92.8	93.5	86.3
Net migration	227.2	148.9	–21.8	–33.5
Acquisition of German nationality	–313.6	–302.8	–271.8	–236.1
Migration of foreigners[2]				
***Inflows by nationality* (Top 5 *in* 1998)**	**788.3**	**708.0**	**615.3**	**605.5**
of which:				
Poland	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.3
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9
Turkey	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.2
Italy	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6
Russian Federation	33.0	31.9	24.8	28.4
***Net migration by nationality* (Top 5 *in* 1998)**	**227.2**	**148.9**	**–21.8**	**–33.5**
of which:				
Russian Federation	19.5	19.3	13.6	17.4
Hungary	6.8	–0.8	–2.7	7.1
Poland	16.5	5.7	1.0	5.5
Romania	–0.3	0.4	0.7	3.5
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	13.8	8.6	–13.3	1.4
Inflows of ethnic Germans from Central and Eastern Europe	**217.9**	**177.8**	**134.4**	**103.1**
of which:				
Former USSR	109.4	172.2	131.9	101.6
Romania	6.5	4.3	1.8	1.0
Poland	1.7	1.2	0.7	0.5
Inflows of asylum seekers	**127.9**	**116.4**	**104.4**	**98.6**
of which:				
Former Yugoslavia	26.2	18.1	14.8	35.0
Turkey	25.5	23.8	16.8	11.8
Iraq	6.9	10.8	14.1	7.4
Afghanistan	7.5	5.7	4.7	3.8
Stock of foreign population by duration of stay				
(31 December of the year indicated)[2]	**7 173.9**	**7 314.0**	**7 365.8**	**7 319.6**
Less than one year (%)	. .	5.6	5.2	5.2
1 year to less than 4 years (%)	. .	18.2	15.8	14.8
4 to less than 8 years (%)	. .	22.0	22.9	21.0
8 to less than 10 years (%)	. .	5.7	6.9	8.1
10 to less than 20 years (%)	. .	. .	19.2	19.9
20 years and more	. .	. .	30.0	31.1
Total (%)	. .	100.0	100.0	100.0
Acquisition of German nationality[3]	**313.6**	**302.8**	**271.8**	**236.1**

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Table III.16. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Germany** (*cont.*)

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Issuance of work permits for a first employment[4]	**470.0**	**440.0**	**451.0**	**402.6**
of which:				
Asylum seekers	40.3	21.3	24.8	. .
Contract workers	76.6	54.5	54.8	. .
By duration of stay in Germany				
Newly entered	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5
of which: Polish workers	181.6	180.8	205.6	. .
Not newly entered	199.2	177.5	165.6	127.0
By kind of permit[5]				
General permit	374.7	346.3	352.4	. .
Special permit	95.3	93.4	98.5	. .
Stock of employed foreign workers by economic activity (Western Germany)[6]	**2 155.9**	**2 084.7**	**2 017.9**	**. .**
Agriculture	25.3	27.3	26.5	. .
Energy, mining	24.0	21.9	20.0	. .
Manufacturing industry	863.6	823.1	791.7	. .
Construction	203.9	196.1	174.5	. .
Commerce	215.1	217.3	213.6	. .
Transport and communication	100.2	103.4	102.6	. .
Intermediary services	22.7	22.6	22.9	. .
Non-profit organisations, private households	33.2	35.5	582.2	. .
Regional authorities, Social Security	49.0	48.9	36.4	. .
Other services	562.3	588.6	47.5	. .
Not specified	56.6	0.1	0.1	. .
Contract workers (annual average)[7]	**49.4**	**45.8**	**38.5**	**33.0**
of which:				
Poland	24.5	24.4	21.1	16.9
Hungary	9.2	9.0	5.8	5.0
Croatia	4.5	4.4	3.6	2.8
Czech Republic	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.1
Turkey	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.1
Seasonal workers by nationality[8]	**192.0**	**220.9**	**226.0**	**201.6**
of which:				
Poland	170.6	196.3	202.2	182.0
Slovak Republic	5.4	6.3	6.4	4.9
Croatia	5.6	5.7	5.8	3.9
Romania	3.9	5.0	5.0	5.6
Hungary	2.8	3.5	3.6	2.8
Czech Republic	3.7	3.4	2.3	1.8
Unemployment (national definition)				
Total number of unemployed workers (Germany as a whole)	3 611.9	3 965.1	4 384.5	4 279.3
Total number of unemployed workers (western Germany)	2 564.9	2 796.2	3 020.9	. .
Unemployment rate (%) (*western Germany*)	9.3	10.1	11.0	. .
Total number of foreign unemployed workers (western Germany)	424.5	496.0	521.6	. .
Foreigners' unemployment rate (%) (*western Germany*)	16.6	18.9	20.4	. .

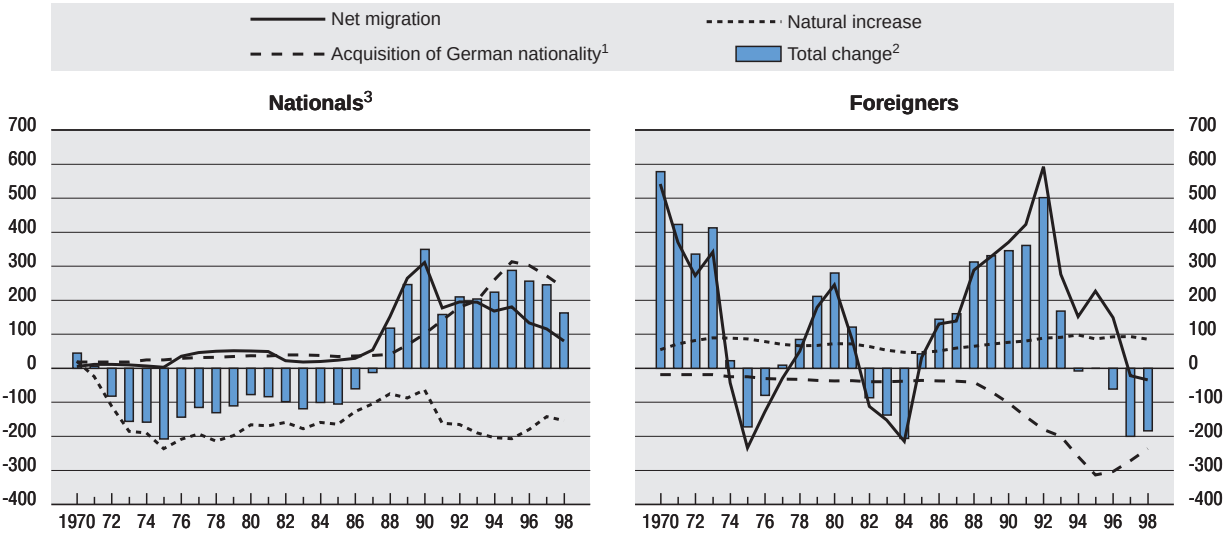
Note: The data cover Germany as a whole, unless otherwise indicated. Data for Former Yugoslavia cover Montenegro and Serbia.

1. Figures include ethnic Germans whose German origins have been recognised.
2. Data are from population registers.
3. Statistics include naturalisation claims, which concern essentially ethnic Germans.
4. Citizens of EU Members States are not included.
5. A general permit is only granted if no domestic worker is available. This is not the case for the issuance of a special permit. Activity of holders of a special work permit is not restrictive.
6. Data are for 30 September of each year and include cross-border workers but not the self-employed.
7. Contract workers are recruited under bilateral agreements and quotas by country of origin are revised annually.
8. Seasonal workers are recruited under bilateral agreements and they are allowed to work 3 months per year.

Sources: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Statistiches Bundesamt.

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Chart III.9. **Components of German population change, 1970-1998**
Nationals and foreigners
Thousands



Note : The data cover western Germany up to 1990 and Germany as a whole from 1991 on.
1. Including naturalisations on the basis of a claim.
2. Net migration, natural increase and acquisition of nationality.
3. *Aussiedler* are considered as nationals in statistics on migration. They can reside in Germany and acquire German nationality as soon as their German origins are recognised.

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

At 31 December 1998, there were 7 320 000 foreigners resident in Germany, as compared with 7 366 000 in 1997. For the first time since 1984, the proportion of foreigners in the total population fell, from 9% in 1997 to 8.9% in 1998.

Turks make up by far the largest foreign community (28.8%), followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia (16.2%) (even though many Bosnians went back in 1998) and Italians (8.4%). The numbers of foreigners from some Central and Eastern European countries (Romania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic) have fallen.

Naturalisations

Between 1989 and 1995, the number of naturalisations rose continually, from 68 500 in 1989 to 313 600 in 1995. Since then the figure has been falling every year. In 1998, 236 150 persons acquired German nationality. Of these, 35.4% were from Kazakhstan, 27.9% from the Russian Federation and 24.1% from Turkey.

The new Nationality Act came into effect on 1 January 2000 (see the Section below, *Policy developments*).

Mixed marriages

Since the early 1990s, the proportion of mixed marriages has risen steadily. Of the 422 800 marriages contracted in 1997, 14.5% were between Germans and foreign nationals, as compared with 7.7% in 1990. Whereas in the 1980s twice as many mixed marriages involved a foreign man and a German woman, the trend has gradually reversed and in 1997 31 200 mixed marriages were between foreign women and German men, and 30 200 between foreign men and German women. Some 3% of marriages were between two foreigners.

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3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Since 1994, the number of foreign wage earners registered under the Social Security scheme has fallen. In 1998, there were 2 030 300, or 3.4% fewer than the previous year. Nearly 98% of them are working in the western part of Germany. In June 1998, foreigners represented 7.5% of all wage earners in the country (9% in the western part, 0.8% in the new *Länder*).

As in the total foreign population, the largest communities of workers are Turks (28% of the foreign labour force) followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia (17.3%) and Italians (10%).

Foreigners work chiefly in hotels and catering (29.9%), the steel industry (19.9%) and cleaning (18.1%). There have been marked declines in the last two sectors and in construction and agriculture. Compared with 1997, the numbers of foreign workers rose in 1998 in services to households (+5%), financial intermediation, transport and communications and other services (all +1%). In every other sector, and notably in construction and mining, foreign employment fell back.

Labour market integration

Salaried employment

Under the new legislation on the employment of foreigners which came into force on 1 January 1998, nationals of the European Union or the European Economic Area, and nationals of other countries with unlimited residence permits or entitled to permanent residence, do not have to obtain work permits. Unless so exempted, foreigners must hold work permits in order to work in Germany. The majority of new permits, known as "ordinary" permits, are subject to the rule of prior entitlement for German or foreign workers with comparable status and are valid only for a specific activity. The remaining permits are "special" permits, which give free access to the labour market. Agreements between the European Community and Turkey lay down special conditions for Turkish nationals .

In 1998, 1 050 000 work permits were issued, 95% of them in the western part of Germany. The figure was 217 400 lower than for the previous year. Some 84.5% were "ordinary" permits.

Self-employment

An employment survey provides some information on the self-employed. In 1997, nearly 249 000 self-employed foreigners were recorded (or some 7% of the total foreign labour force), employing 22 000 family members.

Temporary employment of foreign labour

Although the recruitment of foreign workers ceased in November 1973, agreements with transition countries in Central and Eastern Europe allow a limited number of foreigners to work temporarily in Germany to upgrade their occupational and linguistic skills and increase their chances of finding work in their home country or setting up their own business there. In 1998, nearly 33 000 foreign workers were hired in Germany as contract labour. The figure has been declining since 1995. In addition, over 200 000 seasonal workers and 3 000 guest workers (*Gastarbeiter*) were engaged in 1998.

Under the green-card programme launched by the Federal Government, 20 000 information technology specialists are to be recruited for a period of five years starting on 1 August 2000. The programme is designed to remedy the staffing shortfall in this sector. The number of applications has in some cases, however, been lower than the national quotas: fewer than 300 Indians have applied for the 1 800 posts allocated to that country. Numerous countries are represented, including Bulgaria, Algeria, Ecuador, Hungary, the Russian Federation, Turkey and Romania.

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Unemployment

The total number of unemployed in Germany fell back in 1998 (though it continued to rise in the new *Länder*). Among the foreign population, unemployment remains high (see Table III.16). The chief reason continues to be a lack of training. Skill levels are markedly lower among the foreign population than among the native-born. According to the latest labour force survey, at 30 September 1998, 77.1% of unemployed foreigners had no full occupational qualification (as compared with 38.6% among unemployed Germans). A little over 78% of unemployed foreigners are from outside the European Union. The breakdown of unemployment shows considerable disparities depending on nationality: 24.2% of Turks were jobless at 31 December 1998, as compared with 19.6% of Italians and 18.5% of Greeks.

There are also differences in the age structure of the unemployed: up to age 35, the proportion of unemployed foreigners is greater than that of unemployed Germans, but the trend then reverses. It may also be noted that, on average, foreigners remain without work for shorter periods than Germans (12.5 months, as compared with 14.7).

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

The integration of foreigners is one of the key points in German policy. The government is seeking to combat discrimination in hiring and to ensure that foreigners enjoy comparable standards of living to Germans. Substantial budget funding is allocated for this purpose each year.

Integration measures include a social council for foreigners, language classes and assistance to improve the employment prospects of young immigrants.

The Ministry of Labour has sought to conclude bilateral agreements for the joint funding of vocational training for young foreigners living in Germany who are nationals of the other signatory country. Agreements of this kind were concluded with Greece in 1988, Spain in 1991, Italy in 1992, Turkey in 1993 and Portugal in 1994. The qualifications are recognised not solely by the two signatory countries but across the whole of the European Union as well. Some 1 100 young people have already been assisted under these agreements. The government also supports projects to encourage foreign firms to take on young trainees, which they do much less commonly than German firms.

Despite active government measures, immigrants are still under-represented in vocational training programmes. The government is providing financial support for a campaign to better inform foreigners of the opportunities in this area.

Last, the government supports projects to integrate foreign women and to combat xenophobia, again backed by an information drive.

Naturalisation

The new Federal Government elected in September 1998 made the introduction of nationality legislation one of its priorities. The new Act came into force on 1 January 2000.

The mandatory residence period preceding naturalisation has been shortened: adult foreigners may acquire German nationality after eight years of legal residence (instead of the fifteen required under the earlier law). Children born in Germany to at least one parent who has possessed an unlimited residence entitlement for more than three years will be granted German nationality automatically. On reaching the age of majority they must choose which nationality to take, dual nationality not being an option. Further, entitlement to naturalisation is now conditional on previous compliance with German law and on adequate knowledge of the German language. While the requirement to renounce previous nationality remains, it is not enforced in complex cases (for example, elderly persons and where renouncing the current nationality would incur a high financial cost). The Act also introduced administrative simplifications, meaning that applications are handled more swiftly.

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Combating the illegal employment of foreigners

Despite the measures that have been implemented, the illegal employment of foreigners continues to be a problem. A growing number of immigrants are being brought in by smugglers. The government is therefore stepping up police training in order to detect forged identity papers, and is making expulsions. To this latter end, it is negotiating re-admission procedures with neighbouring countries and with immigrants' countries of origin, under which the latter would accept the return of migrants who lack valid passports but whose nationality is beyond doubt.

On 22 April 1999, a code of conduct was adopted to enhance co-operation among EU governments to counter illegal immigration, social security fraud and undeclared employment. It stems from a German initiative, and one purpose is to enhance measures to combat the illegal employment of foreigners. The Federal Government is negotiating bilateral agreements with several EU members to bring the code of conduct into implementation.

GREECE

Introduction

The number of individual migrants receiving residence permits declined significantly in 1998. On the other hand, issuances of work permits, which are less than half as numerous, registered an increase. Applications for asylum fell markedly, due largely to a sharp decline in the number of applications made by citizens of Iraq. In the context of their preparation for the complete application of the Schengen Agreements (which began on 1 January 2000), the Greek authorities have increased their efforts to detect breaches of the immigration regulations. As a consequence, the number of foreigners deported, having declined in 1998, is understood to have increased sharply in 1999.

The process by which refugee status is obtained has been clarified and the procedures whereby Greek Pontians from Commonwealth of Independent State countries are naturalised have been tightened-up. The development and implementation of policies likely to facilitate the integration of asylum seekers, political refugees and minority ethnic group children remains at the forefront of immigration policy as does the integration of return migrants and ethnic Greeks.

Of the 370 000 applicants to the initial phase of the regularisation programme (who thereby obtained a "white card" of temporary validity) fewer than 60% proceeded to the second stage and submitted an application for a renewable "green card". As those who withdrew had on average a slightly lower level of education, the educational disparity between the Greek population and the regularisation applicants reported following the initial stage has moved further in the latters' favour.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Greece's National Statistical Service ceased collecting data on emigration in 1977. Information has therefore to be obtained from the records of recipient countries. The once substantial emigration flows to the United States, Canada and Australia are now almost negligible and are primarily linked to family reunion. Emigration to Germany, the principal destination and the only country for which departure data are available, has been slowly declining since 1996. At 16 000 the figure was 2% lower than in 1997. On the assumption that Greek nationals leaving Germany, the number of whom declined by 7% in 1998, are returning to Greece then net migration of Greek nationals between the two countries having become slightly positive in Greece's favour for the first time in 1994 and having reached 5 300 in 1997 declined by over 20% to 4 200 in 1998.

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Remittances

In 1998, remittances transmitted through official sources amounted to just over USD3 Billion, an increase of 3.8% on the 1997 figure. The Bank of Greece attributes this rise to increases in net incomes in Germany and the United States whence most of the remittances are transmitted.

Deportations

Having declined by over 6% in 1997, the number of foreigners deported fell by a further 34% in 1998 to 11 850. However, due to increased efforts on the part of the authorities to detect breaches of the immigration regulations in the context of their preparation for Greece's complete application of the Schengen Agreements (which began on 1 January 2000), the figure is understood to have soared in 1999 to 23 000, a figure for which a detailed breakdown into national groups is not available. In 1998, 35% of those deported were Romanian; Albanians accounted for a further 23% and Bulgarians 13%. The number of Romanians deported had declined by over 40% and the number of Bulgarians by almost 60%. The number of Albanians had however increased by over 140%; this is understood to be linked, on the one hand, to their larger numerical representation in the undocumented foreign population and, on the other, to their greater propensity to engage in criminal activity and thereby render themselves vulnerable to detection for having breached immigration regulations.

The aforementioned statistics, which relate to only those deportations which have followed an administrative or judicial decision, do not include removals to the frontier of neighbouring origin countries. Having decreased by 30% to 132 000 in 1998, they increased by only slightly less than that proportion in 1999, bringing the number to 169 000. These removals to the frontier, primarily that with Albania, were based on "Police co-operation Agreements". An agreement signed with Turkey is awaiting ratification.

Immigration

During 1998, slightly more than 63 400 individual migrants received residence permits, a reduction of 8.3% on the 1997 figure of 69 200 (see Table III.17). Declines were noted for almost all countries with the significant exception of Albania whose migration flow increased by 250%. Of the 15 100 people from Albania, 82% were ethnic Greeks (*Vorio-epirotes*) as compared to the overall average of 40%. This increase and its composition is linked to the fact that since April 1998 Greek Albanians have been eligible for "Special Identity Cards", valid for three years and renewable, granting them the right of residence and guaranteeing the same treatment as Greek citizens in the labour market. The flow from the second most important origin country, Russia (11 000), and the fourth, Georgia (3 300), also contained high proportions of ethnic Greeks: 56% and 84% respectively.

Males dominate the flow of those without Greek ancestry from the Middle East and the other Muslim countries; females dominate those from Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. By contrast, the gender balance of the migration flow of ethnic Greeks is broadly equal and contains a greater proportion of family units, a tendency which points to a greater likelihood of their intending to settle permanently.

Refugees and asylum seekers

During 1998, Greece received just under 3 000 applications for asylum, a fall of almost one third on 1997. This overall decline was largely due to the 43% reduction in the number of applications made by citizens of Iraq. This country remains however the principal source country for asylum applicants (2 170). Applications from Afghan and Turkish nationals increased substantially, by 50% and 80% respectively; at 200 and 310 their numbers remain low however.

Although the number of applications decreased, the number accepted in 1998 increased from 130 to 156. The number of those granted humanitarian status declined by almost 40% however to less than 400. That these approval rates continues to be low reflects in all likelihood the general attitude of asylum seekers towards Greece's as a country essentially of transit. In the course of 1998 almost 1 000 people, of whom an unconfirmed but understood to be large proportion were asylum seekers and political refugees, were

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Table III.17. **Residence permits issued to foreigners,[1] by country of origin, 1995-1998, Greece**
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	*Of which*: Women		
					1996	1997	1998
Albania	4.2	3.4	4.3	15.1	2.4	3.0	7.9
Russian Federation	17.3	13.9	11.8	11.0	8.2	7.9	6.3
Bulgaria	3.7	4.3	5.6	3.4	2.8	4.0	2.4
Georgia	2.9	5.3	2.3	3.3	2.8	1.1	1.9
Egypt	3.6	3.1	3.2	2.2	0.4	0.5	0.3
Romania	2.6	2.7	3.0	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.6
United States	2.8	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.3	0.9
Turkey	5.1	2.3	2.4	1.6	1.1	1.1	0.8
Former Yugoslavia	2.9	2.9	2.7	1.4	1.8	1.8	0.9
Ukraine	0.5	1.4	2.6	1.4	0.9	2.3	1.3
Cyprus	4.7	2.1	2.4	1.4	1.0	1.4	0.6
Poland	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1
Germany	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.4	0.9	1.0	0.8
United Kingdom	3.1	2.7	2.1	1.3	1.5	1.6	0.8
Philippines	2.3	1.9	1.7	1.0	1.6	1.5	0.9
Syria	1.3	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.2
Lebanon	1.2	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.2
Italy	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.3
Other	15.9	15.7	16.2	11.7	8.9	10.2	6.5
Total	**78.2**	**70.4**	**69.2**	**63.4**	**39.9**	**43.5**	**35.7**

1. Data refer to total number of permits issued. One person can be granted several work permits per year. However a large majority of the permits are delivered for one year and only a small number of persons receive more than one permit. Data include ethnic Greeks.
Source: Greek Ministry of Public Order.

re-settled overseas. The overwhelming majority of these were Iraqis (892). Australia was the principal destination country taking just over 600 of the total.

The number of persons registered with voluntary agencies for resettlement in overseas countries continues to decline. The 1998 figure of 3 470 marked a 13% fall on 1997 and was less than half the 1994 figure. This probably reflects the overall success of the resettlement programme, the diminishing inflow of asylum seekers and more effective border control policies and practices. Most of the persons registered for resettlement live independently while a small number continue to be accommodated in the Government-funded centre in Lavrion which has recently been reorganised.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The most recent available official data on the stock of foreign residents are those for October 1998. At this time, the Ministry of Public Order estimated the total at just over 309 000, the same as at the end of 1997. Given, however, that there is probably some overlap between this figure and the number of those who have applied for regularisation through the Ministry of Labour (370 000), and assuming that approximately 200 000 foreigners in an irregular situation did not register for regularisation and, further, that the inflow of undocumented foreigners has continued after the expiration of the deadline for regularisation applications (30 April 1999) and taking into account, moreover, expulsions and deportations then the number of foreign residents in Greece is likely to be between 800 000 and 1 million, that is to say approximately 10% of the Greek population.

Regularisation programme

The number of applications to the initial phase of the regularisation programme has been corrected downwards from 375 000 to 370 000 (see Table III.18). Fewer than 60% of these carried through their application to the second stage and submitted an application for a renewable "green card" valid initially for between one to three

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years. By the end of February 2000, of these 211 500, 107 000 had had their application approved; it has been estimated that approximately three quarters of the permits thereby issued were of only one year's duration.

Table III.18. **Socio-economic characteristics of regularised migrants, 1998-1999, Greece**

	Holders of a "white card"	Of *which*: Women (%)	Of *which*: Migrants who asked for a "green card" (%)
A. Characteristics by nationality and sex			
Albania	239 931	17.0	54.4
Bulgaria	24 859	56.2	65.5
Romania	16 749	30.4	49.0
Pakistan	10 794	0.5	84.1
Ukraine	9 786	78.7	59.8
Poland	8 615	43.1	61.1
Georgia	7 530	61.7	48.7
India	6 385	1.6	68.6
Egypte	6 196	5.6	83.5
Philippines	5 378	81.0	67.4
Moldova	4 362	72.1	63.3
Syria	3 426	4.6	71.6
Other	25 618	36.6	44.4
Total	369 629	25.3	57.2
B. Characteristics by age group and sex			
0-14	364	23.1	38.5
15-19	23 656	13.9	23.7
20-24	79 297	19.3	45.9
25-29	84 585	21.5	60.1
30-44	142 045	28.6	64.9
45-64	32 767	44.3	67.2
More than 65	544	35.3	49.3
Unspecified	6 371	20.5	63.1
Total	369 629	25.3	57.2

	Holders of a "white card"	Of *which*: Women (%)	Of *which*: Migrants who asked for a "green card" (%)
C. Characteristics by level of education and sex			
Illeterate	6 605	18	52.7
Primary	136 496	16.7	52.2
Secondary	182 882	28.4	58.6
Tertiary	32 865	45.5	60.1
Unspecified	10 781	23.8	90.9
Total	369 629	25.3	57.2
D. Characteristics by marital status and sex			
Married	189 779	29.6	57.2
Single	159 607	16.1	55.4
Divorced	9 544	74.4	67.1
Widowed	3 700	84.2	59.2
Unspecified	6 999	19	84
Total	369 629	25.3	57.2

Married migrants according to the number of dependent members

	Holders of a "white card"	Of *which*: Migrants who asked for a "green card" (%)
1	37 680	54.2
2	47 836	57.8
3	24 393	64.8
4	9 026	59.7
5	3 057	54.4
More than 5	1 950	53.4
Unspecified	65 837	55.6
Total	189 779	57.2

Note: Data are preliminary. The regulation programme occured in 2 steps : first, illegal migrants had to ask for a temporary "white card" before the end of May 1998. When they had obtained this document, they could apply for a "green card"(valid for 3 years). At the end February 2000, 211 500 had asked for a "green card" and 107 000 of them had had their application approved.
Source: Employment and Manpower Organization (OAED), National Employment Observatory.

It was reported last year that the average level of education was greater among regularisation applicants than among the Greek population. Due to the fact, as is noted below, that those who withdrew had a slightly lower level of education than those who applied for the second stage, the final outcome is a more marked educational disparity.

Examination of the characteristics of those who did not carry their application through to the second stage

Their countries of origin differ little from those who applied for the second stage. Those who withdrew had a slightly lower level of education. Across all age groups, women displayed a much greater tendency to withdraw from the process, the highest proportion being 80% for those in the 15-19 years of age cohort, the lowest being 36% for those aged between 45 and 64. This age pattern was almost the same for males, the respective percentages being 76 and 30%, the key difference being that males aged 30-44 also had a very low propensity withdraw, 31%, whereas for women of the same age the proportion was 46%. With the exception of divorcees, marital status had little impact on the propensity to withdraw. Of the divorcees, three quarters of whom were females, two out of three went through to the final stage.

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Naturalisations

The annual figures for naturalisations fluctuate considerably. Over the period 1986-96, those of ethnic Greeks moved within a range of between 100 and 2 700; in the case of non-ethnic Greeks between 200 and 1 800. This being the case, it would be hazardous to attribute to the 1997 relaxation of the regulations governing the naturalisations of foreigners married to Greeks the 160% and over 70% increases in naturalisations of non-ethnic Greeks which took place in 1997 and 1998 respectively: the 1998 figure of 1 800 was well within the established range. In the case of ethnic Greeks, the number of naturalisations almost halved in 1998 to 655. This fall is in all likelihood due to the increased efforts made to prevent fraudulent "hellenisations" especially among migrants from countries of the former Soviet Union. In 1998 and 2000, new legislation was introduced pertaining to citizenship and naturalisation, see the section on policy developments below.

3. Migration and the labour market

The maximum number of work permits granted each year to foreign migrants by country of citizenship, occupation and duration of work and for the various regions of the country is determined by a joint decision of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Labour and Public Order after consultation with the Manpower and Employment Organisation and the representatives of trade unions and employers' organisations

According to the Ministry of Labour, 25 000 work permits were granted in 1998, an increase of 6% on 1997. Of these, 6 550 (13% fewer than in 1997) were granted to citizens of European Union countries. Over 90% of the permits are of seven months duration or over. Males dominate this labour migration flow, especially that from outside the European Union.

4. Policy developments

Integration of immigrant and minority ethnic group children

Following the waves of Greek return migration in the 1980s and the mass influx of economic migrants during the 1990s, the Greek government responded with the creation of new educational institutions such as reception classes, after-class tutorial sections and intercultural schools in order to facilitate the educational, linguistic and social integration of the accompanying children. With the help of funds from the European Union Second Community Framework Support Programme, the government has recently developed this policy and extend it to minority ethnic group children. The measures implemented include the development of new curriculum programmes and materials adapted to the needs and experiences of children from a bilingual and bicultural environment. With particular regard to the children from the Gypsy minority, their nomadic lifestyle has been taken into account by the creation of a "mobile student registration card". Children from the Muslim minority have been set aside a quota of higher education places which in 1999 was 0.5%.

Protection of the dependants of regularisation applicants from expulsion

In April 1999, a series of amendments were passed which protect the dependants (spouses and under age children) of "white" and "green" card holders from expulsion. Children who attain majority during the period of the card's validity cannot be expelled until they reach the age of 21. Moreover, the children of "green card" holders may themselves submit an application for a "green card" when they reach majority (18 years of age) and before they become 21 years of age.

Illegal immigration

The government has introduced a variety of measures, some of which in the context of the Schengen Agreement, to control crime and illegal migration and to forestall racist and vigilante actions against foreign residents. These include the establishment of a border guard to combat the illegal trafficking of migrants (which became operational on in April 1999) and the increasing of car and foot patrols in cities. These measures are being supplemented by a policy of deporting migrants convicted of minor crimes and expelling non-documented migrants to their countries of origin. It is hoped that attempts to regularise non-documented

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workers and the rationalisation of the temporary migration process through bilateral agreements will have an ameliorative impact over the medium term.

Asylum seekers and refugees

In order to bring the country's legal-institutional framework into line with its obligations under multilateral agreements (for example, the Dublin Agreement), the government has over recent years introduced a series of measures designed to clarify the process by which refugee status is obtained and to facilitate the temporary as well as the more permanent integration of asylum seekers and political refugees.

In June 1998, an Executive Decree was issued in order to regulate the conditions for the employment of recognised political refugees, applicants for asylum and those granted temporary humanitarian status. In October 1998, within the context of the National Programme for Vulnerable Populations, a Decree was issued in order to expedite the social integration of the above three categories of migrants and to facilitate their access to medical treatment. In April 1999, the procedures were set out for *i*) the granting of political refugee status and expulsion of unsuccessful asylum applicants using either normal or accelerated methods and *ii*) the entry of the family dependants of recognised refugees. In October 1999, a Decree was issued providing for the reorganisation of the Lavrion Centre: the Centre will henceforth accommodate those who have submitted an application for asylum; once they have been granted political refugee status, which is accompanied by the issuance of a five year residence and employment permit for themselves and for their dependants, they must leave the Centre.

Citizenship and naturalisation

An Act passed in June 1998 abolished an anachronistic provision of a 1955 Act whereby the Minister of the Interior had the power to withdraw Greek citizenship from Greek citizens of non-Greek ethnic background who had left Greece with no intention to return or who lacked "Greek consciousness". The Muslim minority is the principal beneficiary of this new measure.

Prompted by the discovery of a clandestine network which was producing and distributing forged versions of documents required for naturalisation, an Act was passed in February 2000 to tighten-up and centralise the procedure whereby Greek Pontians from the CIS countries are naturalised. This new law established special committees both in the CIS countries and in Greece to review the applicants' credentials. A first set of special committees are located in the CIS countries and are supervised jointly by the Ministries of the Interior and of Foreign Affairs. Having passed through his first committee, the applicants' credentials are then reviewed by a second committee which operates in Greece under the co-jurisdiction of the Ministries of the Interior, of Foreign Affairs and of Public Order. This committee gives its opinion to the General Regional Secretariat which possesses the ultimate authority to grant citizenship to those who claim ethnic Greek background. The newly naturalised persons are not required to settle in Greece. This new law also enables the second committee to review past decisions made on the basis of the 1993 Act.

Integration of return migrants and foreign migrants

In February 2000, legislation was passed transferring the competencies pertaining to the integration/reintegration of Greek return migrants and ethnic Greeks (*e.g.* resettlement, employment, educational and cultural integration etc.) from the General Secretariat for Greeks Abroad to the Ministry of the Interior, which also has jurisdiction over matters pertaining to citizenship and naturalisation.

The Ministry of the Interior has been preparing draft legislation (first draft published in January 1999) which, among other things, will lead to it taking over the competencies currently held by Ministry of Public Order with regard to economic migrants in Greece. This draft legislation also contains provisions regarding the integration into Greek society of both returning Greek migrants and of documented foreign migrants. As well as containing a provision for the establishment of an Inter-ministerial Committee for Migration Policy, to be presided over by the Minister of the Interior, the draft legislation also provides for the greater involvement of the local government in the registration and integration of the foreign and return migrants.

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HUNGARY

Introduction

Between 1997 and 1999, Hungary's GDP grew at an average rate of a little over 4.6%. Forecasts for 2000 indicate an improving economic situation, with growth of 5.2%. Job creation has increased, with unemployment falling to around 7% in 1999, (as compared with 10% in 1996 and 8% in 1998). Officially recorded migration has remained stable and the number of foreign residents has increased only very slightly. However, undocumented immigration has increased considerably over the last three years.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1998, some 13 000 immigrants arrived in Hungary, of whom 81% were Europeans, mostly Romanians, Ukrainians and nationals of the former Yugoslavia. Other immigrants came from Asia (13%), mainly from China. The number of foreigners leaving Hungary continued to fall (see Table III.19). In 1998, only 670 foreigners left the country, three times fewer than in the preceding year.

Illegal migration

Over the last three years, the number of illegal immigrants stopped at the Hungarian border has increased, and involved some 5 000 individuals in 1998. In addition, the number of undocumented migrants intercepted when leaving Hungary was, in that same year, three times higher than the recorded number of illegal entries. This shows the growing importance of transit flows through Hungary. The vast majority of the illegal migrants apprehended entered the country by means of the East and South-East borders, from Romania and the former Yugoslavia, whereas almost all of those stopped when trying to leave Hungary were intercepted at the borders with Slovenia, the Slovak Republic and Austria.

There is an organised traffic in illegal migration, as demonstrated by the statistics on the number of traffickers arrested over the last three years (an average of 700 a year). In 1998, some 16 600 foreigners were expelled from Hungary as compared to 12 000 in 1996.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since March 1998, when the law on refugees was codified, Hungary has admitted refugees from outside Europe. As a result, foreigners who have travelled through Hungary to the countries of the European Union to apply for refugee status can be sent back to Hungary. In such cases, it is up to the Hungarian authorities to process the application. So far, this rule has only been applied on a large scale by Austria: during the second half of 1998 some 2 500 individuals apprehended in Austria were sent back to Hungary, the country through which they had transited.

The number of asylum seekers increased in 1998 to 7 500, as compared with 2 100 in 1997. Half of those concerned came from a non-European country, and the others mostly from the former Yugoslavia. In 1998, only 360 applications for refugee status were granted, with a further 260 persons being granted exceptional leave to remain either on humanitarian grounds or because they could not safely be returned. For many migrants, however, this latter status is not satisfactory as it is difficult for them to obtain permission to work and they are not eligible for social assistance.

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Table III.19. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of foreign population, Hungary**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998[1]
Registered long-term immigration by country of origin[2]				
Romania	4.7	4.0	4.3	4.6
Ukraine	1.2	1.3	1.9	1.9
Former Yugoslavia	1.6	1.0	1.3	1.4
EU countries	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.1
China	1.2	1.7	1.5	0.9
Russian Federation	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Other	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6
Total	**13.2**	**12.8**	**13.4**	**12.8**
of which: Women	5.7	5.6	6.3	6.3
Grants of residence permits by type of permit				
Short-term permits (including renewals)	30.3	25.0	21.9	24.9
Long-term permits (including renewals)	22.4	15.1	20.4	24.3
Permanent permits[3]	3.9	4.5	4.8	. .
Permanent permits[4]	2.2	2.8	2.7	. .
Inflows of asylum seekers and refugees	**5.9**	**1.3**	**2.1**	. .
Stocks of permanent residents	**81.4**	**77.4**	**73.7**	**77.4**
of which: Women	43.8	41.8	40.1	. .
Stocks of foreign residents (long-term and permanent residents), by country of origin				
Romania	65.7	61.6	57.4	. .
Former USSR	16.1	17.0	18.6	. .
Former Yugoslavia	16.8	16.4	16.0	. .
Germany	7.8	8.3	8.4	. .
China	4.3	6.7	7.9	. .
Poland	4.5	4.3	4.5	. .
Slovak Republic	3.5	3.7	3.7	. .
Other	21.1	24.2	27.3	. .
Total	**139.9**	**142.2**	**143.8**	. .
of which: Women	65.6	66.1	66.7	. .

	1995	1996	1997	1998[1]
Acquisition of the Hungarian nationality	**10.0**	**12.3**	**8.7**	**6.4**
of which, in per cent of total acquisitions:				
Romania	70.4	69.7	60.4	59.7
Former Yugoslavia	11.3	16.3	18.6	16.5
Former USSR	11.8	10.0	9.1	10.3
Grants of work permits (excluding renewals), by country of origin				
Romania	8.9	6.8	9.0	10.5
Former USSR	2.0	2.2	3.3	2.8
Poland	1.8	1.0	1.1	0.9
Other	5.7	4.4	6.4	8.3
Total	**18.4**	**14.4**	**19.7**	**22.6**
Registered foreign workers, by country of origin[5]				
Romania	9.8	8.5	9.5	10.6
Former USSR	2.6	2.2	3.1	2.8
China	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.1
Poland	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.0
Former Yugoslavia	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.0
Other	4.8	5.5	5.1	6.0
Total	**21.0**	**18.8**	**20.4**	**22.4**
Number of deportations and expulsions	**17.6**	**14.0**	**11.9**	. .
of which:				
Romanians	10.0	7.9	7.3	. .
Former Yugoslavs	3.0	2.3	2.5	. .

1. Data are estimates.
2. Foreigners registering in the given year and holding a long-term permit. A long-term permit is usually granted after one year living in Hungary with a short-term permit which cannot be extended more than one year. Therefore data on long-term immigrants cannot be fully considered as flow data.
3. All permits granted in the year.
4. Granted permits from the applications of the given year.
5. Valid work permits at the end of the year.

Sources: Registers of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior; Office for Migration and Refugees, Ministry of the Interior.

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2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

At the end of 1998, some 77 400 foreigners were living legally in Hungary as permanent residents. Since inflows and outflows of documented foreigners have not changed very much, the fall in the number of naturalisations recorded in 1998 probably explains the increase in the number of foreigners holding a permanent residence permit.

Naturalisations

In spite of a moderate increase in the number of foreigners applying for Hungarian nationality, only 6 400 migrants were naturalised in 1998, 25% down on the 1997 figure and half that of 1996. As in previous years, 60% were of Romanian origin, 18% were from the former Yugoslavia and 8% from Ukraine. Most applicants were of Hungarian origin or were themselves once Hungarian citizens. Re-naturalisation requests accounted for one-fifth of the total. A little over 70% of naturalisation applications were from descendants of Hungarian citizens, and some 10% were from persons married to a Hungarian.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

After a fall in 1996, due to a change in the regulations, the number of newly issued work permits has continued to rise: 22 600 in 1998 as compared with 19 700 in 1997 and 14 000 in 1996. In addition, 9 000 residence permits were issued for practising gainful activities for which a work permit is not required.

The number of settled immigrants and refugees entitled to work without further permission was 61 000 in 1998. The number of registered foreigners legally present on the Hungarian labour market can be estimated at 90 000-95 000.

Work permits are generally granted for professions in which there is a shortage of labour or for persons who bring special knowledge and expertise. Almost half of work-permit holders were Romanian citizens, over 16% were from European Union countries and North America, 13% from countries of the former Soviet Union (mainly Ukraine), and the rest from Poland, the former Yugoslavia and China. In fact, the proportion of foreigners from the developed countries is probably higher than is indicated by the official figures since a significant number of them are senior managers in foreign companies and as such do not require a work permit.

Undocumented foreign workers

The employment of undocumented foreign workers must be seen against the much wider background of the informal sector and the undeclared labour market in Hungary. According to certain estimates, the informal sector accounts for 30% of GDP and the participation of foreigners in this economy is understood to be wide-ranging. Given that it is possible to enter Hungary without a visa from practically all European countries, the majority of undocumented foreign workers enter as tourists and regularly or occasionally undertake a variety of jobs. Their residence is made "legal" by leaving the country once a month to have an exit stamp put in their passports because the visa regulations allow them to stay only under such conditions.

Many of these "tourists" from neighbouring countries work in the construction sector, have a seasonal job in agriculture or occasionally take domestic service jobs. The participation of foreigners in retail activities of all kinds is tending to grow, though from a low base.

The majority of undocumented labour migrants are from neighbouring countries, mainly Romania, but also Ukraine and the former Yugoslavia. After some days, weeks or months of work, they return home before, in some cases, returning again. Most are ethnic Hungarians who speak the language and have relatives or other contacts in the country. Some of them use their annual leave to increase their income. These essentially temporary migrants do not wish to settle permanently but working abroad is the only chance they have to improve their living conditions.

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Another aspect of the situation regarding undocumented foreign workers is the growing number of foreign companies – European or American – which have established themselves in Hungary. These international companies recruit workers with good linguistic and computer skills, which leads many young foreigners from these countries to take up undocumented employment, for example in language teaching, the media or computer services. According to some estimates, undocumented foreign workers account for 5 to 10% of total employment in Hungary.

4. Policy developments

Hungary is increasingly becoming a country of immigration, which is why, during the last three years, it has amended its immigration legislation to bring it into line with the policies implemented in European Union countries. These amendments relate mainly to the entry and residence of foreigners (including asylum seekers and refugees), the acquisition of Hungarian nationality, measures to combat the employment of undocumented foreigners and the signature of readmission agreements.

New legislation

Entry and residence of foreigners

In 1993 and 1994, two fundamental Acts were adopted, the first concerning Hungarian citizenship, and the second the entry and residence of foreigners. To obtain a permanent residence permit, a foreigner must have lived and worked legally in Hungary for three years.

One of the conditions for acquiring Hungarian nationality is a minimum residence requirement of at least eight years.

In 1998, the last pillar of the legal regulation of migration issues, the Act on Refugees, came into force. It contains, notably, a provision that only refugees from Europe may be granted asylum in Hungary.

Measures to combat the employment of undocumented foreigners

In November 1996, an Act on labour market access was adopted. Foreigners who travel to Hungary with the purpose of working there must obtain a work permit or an income-earning activity visa before entering Hungary, regardless of the length of their stay. A work permit is required for most jobs and may be issued only if there is no locally available Hungarian resident available with the relevant qualifications to fill the post. High unemployment in the locality also constitutes an obstacle to employing new foreign workers. Employers are required to register their application for a permit 60 days before the beginning of the contract, or 30 days in the case of seasonal or occasional employment.

The sanctions imposed on employers who recruit undocumented foreign workers have been rendered more severe over recent years. Nevertheless, it is the workers who face the greatest penalties: if a foreigner is caught working without a valid work permit, the employer must pay a fine equal to at least five times the minimum wage whereas the worker can be banned from Hungary for between one and five years.

Adapting Hungarian legislation to European Union norms

Under the Association Agreement signed with the European Union, Hungary must bring its present and future legislation into line with that of the European Union. Essentially, this means promoting the free movement of persons within the European Union and strengthening border controls. Special provisions, with preferential treatment for EU citizens, are under preparation, and some were recently introduced. As for strengthening border controls, the necessary measures have still to be introduced.

Revision of the Readmission Agreement between Austria and Hungary

New provisions were introduced into the Readmission Agreement between Austria and Hungary in February 1997. The Hungarian authorities are now required to accept any person presumed to have entered Austria illegally via Hungary.

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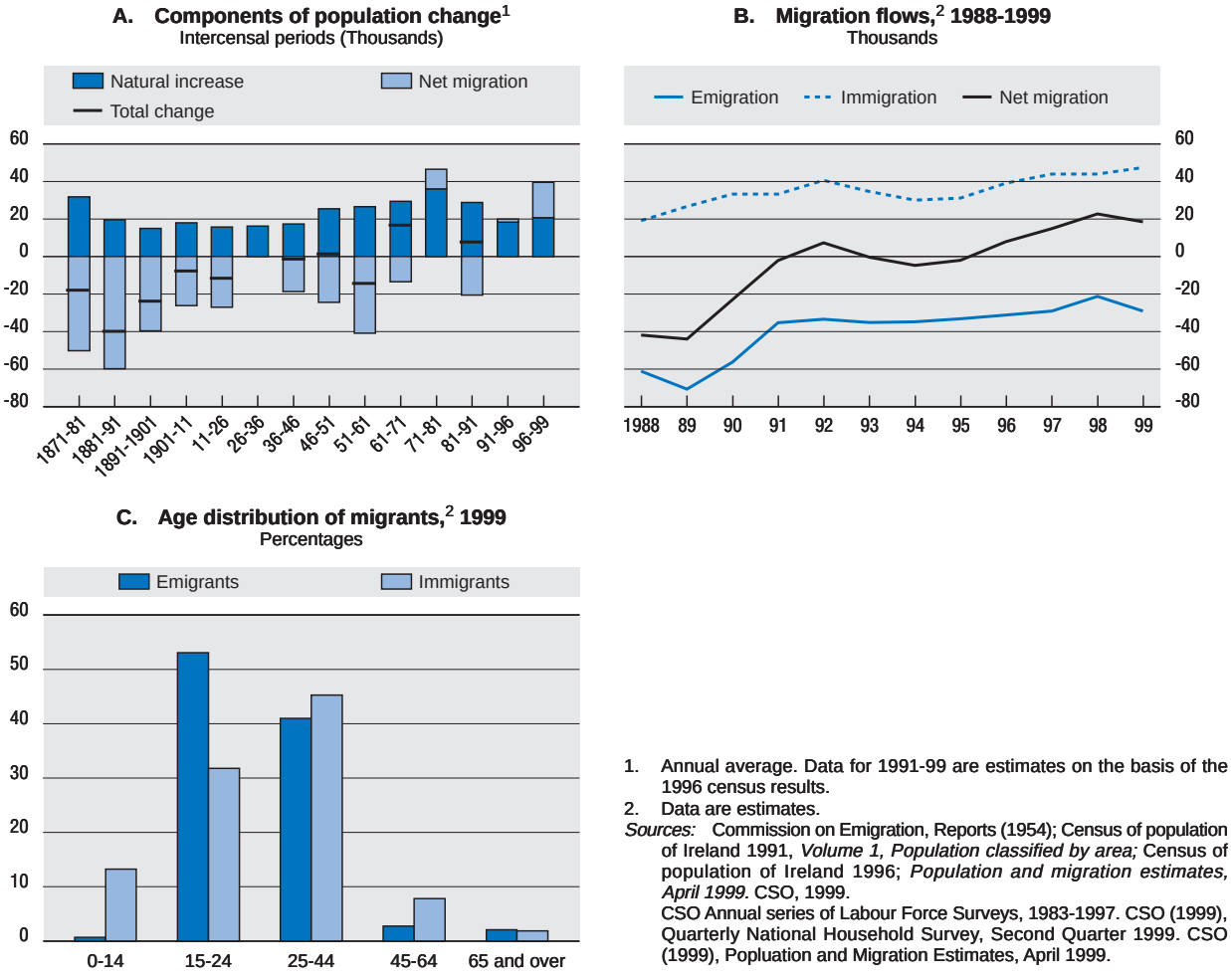
IRELAND

Introduction

Reflecting the variable character of relative differences in domestic and overseas economic performance, migration flows displayed considerable volatility during the 1980s and early 1990s. Thereafter Ireland's economic performance, both in relative and absolute terms, improved spectacularly with real GDP growth consistently exceeding 7% since 1994. This degree of economic buoyancy has led to a steady decline in unemployment from a peak of over 15% in 1993 to stand at 5.7% in April 1999. Despite sustained increases both in the working age population and in labour force participation, labour shortages have appeared in many sectors. This, along with other factors, has given rise to significant net population inflows. In the most recent twelve month period for which up to date data are available, *i.e.* the year to April 1999, net inward migration was nearly 19 000, compared with a situation of nil net migration in the mid-1990s (see Chart III.10).

While the favourable economic circumstances constitute the main reason attracting sizeable numbers of both former emigrants and non-nationals to come to work in Ireland, the numbers have been further augmented

Chart III.10. **Trends and characteristics of migration, Ireland**



1. Annual average. Data for 1991-99 are estimates on the basis of the 1996 census results.
2. Data are estimates.

Sources: Commission on Emigration, Reports (1954); Census of population of Ireland 1991, *Volume 1, Population classified by area;* Census of population of Ireland 1996; *Population and migration estimates, April 1999.* CSO, 1999.
CSO Annual series of Labour Force Surveys, 1983-1997. CSO (1999), Quarterly National Household Survey, Second Quarter 1999. CSO (1999), Popluation and Migration Estimates, April 1999.

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by an increasing inflow of asylum seekers. In response to this unexpected inflow, the government has recently modified its legislation and introduced a number of measures in order to deal with it more effectively.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Having reached very high levels at the end of the 1980s (as high as 70 000 in 1989, a level similar to that experienced during earlier periods of large-scale emigration), emigration flows have steadily declined since that time. In the year to April 1999, the gross population outflow was estimated at approximately 30 000.

Ten years ago, nearly 70% of those who emigrated went to the United Kingdom, some 12% to the United States, 6% to other European Union (EU) countries and about 14% to other destinations. By 1993 the United Kingdom was no longer, after six decades, the destination of the majority of Irish emigrants. This trend towards increasing diversity in destinations, though not sustained every year, has continued. In 1999, the proportion going to the United Kingdom was 35% while that for the rest of the EU was 16%; the United States accounted for just under 20% and all other countries taken in aggregate for slightly over 30%.

Irish emigration has predominantly been of young people (see Chart III.10), though when economic conditions in Ireland are severely depressed it also tends to extend to the immediately older age groups. The most recent estimates available show that some 53% of the gross outward movement in 1998/1999 related to persons aged between 15 and 24 years, with the great majority of the remainder (about 40%) involving persons aged between 25 and 44 years; other sources indicate that most emigrants in this latter age class are between 25 and 34 years old.

With regard to gender differences, if Irish emigration flows are viewed over a long period, there is no material difference in the balance between males and females. However, this balance can vary substantially from time to time. The outflows in the 1980s, for example, involved a significant majority of males. However, this differential has decreased greatly in the 1990s: the gross outflow of males between 1990 and 1999 was just over 172 000, compared with 166 000 for women in the same period. The overall tendency towards lower female emigration in recent decades has occurred primarily because the employment prospects for women in the Irish labour market have been relatively more advantageous.

Irish emigrants, who were previously largely unskilled, or at best possessed rudimentary manual skills, are now broadly representative of the social structure of Irish society. Indeed, there appears to be a tendency towards disproportionately higher emigration among those with third level qualifications (advanced diplomas or degrees). Ireland's graduate labour force involves what might be described as an ongoing or even constant migratory element, which exists to a significant degree even when the economy is buoyant. Indeed, published data relating to recently qualified graduates indicate greatly reduced unemployment in the immediate post graduation period throughout the 1990s but, interestingly, little change in the proportion that had taken up employment abroad.

While relatively large numbers of those possessing diplomas or degrees (especially in technical areas) initially emigrate, a high proportion also return at a later stage having acquired experience and enhanced skills. Irish employers, especially when seeking qualified technical personnel, often favour applications from emigrants rather than hire recently qualified graduates. However, due to the emergence of skill shortages the possibilities for doing this have diminished greatly in recent years. Estimates based on 1991 Irish Census data reveal that over 30% of the population aged over 40 years with third level qualifications had resided outside the country for at least one year. The corresponding proportion for the adult population as a whole (*i.e.* 25 years of age and over) was 10%. This represents a very high return rate (it is undoubtedly higher now) for the most educated emigrants, and is important in dispelling fears of a "brain drain".

Immigration

Inward migration (of both returning emigrants and non-nationals) has become a much more important phenomenon in Ireland in recent years. The gross migration inflow increased from less than 30 000 in the late 1980s to nearly 48 000 in 1999. At the beginning of the 1990s the proportion of non-nationals in the inward

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flows was about 35%, but has now risen to approximately 50%. The non-national group is comprised largely of persons coming to work (mainly in skilled activities but also notably in the catering trade), students coming to attend third level institutions and dependants of persons in these groups.

A comparison of the educational level of incoming migrants, both Irish and non-Irish, with that of the resident population reveals their superior educational profile: currently nearly one half of them possess third level qualifications, compared with less than 20% in the resident population.

Asylum seekers and refugees

The influx of asylum seekers or persons seeking refugee status has emerged as an important issue in Ireland in recent years. Until the early 1990s the numbers of refugees and asylum seekers were very small; since then they have risen sharply, from less than 40 in 1992 (not including the several hundred Bosnian programme refugees, displaced from the former Yugoslavia, whom the Irish Government agreed to accept in that year) to almost 7 800 in 1999. Possible reasons for the recent increase include increasing numbers of asylum seekers generally, and the fact that other countries are adopting a more restrictive stance with regard to applications. A knowledge of the new application procedures in Ireland, of the welfare supports, and the fact that the employment situation is favourable may also be contributing factors.

According to figures from the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, during the first ten months of 1999 over 30% of asylum seekers were of Romanian origin and 21% were from Nigeria. Among the remainder, significant numbers were from Algeria, Kosovo, Moldova, Sierra Leone and the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

The number of persons who have been granted official refugee status is relatively small (the total over the period from the beginning of 1992 until October 1999 was 869). Over the same period the number of persons whose applications for asylum were refused was just over 3 600. Notwithstanding the seven-fold increase since mid-1997 in the number of staff assigned to deal with applications, the backlog of cases pending is now estimated at approximately 7 000. Steps are now being taken to further increase the number of staff and to relocate the reception centres to a larger and more suitable premises.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The total number of foreign residents in Ireland is relatively small when compared with other European countries. However, data from the Labour Force Survey, which provides the only means of estimating the stock of non-nationals in Ireland, show that this component of the Irish population has increased substantially over recent years. The number rose from 83 000 in 1983 to just over 96 000 in 1995 and it increased again to 118 000 in 1996 since which time it has fallen-back slightly to 111 000 in 1998, in which year they accounted for 3% of the total population (see Table III.20). While sampling variability in the survey estimates may be a contributory factor, the more recent population figures exhibit a trend that seems to run counter to other data which indicate rising inward migration of non-nationals.

Whilst the great majority of foreign residents are EU passport holders (approximately 85 000, of whom 66 000 are from the United Kingdom), the population of non-EU citizens (other than those from the United States) has increased particularly rapidly: it numbered just 8 400 in 1983, and 15 700 in 1998.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour migration and work permits

Analysis of the data on the issue and renewal of work permits (which are required for all engagements for financial gain, irrespective of duration) provides some indication of the trends in the numbers of non-EU nationals entering the country in order to take up employment. The number of issues and renewals rose rapidly between 1989 and 1993, from 2 500 to just over 4 250. It did not vary greatly from this level until 1998 when the figure rose to almost 5 650; the 1999 figure of over 6 200 marked a continuation of this upward trend.

Citizens of the United States and Canada are accounting for an increasing proportion of this non-EU group, approximately 30% of the total in 1999. On the other hand, the proportion of permits issued to persons from India and Pakistan, having been approximately one third during the first half of the 1990s fell-off sharply

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Table III.20. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of total population and labour force in Ireland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Immigration by last country of residence[1]	**39.2**	**44.0**	**44.0**	**47.5**
United Kingdom	17.6	20.0	21.1	21.6
Other European countries	7.2	8.1	8.7	10.0
United States	6.4	6.6	4.9	5.7
Other countries	8.0	9.3	9.3	10.2
% of return Irish citizens	45.2	46.6	52.7	54.5
Emigration of both Irish and foreign people by country of destination[1]	**31.2**	**29.0**	**21.2**	**29.0**
United Kingdom	14.1	12.9	8.5	10.2
Other European countries	5.1	4.1	4.3	4.5
United States	5.2	4.1	4.3	5.4
Other countries	6.8	7.9	4.1	8.9
Net migration of both Irish nationals and foreigners[1]	**8.0**	**15.0**	**22.8**	**18.5**
United Kingdom	3.5	7.1	12.6	11.4
Other European countries	2.1	4.0	4.4	5.5
United States	1.2	2.5	0.6	0.3
Other countries	1.2	1.4	5.2	1.3
Total population[2]	**3 626.1**	**3 660.6**	**3 704.8**	**3 744.7**
Irish nationals	3 508.3	3 546.2	3 593.8	. .
Total foreign population	117.8	113.9	110.9	. .
United Kingdom	71.3	64.4	66.2	. .
Other EU countries	15.4	16.4	19.0	. .
United States	12.7	11.3	10.0	. .
Other countries	18.1	21.8	15.7	. .
% of foreign population in total population	3.2	3.1	3.0	. .
Asylum seekers	**1.2**	**3.9**	**4.6**	**6.5**
Labour market				
Work permits issued and renewed	**3.8**	**4.5**	**5.6**	**6.2**
By nationality				
India and Pakistan	0.6	0.5	0.7	. .
United States and Canada	0.9	1.4	1.6	. .
Other countries	2.3	2.6	3.3	. .
By sector of activity				
Agriculture	0.1	0.1	0.1	. .
Industry	0.4	0.6	0.7	. .
Services	3.3	3.8	4.9	. .
Employment by nationality[2]	**1 285.3**	**1 338.4**	**1 494.5**	**. .**
Irish nationals	1 241.9	1 294.7	1 447.0	. .
Foreigners in employment	43.4	43.7	47.5	. .
United Kingdom	27.6	26.7	28.3	. .
Other EU countries	7.1	7.6	10.3	. .
United States	3.0	3.2	3.7	. .
Other countries	5.7	6.2	5.2	. .
Employment to total population ratio				
Irish nationals (%)	35.4	36.5	40.3	. .
Foreigners (%)	36.8	38.4	42.8	. .
United Kingdom (%)	38.7	41.5	42.7	. .
Other EU countries (%)	46.1	46.3	54.2	. .
United States (%)	23.6	28.3	37.0	. .
Other countries (%)	31.5	28.4	33.1	. .

Note: Figures for the EU refer to the 15 member countries of the Union from 1997 on.
1. CSO estimates made on the basis of 1996 Census results.
2. Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error.
Sources: Central Statistical Office; Labour Force Survey.

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thereafter; together they now account for slightly over 10% of the total. Significant factors here have been *a*) the imposition of more restrictive registration conditions governing eligibility to work as a medical practitioner and *b*) a tightening of immigration procedures generally. However, there have also been in recent years significant increases in the numbers entering employment from some other countries which had previously been of relatively low importance. These include, for example, Australia, Malaysia, New Zealand, South Africa and Switzerland.

The issuing of new permits relates overwhelmingly to the services area. Until recently many of the permits issued under the "services" heading related to the medical sphere, but these have declined in recent years for the reasons as outlined above. However this decrease has been more than offset by the rise in the number of permits issued under the large "service industries" category which relates mainly to commercial and financial activities.

Foreign labour force

In 1998, according to the Quarterly National Household Survey, just under 3.3% of the total workforce were non-nationals, of whom approximately 47 500 were at work and just over 6 000 were unemployed (see Table III.20). This latter figure, which is surprisingly high, represented an unemployment rate of nearly 12%, compared with 7.7% for the indigenous population. A closer inspection of the figures reveals that this difference can be attributed primarily to the relatively high unemployment among the United Kingdom nationals. It should be borne in mind, however, that the number of non-Irish unemployed in the Irish labour force is small and, therefore, the related survey estimates would be subject to a significant degree of sampling error. The figures should, therefore, be interpreted with caution.

4. Policy developments

The basic legal framework covering foreign nationals in Ireland in regard to rights of entry, residence and employment is the 1935 Aliens Act and the subsequent ministerial orders appended to it. In 1996, in response to the rapid increase in the numbers of asylum seekers the Refugee Act was introduced to parliament with the primary objective of codifying asylum procedures in law and rendering them more transparent. However, as the view taken by the Justice Minister was that certain of the provisions of the Act were unworkable, it has only been partially implemented. Nevertheless, as from 28 August 1997 that part of the Act which enables Ireland to ratify the Dublin Convention has been brought into law.

In order to deal with the continuing inflow of asylum seekers new administrative procedures were put in place under the existing legislation in early 1998. Under the new arrangements (which follow the principles of the 1996 Act), Department of Justice officials adjudicate on asylum applications in the first instance. There is, however, an independent appeals procedure presided over by practising lawyers. The system also includes procedures (with provision for appeal) whereby what appear to be "manifestly unfounded" applications are dealt with speedily.

Important issues associated with the refugee question that continue to be controversial include:

– *The right of asylum seekers to work.* On 27 July 1999, as an exceptional measure, the government rescinded the previous policy whereby only those officially recognised as refugees were allowed to work. Asylum seekers who have been in the country for more than twelve months and who are still awaiting a determination of their application for refugee status were granted the right to obtain work permits. The new rules also apply to those who sought asylum prior to 26 July 1999, as soon as they cross the twelve-month threshold. However, the number of asylum seekers that have gained employment thus far as a result of this measure is extremely small. While it is, perhaps, still too early to form a judgement, one issue which has been emphasised is that the employer has in these circumstances to pay an on-going fee (IEP 25 per month) in respect of each person so employed, a factor which can be said to discriminate against those who could only expect to command a relatively low wage.

– *Support systems for asylum seekers.* The government decided in October 1999 that the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform should complete plans for the introduction of direct provision (*e.g.* vouchers, accommodation in special hostels or residential centres) – as distinct from a totally cash-based system – to meet the principal needs of asylum seekers. The inter-departmental committee on immigration,

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asylum and related issues will commence work immediately on identifying the measures which would need to be put in place by the appropriate departments/agencies in order to meet the needs of a direct provision system. The fact that the United Kingdom (with which Ireland shares a Common Travel Area) is introducing a direct provision system for asylum seekers is a relevant factor here.

– *Problems of residential concentration*. Due to the very large increase in the number of persons seeking asylum in recent months, and in view of the non-availability of further accommodation in the Dublin area, it has been decided that arrangements should be made to accommodate significant numbers of asylum seekers throughout the country. In this regard, local authorities and regional health boards will co-operate in finding suitable accommodation and in providing the ancillary welfare and health needs of asylum applicants.

The government still intends to review the question of the implementation of the 1996 Refugee Act in the light of *a*) the conclusions of a comparative study of relevant legislation in Ireland and in other EU member states (soon to be completed) and *b*) the experience gained in the Department of Justice in operating the current procedures.

In the context of the wider problem of labour shortages, the government has announced its intention to introduce the State's first work-visa programme for people from non-EU countries. Plans have been drawn up which involve a target of 5 000 work visas for the year 2000. It is hoped that the necessary legislation will be in place to allow for the first visas to be issued by the spring of 2000. The measure would allow high skill and low skill immigrants to take up jobs that employers are currently finding it impossible to fill. Questions are inevitably being asked concerning the wisdom of following this course of action when there are already some 7 000 asylum seekers in the country, of which only a limited number are allowed to work. It is however unlikely, given the range of skills required, that it would be possible to fill all of the vacancies from this source.

ITALY

Introduction

In 1999, as in previous years, growth was relatively low in Italy, with GDP increasing by approximately 1.5%. However, economic activity has recovered in 2000; according to the available estimates, the growth rate is likely to reach approximately 3%. The unemployment rate has also been falling since the end of 1998, although it remains high (11.5% in 1999).

In 1998, immigration issues were a government priority and attracted considerable media attention. The Immigration Act was revised, a new regularisation programme was implemented and Italy continued its effort to take in refugees from the Balkans, in particular from Kosovo. Despite the relatively slow economic recovery, immigration continued to increase in 1998 and 1999. Although Italy has considerably strengthened its border controls, it is still experiencing a very large illegal immigration flow of persons entering through bordering countries, as well as via the Adriatic from Albania and via the Mediterranean from Tunisia.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Some 111 000 new residence permits were granted in 1998, two-thirds of which were issued to women. The largest migration flows were from Central and Eastern Europe and the Maghreb. The main nationalities were respectively Albanians (11 200), Moroccans (7 300), Romanians (5 800) and nationals of the former Yugoslavia (5 700). In 1998, 40% of the new residence permits were granted for family reunion, some 20% for employment purposes, slightly over 10% to students, 8% to tourists and 7% to asylum applicants. Over half the

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new immigrants settled in Northern Italy, while slightly over a quarter settled in the centre, 15% in the south and the remainder (4%) in the islands.

Regularisation programme

In 1998, the Italian government launched a new regularisation programme, following those of 1986, 1990 and 1996 (see Table III.21). Initially, 38 000 permits were to be granted. However, due to the large number of applications (over 400 000 were filed, of which 88 200 had been processed by December 1998), the authorities decided that all eligible persons would benefit from this regularisation. The initial conditions were also relaxed several times. In particular, the deadline was extended until 20 October 1999 to give applicants additional time to submit the required documents. The circular of 10 May 1999 stated that all persons who were living in Italy before 28 March 1998 could potentially benefit from this programme. Nevertheless, the regularisation programme is encountering major delays in processing: at July 2000, 91 000 cases were still pending.

Table III.21. **Regularisation requests of immigrants in an illegal situation, three last regularisation programmes, by region of residence, Italy**

Thousands

	1990	1997	1998
North	89.2	115.3	205.0
Centre	75.9	75.8	127.0
South	30.6	48.2	51.3
Islands	39.1	19.4	17.2
Total	**234.8**	**258.8**	**400.6**

Sources: Ministry of Labour; Ministry of the Interior.

The vast majority of applicants were young men with a good level of education. Half of them were married and had family members in Italy. Nearly 72% of applicants were working illegally when they filed their application, most often in services (domestic jobs or catering) and construction. The geographical breakdown of the current place of residence of regularisation applicants reflects the distribution of immigrants throughout Italy quite closely.

The statistics by nationality, which cover only 70% of the applications received, show that 37% of the applications concerned nationals of Central and Eastern Europe (predominantly from Albania and Romania), 34% from Africa (mostly from Morocco, Nigeria and Senegal), 24% from Asia (primarily from China and Bangladesh) and slightly over 4% from the Americas (mainly from Ecuador). This geographical distribution is somewhat different from that observed during the 1995-96 regularisation programme, in which European nationals only accounted for one quarter of the applications and African nationals accounted for over 40%.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Until recently, as it had few historical, geographical and cultural ties with the main sending countries, Italy was not a popular destination for asylum seekers. Between 1952 and 1989 a total of 122 000 applications were received. In 1991, because of the events in Albania, applications for asylum rose sharply, with a total of 26 500 applications for that year alone. From then until 1997, the number of applications for asylum fell significantly, levelling off at between 1 000 and 2 000 per year. This relatively low number of asylum seekers was due to several factors. Many asylum seekers – from Somalia or the former Yugoslavia, for example – were given work permits on humanitarian grounds, which relieved them of the need to apply for refugee status. The

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lengthy formalities involved tended to act as a deterrent, and periodic regularisation programmes legalised certain situations and obviated the need to apply for refugee status.

In 1998, asylum applications reached a new peak, with nearly 7 700 applications filed. The vast majority of applicants entered Italy illegally, the main points of entry being the Puglia coast and Rome and Milan airports. They were comprised mainly of Kosovars, Iraqis and Kurds from Turkey. This upward trend became more marked in 1999; by November, over 35 000 applications had been filed. However, the rate of refusal remained high (nearly 75%). In 1998, 4 200 applications were examined, three times as many as in 1997. Just over 1 000 were approved.

Illegal immigration

On the basis of the statistics derived from the regularisation programme, the number of illegal immigrants can be estimated indirectly; in all probability it is approximately 250 000, equivalent to 20% of the total foreign population. The largest groups are from Morocco (25 000), Albania (19 000) and Romania (17 000). However, the groups that have the highest proportion of illegal immigrants in relation to the number of legal immigrants are the Romanians (37%), Poles (32%) and Brazilians (29%).

It is impossible to put a reliable figure on the extent of the illegal immigration flow, notably because of the number of people immediately turned back at the border and those that escape detection, but in 1998, official statistics showed that 47 800 persons were denied permission to enter Italy, of whom 29 500 were intercepted at the border. They were mainly Albanians, Kosovars and Iraqis. The main points of entry were the Salentine Peninsula and the ports of Bari and Brindisi (in Puglia), Pantelleria and Lampedusa (islands off Sicily) and the coasts of Calabria. Other illegal immigrants crossed land borders, particularly Eastern Europeans along the border between Tarvisio and Trieste and Filipinos and Sri Lankans via France or Switzerland.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

According to Interior Ministry statistics, there were slightly over one million foreigners residing in Italy on 31 December 1998 (see Table III.22). However, these statistics are not directly comparable to those of the previous year because neither persons whose permit is being renewed nor minors are now included. According to some estimates, this figure should be adjusted upwards by approximately 20%, which would bring the number of foreigners officially resident in Italy to 1.25 million, a slight increase over 1997. Foreigners account for approximately 2.1% of the total population, which is a relatively low percentage compared to the average for EU countries (4.9%).

Most legal immigrants living in Italy come from developing countries rather than the European Union (171 600) or other developed countries (95 000). Nearly one quarter of the non-EU nationals come from Central and Eastern Europe, 19% from North Africa, 10% from other African countries, 18% from Asia and just over 8% from Latin America.

In 1998, nearly two-thirds of immigrants were aged between 19 and 40. This suggests very strongly that immigration into Italy is essentially employment-related. Despite the lack of reliable statistical sources, it is estimated that the number of foreign minors is increasing and amounted to 180 000 in 1998. Approximately one thousand of them acquire Italian nationality each year through adoption procedures. The percentage of minors varies considerably across nationalities, being relatively high among Russian nationals but low among Filipinos.

The foreign population is heavily concentrated in northern and central Italy, particularly in Lombardy, Lazio, Veneto and the cities of Rome and Milan.

3. Migration and the labour market

Italy's unemployment rate remains high in comparison with other European countries. Nevertheless, the number of foreign workers has trebled since 1990. This situation is due to the expansion of the service sector over recent years and the increase in the number of low-skilled foreigners taking up temporary contracts for jobs shunned by Italian workers.

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Table III.22. **Current figures on foreign population in Italy**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Foreigners who hold a permit of residence[1]	**991.4**	**1 095.6**	**1 240.7**	**1 033.2**
By group of nationality				
Europe	404.3	426.0	486.4	401.4
Africa	265.0	314.9	351.0	297.6
Asia	164.2	195.5	225.5	195.6
America	152.5	154.8	172.8	135.6
Other	5.4	4.4	5.0	3.1
By reason for presence				
Employment[2]	544.2	685.4	782.3	588.7
Family reunification	185.2	204.4	243.4	251.9
Studies	61.8	45.7	57.3	29.9
Religion	57.4	54.9	59.2	54.5
Tourism (long-term)	48.6	30.0	44.5	9.5
Retirees	44.0	43.1	45.9	41.1
Asylum seekers/refugees	10.4	3.9	5.6	6.2
Other and not specified	39.8	28.4	2.5	51.6
By region of residence				
North	507.6	. .	636.7	674.0
Central	320.2	. .	378.4	367.7
South	163.6	. .	225.6	208.5
Acquisition of Italian nationality	**7.4**	**7.0**	**9.2**	**9.8**
Legal action taken against foreigners				
Foreigners for whom a penal action has been undertaken	57.2	71.6	61.0	125.6
Foreigners under arrest	22.2	24.3	24.2	33.4
Foreigners who are to be expelled	56.3	34.6	49.1	172.1
Expelled foreigners	7.5	5.1	8.4	45.7

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Characteristics of non-EU foreigners who newly obtained a work permit	**111.3**	**129.2**	**166.5**	**182.0**
Level of education (%)				
No diploma	76.7	78.3	82.2	. .
Primary level	19.6	18.2	14.9	. .
Secondary level	3.1	2.9	2.4	. .
University	0.6	0.5	0.4	. .
Sector of activity (%)				
Agriculture	18.5	21.9	22.6	23.5
Manufacturing	44.0	44.2	43.5	41.0
Domestic work	9.3	5.4	5.3	5.3
Other	28.2	28.5	28.6	30.2
Stocks of foreign employment[3]	**332.2**	**. .**	**532.7**	**614.6**
Characteristics of registered foreign unemployed (excluding EU citizens)	**98.4**	**146.9**	**177.9**	**206.0**
Length of registration (%)				
Less than 3 months	34.6	35.9	. .	26.3
3 months to 1 year	34.6	35.4	. .	36.2
More than 1 year	30.8	28.8	. .	37.3
Age groups (%)				
Less than 18	1.6	1.5	. .	1.7
19-24	14.2	15.0	. .	13.5
25-29	25.4	24.6	. .	22.4
30 and over	58.8	58.9	. .	62.3

1. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.
2. Including self-employed and unemployed.
3. Number of non-EU foreigners who hold a work permit. Excluding unemployed with a residence permit who are registered in the local employment Offices.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; ISTAT.

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In 1998, over 614 600 foreigners held a valid residence permit granted for employment purposes, of which 42 000 were issued to self-employed workers. In all, 447 700 persons were actually working and some 100 000 were registered with unemployment offices.

The new Immigration Act states that foreign workers can enter Italy on the basis of a national quota negotiated with their country of origin, or upon request from an Italian employer or through sponsorship by a permanent resident. The issuance of residence permits granted for economic reasons, whether seasonal or permanent, is subject to a quota. For the first two years the quota was set at 58 000 permits, of which 3 500 were reserved for the self-employed. In 2000, it was initially planned to grant 63 000 permits, but under pressure from employers in the North the authorities decided to increase the quota by 30 000.

In 1998, the number of permit applications filed from abroad rose for the first time, increasing from 20 700 in 1997 to 27 300. For several years, these applications have increasingly been made by nationals of Central and Eastern European countries, primarily from Poland, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Romania, rather than by Moroccan and Filipino nationals. In 1998, half of them worked in agriculture and services and only some 2 900 people worked in the industrial sector. Newly hired foreign workers generally have low levels of education and hold unskilled jobs under temporary contracts.

Some work permits have also been granted to foreign nationals under the ongoing regularisation programme. By July 1998, over 218 000 applications for work permits had been filed, chiefly by Albanian, Romanian, Moroccan, Chinese and Nigerian nationals. On the basis of the first 63 000 cases decided, the rate of refusal was estimated at only 5.7%. In large cities, this rate was even slightly lower.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence of foreigners (including integration measures)

Act No. 40 of 6 March 1998 replaces the legislation of 1990 and separates regulation of immigration from that of asylum and other humanitarian treatment. However, the order implementing this law was not approved by the Audit Court until 26 October 1999 and it was effectively implemented only as from 3 November of the same year. In the interim the administrative authorities had to rely on internal circulars and directives of a more or less provisional nature.

Act No. 40 has three main purposes: to regularise entries on the basis of annual quotas set by the government; to implement sterner measures to combat illegal entry and the criminal exploitation of migrants; and, to increase support for the integration of foreigners residing legally in Italy. The Act also brings Italian legislation on border controls into line with the Schengen Agreements, which came into force in Italy in October 1997.

The new legislation introduces a system of official deportation and immediate escort to the border in cases of illegal entry, ineligibility for a residence permit or threat to public order. Foreigners to whom a deportation order has been issued will be sent to special centres and may be held there for 20 to 30 days at the request of the competent authorities. The same legislation contains measures to promote and improve the integration of foreigners residing in Italy. A permanent residence permit may be issued, subject to a means-test, to persons who have been residing in Italy for at least five years.

Lastly, in November 1999, Italy published a report on the integration of immigrants. The Italian government took a strong position on the integration of foreigners, considering immigration to be a structural trend that would continue in the future and which is beneficial to the development of the country as a whole. In this framework, the goal is to foster better relations between the national and immigrant populations and promote equal opportunities in the labour market.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The legislative framework concerning refugees and asylum seekers is one of Italy's least clear. A bill aimed at solving this problem, which was prepared at the same time as the new Immigration Act, was published in November 1998 by the Constitutional Affairs Committee of the Chamber of Deputies. It is expected to come into effect in late 2000.

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The new legislation provides for specialised officials at Italy's borders, who will receive asylum applications directly. The financial support granted to applicants, which is currently 17 Euros per day for the first 45 days, will be increased and the burden will be borne by local authorities.

JAPAN

Introduction

Accompanying the further slackening of labour demand the number of persons entering without any restriction placed on their employment, having increased by almost 60% over the preceding two years, fell by almost 30% in 1998. The 10% rise in the inflow of those with restricted permission to work, all of whom are classified as skilled, was largely due to the increase in the entries of entertainers who account for almost three quarters of the total inflow under this category. Following three years of at or above double-digit growth, the inflow of trainees rose by just 1% in 1998.

Following 1997's almost 50% rise to 7 100 in the number of people detected as having entered without proper documentation, which led the Japanese authorities to introduce additional amendments to the Immigration Act in order to further counter the criminal organisations involved in clandestine immigration, the increase in 1998 was just 5%, a rate which corresponds to the medium term trend observed prior to 1997. The number of persons deported fell by 2% in 1998, as did the total number of undocumented residents.

Following the approval by parliament in August 1999 of new measures to combat illegal immigration, in October 1999 the duration of the initial visas accorded to all skilled workers with the exception of entertainers was extended and the entry requirements for certain categories of skilled worker were the subject of a slight relaxation. These policy developments would appear to form part of a long-term strategy whereby the authorities are seeking to demonstrate their desire to tighten their control over the inflow of foreign nationals in order facilitate the society's acceptance of greater numbers.

1. Trends in migration movements

Only those staying for more than 90 days (the registration of whom is obligatory under the Alien Registration Law) are considered here. These entrants are assigned a residence status according to their economic activity in Japan or their personal status as a foreigner eligible to enter and reside there.

The number of persons entering as "long-term residents", which had increased by 10% in 1995, 45% in 1996 and by over two thirds in 1997, fell by almost 30% in 1998 to number just under 46 500. Just as the earlier increases had been due largely to substantially increased inflows of the grandchildren and later descendants of Japanese emigrants (the overwhelming majority from South America), the inflow of whom had increased almost six-fold between 1994 and 1997, the fall in 1998 was largely due to a decline in their numbers, itself attributable to the extremely unfavourable labour market situation for foreigners not possessing sought-after skills.

Entries of individuals with restricted permission to work totalled 102 000, an increase of just under 9% over the previous year. At the end of 1998, the total number of foreign nationals residing with this status was 119 000, an increase of 11% on 1997. A 9% increase in the number of entertainers (who account for almost three quarters of the total inflow under this category) most of whom originate in the Philippines, accounts for over half of the rise.

Following three years of at or above double-digit growth, at 49 800 the inflow of trainees in 1998 was just 1% higher than in 1997 (see Table III.23). As in previous years, nine out of ten were from Asia, of whom half were from China; Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand together accounted for a further 30%.

Inflows of students, which have over recent years displayed a marked upward trend, increased by 16% in 1998 to 28 000.

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Box III.4. Policy on the entry of foreign workers

The scope for the acceptance of foreign workers is controlled by the Immigration Control and Refugees Recognition Act and other related immigration laws and regulations the implementation of which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Justice. Containing neither quota systems nor a labour market test, these laws adopt rather a positive list approach the requirements of which are set out in an Ordinance drawn-up by the Ministry of Justice following consideration of factors that might affect "Japanese industry and the general welfare" (Article 7): implicitly this includes consideration of labour market developments.

Within this framework, the basic principles of current migration policy are set out in the Economic Plan (1996) and the Employment Counter Measures Plan (1996). According to these plans, which differ little from those set out in the recent past, Japan will readily accept foreigners possessing technological expertise, skills or knowledge or who engage in business which requires a knowledge of foreign culture not possessed by Japanese nationals. Those with lower levels of qualification, however, are not to be accepted. The ethnic Japanese, who enter under the status of long-term resident rather than foreign worker, are not subject to this basic principle.

Foreigners entering Japan for employment are given an authorised period of stay as stipulated by their entry category in the Immigration Act. With the exception of entertainers, they can apply for an extension of the period if they remain under the same circumstances. Japanese immigration policy, then, has neither a concept of "permanent" nor of "temporary" foreign worker. Foreign workers' dependants (*i.e.* their spouses and unmarried minor children) are not in general authorised to work.

Illegal immigration

In response to the sharp rise taking place in 1997 in the number of people detected as having entered the country without proper documentation the authorities amended the Immigration Act in May of that year to provide for the imposition of severe penalties on those found to have organised or abetted the smuggling of aliens. At less than 7 500, the number detected in 1998 was just 5% greater than in 1997, a rate of increase which corresponds to the medium term trend observed prior to 1997's 50% rise.

Box III.5. Policy on the entry of trainees and the conversion of their status to technical interns

Accompanying the growth in the direct investment by Japanese companies in other Asian countries the employees of their overseas affiliates or joint ventures have been coming to Japan as trainees since the 1960s. The companies' three primary objectives have been to compensate for their foreign employees' lack of basic education and general training, to enhance their understanding of the companies' products and production processes and to encourage their long-term commitment.

Since 1990, small and medium sized enterprises without an overseas presence have been permitted to bring in overseas trainees. They typically do so through intermediary bodies such as Chambers of Commerce and employers associations; this exempts them from the 5% ceiling on the proportion of trainees to regular workers.

The Technical Internship Training Programme, an extension of the general trainee scheme, was introduced in 1993 under the supervision of the Japan International Training co-operation Organisation (JITCO). Within the framework of this programme, regular trainees, who pass certain skill tests after a period of training, can become technical intern trainees thereby changing their status of residence to come under the "designated activities' category and so becoming entitled to the same rights as their Japanese colleagues *vis-à-vis* the labour standard law, the minimum wage law and other labour-related laws. In addition to being operational, technical intern trainees play an important role in supervising and assisting the regular trainees. In 1997, their maximum period of stay was extended from two years to three. JITCO has concluded agreements as a record of discussions with the governments of China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Mongolia, Peru, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Uzbekistan and Vietnam regarding the exchange of information on trainees and on sending organisations.

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Table III.23. **Inflows of foreigners by status of residence, 1995-1998, Japan**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	% change 1997-1998
Total[1]	**209.8**	**225.4**	**274.8**	**265.5**	**–3.4**
Diplomat and official	20.1	19.0	18.4	16.5	–10.3
Residents with restricted permission to work	**81.5**	**78.5**	**94.0**	**101.9**	**8.4**
of which:					
Entertainer	59.8	54.0	67.5	73.8	9.3
Specialist in humanities or international services	5.0	6.1	6.7	7.2	7.5
Engineer	3.7	4.4	5.1	5.7	11.8
Intra-company transferee	3.1	2.8	3.4	3.5	2.9
Instructor	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.3	6.5
Skilled labour	2.2	3.3	2.8	3.0	7.1
Professor	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.4	–6.7
Religious activities	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	–
Investor and business manager	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	9.1
Researcher	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.2	–7.7
Journalist	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	–
Artist	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Cultural activities	3.7	3.9	4.1	3.7	–9.8
Student	20.1	21.2	24.2	28.0	15.7
Trainee	40.6	45.5	49.6	49.8	0.4
Dependant	14	15.2	16.1	16.1	–
"Designated activities"	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.0	–9.1
Long-term residents	**26.8**	**38.9**	**65.3**	**46.4**	**–28.9**
of which:					
Spouse and child of Japanese national	19.95	25.9	31.6	24.6	–22.2
Spouse and child of permanent resident	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	33.3
Other	6.6	12.8	33.4	21.5	–35.6

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.
Source: Ministry of Justice.

Deportations

Almost 48 500 persons were deported in 1998, a fall of slightly over 2% on 1997. Of these almost 85% had been working illegally. Reflecting the increasing tendency for illegal workers to settle in Japan, over half had been working for more than three years.

Asylum seekers and refugees

Though Japan receives few applications for asylum their number has, however, been displaying an upward trend. Having received a total of fewer than 1 200 applications during the period 1982-95, 147 applications were recorded in 1996; in 1997 the figure was 242 falling back to 133 in 1998. China and Myanmar account for the majority of applications. Since 1982, fewer than 250 applications have been accepted. The authorities report that the asylum application procedure is increasing becoming the subject of misuse, in particular as a means of remaining in the country in order to take up employment during the period that the application is being considered.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The recorded stock of foreign nationals (those staying for more than 90 days and registered as required under the Alien Registration Law), stood at just over 1.5 million (1.2% of the total population) at the end of 1998, a 2% rise on 1997 (see Table III.24). Koreans are the most numerous, accounting for over 40% of the total; their numbers are

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steadily and slowly declining however. Above the general trend increases in the second largest group, the Chinese, and the fourth most important, the Filipinos, explain the major part of the overall increase.

In principle, permanent residence cannot be accorded immediately but rather after a fairly extensive period of stay. Numbering 626 800, permanent residents account for 42% of the foreign population. Of these, almost 90% are special permanent residents, *i.e.* those Koreans who had lost Japanese nationality on the basis of the Treaty of Peace with Japan, and their descendants who, born of foreign parents, are not automatically entitled to Japanese nationality.

The stock of long-term residents declined by 0.3% in 1998 to just over 482 000, one third of the total foreign population. Slightly over half of these are the spouses or children of Japanese nationals. The remainder are ethnic Japanese (the grandchildren and later descendants of Japanese emigrants); an almost negligible number are the spouses or children of permanent residents (who themselves are essentially composed of Korean nationals).

At the end of 1998, the total number of foreign nationals residing with restricted permission to work was 119 000, an increase of almost 11% on 1997 which continued the sustained upward trend observed since 1996. More than half of this increase was due to an over 30% increase in the number of entertainers; the number of engineers also rose significantly.

Official stock data for the number of trainees are unavailable; the estimate of 115 000 quoted in last year's report remains valid.

Visa overstayers

Through the matching of embarkation and disembarkation cards the number of foreign nationals overstaying their legal period of stay has been estimated twice yearly since 1992. Due to tightened visa control, improved co-operation between the agencies charged with tackling the problem as well as to a publicity campaign dissuading employers from hiring illegal workers their number has been declining steadily since 1993. The deteriorating state of the labour market and the implementation of the May 1997 amendment to the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act which provides for the imposition of severe penalties on those found to have organised or abetted the smuggling of aliens have also had an impact. The 2% decline in the total number of undocumented residents in 1998 (bringing the figure down to 270 000 by January 1999) does however mask two interesting developments: on the one hand, the number of undocumented Koreans having increased only moderately through to 1996 and having declined in 1997 rose by 20% in 1998 to 62 600 – the recession in Korea and the fact that there exists a large Korean community in Japan would in large part explain this; on the other, the number of undocumented Filipinos began to decline – this appears to be linked to the increased registered inflow of Filipina entertainers, the earlier increases in the undocumented immigration of whom had been linked to tighter entry controls on this profession which they dominate.

Naturalisations

Having been on an upward trend, the number of naturalisations declined by nearly 2% in 1998 to 14 800. This is nevertheless almost three times the 1988 figure. Koreans accounted for almost two thirds and Chinese almost one third. The majority had previously possessed permanent resident status.

3. Migration and the labour market

Stock of foreign workers

In spite of the recession, the Ministry of Labour estimates that the number of foreigners (not including permanent residents) working in Japan increased by 1.5% in 1998 to approximately 670 000 (see Table III.24). It should be noted that whilst technical intern trainees are included in this estimate general trainees are not. Similarly, the estimated number of illegal workers comprised in this total does not take account those working in violation of their visa status, for example language teachers working on tourist visas; rather, the number of overstayers serves as a proxy.

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Table III.24. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Japan**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Inflows of foreign nationals[1]	**209.8**	**225.4**	**274.8**	**265.5**
Stock of total population[2]	**125 568.0**	**125 864.0**	**126 166.0**	**126 486.0**
Stock of foreign nationals[3]	**1 362.4**	**1 415.1**	**1 482.7**	**1 512.1**
By country of origin				
Korea	666.4	657.2	645.4	638.8
China (including Chinese Taipei)	223.0	234.3	252.2	272.2
Brazil	176.4	201.8	233.3	222.2
Philippines	74.3	84.5	93.3	105.3
United States	43.2	44.2	43.7	42.8
Other	179.1	193.1	214.8	230.8
By status of residence				
Permanent residents[4]	626.6	626.0	625.5	626.8
Long-term residents	402.3	438.2	483.7	482.3
of which:				
Spouse or child of Japanese national	244.4	258.8	274.5	264.8
Spouse or child of permanent resident	6.8	6.5	6.3	6.2
Other	151.1	172.9	202.9	211.3
Foreign workers with permission of employment	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0
Other (accompanying family, student, trainee, etc.)	245.5	252.6	266.2	284.0
Naturalisations	**14.1**	**14.5**	**15.1**	**14.0**
of which:				
Korea	10.3	9.9	9.7	9.6
China	3.2	4.0	4.7	4.6
Foreign labour force (estimates)[5]	**610**	**630**	**660**	**670**
Foreign residents with permission of employment by status of residence[6]				
Specialist in humanities or international services	25.1	27.4	29.9	31.3
Entertainer	16.0	20.1	22.2	28.9
Engineer	9.9	11.1	12.9	15.2
Skilled labour	7.4	8.8	9.6	10.0
Instructor	7.2	7.5	7.8	7.9
Intra-company transferee	5.9	5.9	6.4	6.6
Professor	4.1	4.6	5.1	5.4
Investor and business manager	4.6	5.0	5.0	5.1
Religious activities	5.3	5.0	5.0	4.9
Researcher	1.7	2.0	2.5	2.8
Journalist	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4
Artist	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Medical services	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Legal and accounting services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	**88.0**	**98.3**	**107.3**	**119.0**
Trainees and working holiday makers	**6.6**	**8.6**	**12.1**	**19.6**
Estimates of students engaged in part time jobs	**32.4**	**30.1**	**32.2**	**38.0**
Estimates of Japanese descents engaged in gainful activities[7]	**193.7**	**211.2**	**234.1**	**220.8**
Illegal workers[8]	**280**	**280**	**280**	**270**
Number of foreign nationals deported	55.5	54.3	49.6	48.5

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.
2. Registered population as of 1 October of the years indicated.
3. Data are based on registered foreign nationals as of 31 December of the years indicated. The figures include foreigners staying in Japan for more than 90 days.
4. Essentially Korean nationals. A "special permanent residents" category was introduced in 1992. It includes Koreans and Taiwanese nationals who lost their Japanese nationality as a consequence of the Peace Treaty of 1952 but who had continued to reside permanently in Japan.
5. Estimates including illegal workers. Excluding permanent residents.
6. Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese nationals, spouse or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restriction imposed to the kind of activities they can engage in Japan and are excluded from these data.
7. Estimates made by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
8. Estimates made by the Ministry of Justice on the basis of the number of overstayers.

Sources: Ministry of Justice; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of Labour.

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This overall increase is composed on the one hand of declines in the number of long-term residence permit holders (by 6%, 13 000) and illegal workers (by 2.5%, 7 000) and on the other of increases in the numbers of those classified under "designated activities" (by 60%, 7 500 – the overwhelming majority of such people are former general trainees who have been permitted to change their status of residence from trainee to technical intern; their number is increasing rapidly: the 1998 figure of 13 000 was over twice that of 1997 which itself had been almost equal to the total of the preceding four years), of entertainers (by 30%, nearly 6 700), of engineers (by 18%, 2 400) and of students engaged in part-time jobs (by 17%, 5 500).

Trends in the employment of foreign workers

According to the most recently collated results of the reports requested by and voluntarily submitted to the Reporting System on the Employment of Foreigners, established in 1993 by the Ministry of Labour, those of June 1998, there had been no significant changes over the previous twelve months in the occupational distribution of foreign workers: 41% of those directly employed were in the service sector, 52% in manufacturing and 5.5% in construction. In line with the trend observed among nationals, the proportion of foreign workers engaged in subcontracted employment increased by 1% to just under 40%. This proportion has been rising continually since 1994, the first year that data on them were compiled and when they accounted for just over one quarter of the foreign workforce.

4. Policy developments

Japan has the one of the world's fastest growing proportion of over 65 year olds. In a report issued in July 1999 entitled "*Secure Diversity and Vitality by Accepting Foreign Workers*", the Economic Planning Agency called for the development of active policies to encourage the immigration of foreign workers in specialist and technical fields. This immigration would not however be permanent: the EPA proposes that the acceptance of foreign workers be subject to "accurate and flexible adjustments [...] reflecting Japan's labour market conditions, including a deterioration of the employment situation." In addition, the EPA also proposed that measures be introduced in order to increase the number of international students and to facilitate their employment after graduation. Regarding unskilled labour, the EPA was much more cautious, expressing concern over the need to give "due consideration to the effects on Japan's socio-economy and the lives of its people".

With the aim of facilitating the entry of skilled foreign workers and the prolongation of their stay (at present less than 25% remain in the country for more than three years), in October 1999, the minimum visa duration for the various categories of skilled worker (with the exception of entertainers) was extended from 6 months to one year. For these skilled workers the maximum period of the initial renewable visa is now three years (the initial duration had in some cases been just one year). In addition, the requirement that those entering under the category of researcher have three years previous experience was removed from those possessing a masters degree. Further, the minimum salary requirement for specialists in humanities and international services was revised from "over 250 000 yen per month" to "no less than a Japanese national would receive for the same work".

In the case of entertainers, the minimum period of their (in principle non-renewable) visa is now three months (rather than thirty days); the maximum duration of their visa remains one year.

In response to the continued increase in illegal entries in 1998, the Immigration Act was further amended in August 1999. The amendments, which came into force in February 2000, removed the statute of limitations on the crime of illegal entry (previously, once they had been in the country for more than three years the only penalty they faced was deportation), provided for their punishment by a fine of up to JPY 300 000 and/or up to three years in prison and further stipulated that once deported they would not be allowed to re-enter the country for five years (previously the period was one year).

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KOREA

Introduction

Korea's recovery from its worst recession in post-war history has been much stronger than expected. Output growth in 1999 has been estimated at over 10% and is expected to run at a more sustainable rate of around 6% in 2000. Against this background, unemployment declined steadily during 1999. Nevertheless, the January 2000 figure of 5.3%, though a marked improvement on that of 12 months earlier was still over twice as high as that prevailing prior to the crisis; this despite a sharp fall in the participation rate.

Prior to the economic crisis the importation and employment of foreign workers had, despite their small scale, been a source of some controversy. Their political importance would appear to have diminished still further in 1999. The social and political pressure to clamp down on illegal migrant workers and their employers, which had become quite vociferous upon the outset of the crisis, would appear to have been assuaged by the legislation and accompanying measures implemented in their regard in 1998, notably two amnesty operations which allowed undocumented foreigners (the overwhelming majority of whom visa-overstayers) to leave the country without having to pay immigration-related fines. As was indicated in last year's report, these measures did not have a significant impact on the underlying phenomenon. Registered foreign workers have clearly played a buffer role: the number of skilled foreign workers, having fallen by a quarter during 1998, increased by over 10% in 1999; following an almost 30% fall in 1998, the growth in the number of trainees in 1999 was such as to bring their number over the pre-crisis figure.

1. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The rate of growth in the number of foreign nationals, staying more than 90 days and registered as required under the Emigration and Immigration Act, having remained low through to 1991 increased rapidly following the 1992 normalisation of diplomatic relations with China. This normalisation led to substantial increases both in the inflows from China of Chinese and of ethnic Koreans and in the number of trainees entering from other neighbouring countries. These increases notwithstanding, at the end of 1997 they numbered only 177 000, less than half of 1% of the total population. Following an over 16% fall in 1998, their number increased by 28% in 1999 to just over 189 000. In line with the medium term trend of, on the one hand, the rising relative importance of the Chinese community and, on the other, the otherwise increasing diversification in the range of origin countries, just under one quarter of the increase in 1999 was due to the re-continuation of the rise in the number of persons originating from China and a further two thirds was attributable increases in the numbers of those originating from countries other than the six most important, in particular Vietnam and Bangladesh.

2. Migration and the labour market

There are three types of migrant worker in Korea: the legally employed; *de facto* employees accepted under the industrial and technical training program (ITTP); and the illegally employed. All categories combined, they accounted prior to the crisis for less than 1% of the total workforce. The legal migrant workers, comprised essentially of professionals, teachers, technicians and entertainers, are all skilled. The use of workers-cum-trainees is largely confined to areas of the manufacturing sector such as textiles, electronics, chemicals, toys and musical instruments. Illegal workers are typically found in unskilled positions in the construction sector and areas of the manufacturing and service sectors.

Although unemployment remains high in relation to the weak coverage of unemployment insurance and the benefits that such coverage provides, the total stock of foreign workers, having declined by 30% during 1998, increased by over one third in 1999 bringing the total up to over 90% of the pre-crisis figure. The rebound has been most marked for trainees: an over 50% rise in 1999 brought their number up to over 98 000, almost 10% more than the pre-crisis figure (see Table III.25). The number of illegal workers rose by over one third during 1999 bringing their total to 135 000 at the end of the year, just over 90% of the pre-crisis figure. The 13% increase in the number of skilled workers present at the end of 1999 brought their number up to 12 600,

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Table III.25. **Foreign workers in Korea by category, 1996-1999**
Thousands

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Skilled workers	**13.4**	**14.7**	**11.1**	**12.6**
Language teacher	7.5	7.6	4.9	. .
Other teacher	0.8	0.9	0.8	. .
Entertainer	1.0	1.4	1.1	. .
Researcher	0.5	0.7	0.6	. .
Technician	0.9	1.0	0.5	. .
Other professional	0.3	0.3	0.3	. .
Other	2.4	2.8	2.9	. .
Trainees by recruting agencies	**68.0**	**90.4**	**64.2**	**98.4**
Korean Federation of small businesses	46.5	61.9	43.3	67.0
Companies investing abroad	21.6	26.9	19.8	30.0
Other	–	1.6	1.1	1.4
Estimates of the number of overstayers[1]	**129.1**	**148.1**	**99.5**	**135.3**
China	50.6	57.8	55.6	68.8
Bangladesh	9.6	9.0	7.5	10.9
Mongolia	3.5	7.6	5.6	10.6
Philippines	14.6	13.9	6.4	9.2
Vietnam	4.4	6.4	3.7	5.1
Pakistan	5.5	5.9	3.1	4.3
Sri Lanka	1.6	2.2	1.1	1.3
Other	39.3	45.2	16.6	25.1
Total (skilled workers, trainees and overstayers)	**210.5**	**253.1**	**174.9**	**246.3**

1. Most of the overstayers are supposed to work illegally.
Source: Ministry of Justice.

which is equivalent to 85% of the pre-crisis figure. That their numbers rose by a much lower degree than the other categories in 1999 is attributable on the one hand to the lagged effect of the fall in foreign direct investment (FDI) recorded in 1998 and on the other to the existence of a relatively buoyant demand for cheap labour to accomplish the more disagreeable and demanding tasks.

Skilled foreign workers

Shortly before the onset of the crisis the government had revised the Immigration and Emigration Law to abolish the ceiling on the period of stay granted to foreign skilled workers. It also simplified the administrative procedures governing the issuing of their visas. The steady improvement in the Korean economy can therefore be expected to lead to sustained growth in their numbers, particularly if such an improvement is accompanied by increases in FDI inflows.

Trainees

Created in 1992, the initial purpose of Korea's Industrial and Technical Training Programme (the ITTP) was to permit foreign workers employed by the overseas subsidiaries of Korean firms to come to Korea for up to one year in order to upgrade their skills. Then, as now, unskilled foreign workers were not permitted to work in Korea. Later, the programme was extended to medium and small size companies in the manufacturing sector suffering from labour shortages; *de facto*, their trainees are workers. In this way, the training programme has effectively become a programme of unskilled labour importation. The maximum period of stay has been extended twice, in 1993 and in 1996, to bring it up to three years. In 1997, after a great deal of nation-wide debate concerning the possible introduction of a work permit system, a revision was made to the ITTP allowing trainees to be employed as legal workers upon completion of a certain period of training.

Approximately one third of the trainees admitted under the ITTP are recruited directly by the overseas subsidiaries of Korean firms. Almost all of the other two thirds enter under the auspices of the Korea Federation of

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Small Businesses (KFSB). Almost negligible numbers are admitted through the National Federation of Fisheries Co-operatives (NFFC) which has been permitted to bring in trainees since 1997 and latterly the Korean Construction Association (KCA). Each of the three federations requires approval from its relevant Ministry for the firms it selects to receive trainees and the numbers allocated to them. In 1999, for the first time various ministries and government agencies themselves admitted small numbers of trainees.

Illegal workers

As wages increased and labour shortages became more severe from the early 1990s onwards, the employment of illegal migrant workers rapidly increased. The figures presented in Table III.25 and discussed below are based on the assumption that all those and only those overstaying their visa are illegally employed; they do not include those who work in violation of their visa status, for example, private sector language teachers working on tourist visas. (In view of Korea's geopolitical situation and its uncommonly tight border control, very few will have entered the country clandestinely.) In 1992 they accounted for almost three quarters of all foreigners working in Korea. After rising to over 80% in 1993 the proportion then fell back in 1994 to just under 60%. The proportion has since remained remarkably stable reflecting, it would be reasonable to suppose, the influence of the ITTP.

The number of visa overstayers has risen continually since the end of the second amnesty in August 1998. That the amnesty operations effected in 1998 have had only a very short-term impact on the employment of undocumented foreign workers is attributable on the one hand to the sustained demand for low-wage workers prepared to perform the more disagreeable jobs and, on the other, to the difficulty in preventing visa holders from overstaying. The amnesties have in fact merely served to offer a windfall gain to persons who in initially deciding to overstay their visa would have assumed that they would be obliged to pay immigration-related fines on leaving the country and would have added the expected value of the fine to the target level of savings which they sought to accrue in the course of their stay.

3. Policy developments

The Emigration, Immigration and Legal Status of Overseas Ethnic Koreans Act

The Emigration and Immigration and Legal Status of Overseas Koreans Bill, referred to in last year's report, was enacted in January 2000. Under this draft law, persons defined as ethnic Korean are permitted to stay in Korea for two years with a possibility of extension and are permitted to visit Korea any number of times. They are permitted to take up employment and to engage in other economic activities such as acquiring real estate. Those staying more than 90 days are eligible for medical insurance coverage. Finally, despite not having Korean nationality, those taking up work as civil servants, teachers or soldiers are entitled to receive a state pension.

For the purposes of this act, "Overseas ethnic Koreans" are defined as those who fall into one of the three following categories:

- Korean citizens residing abroad with the status of permanent resident, or who are deemed to be residing abroad permanently.
- Persons who held Korean citizenship, left the country after the Republic of Korea was formed in 1948 and lost their Korean nationality; the descendants of such people are also included in this category.
- Korean nationals who left Korea before the Republic was formed and who either *i*) prior to obtaining the nationality of a foreign country had their Korean origin expressly confirmed through registration or *ii*) are able to produce two or more persons who are qualified under the Act to act as guarantors of their Korean origin; the descendants of such people are also included in this category.

As defined, this categorisation presents an obstacle to ethnic Koreans in China and Russia whose ancestors left or were forced to leave Korea before and during the period of Japanese rule (1910-1945) as they will have great difficulty in locating guarantors.

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LUXEMBOURG

Introduction

Luxembourg, which has a total population of approximately 430 000, is enjoying a favourable economic situation. GDP grew by 7.5% in 1999, which was two points higher than the annual average since 1985. Employment has increased and the unemployment rate has continued to decline, falling to 2.9% in 2000. The growth in activity is partly due to the dynamism of cross-border and immigrant workers.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, Luxembourg's population has risen by an average of 5 600 per year, composed of a natural increase of just over 1 000 and net migration of approximately 4 000.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows of foreigners

Since 1990, the annual average inflow has been 10 000, as compared with 6 000 for outflows. In 1998, there was a net migration gain of over 4 000 foreigners, and the provisional figures for 1999 point to a gain of approximately 4 700. Although there is an upward trend in arrivals from non-EU countries (3 500 in 1998 as compared with 2 800 in 1997), the majority of new immigrants are from Portugal, France and Belgium.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Until 1987, most asylum seekers came under quotas accepted by the Luxembourg Government as part of international refugee resettlement programmes. Since 1989, the number of asylum seekers has risen substantially, peaking in 1999 with slightly over 1 300 applications filed, mostly by nationals of the former Yugoslavia. The influx of applicants from Kosovo resulted in the creation of a special temporary protection scheme for Albanians living in this region. This measure was added to existing ones, such as that introduced in March 1992 which provides for the granting of humanitarian status for refugees from other regions of the former Yugoslavia.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

In nearly ten years, the foreign population residing in Luxembourg has increased by over 40%, rising from 113 000 in 1991 to nearly 160 000 in 2000. At the same time, Luxembourg's resident population has grown by only 1.8%, which implies that population growth is almost entirely due to migration inflows and children born to foreign residents.

The number of foreigners from non-EU countries is increasing (nearly 13% of the foreign population in 1998, as compared with less than 9% in 1991). Italians constituted the biggest group of foreigners until the late 1970s, but the Portuguese have been the largest group since the early 1980s. There were 57 000 Portuguese residents in 2000, followed by the Italians (20 000) and the French (19 000). However, the increase in the number of foreigners over the past four years has largely been due to the arrival of nationals of the former Yugoslavia (see Table III.26).

Naturalisations

To acquire Luxembourg nationality, the applicant must be over 18 years of age and have resided in Luxembourg for at least ten years (without interruption for the past five years). There are some 50 000 people who meet these conditions, yet the annual number of naturalisations remains low (700). There are two likely explanations for this situation: firstly, 90% of the foreign resident population are EU nationals and, secondly, the fact that Luxembourg does not allow dual citizenship may be an obstacle.

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Table III.26. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Luxembourg**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Components of total population change				
Natural increase	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.5
of which: foreigners	. .	1.9	1.9	2.0
Net migration	4.6	3.7	3.8	4.0
of which: foreigners	4.7	3.7	3.6	. .
Population (31 December)	412.8	418.3	423.7	429.2
of which: foreigners	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9
Migration flows by country of origin/destination				
Inflows	**10.3**	**10.0**	**10.4**	**11.6**
Portugal	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0
France	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0
Belgium	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Other countries	4.9	4.7	4.9	5.6
Net migration	**4.6**	**3.7**	**3.8**	**4.1**
Portugal	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.6
France	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9
Belgium	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.5
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.9
Foreign population by main nationality[1]	**138.1**	**142.8**	**147.7**	**152.9**
Portugal	51.5	53.1	54.5	55.9
Italy	19.8	19.8	19.9	20.0
France	15.0	15.7	16.5	17.5
Belgium	11.8	12.4	13.2	13.8
Germany	9.7	9.9	10.0	10.3
Spain	2.8	2.8	2.9	. .
Other countries	27.5	29.1	30.7	35.4
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality[2]	**0.8**	**0.8**	**0.7**	**0.6**
Italy	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Belgium	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Other countries	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2
Mixed marriages	**0.6**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.5**
% of total marriages	26.8	24.4	27.6	25.0

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Inflows of foreign workers[3]	**16.5**	**18.3**	**18.6**	**19.4**
of which: Women	5.9	6.7	6.4	6.8
Inflows by region or country of origin				
EU	15.5	17.2	17.7	18.5
of which:				
France	6.7	8.1	8.6	8.6
Belgium	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.0
Germany	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.6
Portugal	2.2	2.1	1.8	1.8
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Other countries	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9
Inflows by major industry division				
Agriculture, forestry	0.2	0.2	0.1	. .
Extractive and manufacturing industries	1.3	1.3	1.6	. .
Building	1.8	1.6	1.6	. .
Trade, banks, insurances	7.4	9.3	10.1	. .
Transport, communications	1.1	1.4	1.4	. .
Hotels	1.9	1.8	1.7	. .
Personal services	0.3	0.1	0.2	. .
Other services	2.5	2.5	2.5	. .
Inflows by status of residence				
Resident workers	5.7	5.6	. .	. .
Cross-border workers	10.7	12.6	. .	. .
Stock of workers (excluding unemployed)				
Total employment (including nationals)[4]	213.5	219.5	226.5	228.4
Breakdown by nationality (%)[5]				
Luxembourgers	44	44	41	40
Resident and cross-border foreigners	56	56	59	60
Stock of cross-border workers by nationality[4]	**55.5**	**59.6**	**64.4**	**70.8**
France (% of total cross-borders)	51.5	51.7	52.3	52.7
Belgium (% of total cross-borders)	30.5	30.0	29.5	28.9
Germany (% of total cross-borders)	18.0	18.3	18.2	18.4
Job-seekers (national definition)	**5.1**	**5.7**	**6.4**	**5.5**
of which: Foreigners (% of total job seekers)	54.3	57.7	57.9	59.4

1. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.
2. Children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents are excluded.
3. Data cover arrivals of foreign workers to Luxembourg and foreign residents entering the labour market for the first time.
4. Annual average.
5. Salaried workers as of 31 March of each year.

Sources: STATEC; Inspection générale de la Sécurité sociale (IGSS); Administration de l'Emploi.

3. Migration and the labour market

Luxembourg's labour force was estimated at approximately 185 000 in 1999 (not including cross-border workers). Labour market trends in recent years have been characterised by a continual decline in the share of nationals in salaried employment (40% in 1998, as compared with 54% in 1990). Nationals of the European Economic Area hold 57% of salaried jobs while the share of foreigners from non-EU countries is 3%. Cross-border workers have benefited most from the favourable economic situation, and their relative share of overall employment is higher than 30%. Attracted by high wage levels, the largest numbers of cross-border workers come, in descending order of importance, from France, Belgium and Germany.

Foreign wage-earners are well represented in all economic sectors (excepting public administration): 32% are employed in industry, 15% in both commerce and real estate and 12% in banking.

4. Policy developments

Between 1996 and 1999, numerous regulations and laws aimed at promoting the integration of foreigners were adopted. Among the many legislative measures passed, the following are worthy of mention:

- The Regulation of 21 February 1996 on the composition and functioning of the special commissions of the National Council for Foreign Nationals. This body is responsible for combating all forms of racial discrimination, making foreigners aware of their right to participate in future local elections and addressing issues involving cross-border workers.
- The Act of 22 April 1996 on the creation of a procedure for examining asylum applications. This supplemented three other acts adopted during the same year brought Luxembourg's asylum procedures into line with developments in the field of human rights, EU practice and the Schengen Agreements.
- The Regulation of 3 June 1996 on the conditions governing the entry and stay of certain categories of foreigners covered by international conventions.
- The Regulation of 3 June 1996 on the composition, organisation and functioning of the Advisory Commission on the Supervision of Foreign Nationals.
- The Act of 19 July 1997 increasing the sanctions applicable for the offence of slander or libel motivated by the victim's membership of an ethnic group, nation, race or particular religion.

Two new bills are currently being examined. The first provides for temporary protection and the second amends the procedures for applying for asylum. Lastly, a new bill concerning the possibility of EU nationals applying for posts in the Luxembourg civil service was adopted on 17 May 1999.

Numerous initiatives concerning the integration of children of foreign origin in Luxembourg schools have also been adopted. They are based on common education, trilingual teaching (Luxembourg, French and German) and equal opportunities, whatever the origin of the children and the language constraints involved. In 1998, the Ministry of National Education presented a report entitled; "Integrated schools: situation, questions and prospects", which examines ways of promoting the schooling of foreign children. Similarly, education forums have been set up in order to try to reach a consensus on the future objectives of Luxembourg schools, focusing on three main aspects (cultural, educational and economic) and on the resources required. This report is to be discussed in Parliament. The Ministry also proposed, in a Ministerial Circular of May 1998, that a mandatory early education project be implemented in communes as from 2001.

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MEXICO

Introduction

For the past three years, Mexico's economic performance has been improving. Real GDP growth, initially stimulated by increased exports and subsequently sustained by increased gross fixed capital formation and private consumption, has averaged over 5% per year. The economic recovery has led to considerable employment growth, albeit after a lag. In spite of this encouraging performance, fiscal policy is still tight owing to low oil prices and a deteriorating current account balance. This adjustment implies cuts in spending, *i.e.* postponing expenditure with potential economic and social benefits. Progress has been made in the area of social security with the introduction of a funded pension scheme and a decrease in employee's contributions to compulsory health insurance. Due to these reforms, interaction between social policy and the labour market may make employment in the formal sector more attractive, although hardly any modernisation of institutional labour market structures was achieved in 1998 and there is still a large informal economy.

1. Trends in migration movements

Migration flows of foreigners

Mexico's National Institute of Immigration highlights the fact that total inflows for the first seven months of 1999 were up 5.8% on the same period in 1998. Mexico is not traditionally an immigration country, but inflows (including movements of tourists and temporary visitors) have been increasing steadily since the mid-1990s, with a 20% increase every year since 1995. Taking only foreigners with or about to receive permits, plus political refugees, inflows are now approaching the 74 000 mark compared with 72 000 for outflows, in other words a migration gain of 2 000. Some 65% of all foreigners want to remain in the country and 35% have permanent resident status. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) accounted for a net inflow of 68 000 in 1998. There is a special form (FMN) for North American professionals undertaking business trips to Mexico. They are mainly United States nationals, comprised largely of business people, scientific specialists and intra-corporate staff transfers.

Emigration

The border zone with the United States is probably one of the busiest in the world, owing to the strong attraction of the United States (a destination chosen by 99% of Mexican migrants) (see Table III.27). Officially, some 1 million Mexicans left the country in 1998, but the true figure is hard to evaluate as little information is available on the number of undocumented emigrants. In 1998, the US authorities expelled over 760 000 Mexicans. A study carried out for the Zapata Canyon Project[1] reveals that the great majority of the people escorted back across the border attempt to cross it again within 24 hours of their return to Mexico, and 75% within the next few months. Half of them are caught within three days of entry. A typical Mexican wishing to emigrate to the United States is male (in 96% of cases), over 25 years of age, educated to no more than secondary level and resident in an urban area. Over 60% of the Mexicans interviewed had already worked in the United States (see Table III.28).

Another debate has been emerging in recent years. Might the issue of national sovereignty on migration policy clash with the right of free movement and with human rights? Between 1994 and 1999, some 450 Mexicans lost their lives trying to cross the US border illegally. The US *Operation Gate Keeper* has been singled out by *Amnesty International* and local NGOs as being responsible for most of the deaths. This is because potential illegal immigrants are obliged to take greater risks at every attempt to enter the US, finding increasingly more remote and dangerous entry routes. The hunt for undocumented immigrants, undertaken in May 2000 by American ranchers near the border, has increased the need for constructive dialogue and closer co-operation between the two countries.

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Table III.27. **Mexican emigration to the United States, 1911-1998**[1]

Thousands

Period	Numbers	*of which*: Immigrants who had benefited from the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA)
1911-20	219.0	
1921-30	459.3	
1931-40	22.3	
1941-50	60.6	
1951-60	299.8	
1961-70	453.9	
1971-80	640.3	
1981-90	1 655.8	962.7
1991-98	1 800.7	1 047.9
1989	405.7	339.2
1990	680.2	623.5
1991	947.9	894.9
1992	214.1	122.5
1993	126.6	17.5
1994	111.4	4.4
1995	90.0	3.0
1996	163.7	3.6
1997	146.9	2.0
1998	131.6	. .

1. Data refer to grants of permanent residence in the United States. Data refer to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).

Source: US Department of Justice, 1997 Statistical Yearbook *of the Immigration and Naturalization Service*.

Table III.28. **Socio-economic characteristics of undocumented Mexican immigrants to the United States, 1990, 1996-1999**

Percentages

	1990	1996	1997	1998	1999
Sex					
Men	86.1	94.6	97.4	95.5	96.2
Women	13.9	5.4	2.6	4.5	3.8
Age					
Less than 20	17.8	9.0	9.0	8.3	7.0
20 to 24	32.4	26.6	22.8	21.7	22.8
25 to 29	28.0	34.5	32.6	31.0	31.0
30 and more	21.8	29.8	35.6	39.1	39.2
Level of education					
Less than elementary	23.6	17.6	11.2	15.4	25.2
Elementary	34.5	42.7	45.9	44.1	39.2
Secondary	31.2	34.1	37.6	34.0	28.3
More than secondary	10.6	5.6	6.2	6.4	7.1
No answer	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Characteristics of last job in Mexico					
Farm work	28.3	37.4	35.6	37.1	36.4
Job in a city	54.0	58.0	60.7	58.5	59.1
Unemployed	17.1	4.5	3.6	4.2	4.3
No answer	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Have you already had a job in the United States?					
Yes	44.2	49.3	46.0	46.0	57.3
No	55.4	50.7	53.9	53.8	42.6
No answer	0.4	–	0.1	0.2	–

Source: Project Zapata Canyon. Survey of flows of undocumented Mexican immigrants as they cross the border with the United States, El Colegio de la Frontera Norte.

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Illegal immigration

For many years now illegal immigrants have been entering Mexico from other Central American countries. In 1998, over 100 000 people were escorted back to their country of origin. They were mainly from Guatemala, Honduras (particularly in the wake of Hurricane Mitch) and El Salvador. Little information is available on the true number of illegal immigrants in Mexico. One estimate puts the number of undocumented Guatemalan nationals at between 150 000 and 200 000. An agreement was signed between Guatemala and Mexico in 1999 to legalise the status of a number of these immigrants. It supplements the 1996 amendments to the General Population Law granting the status of "assimilated immigrant" and authorising Guatemalans to settle and take up employment in the country.

2. Policy developments

A Regional Conference on Migration was initiated by Mexico in 1996. The first meeting was held in Puebla ("Puebla Process"). An advisory rather than decision-making forum, its members have agreed to recognise that migration is beneficial to the area, and to promote the rights of immigrants, regardless of their status, as set out in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Recognised by the United Nations, the Conference's recommendations concern migration policy, linkages between migration and development, combating illegal immigration, technical co-operation, international co-operation on the integration of repatriated migrants, and the respect of foreigners' rights. The Conference holds an annual meeting, together with numerous seminars and working parties attended by the eleven countries of Central and North America, in co-operation with international institutions such as the UNHCR, the IOM and NGOs. The Puebla Process reflects a genuine determination to gain more insight into the many facets of migration, which countries view as beneficial because of its potential to correct asymmetries between them (particularly regarding the labour market and economic growth). In this respect, co -operation is a vital means of safeguarding not only national sovereignty in the international arena but immigrants' rights as well. The Fourth Regional Conference took place in January 1999 in El Salvador and confirmed the major contribution that migration has made to development.

NETHERLANDS

Introduction

In 1999, GDP growth exceeded 3% for the fourth consecutive year. Although business services continue to account for much of the country's growth, the year was marked by a recovery in manufacturing.

In a generally good economic climate, the labour market situation continued to improve. In September 1999, there were 206 000 job seekers, just 3% of the labour force. Over the past year, the decline in unemployment has been even sharper, from 3.6% to 2.8% between the first and last quarters. For the last five years, the number of people out of work has been falling systematically year on year.

1. Trends in migration movements

In 1998, a total of 122 400 people migrated to the Netherlands, a peak not reached for 20 years. In the first six months of 1999, the upward trend was confirmed with 53 000 entries (as against 52 000 in 1998 over the same period). Official migration statistics, based on population register data adjusted to make fuller allowance for departures of foreigners, show a net migration gain of 43 200, up 55.4% on 1997 (and 211% on 1995) (see Chart III.11).

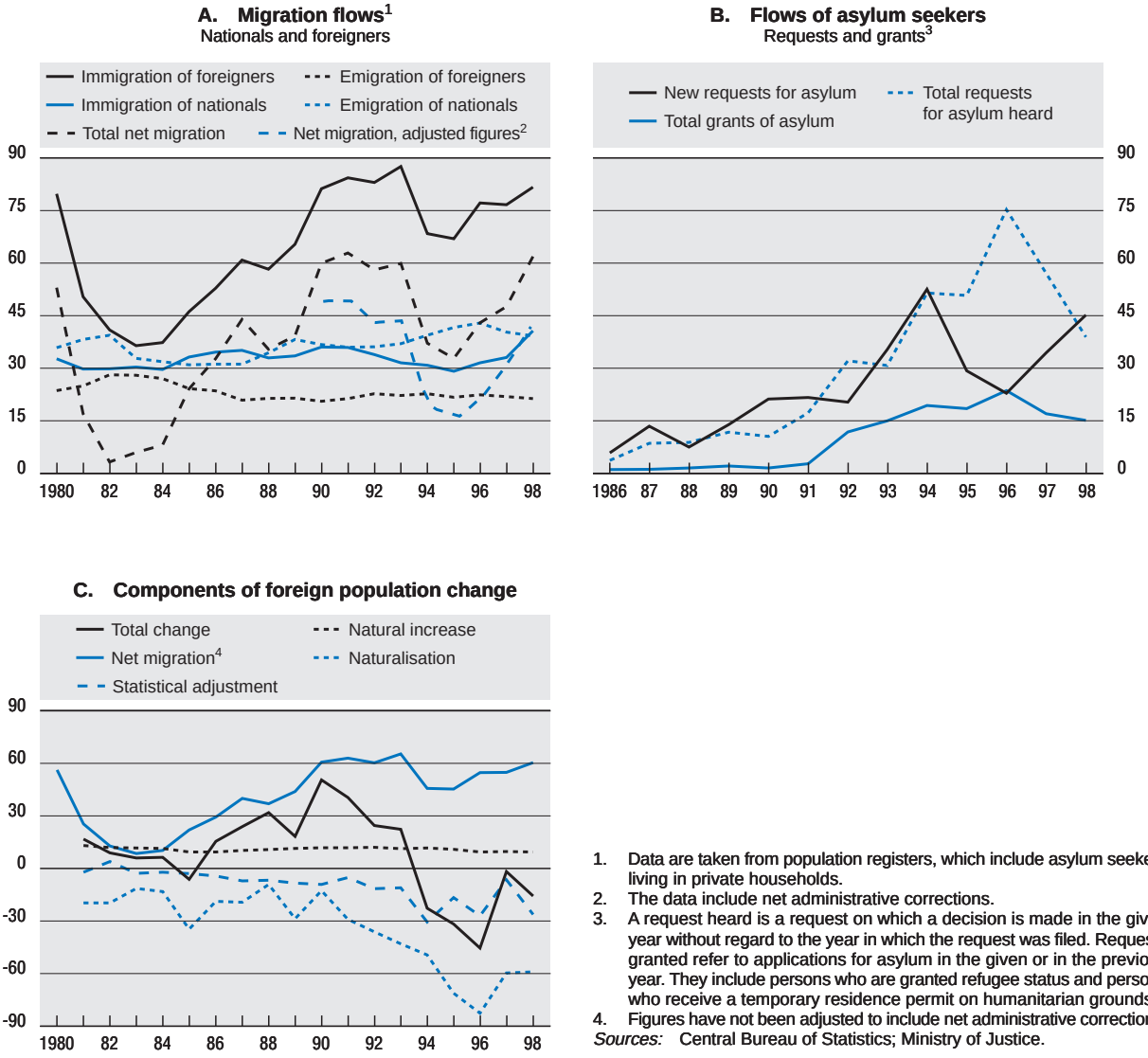
Emigration and return of nationals

In 1997, for the first time, movements by Dutch nationals were the leading feature of migration trends. This occurred again in 1998, with an increase of around 23% in the return of nationals (1997: 33 100, 1998:

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Chart III.11. **Migration flows and components of foreign population change, 1980-1998, Netherlands**

Thousands



1. Data are taken from population registers, which include asylum seekers living in private households.
2. The data include net administrative corrections.
3. A request heard is a request on which a decision is made in the given year without regard to the year in which the request was filed. Requests granted refer to applications for asylum in the given or in the previous year. They include persons who are granted refugee status and persons who receive a temporary residence permit on humanitarian grounds.
4. Figures have not been adjusted to include net administrative corrections.

Sources: Central Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Justice.

40 700), whereas the number of foreigners entering the country rose by only 6.5%. In 1998, for the first time in ten years, the migration balance for Dutch nationals was positive (+1 531) (see Table III.29).

By and large, variations in the flows of Dutch nationals can again be put down to a decline in emigration to other parts of the European Union (1997: 6 470, 1998: 5 125) and an increase in arrivals of Dutch nationals from the Netherlands Antilles (1997: 2 540, 1998: 6 400).

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

After a fall in total entries in 1994 and 1995, there is evidence of an upturn in foreign immigration since 1996. In 1998, the rise was sharper, bringing total entries to 81 700. Over the same period, emigration

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Table III.29. **Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force in the Netherlands**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Migration flows [1]				
Total population				
Inflows	96.1	108.7	109.9	122.4
Outflows	63.3	65.3	62.2	60.4
Net migration	32.8	43.4	47.6	62.0
Net administrative corrections[2]	–18.0	–22.0	–17.0	–19.0
Adjusted total net migration figures	15.0	21.0	31.0	43.0
Dutch nationals				
Inflows	29.1	31.6	33.1	40.7
Outflows	41.6	42.9	40.3	39.2
Net migration	–12.5	–11.3	–7.2	1.5
Foreigners				
Inflows	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7
Outflows	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3
Net migration	45.3	54.8	54.8	60.4
of which:				
European Union	6.0	8.6	10.3	10.9
Former Yugoslavia	7.1	3.0	1.2	1.0
Turkey	3.5	4.9	5.4	4.8
Morocco	1.9	3.2	3.7	4.5
Surinam	1.4	2.4	2.3	3.0
Stock of population[3]				
Total population	15 493.9	15 567.1	15 654.2	15 760.2
Total foreign population	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4
of which:				
Morocco	149.8	138.7	135.7	128.6
Turkey	154.3	127.0	114.7	102.0
Germany	53.9	53.5	53.9	54.1
United Kingdom	41.1	39.3	39.2	38.8
Former Yugoslavia	33.5	32.8	28.4	22.3
Total foreign-born population	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9
of which:				
Surinam	181.0	181.6	182.2	184.2
Turkey	167.5	169.3	172.7	175.5
Indonesia	177.7	174.8	172.1	170.3
Morocco	140.7	142.7	145.8	149.6
Germany	130.1	128.0	126.8	125.5
Naturalisations				
Total	71.4	82.7	59.8	59.2
of which:				
Turkey	33.1	30.7	21.2	13.5
Morocco	13.5	15.6	10.5	11.3
Former Yugoslavia	1.4	1.8	2.9	6.7
Surinam	4.0	4.4	3.0	3.0
European Union	2.4	3.5	2.9	2.4
Naturalisation rate (%)	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Refugees and asylum seekers				
New requests for asylum	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2
Total requests for asylum heard	50.8	75.3	. .	38.9
Total grants of asylum	18.5	23.6	17.0	15.1
Expulsions	40.0	51.5	62.0	55.7
of which: asylum seekers	14.5	16.5	18.9	14.3
Labour force				
Total foreign employment[4]	221	218	208	. .
% of total foreign population	30.5	32.1	30.7	. .
Dutch nationals born in the Netherlands				
Working age population	9 391	9 406	9 433	9 443
Labour Force	5 986	6 061	6 192	6 294
Employment	5 574	5 678	5 857	6 029
Unemployment	412	383	335	265
Dutch nationals born abroad and foreigners				
Working age population	1 107	1 124	1 130	1 160
Labour Force	610	620	646	663
Employment	489	509	543	579
Unemployment	122	111	103	84
Participation rates (%)[5]				
Dutch nationals born in the Netherlands	64	64	66	67
Dutch nationals born abroad and foreigners	55	55	57	57
of which:				
Turkey	44	44	45	44
Morocco	42	42	44	46
Other Mediterranean countries	59	54	56	58
Other European countries	62	64	65	63
Surinam	63	63	65	70
Netherlands Antilles/Aruba	58	63	57	59
Indonesia/Former Dutch Indies	58	54	60	59
Other	51	53	56	53
Unemployment rates (%)[6]				
Dutch nationals born in the Netherlands	5.8	5.4	4.0	3.0
Dutch nationals born abroad and foreigners	19	19	16	12
of which:				
Turkey	41	36	31	28
Morocco	27	25	24	20
Other Mediterranean countries	19	21	20	14
Other European countries	8	7	7	5
Surinam	15	16	13	9
Netherlands Antilles/Aruba	28	28	24	17
Indonesia/Former Dutch Indies	8	9	7	4
Other	28	25	22	17

1. Data are taken from population registers, which include some asylum seekers.
2. The administrative corrections account for unreported entries and departures on the population register.
3. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. Figures include administrative corrections.
4. Estimates are for 31 March and include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed and family workers.
5. The percentage of those in the labour force out of the total working population based on Labour Force Survey data.
6. Unemployment rates based on registered unemployment figures.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Justice; Labour Force Survey.

remained relatively stable: in 1998, 21 300 foreigners officially left the Netherlands, 700 fewer than in the previous year, giving a migration gain for foreigners of around 60 000.

A detailed country breakdown of the flows gives a better picture of these trends. It shows a clear stabilisation of the migration surplus with the European Union, a marked decrease with regard to Turkey but an increase in the surplus with Morocco.

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Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers rose again in 1998, with 45 000 applications filed. However, the increase from 1997 to 1998 (31%) was less marked than during the previous period (a rise of 50.7% from 1996 to 1997). During the first six months of 1999, the number of applications levelled out (21 000) (see Chart III.11).

It should be noted that only a fraction of all asylum applications were accepted and that the figures above do not fully reflect real flow trends. In 1998, there was actually a decrease in the total number of new refugees. Viewed in greater depth, there was a decline in almost every refugee category except that of "temporary refugees on humanitarian grounds", which nearly doubled between 1997 (5 182) and 1998 (9 152).

In percentage terms, the greatest rise was recorded in the number of asylum applicants from Sudan between 1997 (680) and 1998 (1 875), but in absolute terms it was in those from the former Yugoslavia (1997: 3 800, 1998: 8 330). However, the number of asylum applications from nationals of Iraq fell slightly, accounting for only 18% of the 1998 total compared with 28% in 1997.

In 1998, 28 000 applications were turned down and the authorities proceeded with 14 300 expulsions.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

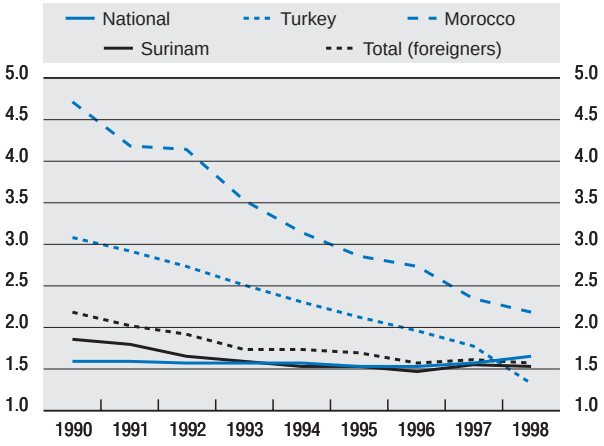
Numerical trends

Over the last five years, there has been a substantial fall in the foreign population residing in the Netherlands, from 779 800 on 1 January 1993 to 662 400 on 1 January 1999. This is largely attributable to naturalisations (see below), which more than offset the migration gain and the natural increase in the foreign population (9 300 in 1998). In the case of the Netherlands, it is worth emphasising that in 1998 the birth rate of the foreign population (1.57‰) was for the first time lower than the national average (1.63‰). This stems from the way naturalisations are counted but also from an adjustment in the birth rate in the Turkish and Moroccan communities (see Chart III.12).

Moroccans and Turks account for over 25% of all foreigners living in the Netherlands. European Union nationals, whose share has been steadily growing over the past few years, now account for 29% of the total (as against 25.5% in 1994).

Chart III.12. **Fertility rates according to the nationality of the mother, 1990-1998, Netherlands**

Per 1 000 women



Source: Statistics Netherlands.

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In 1998, 9.6% of the total population of the Netherlands were foreign-born. The largest groups were from Surinam (184 000), Turkey (175 000) and Indonesia (170 000). 149 000 people were born in Morocco and around 126 000 in Germany.

Naturalisation

Some 59 200 foreigners were naturalised in 1998. After some very sharp increases, the number of naturalisations is now showing signs of flattening out. However, the Netherlands still has a high naturalisation rate (8.7% of the foreign population), particularly when compared with other European countries. Since the early 1990s, but more specifically since 1992 when dual nationality was officially recognised, there has been a marked increase in naturalisations (see Table III.29). In October 1997, new legislation considerably tightened the criteria for obtaining dual nationality but it has had a fairly limited impact, owing to *i*) the stock effect, but also *ii*) the wide scope for dispensations. However, it is still too early to pass judgement on the effects of the 1997 changes.

Mixed marriages

The number of marriages between Dutch nationals and foreigners (1998: 12 330) has increased since 1997 (11 115). They involved slightly more Dutch men (7 180) than women (5 150).

Mixed marriages may in fact involve a significant proportion of people from the same ethnic group. This is becoming more and more likely with the increase in naturalisation.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In 1998, as in 1997, there was an increase in migration for employment. More specifically, work-permit applications from non-EU nationals increased significantly (1996: 11 400, 1997: 12 500, 1998: 19 800). However, only 15 200 permits were actually granted (11 100 in 1997). These upward trends have been confirmed during the first three quarters of 1999, with a total of 15 500 permits already issued. On the other hand, the immigration flow of EU nationals has been fairly stable this year (see above).

Labour market integration

In terms of employment, the Netherlands is in a particularly favourable situation compared with the rest of the European Union, with unemployment close to its frictional level (3% in 1998). However, greater use of immigrant labour to relieve labour-market tension is being impeded by the mismatch between employer requirements and foreign-labour skill profiles. To some extent, this explains the wide employment/unemployment disparities between the native-born and other sections of the population (see Table III.29).

In particular, employment surveys show that the foreign and foreign-born population is clearly more exposed to unemployment, with 12% out of work in 1998. Within that same group there are even greater disparities, two possible factors being length of stay and differences in status. Only 4% of Indonesians and 5% of EU nationals are out of work, for instance, whereas unemployment affects 28% of Turks, 20% of Moroccans and 17% of Surinamese. However, these figures should not mask improvements in labour market access. Back in 1995, for instance, 41% and 28% of the immigrants from Turkey and Morocco, respectively, were unemployed.

The foreign and foreign-born population also has a lower participation rate than the native-born Dutch (57% compared with 67%) (see Table III.30). However, disparities between the two communities are less marked than they were, and to some extent reflect the gender mix (in 1998, Turkey: 44%, Morocco: 46%, Surinam: 70%, Indonesia: 59%).

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Table III.30. **Net participation rate, Netherlands, 1994 and 1998**
Percentage of the population aged 15-64 (excluding schoolchildren)

		Turkey	Morocco	Surinam	Antilleans/Arubans	Nationals
		A. Net participation rate by sex and ethnic origin (1994 and 1998)				
Men	1994	49	41	60	63	78
Women	1994	18	12	45	46	53
Men	1998	57	52	74	76	82
Women	1998	22	17	58	49	54
		B. Net participation rate of women by level of education and ethnic origin, 1998				
No completed education		12	5	27	15	..
Primary education		17	15	38	25	29
Lower secondary		34	39	58	50	40
Upper secondary		48	60	70	68	64
Pre-university/University		44	45	84	77	78

Source: SPVA survey on social position and take-up of facilities by ethnic and indigeneous persons, 1998, Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment.

4. Policy developments

The principal developments over the past few years include recognition of dual nationality (1991), revision of the Aliens Act (1992), new rules for family reunion (1993), a new Act regulating the employment of foreigners (1995) and a revision of the recognition of dual nationality (1997).

More recently, the main initiatives relate to the revision of measures to encourage voluntary return of immigrants, the development of measures to combat illegal immigration and the adaptation of certain aspects of asylum legislation. Several reports have also been published on integration policies.

Box III.6. Labour-market participation of foreign or foreign-born women in the Netherlands

In line with the usual pattern, labour-market access varies substantially with gender in the Netherlands: in 1998 the net participation rate was 49% for women compared with 75% for men.

The differences are even more marked when population groups are broken down by ethnic origin. For instance, only 17% of Moroccan women were in or seeking work in that year, compared with 52% for Moroccan men. Conversely, the net participation rate for Surinamese women was higher than for native-born Dutch women (58% and 54%, respectively) and relatively close to the rate for men (74%).

As labour-market access improves for immigrants, women are benefiting relatively less than men, since the gender gap widened from 1994 to 1998 for every community, including Dutch-born nationals.

From a broader point of view, it is worth noting that the female participation rate increases with length of stay and decreases with age of entry to the Netherlands. However, the net participation rate for Dutch-born women of Moroccan or Turkish origin (respectively 35% and 40%) is still markedly lower than for native-born Dutch women (54%).

With regard to female participation, family structure and more specifically the presence or absence of very young children is still a decisive factor. Among mothers of children under the age of four, 16% of Turks, 13% of Moroccans, 56% of Surinamese, 31% of Antilleans and 53% of Dutch-born nationals participate in the labour market; without children the figures rise to 41%, 43%, 70%, 67% and 86%, respectively.

Finally, education also appears to be conducive to labour market access, regardless of origin. The difference is particularly noticeable, however, among Moroccan women, with 5% participating in the labour market if uneducated but 60% if educated to higher secondary level.

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A *new* Aliens Act

A new Aliens Act is currently before the Dutch Parliament for revision. It is largely aimed at improving the prevailing legislation with regard to applications for asylum and "ordinary" residence permits:

- Simplifying and shortening the processing of asylum applications by *a*) replacing the objection procedure with a faster hearing, and combining it with an investigation procedure; *b*) imposing a maximum six-month period for examining applications; *c*) revising grounds for refusal and *d*) strengthening the coercive powers associated with checks and expulsions. The legislation also abolishes the fees for asylum applications.
- Revising the "ordinary" procedure. In this case, the objection procedure is maintained but the initial investigation must be completed within six months of the application being filed. From now on, only foreign nationals with a temporary stay permit may submit their initial application for a residence permit. They must also be able to prove they have sufficient resources to support themselves.

Measures to encourage voluntary return

A new Act on the return of immigrants to their country of origin came into force on 15 June 1999. The previous legislation was aimed at facilitating the voluntary return of refugees and non-Dutch immigrants from Mediterranean countries. The new Act offers the long-term unemployed over 45 years of age a monthly allowance if they return to their country of origin. Other improvements concern *a*) a supplementary medical insurance scheme; *b*) payment of individual allowances following divorce; *c*) financial arrangements for orphans until they reach their majority; *d*) a special visa to facilitate visits to family members remaining in the Netherlands; *e*) index-linked monthly allowances; *f*) optional return to the Netherlands in the year following initial voluntary return to the country of origin; *g*) the inclusion of EU nationals from former source countries (Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal); and *h*) introduction of a special arrangement for the disabled who did not apply for an allowance under the previous system.

Measures to combat illegal immigration

In 1998, as in previous years, new measures were introduced to combat illegal immigration and people smuggling. The Centre for Information and Studies on Human Trafficking began operating in co-operation with the police and the immigration and naturalisation services.

For several years now, between 9 000 and 10 000 people have been turned back each year at Schiphol airport due to lacking proper documentation, or on other grounds. In 1998, they were mainly from, in decreasing order of importance, Afghanistan, Iraq, Ecuador, Nigeria and Sri Lanka. Pre-boarding checks on supposedly high-risk flights are still routinely carried out. In 1998, Karachi was added to the sensitive list.

New legislation on asylum seekers and refugees

A new law concerning people without identity papers came into force on 1 February 1999. Under the Act, asylum applications from people without papers who cannot justify their loss will not be accepted.

Given the high number of asylum seekers from Afghanistan and Iraq, information bureaux were set up in both countries in 1998. Special units have also been set up to deal exclusively with applications from nationals of these countries.

In 1998, the special measures (VVTV policy) enabling asylum seekers from specific countries to obtain a temporary stay permit were withdrawn. This concerned people from Liberia, northern Sudan, certain Somalis, Sri Lankan Tamils, Iraqis and Afghans arriving via Pakistan. The aim was to reduce the number of asylum applications in 1999.

The arrival of a growing number of very young asylum seekers is becoming a major issue. In 1998, 3 504 minors arrived in the Netherlands, an increase of 32% on 1997.

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Integration policy reports

Several reports were published in 1999 on various aspects of Dutch policy on migration and integration.

In March, for instance, a report was published taking stock of official integration policy in view of the education options introduced between 1989 and 1998 (*i.e.* Dutch being considered a second language), and numerous other measures implemented in 1996 and 1997. The report highlighted the uncertainty surrounding integration policy outcomes which, it said, stemmed largely from the lack of clearly defined policy goals.

A second report was published in June 1999 on the prevention of illegal labour. It highlighted the lack of relevant information and hence insufficient knowledge, even within the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, about supply and demand for illegal labour, its economic importance and its impact on the labour market.

A third report, also published in June 1999, addressed the issue of asylum seekers returning home once their application had been turned down. This too stressed the ineffectiveness of the measures put in place.

The Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment and the Employment Service also commissioned a research group to assess the impact of the Employment of Foreigners Act. The study highlighted the restrictive nature of the Act and its usefulness in terms of labour market flexibility, particularly for tackling bottlenecks in labour supply. However, since the Employment of Foreigners Act does not apply to all categories of immigration (*e.g.* family reunion and refugees), in practice it can be viewed as playing only a limited coercive role.

NORWAY

Introduction

Between 1991 and 1997, the Norwegian economy experienced uninterrupted growth. This continued in 1998, at a more moderate pace, with GDP (excluding oil production) rising by some 3.3%. Throughout the period, economic expansion has stimulated employment growth. Since 1993 the labour force has increased by almost 9%, while unemployment has fallen by half, to 2.2% in 1998.

Against this favourable economic background, the migration balance reached its highest point since the start of the decade with 13 800 net entries in 1998. In the short term it seems that the Norwegian Government intends to continue to relax immigration rules, in particular with regard to asylum seekers, refugees and temporary workers.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

In 1998, 22 900 people, including 10 900 nationals, emigrated from Norway, an increase of some 7.6% over the previous year. Given the overall population of some 4.45 million, the emigration rate was 0.5% in 1998, the highest observed since the late 1980s (see Table III.31).

While around a fifth of Norwegian emigrants moved to another Scandinavian country, the proportion is over twice as much for foreigners (44.6%). That reflects significantly greater mobility of foreigners within the Nordic area. Between 1990 and 1997, only one foreign emigrant in three moved elsewhere in the area.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In the last two years, immigration to Norway has been sharply stimulated by the performance of its economy and labour market dynamism. A total of 36 700 people entered in 1998, an increase of 14.9% on the previous year and 39% on that of 1996.

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Table III.31. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Norway**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total population[1]	**4 370.0**	**4 392.7**	**4 417.6**	**4 445.4**
% of foreigners	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7
Migration flows by group of nationality				
Inflows	**25.7**	**26.4**	**32.0**	**36.8**
Nationals	9.2	9.2	9.9	10.0
Foreigners	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.8
of which:				
Nordic countries	4.8	5.8	8.6	10.4
EU (12 members)	3.9	4.2	4.8	5.8
Outflows	**19.3**	**20.6**	**21.3**	**22.9**
Nationals	10.3	10.6	11.2	10.9
Foreigners	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0
of which:				
Nordic countries	3.4	3.4	3.9	5.4
EU (12 members)	3.6	2.1	3.4	3.5
Net migration	**6.4**	**5.8**	**10.7**	**13.9**
Nationals	–1.1	–1.3	–1.3	–0.9
Foreigners	7.5	7.2	12.0	14.8
of which:				
Nordic countries	1.4	2.5	4.7	5.0
EU (12 members)	0.3	2.1	1.4	2.4

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Asylum seekers by nationality	**1.5**	**1.8**	**2.3**	**7.7**
Croatia	–	–	0.1	2.4
Former Yugoslavia[2]	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.6
Iraq	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.3
Somalia	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.9
Foreign population by region	**160.8**	**157.5**	**158.0**	**165.1**
Europe	93.2	95.9	100.9	108.2
Asia	39.5	34.9	31.5	31.1
Africa	10.7	10.0	9.7	10.1
North America	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.5
South America	5.1	4.6	4.2	4.1
Other	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.1
Acquisition of nationality, by previous nationality	**11.8**	**12.2**	**12.0**	**9.2**
Pakistan	1.0	1.5	1.6	1.1
Vietnam	0.7	1.4	1.3	0.8
Turkey	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7
Mixed marriages	**2.9**	**3.2**	**3.0**	**4.1**
% of total marriages	13.6	13.8	12.4	17.5

1. Data on 31 December of the years indicated, taken from population registers.
2. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina and Croatia.

Source: Statistics Norway; Directorate of Immigration.

These trends essentially reflect movements of foreigners. In 1998, 26 800 foreigners immigrated to Norway while 12 000 emigrated, giving a migration balance for the foreign population of approximately 14 800.

In 1998, over a third of immigrants were nationals of Nordic countries, in particular Sweden (7 930), though there were also 3 030 Danish nationals and 1 360 Finns. But only Swedish immigration makes a significant contribution to the migration balance (+3 300). Approximately 11 000 other European nationals entered Norway, while only 8% of immigrants were from Africa and 17% from Asia; these figures are relatively low compared with those for other OECD countries. In comparison with 1997, there has in fact been a slight fall in the contribution of non-OECD countries to total immigration.

Asylum seekers

Refugees and asylum seekers form one of the main categories of immigrants, and contribute substantially to annual changes in the migration balance (though 1997 was a significant exception here) (see Table III.31). In 1998, asylum claimants clearly predominated in migration trends, with a total of 8 730 applications (as compared with 2 270 in 1997). The sudden and radical increase is explained by an inflow of Serbs from Croatia (2 420), Albanians from Kosovo (1 620), Iraqis (1 300) and Somalis (940). The trend continued during the first two quarters of 1999, with 4 450 people applying to the Norwegian authorities for asylum, including 2 160 Iraqis.

At the same time, only a small number of asylum claimants are accepted. In 1998, just 80 people obtained refugee status in the strict sense, while a further 1 810 were accepted on humanitarian grounds (this latter more than twice the combined figure for the two previous years).

Under a refugee resettlement programme, a further quota of 1 500 people may be accepted each year. In 1998, some 1 120 refugees were accepted under the programme, chiefly Iranians and Iraqis.

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The Norwegian authorities, in conjunction with the UNHCR, have also established a system of collective protection for particular emergency cases. This has been applied on two occasions between 1993 and 1998, for Bosnians (13 000 people over this period) and in 1999 for Kosovars (nearly 8 000 people were admitted on this basis in one year).

Last, it will be noted that in 1998 around 880 people were accepted under the relaxed family reunion conditions for refugees introduced in June 1997 (1996: 360; 1997: 660).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Foreign population

The total population of Norway rose by 27 730 in 1998 (0.6%) and totalled 4.45 million at the end of the year. Given the record immigration registered in 1998, the number of foreign residents rose appreciably faster, by approximately 4.5%. At the end of 1998, the resident foreign population totalled 165 070 (1997: 158 000), or 3.7% of the total population (see Table III.31).

European Union nationals account for a little under half the total (44%) and within this group nationals of Nordic countries account in turn for around 50%. As a result of the migration flows described above, European predominance has accentuated over recent years. People from Asia and Africa account for only 20 and 6% respectively of all foreigners.

The largest contingent of foreign residents is from Sweden (1997: 20 600; 1998: 24 000), followed by Denmark (1997: 18 400; 1998: 19 100), Bosnia-Herzegovina (1997: 11 600; 1998: 11 800) and the United Kingdom (1997: 10 800; 1998: 11 200).

Naturalisations

As a rule, foreigners may acquire Norwegian nationality after they have legally resided in the country for seven years. Individuals with a criminal record may be denied naturalisation. There are no language requirements or financial prerequisites. During the 1980s, the annual number of naturalisations ranged from 1 800 to 4 600. They averaged approximately 5 000 at the beginning of the 1990s. In 1998, some 9 250 foreigners acquired Norwegian nationality. Although the figure is relatively high, it represents a significant fall on previous years (1996: 12 200; 1997: 12 000). In 1998, as in 1997, the largest numbers were from Pakistan, Vietnam and Turkey.

Mixed marriages

Around 17.5% of all marriages contracted in Norway are mixed. The breakdown by nationality shows considerable differences: while over 90% of North American nationals marry a native-born Norwegian, the figure is only 69% for Asians and Africans.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour migration and work permits

Despite a sharp increase in employment, thus far the domestic market has largely been able to meet labour demand. By 1996, the Norwegian authorities nonetheless recognised that it could prove necessary to recruit foreign workers in some sectors, especially construction and healthcare. In 1998, 109 doctors were recruited from Austria, France and Germany (88 were similarly recruited in the first six months of 1999). During the same period, 400 nurses were recruited from Finland.

Nationals of the European Union do not require a permit to work in Norway but must (with the exception of those from the Nordic countries) apply for a residence permit for a stay of longer than three months. In 1998, 4 570 residence permits were issued on this basis, including some to people not necessarily wanting to work.

Nationals of all other countries must obtain work permits. In 1998, 7 490 seasonal permits, 1 630 other temporary permits and 2 420 permanent work permits were issued, excluding renewals.

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Seasonal permits are available, in particular to meet temporary demand in the agricultural sector. The quota was set at 6 810 in 1997, and raised to 8 000 in 1998. Over 90% of seasonal workers are from Central and Eastern Europe, in particular Poland. The permanent work permits were largely issued to immigrants on family reunion grounds.

Labour market integration

Under the impetus of steady economic development since 1996, unemployment in Norway fell from 4 to 2.2% in 1999. Unemployment among the immigrant population is considerably higher. But over the past two years, contrary to the trend for Norwegian workers, immigrant unemployment has fallen from 7.1% in 1998 to 6.3% in 1999.

The extent of unemployment varies by region of origin. Those from Western Europe are slightly more susceptible to it than nationals (2.6%), but for immigrants from Africa, Asia and Latin America the rates are 12.6, 9.1 and 6.4% respectively. Some headway should be noted in this area, however, as with nationals of Central and Eastern European countries, for whom unemployment has fallen from 17.1 to 9.2% in just four years.

4. Policy developments

New measures concerning labour market access and integration

The government has proposed two reforms to Parliament, *i*) authorising seasonal permits throughout the year (they are currently limited to the period running from 15 May to 31 October), and *ii*) lowering the minimum education requirement for work permits (which is at present three years of higher education).

In August 1999, the regulations on work permits were relaxed for nationals of Barents Sea countries, allowing Norwegian fishery firms to hire Russian workers. The nationals of Central and Eastern European countries should also benefit from this amendment.

The government has further commissioned a legal working party to recommend adjustments to the system of training available to new immigrants. The aim is to make the system more coherent and effective.

New regulations on asylum and refugee rights

Two significant amendments were made to the asylum rules in 1999. As from 1 July 2000, responsibility for questioning asylum-seekers will be transferred from the police to the immigration department. In addition, the Norwegian Parliament approved the establishment of an independent panel to hear appeals against denials of refugee status. Appeals are currently handled by the Justice Ministry.

Illegal immigration

In order to combat illegal immigration, the Immigration Act was amended in 1997 and the prison sentence for organising the illegal entry of foreigners into Norway for financial gain was raised from a maximum of two to five years. In 1998, 530 cases were recorded by the national Bureau of Crime Investigation (390 in 1997); over a quarter of these cases may have involved trafficking in human beings (1997: 70; 1998: 150).

International agreements

For over 40 years the "Nordic Passport" has guaranteed complete freedom of movement among the five Nordic countries. Ultimately, however, free movement within the Nordic countries can now continue only if they introduce regulations compatible with the Schengen Agreement, whether or not they belong to the European Union.

Following ratification of the Amsterdam Treaty in May 1999, Norway and Iceland have to conclude co-operation agreements with the States party to the Schengen Agreements. For Norway, the process should be under way by October 2000.

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POLAND

Introduction

Having averaged 6.5% between 1994 and 1997, GDP growth decelerated in 1998, levelling off at 4% in 1999. The unemployment rate, which had been declining steadily between 1995 and 1998, falling from 15.2% to 10%, rose to 12% in 1999. Poland remains an emigration country, although outflows have decreased sharply over the past three years. It also remains a transit country for persons wishing to emigrate to European Union countries. As Poland is seeking to join the EU, changes in its migration legislation can be expected in the near future in order to bring it into line with the norms prevailing in the Member States.

1. Trends in migration movements

Permanent emigration

The available figures on permanent emigration (settlement abroad for a duration equal or superior to one year) considerably underestimate the true outward flows as large numbers of migrants do not notify the authorities of their departure. The extent of permanent emigration fluctuates considerably with a marked decline sometimes being followed by an similarly sharp increase. However, the amplitude of the fluctuations has since 1990 been much less than during the two previous decades; since 1996, the flow has stabilised at between 20 000 and 22 000 permanent exits per year. These figures are quite close to those observed between 1990 and 1992 and are much lower than those for 1987-89 (see Table III.32 and Chart III.13).

In 1998, the flow towards Germany increased in dominance, passing from 70.2 to 72.2% of the total emigration flow. Europe received over 84% of the Polish emigrants in that year. These flows are largely comprised of people with a low level of education (over 75% had gone no further than primary school). Nevertheless, the proportion of those with a good level of professional training did register an increase.

Inflows of foreigners

As the Polish authorities have changed the rules governing the issuance of residence permits, it is impossible to compare the figures for immigration into Poland before 1998 with the current figures. Formerly, the "immigrant" category covered all new permanent residents arriving from abroad whether they were Polish or not. However, a new Aliens Act has recently come into force. It sets out the conditions governing the stay of foreigners and sets out their rights and duties in Poland. It also brings the status of refugees and asylum seekers into line with the principles of the Geneva Convention. The new provisions adopted in 1998 have led to the establishment of two different kinds of residence status for foreigners, one entitling them to settle in the country (permanent residence) and the other granting a renewable two-year right of temporary residence.

Between 1998 and 1999, the number of residence permits issued rose by 78%, mainly because of the growth in the issuance of temporary residence permits. Three characteristics of inflow patterns stand out: *i*) the roughly equal numbers of men and women entering since 1993; *ii*) the predominance of migrants from Europe (60%, mostly from Germany), the American continent (mainly from the United States) and Asia; and *iii*) the large proportion of young people among the new arrivals (approximately 60% are under the age of 40).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since 1996, the number of asylum seekers had increased significantly, rising from 850 applications to some 3 400 in 1998. In that year, most of the applications were made by Armenians, Sri Lankans, Afghans and nationals of the former Yugoslavia. The number of Armenian applicants has been rising steadily but is likely to diminish as the Polish authorities have decided to require Armenians wishing to come to Poland to obtain a visa.

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Table III.32. **Permanent immigration and emigration, 1995-1999, Poland**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Permanent immigration by region or country of origin[1]					
Europe	4.9	5.2	5.3	5.6	. .
Germany	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.3	. .
Ukraine	. .	0.5	0.8	0.6	. .
Other Europe	2.9	2.5	2.5	2.7	. .
Americas	2.4	1.9	1.7	1.8	. .
United States	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.3	. .
Canada	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.4	. .
Other America	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	. .
Other regions	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.5	. .
Total	**8.1**	**8.2**	**8.4**	**8.9**	. .
of which: Women	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.5	. .
Permanent residence permits issued by nationality[2]					
Ukraine	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.9	1.2
Vietnam	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.9
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6
Belarus	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.2
Other countries	1.5	1.2	1.6	2.7	5.9
Total	**3.1**	**2.8**	**4.1**	**5.1**	**9.1**
of which:					
Permission for settlement	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3
Permission for fixed-time residence	. .	. .	. .	4.8	8.9

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Permanent emigration by region or country of destination[3]				
Europe	21.0	17.0	16.3	18.5
Germany	18.2	14.8	14.2	16.1
Other Europe	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.4
Americas	4.9	3.9	3.6	3.3
United States	3.2	2.5	2.2	2.2
Canada	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.1
Other regions	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4
Total	**26.3**	**21.3**	**20.2**	**22.2**
of which: Women	13.0	10.4	10.0	10.6

1. Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Counts in the table may be underestimated since not all children accompanying immigrants are registered.
2. Data on permanent residence permits issued are not linked with data from the Central Population Register and therefore are not comparable. There is a break in series in 1998. For more details, see the paragraph *Trends in migration movements* in the note.
3. Only departures of permanent residents registered in the Central Population Register are included. Data for 1999 are not available.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Office for Migration and Refugee Affairs.

Illegal migration

Poland is one of the main transit countries for migrants heading towards Western Europe. Formerly intercepted at the Eastern borders, they now attempt to enter Poland via the borders with the Slovak and Czech Republics. Border controls have been improved and there has been a drop in the number of foreigners intercepted since 1995, which might indicate that these controls are more effective and/or that the number of people attempting illegal immigration has fallen.

The undocumented foreigners apprehended in Poland are chiefly Romanian, Ukrainian and Bulgarian. In all, more than 7 000 foreigners were expelled in 1998. In the same year, the number of undocumented foreigners readmitted into Poland under readmission agreements decreased. They mainly come from Germany, and are mostly nationals of the former Yugoslavia and Afghanistan. The number of administrative expulsions rose by over 50% in 1998. Romanian, Ukrainian and Armenian nationals are the most frequently affected by the enforcement of the new rules and procedures regarding foreigners living illegally in Poland.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

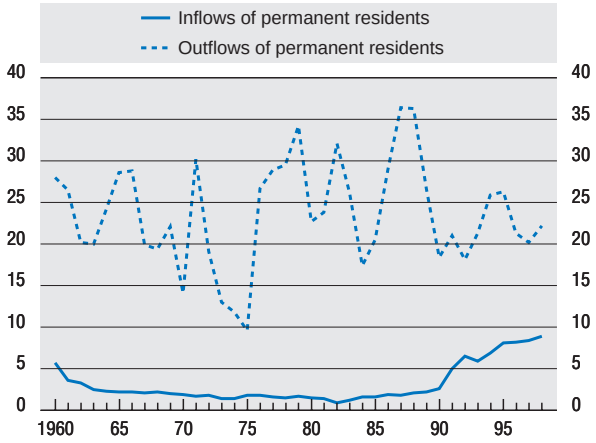
Trends in the structure of the foreign population

At the end of 1997 there were, on the basis of the estimate made in 1993 of the number of residence permits issued and the number of naturalisations, approximately 40 000 to 45 000 foreigners legally residing in Poland. A more recent estimate by the Ministry of the Interior put the number of permanently resident foreigners at

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Chart III.13. **Permanent migration flows in Poland,[1] 1960-1998**

Thousands



1. Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Counts in the table may be underestimated since not all children accompanying immigrants are registered. Outflows only cover departures of permanent residents registered in the Central Population Register.

Source: Central Statistical Office.

32 500, equivalent to 0.1% of the total population. Nationals of the republics of the former Soviet Union (principally Ukraine, Russia and Belarus) comprised the largest national groups (see Table III.32).

Mixed marriages

Mixed marriages are rare, but are increasing rapidly (by nearly 20% to 4 000 in 1998). They accounted for less than 2% of the total marriages contracted that year. Approximately one quarter of mixed marriages involved Polish women marrying German men. Those involving Polish men were mainly to women from Ukraine. Marriages involving Vietnamese nationals is a recently emergent phenomenon; they numbered approximately 500 in 1998.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour migration and the labour market

The data on the employment of foreign workers are incomplete. There are available only rough estimates based on the number of work permits issued by the Polish authorities, which show that one-third of permits were granted to workers in small enterprises (fewer than five employees). The number of permits issued is increasing yearly (up 19% in 1998, for a total of 21 000). They are granted mainly to Ukrainians, followed by Belarus and Vietnamese nationals. Germans rank only fifth, after workers from the United Kingdom. Belarus nationals are the fastest growing group, followed by French nationals who are helping to establish a number of foreign subsidiaries.

Immigration of skilled workers

The vast majority of work permits are granted to skilled workers (entrepreneurs, consultants and teachers). The proportion in unskilled employment is declining as the number of consultant positions and other more skilled jobs increases; it fell from 5% in 1997 to 3% in 1998. Furthermore, the number of workers who are

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self-employed or employ a small number of Polish workers has risen (by nearly 40%). One-quarter of the entrepreneurs are Vietnamese, over one-quarter of the teachers are from the United Kingdom and 40% of the manual workers (both skilled and unskilled) are Ukrainian. Senior managers come mainly from four Western countries: Germany, France, the United Kingdom and the United States. Foreign workers are more attracted to the private sector than the public sector and most frequently have jobs in trading activities or the hotels and catering sector.

Employment of undocumented workers

The National Labour Bureau estimated in a 1999 report that over the course of each year some 200 000 foreigners worked in the informal sector, mainly in seasonal jobs. The undocumented workers are primarily Ukrainian and Vietnamese nationals. Some German, French and Dutch nationals would also appear to be working illegally in Poland in large-scale projects to establish commercial centres. Many other undocumented foreigners hold jobs in the construction, catering and automobile sectors.

In 1998, more than 80 000 inspections led to the detection of some 2 500 illegal workers, mainly Russians and EU nationals.

4. Policy developments

The policy authorities have a full agenda in a number of areas. First, the government has taken two legislative initiatives regarding the regulation of migration flows. One of them, the Polish Nationality Act, concerns the acquisition, recovery and loss of Polish nationality as well as the question of dual nationality. This Act will replace provisions dating from the beginning of the communist regime. The other initiative proposes to amend the 1997 Aliens Act in order to take into account criticisms from EU institutions. Neither Act has yet been voted on by the Polish legislature. The Polish authorities have also clearly reaffirmed that they intend to take all necessary steps to facilitate the return and settlement in Poland of Polish citizens or persons of Polish origin who were deported or forcibly displaced. However, no concrete steps have yet been taken in this regard.

Poland has been a candidate for membership of the European Union since 1997, and has entered into negotiations with the European authorities to determine the date when member countries' labour markets will be opened to Polish workers. The government would like complete freedom of movement for persons as well as of goods, but it is uncertain whether the European authorities share this viewpoint. In any event, accession will not take place before 2003, after the agricultural negotiations have been completed.

PORTUGAL

Introduction

At 31 December 1998, Portugal's total resident population stood at just under 10 million. The authorities estimate the number of Portuguese living abroad at about 4.8 million. Portugal is one of the few OECD countries that has a long-standing policy for facilitating the integration of its citizens abroad.

There was a net migration gain of 15 000 in 1998, similar to the 1997 figure. The Alentejo was the only Portuguese region that experienced both a natural decrease in its population and a net migration loss. On the other hand, the population of the Algarve further increased after the rise in 1997, mainly because its net migration gain was the highest in Portugal.

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1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

In the second half of the 1970s the emigration of Portuguese nationals decreased, a trend that became a great deal more pronounced during the 1980s. In 1980 approximately 18 000 permanent departures (for more than one year) were recorded; in 1988 the figure was only 9 500. Departure statistics after 1988 are not comparable, since the type of passport on which the earlier data were based was abolished at that time. The free movement of Portuguese nationals within the European Union (EU) as of 1992 does not seem to have produced any significant upturn in permanent emigration to Member countries. Since 1993 the National Statistical Institute has been conducting a sample survey to estimate outflows. According to this survey, approximately 22 000 Portuguese nationals emigrated in 1998, some 15 000 fewer than in 1997 (see Table III.33). Nearly half the 1998 emigrants were from northern Portugal. Europe is the main destination, and in 1998 68% of Portuguese emigrants went to France, Switzerland or Germany.

The main sectors employing temporary migrants are agriculture, the hotel industry and construction, all of which experience strong seasonal and cyclical fluctuations in their labour demand. On the whole, alongside the increase in temporary emigration, there has been a slowdown in permanent emigration over the last decade.

The Portuguese community abroad totalled approximately 4.8 million, of whom more than a quarter reside in Brazil. The data from embassies and consulates show that some 30% of Portuguese residing abroad in 1998 lived in Europe (26% in the EU). The Portuguese constitute one of the largest expatriate groups living inside the EU (some 1 million). Remittances from Portuguese emigrants remain very high, equivalent in 1996 to nearly 4% of GDP.

The increase in return migration to Portugal, which had picked up during the 1980s, continues. In 1998, a little over 17 000 people returned to Portugal, 2 700 more than in 1997. Most came from European Union countries, mainly Germany and France; there were significant numbers from South Africa too.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1998, as in 1997, the resident foreign population rose by nearly 1.4% (an increase of 2 500 on 1997). According to a survey by the National Statistical Institute, 6 100 immigrants made their first application for a permanent residence permit in 1998, 2 800 more than in 1997 (see Table III.33). Most of the new holders of residence permits are concentrated in the Lisbon area, the Tagus valley and the Algarve. Overall, nationals of OECD Member countries account for nearly half of these new residents. The other immigrants come mainly from Brazil and from Portuguese-speaking African countries (principally Cape Verde and Angola).

Nearly 4 000 foreigners left Portugal in 1998, mostly nationals of Brazil, African countries (49% from Cape Verde) and Europe.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Portugal experienced an exceptional increase in asylum applications in 1993 (to total approximately 2 000), with Romanians accounting for nearly two-thirds and Angolans for 20%. Applications fell sharply thereafter. In 1998, 355 asylum applications were lodged, chiefly by nationals of Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Ghana and Algeria.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Foreign population

In 1998, approximately 178 000 foreigners were legally resident in Portugal, or 1.7% of the total population (see Table III.33). Men (58%) outnumbered women. Over half of the foreigners lived in the area (*distrito*) of Lisbon. Almost 13% lived in the Faro area, followed by Setubal (9.2%) and Porto (6.1%), while Bragança had the lowest proportion of foreigners (0.1%).

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Table III.33. **Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force in Portugal**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Emigration[1]	**22.6**	**32.8**	**37.8**	**22.2**
of which: Women	5.9	8.8	8.8	7.0
Returns of nationals (estimates)	**17.4**	**20.1**	**15.3**	**17.4**
First requests for a permit of permanent residence by region or country of origin	**5.0**	**. .**	**3.3**	**6.1**
EU	2.5	. .	1.9	2.8
of which:				
Germany	0.6	. .	0.4	0.6
United Kingdom	0.7	. .	0.3	0.5
Brazil	0.7	. .	0.3	0.6
Other	1.8	. .	1.1	2.7
Asylum seekers	**0.5**	**0.3**	**0.3**	**0.3**
Foreign population[2]	**168.3**	**172.9**	**175.3**	**177.8**
By region of residence				
Region of Lisboa	92.4	95.3	96.8	98.1
Region of Setubal	15.5	16.0	16.2	16.4
Other regions	60.3	61.6	62.3	63.3
By group of nationality				
Africa	79.2	81.2	81.7	82.5
Europe	44.9	47.3	49.7	51.9
South America	25.9	27.7	25.3	24.9
North America	10.9	10.8	10.6	10.3
Other regions	7.5	5.9	8.0	8.2
Acquisition of Portuguese nationality	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.5**
Mixed marriages	**1.5**	**1.2**	**1.3**	**1.4**
% of total marriages	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.1
Foreign labour force[3]	**84.4**	**86.8**	**87.9**	**88.6**
By main industry division				
Agriculture, forestry, fishing	19.8	20.6	21.3	. .
Mining and quarrying	4.8	5.0	5.1	. .
Manufacturing	3.4	3.4	3.5	. .
Electricity, gas and water supply	6.8	7.1	7.2	. .
Construction	6.7	7.2	7.4	. .
Sales, hotels and restaurants	1.1	1.1	1.1	. .
Other[4]	41.8	42.4	42.4	. .
By professional status				
Self-employed	16.6	16.7	17.0	17.1
Wage earners	67.8	69.7	70.6	71.2

1. Results of a special survey (INE).
2. Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit (including those who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes).
3. Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Data include workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes.
4. Including the following economic activities: Transport, Storage and communications; Financial intermediation, insurance and business services; Community, social and personal services.

Sources: Survey on outflows (INE); Labour Force Survey (INE); Ministry of the Interior.

By nationality, Cape Verde nationals are the most numerous (over 40 000) followed by Brazilians (20 000) and Angolans (16 500). Foreign nationals from OECD countries (nearly 80% from the European Union) account for one-third of the total foreign population. In 1998, 8 100 children were born of a foreign mother and/or father in Portugal, accounting for approximately 7% of total births (113 000).

Naturalisations

Portuguese law has allowed dual nationality since 1981, but the annual number of naturalisations remains low. The number of foreigners acquiring Portuguese nationality by naturalisation rose substantially in 1998,

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however, from 140 in 1997 to 520. The most frequent countries of origin are Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique and Brazil. Over 78% of naturalisations concerned people from Portuguese-speaking countries.

Mixed marriages

Mixed marriages accounted for just over 2% of all marriages in 1998, as in 1997. The majority were between Portuguese women and foreign men. These Portuguese women mainly married Brazilians, Germans, Venezuelans and Cape Verde nationals. The foreign wives of Portuguese men were mainly from Brazil, Cape Verde and Angola.

Schooling of immigrant children

In the academic year 1997/98, 60 000 children with foreign-born fathers and/or mothers were enrolled in the public system (excluding higher education), or 4.6% of the total enrolment. The majority of foreign children come from Portuguese-speaking countries (67%), with EU countries accounting for just 17%.

3. Migration and the labour market

Foreigners and the labour market

Since May 1998 the new Employment of Foreigners Act has allowed legally resident foreigners to work in Portugal without being subject to any numerical restrictions (under the previous legislation, the total number of foreigners employed in firms with five or more employees could not exceed 10% of the total workforce, though this rule did not apply to nationals of European Economic Area countries, or to nationals of countries which have bilateral agreements with Portugal, notably Brazil and Cape Verde).

In December 1998, the foreign labour force totalled over 88 000, an increase of 710 on the previous year. Most are unskilled agricultural workers, skilled workers (specialised or not) in manufacturing industry, science and technology specialists, and professionals. Europeans are employed mainly in scientific occupations and service jobs, whereas the vast majority of Africans are employed in industry and construction. Most Brazilians are employed in services (teaching, health and other scientific and technical occupations). Over 80% of foreign workers are wage-earners. Of the 17 000 entrepreneurs and self-employed workers living in Portugal, United Kingdom and Brazilian nationals are the most numerous.

At the end of 1998 there were a little over 370 600 people unemployed in Portugal, 59% of whom were women. Compared with 1997, the total number of unemployed fell by over 50 000, but the number of unemployed foreigners rose by 7.5%. Cape Verde and Angolan nationals were most vulnerable to unemployment, for though they accounted for only 9.5% of the foreign labour force they accounted for nearly 21% of unemployed foreigners. Of the unemployed foreigners, 71% were from Africa, 19% from Europe and 9% from North and South America.

4. Policy developments

Migration policy in Portugal has two facets, one applicable to the Portuguese community residing abroad and the other applicable to immigrants in Portugal. The two facets of this policy reflect coherent goals and explain the focus on migrants' rights, their political and social integration in the host country and objective information concerning their contribution to development.

Recent developments in immigration law

The new Employment of Foreigners Act of 12 May 1998 concerns foreigners authorised to reside and work in Portugal. This Act ensures equal opportunities with respect to recruitment and working conditions. Employment contracts must be in writing, except for EU nationals, and must first be lodged with the Labour and Solidarity Ministry. In addition, terminations of employment contracts must be notified to the Ministry of Labour within 15 days.

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Box III.7. Links with Portuguese communities abroad

Portuguese nationals residing abroad are represented by directly elected members of Parliament. Across the world there are a little over 2 000 associations created by migrants or their descendants. The aim of policy with regard to emigrants is to encourage political and social integration of the Portuguese in their host countries whilst respecting these emigrants' national identity, and to maintain links with emigrant communities. Measures are therefore designed to safeguard and disseminate the Portuguese language, facilitate links between the communities, and defend the interests and rights of Portuguese emigrants. To this end, numerous approaches have been developed. They include assistance for the teaching of Portuguese; grants to associations, missions and other organisations of Portuguese residing abroad; and, socio-cultural exchanges and vocational training programmes co-funded by the European Social Fund.

There are other forms of aid, such as financial assistance, legal, economic and social services, special bank accounts and preferential credit through an emigrant savings scheme which makes capital loans. Further measures were introduced in 1996, chiefly focusing on developing and modernising the services of Portuguese consulates and improving the dissemination of legal information to Portuguese communities abroad (using the Internet, for instance). In September 1996, Parliament unanimously passed a law setting up the Council of Portuguese Communities, a body to advise the government on policies concerning emigrant communities. This Council represents all Portuguese people living abroad who wish to be involved. It has one hundred elected members.

The Act of 8 August 1998 dealing with the admission, residence and departure of foreigners was designed to bring Portuguese legislation into line with international conventions to which Portugal is a party, and more particularly with EU law and the Schengen Agreements. The Act reaffirmed the rights of family reunion, which is now open to family members of a foreigner resident in Portugal. Entry on family reunion grounds will be granted on condition that, at the time of application, the foreigner has a residence permit valid for more than a year, appropriate housing and adequate means of support.

The Act abolishes the previous classes of permits and introduces two residence permits: a temporary one, valid for two years and renewable; and, a permanent one for foreigners who have been resident in Portugal without a break for at least ten years and have not incurred a prison sentence of over one year.

The Act introduces seven different types of visa: stop-over, transit, short-period, residence, education, employment and temporary residence.

Lastly, it provides that the expulsion of a foreigner may be ordered by a judicial or administrative authority. Administrative decisions are subject to a direct appeals procedure in the administrative courts. This appeals procedure does not however suspend the order.

A *new regularisation programme*

The government proposes to run a new regularisation programme from May 2000, for foreigners without the required papers who entered Portugal before 31 December 1999. In April 2000, it accepted a recommendation by the National Committee for the Regularisation of Immigrants, that regional governments should be empowered to accept regularisation applications, rather than the Foreigners Department in the Ministry of the Interior as had been the case for the 1996 programme.

M*igration and development*

Under the heading of co-operation policy, measures have recently been taken to assist in the development of university structures and vocational training centres in some Portuguese-speaking African countries. Supporting peace processes and the consolidation of emerging democracies in Africa, as well as the promotion of joint business ventures between Portuguese and African companies are other aspects of co-operation policy. Financial support is also extended to non-governmental organisations working with refugee populations or displaced persons in Africa.

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ROMANIA

Introduction

Between 1990 and 1992 substantial numbers of Romanian citizens, both of non-Romanian and Romanian origin, left to settle permanently abroad. Current estimates of the outflow by the Romanian authorities suggest that having fallen substantially to a relatively low level the flow continues to diminish, albeit at a more moderate pace. Return migration and readmissions have increased during each of the last five years. However, the figure is still only just over half that of estimated permanent emigration. Previous reports have underlined Romania's increasing importance as a transit destination in the East-west emigration flow, a feature linked, *inter alia*, to its relaxed visa regime. Although this continues to be a source of concern it would appear that in 1998 there took place in Romania a considerable increase in the attention paid to detecting illegal immigrants both at the border and within the country.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

Estimates of emigration made by the Ministry of the Interior are based on two sources: compulsory customs forms completed by those intending to leave the country on a permanent basis and data on those already abroad who apply for the renewal of their passport at a local embassy or consulate. Over the last five years, the estimated total number has averaged approximately 20 000, less than one quarter of the 1990 figure. Following a 7% decline in 1997, the figure declined by a further 12% in 1998 to 17 500. Although the countries of destination are becoming more diffuse, over 95% settle in OECD Member countries. Whilst Germany remains the most popular destination, receiving just over 20% of the total as estimated by the Romanian authorities, its importance is diminishing. In 1993, members of ethnic minorities accounted for just over half the total outflow. Having since then steadily decreased to just over 15% in 1997 this proportion would appear to have stabilised. Reflecting the increasing proportion of young families among the emigrants, proportion of under 10's doubled to almost 30% in 1998. Reflecting non-EU OECD countries' more stringent entry criteria, 25% of the adults who emigrated to them had tertiary-level education whereas the corresponding figure for those leaving for the EU was less than 10% (see Chart III.14).

Labour migration

Excepting the relatively small volume arranged under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, temporary foreign employment is registered only in the general flow of those temporarily leaving the country. That said, recent estimates have been made by the Israeli authorities of the sizeable contingent of documented and undocumented Romanian workers employed in its country; their number has been estimated at between 60 000 and 100 000. Data on individually arranged seasonal work remains sketchy.

Based on agreements between the Governments of Germany and Romania, 2 600 employment contracts of eighteen months duration and just over 5 500 seasonal contracts of three months duration were approved in 1998, increases of respectively 172% and 12% on 1997. The beneficiaries of the very short-term contracts are young workers aged 20-35 years in possession of a high level of education and a solid understanding of the German language. In conformity with similar bilateral arrangements, approximately 2 000 Romanians took up seasonal employment in Hungary and a further 1 000 each in Greece, Italy and Turkey.

Remittances

In February 1998, the Romanian bank "Bank Post" signed an agreement with Israeli Postal Authority relating to bank transfers of savings for Romanians who work in Israel. From February 1998 to the end of June 1999, the remittances exceeded USD 36 million. At the end of 1998, the Banca Religilor started a remittance transfer

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Chart III.14. **Demographic characteristics of permanent emigrants,[1] 1990-1998, Romania**

Percentages



1. Estimates by the Romanian Ministry of the Interior. Persons having reported their intention to settle abroad.
2. Romanian nationals with no other declared ethnic affiliation.

Source: Ministry of the Interior.

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system with mobile teams going to workplaces or places of accommodation. No figures for the sums thereby remitted are available.

Romanian citizens as asylum seekers

As was reported last year, having come to the view that basic standards of human rights were being observed in Romania, the UNCHR ceased at the end of 1997 to consider Romania as a generator of refugees. Notwithstanding, the cases of Romanian citizens who submit asylum applications abroad would however be "individually and thoroughly analysed". At slightly over 9 000, the number of new applications submitted in 1998 was only 4% less than the 1997 figure. Almost one third of these applications were made in France and just over 10% each in Spain and the United Kingdom. With the exceptions of Canada (20%), Switzerland (14%) and the United States (6%), the recognition rates were below 2% indicating, it would be reasonable to suppose, that the motivating factor behind the claims was to render legitimate the applicants' residence status.

Immigration

Return migration and readmissions

The number of applications for repatriation, having increased steadily through to the mid-1990s, accelerated sharply in 1997. The rate of increase in 1998 was the same, 35%, for a total number of almost 11 300. Applications from Moldova, the number of which increased almost five-fold during 1997 and 1998 account for the bulk of the increase. In 1998, they accounted for nearly three quarters of the total (see Table III.34).

Since 1993, nearly 120 000 Romanian citizens (the majority of whom were found in illegal situations) have been expelled from third countries. Almost two thirds were expelled from Germany and almost one fifth from Hungary. Expulsions numbered 21 600 in 1998, 30% of which were from Hungary, their number being over three times higher than in 1997 and almost 10% more than the combined total for the previous three years. The numbers expelled from Czech Republic, Italy and Belgium were twice as high as in 1997. Though the number expelled from Germany was lower than in previous years, they still accounted for over one quarter of the total.

Asylum seekers and refugees

Romania received less than 1 250 applications for refugee status in 1998, a 12% fall on the 1997 figure. Although the number of decisions made increased by almost 800% to 2 600, the number of claims accepted rose by less than 250% to total 276. Bangladesh accounted for almost 50% of the new applications in 1998; all were refused.

As consequence of the recent armed conflict in the former Yugoslavia, the Romanian Government issued a Priority Ordinance in April 1999 approving the entry and the granting of refugee status to citizens of former Yugoslavia. A total of 6 000 were initially covered by this Ordinance though refugee status would also be granted to any others already in Romania or who subsequently entered Romania directly.

Illegal migration

Having been broadly constant since 1994, the number of people caught attempting to illegally cross Romania's borders rose by over one third in 1998 to just under 1 700. The annual total number of foreign citizens found to be in illegal situation as consequence of controls carried out within the country more than doubled over the period 1993-1997 to 36 000; the figure for 1998 is not available.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

A clear trend has developed whereby due in part to return migration (particularly in the case of Greek citizens) and to the fact that since 1990 there has not existed an institution with the authority to grant this status, the stock of immigrants with permanent resident status continues to decline, standing at present at slightly

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Table III.34. **Current migration figures in Romania**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Stocks of foreigners				
Stock of persons with permanent residence status	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.4
Stock of persons with temporary residence visas[1]	55.2	55.7	55.0	55.3
Republic of Moldova	6.3	7.4	6.9	6.0
Greece	5.4	6.2	5.7	5.3
China	4.2	4.4	5.4	5.2
Turkey	4.8	5.1	5.5	4.2
Syria	4.1	4.1	3.8	3.3
Other	30.4	28.5	27.7	31.3
of which: Foreign citizens in education and training	20.8	22.7	20.4	18.0
Republic of Moldova	. .	. .	. .	5.9
Greece	5.3	5.8	4.9	4.7
Former USSR	5.8	7.1	6.7	6.0
Israel	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.6
Other	8.3	8.6	7.8	0.8
Return migration	**5.5**	**6.3**	**8.4**	**11.3**
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Refugee claims submitted	0.6	0.6	1.4	1.2
Refugee status granted	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3
Illegal immigration				
Number detected at border	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.7
Number detected within borders	4.0	4.2	5.5	4.0
Estimated stock of illegal migrants[2]	20.0	15.0	18.0	18.0
Expulsions				
Romanian citizens expelled from other countries	10.5	18.1	16.9	21.6
Foreigners expelled from Romania	0.7	1.2	1.4	1.6
Romanian citizens in Germany:				
A. Migration flows between Romania and Germany				
Ethnic Germans from Romania	6.5	4.3	1.8	1.0
Inflows of Romanian nationals	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0
Outflows of Romanian nationals	25.2	16.6	13.6	13.5
Asylum seekers from Romania	3.5	1.4	0.8	0.3
B. Stock of people from Romania in Germany				
Stock of Romanian nationals	109.2	100.7	95.2	89.8
Acquisitions of German nationality by former Romanians	12.0	9.8	8.7	6.3

1. Residence permits valid for a period longer than 120 days.
2. Estimates based on the number of expulsions, the number of persons detected within Romania and at the border.

Sources: Romanian Ministry of the Interior; Statistiches Bundesamt (Germany).

less than 1 400 (see Table III.34). A proposal to have this institutional deficiency remedied in the context of a new law on foreign citizens' status is still awaiting approval by the Romanian Parliament.

In the absence of the possibility of acquiring permanent residence status, foreigners wishing to prolong their stay beyond 120 days are obliged to obtain a renewable temporary residence permit. The number of such persons did not increase significantly in 1998, standing at 55 000 at the end of the year. Almost 50% were classified as entrepreneurs. Of these, one in five were Chinese and over one in ten were from Syria and Turkey; Iran, Iraq, Italy and Lebanon each accounted for at least a further 5%. Students and trainees accounted for just under one third of the temporary residence permit holders. Their number is determined largely by the quantity of scholarships awarded by the Romanian government. Having fallen back by 10% in 1997 to stand at 20 400, very close to the figures for 1993-95, their numbers declined for a second successive year, by 12% to bring the number to 18 000 at the end of 1998. The largest proportion, one third, are from Moldova. Just over one quarter are Greek.

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Naturalisations

Though they remain few in number, the number of naturalisations has been increasing sharply. From 100 in 1997, the figure rose to 195 in 1998 and to almost 250 for the first half of 1999. As previously, the majority (three quarters) of applications were approved upon completion of three years of marriage to a Romanian citizen. The remainder were company proprietors and a small number of employees with permanent contracts who had resided in Romania for over five years. In almost all cases naturalised foreign citizens have retained their original citizenship. In 1999, over one third of those naturalised were from Syria and almost one quarter were from Jordan.

3. Policy developments

Relating to Romanians

In September 1999, the Romanian Ministry of Labour and Social Protection and the German Federal Labour Office signed an agreement on "Limited duration employment in Germany". Replacing a similar agreement concluded in May 1991, it seeks to facilitate the seasonal employment of Romanian citizens in Germany (see Table III.34). The new agreement increases the number of sectors in which Romanians can be employed, extends from three to nine months their maximum period of employment and requires that they be employed under conditions comparable with those of German workers. Further, Romanian workers are now obliged to participate in the German social insurance system and their employers are obliged to ensure that they are provided with appropriate accommodation.

In November 1998, a law was passed stipulating that the State is obliged to ensure the protection of Romanian citizens who are working abroad but whose permanent residence is in Romania. Through the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Romanian Government is therefore seeking to conclude bi-lateral agreements and to sign international treaties or conventions in order to ensure that these workers benefit from guaranteed minimum labour protection standards covering such areas as minimum wage levels, general working conditions and insurance against workplace accidents or work-related illnesses. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, through its diplomatic missions and consular offices, will endeavour to ensure that Romanian citizens working abroad are accorded the protection provided by the legislation in that country and will attempt to resolve, in accordance with that legislation, any disputes which might arise.

In July 1998, a law was passed creating a "Fund at the Prime-Minister's disposal" to support Romanian communities abroad. An Inter-Ministerial Council was simultaneously created charged with approving priority actions that are to be financed from this fund. In December of the same year, the "Department for Relations with Romanians living abroad" was created. It is charged with ensuring that the basic rights of citizens of Romanian origin are observed.

Illegal migration

In September 1998, Romania signed a Protocol of enhanced trilateral co-operation with Bulgaria and Greece with the aim of combating trans-frontier criminality, including infringements related to illegal border crossing and the illegal traffic of human beings.

In June 1999, the government issued a Priority Ordinance amending and completing the 1992 law on Romania's State border. In addition to restructuring the administration of the border police, according them a degree of immunity when carrying out their duties and introducing a bonus scheme for them based on the amount of fines collected, the Priority Ordinance sets out the sanctions that can be imposed against those who facilitate illegal migration and renders carriers liable for the cost of returning irregular migrants.

Citizenship

The Law on Romanian Citizenship is to be amended and completed in 2000. It has been proposed that Romanian citizenship be granted to foreigners provided they give up their current citizenship and have been domiciled in Romania for a period of at least five years. Furthermore, persons who have lost their Romanian citizenship (for example, emigrants) could regain it, preserving at the same time their current citizenship. The

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proposed amendment would also remove the possibility of withdrawing, as a sanction, citizenship from those who have had it since birth. In addition, it will not be possible to rescind Romanian citizenship without furnishing proof that another citizenship has already been obtained.

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Introduction

After several years of strong growth, the Slovak economy has, since 1998, slowed down considerably with GDP growth falling from 6.5% 1997 to 4.5% in 1998. For the three preceding years, inflation was relatively low and stable while in 1998 it rose by 6.7% over the preceding year. At the end of 1998, unemployment stood at around 12%, but at the beginning of 1999 increased significantly to reach 15.8% during the second quarter of the year. This increase in unemployment is due in part to a sharp falls in public investment and in consumption. In previous years, public and private investment had been the driving force behind economic growth but this situation did not last, obliging the new government to introduce more restrictive measures.

The natural rate of population increase fell sharply between 1990 and 1998, from 5% to nearly 1%, a trend which continued in 1998. Although, since 1993, the Slovak Republic has had a positive migration balance, this is not sufficient to offset the decline in the natural population growth rate.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Sizeable migrant outflows to the Czech Republic were concentrated over the period 1992-1994. When the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic (CSFR) was divided in two on 1 January 1993, Czech law did not allow Slovaks working on Czech territory to have double nationality. In order to obtain Czech nationality, many of them registered as permanent residents of the Czech Republic. This showed up in the Czech Republic statistics as a migrant inflow from the Slovak Republic. Since 1994, Czech sources point to a considerable decline in flows of permanent migrants from the Slovak Republic, although they remain much higher than the flows of Czech citizens coming to settle in the Slovak Republic (see Table III.35).

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The National Statistics Institute's data are based on the notification by residents of the place of their permanent residence. This often results in an underestimation of migration flows.

Immigration flows are low. In 1998, the number of immigrants continued to fall, from 2 300 to 2 050, while the number of emigrants continued to rise, from 570 to 750. Some 80% of migrants entering or leaving the Slovak Republic come from Europe.

Although since the dissolution of the CSFR on 1 January 1993, there has been a sharp fall in migration between the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic, Czechs still accounted for over 34% of total immigrants into the Slovak Republic in 1998. Ukrainians form the second largest group of immigrants, accounting for 13% of the total.

Illegal migration

The Slovak Republic is a transit country. Unlike legal migration, inflows and outflows of illegal migrants are not evenly distributed among the country's different borders. Illegal migrants move from East to West and from South to North. Inflows are concentrated on the Hungarian and Ukrainian borders, outflows on the Czech, Austrian and Polish borders.

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Table III.35. **Current migration figures, Slovak Republic**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Inflows of permanent residents	**4.6**	**2.5**	**2.3**	**2.1**
Arrivals (excluding those from Czech Republic)	3.1	1.5	1.4	1.3
Arrivals from Czech Republic	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.8
Outflows of permanent residents	**4.1**	**3.6**	**3.4**	**3.8**
Departures (excluding those to Czech Republic)[1]	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.9
Departures to the Czech Republic[2]	3.8	3.5	3.1	2.9
Net migration	**0.5**	**–1.1**	**–1.1**	**–1.7**
Residence permits newly granted by category				
Long-term residence permits	3.7	3.5	4.1	2.2[3]
Permanent residence permits	3.0	1.9	2.0	0.9[3]
Family reunification	2.7	1.5	1.6	0.7
Other	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2
Inflows of asylum seekers	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**1.0**
Illegal migrants caught at the border	**2.8**	**3.3**	**2.8**	**8.2**
of which:				
Inflows	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.9
Outflows	1.5	2.4	2.1	6.3
Holders of permanent or long-term residence permit, by country of origin[4]				
Czech Republic	4.3	5.1	5.8	. .
Ukraine	2.6	3.0	3.5	. .
Poland	2.3	2.5	2.8	. .
Former Yugoslavia	1.9	2.0	2.0	. .
Other	10.7	11.6	10.7	. .
Total	**21.9**	**24.1**	**24.8**	**27.4**
Work permit holders, by country of origin[5]				
Ukraine	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7
Poland	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7
United States	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3
Other	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.0
Total	**2.7**	**3.3**	**3.8**	**3.7**
Estimates of Czech workers[6]	**1.2**	**1.5**	**1.7**	**1.4**
Slovak citizens abroad				
Slovak workers in the Czech Republic	59.3	72.2	69.7	61.3
% of total foreign workers in the Czech Republic	53.0	50.4	53.3	55.1
Slovak citizens in Hungary	3.5	3.7	3.7	. .
% of total registered foreigners in Hungary	2.5	2.6	2.6	. .
Slovak workers in Austria	2.8	3.7	4.0	4.0
% of total foreign workers in Austria	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7

1. The outflows are underreported because people leaving the country are requested but not required to report their departure.
2. Changes of permanent residence in the Czech Republic. The data are issued by the Czech Statistical Office.
3. January to June 1998.
4. The data refer to the stock of permanent and long-term residents as of 31 December of the years indicated.
5. The data refer to the stock of work permit holders as of 31 December of the years indicated.
6. Under a bilateral agreement signed by the Czech and Slovak Republics in 1992, nationals of each Republic have free access to both labour markets. Data on Czech workers are monitored by the National Labour Office of the Slovak Republic.

Sources: Ministry of Labour and the National Labour Office of the Slovak Republic; Czech Statistical Office.

In 1998, some 2 000 illegal migrants were apprehended whilst trying to enter the country, and 6 300 when trying illegally to leave the Slovak Republic, three times the number in both cases than for the previous year. Most illegal immigrants are from the former Yugoslavia (3 600), Afghanistan (1 050) and Romania (650).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Flows of asylum seekers, which were negligible in 1993, have risen a little since then, but the criteria for awarding refugee status were tightened in 1997. As a result, only 10% of applicants were granted refugee status

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in that year; 50 successful applications were recorded in 1998. Until 1997, the Slovak Republic also took in a few war refugees, who were housed in humanitarian centres. These centres have since been closed. Since 1996, Afghans have constituted the largest group of asylum seekers. Between 1 January and 31 October 1999, they accounted for 57% of applications, as compared with 12% from Iraq, 8% from Sri Lanka and 7% from India.

Family reunion

The largest number of permanent residence permits granted for reasons of family reunion (3 000) was recorded in 1994, one year after the break-up of the CSFR. In 1998, the number of such permits granted was much lower (700).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

For historical reasons, the ethnic composition of the Slovak Republic is highly varied. At the last census, in 1991, almost 11% of residents said they were of Hungarian origin, 1.4% of gypsy stock and 1% Czech. In 1998, the Hungarian minority still accounted for 10.5% of the total population. Hungarians are the largest minority group in the Slovak Republic. In 1998, the number of Slovaks of Hungarian origin amounted to 570 000. The proportion of gypsies in the total population has grown. According to the police services, there were some 350 000 gypsies in the Slovak Republic in 1998.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Under bilateral government agreements, the employment of foreigners in the Slovak Republic before 1989 was restricted solely to nationals of socialist countries and developed countries. But since 1996, the employment of foreigners in the Slovak Republic as well as the employment of Slovaks abroad has been regulated by the Employment Act No. 378 as well as the Labour Code. Apart from permanent residents, refugees, Czech nationals and other foreigners employed within the framework of international agreements, all other foreigners wishing to carry out a professional activity in the Slovak Republic must obtain a work permit. Such permits are granted on the basis of a residence permit which is obtained for work reasons. Since 1997, foreigners able to prove that they are of Slovak origin (going back three generations) are entitled to work without a permit.

Between 3 000 and 4 000 permits have been granted in each of the last two years (see Table III.35). The proportion of foreigners in legal employment, compared to the Slovak Republic's total labour force of 2 million, is negligible. Once foreigners are legally employed in the Slovak Republic, they enjoy the same rights as nationals. Ukrainian, Polish, United States and United Kingdom nationals are the most numerous. Almost a third are employed by foreign companies. The number of Czech workers, who are not required to have a work permit, may be deduced from the declarations sent by employers to labour offices. Numbering 2 000 at the end of 1998, their unemployment rate is 4.2%, much lower than the Slovak average.

Slovak nationals who are not registered as permanent residents in the Slovak Republic may request assistance from the Slovak authorities in their efforts to secure employment abroad. The primary destination is the Czech Republic but since the increase in unemployment, the number of Slovak workers in the Czech Republic has fallen slightly.

Under a bilateral agreement concluded before 1993 between the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic, citizens working legally in the other country and who become unemployed may be paid benefits by the Labour Office of their own country. The current relations between the two countries as regards labour law are therefore very similar to the rules in force in the European Union.

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4. Policy developments

New legislation

A new Act concerning foreigners' residence status came into force in 1995. Under this Act, there are three types of residence permit in the Slovak Republic: short-term residence permits, limited to a maximum of 180 days, long-term residence permits, for a maximum period of one year, and permanent residence permits, granted for reasons of family reunion or national interest or to persons of Slovak origin. The issuance of such permits may be refused or withdrawn.

New international agreements

In 1998, the Slovak Republic concluded a bilateral agreement with Switzerland authorising free movement, and is about to sign a similar agreement with Austria. Other agreements concerning free movement to and from Indonesia, the Philippines and France are in course of preparation. Free movement agreements reserved exclusively to diplomats or the holders of special passports were signed in 1998 with Kazakhstan, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Algeria and Chile.

On the other hand, in the face of hundreds of applications for asylum by gypsies arriving from the Slovak Republic, the United Kingdom has unilaterally suspended its free movement agreement with that country, as did Ireland, shortly after, and the Bahamas. In the summer of 1999, the same measures were adopted temporarily by Finland, while Norway adopted a preventive measure. Finland and Norway abandoned these measures in November 1999.

SPAIN

Introduction

Spain's recent economic performance has been strong, with GDP growing at a rate of 3.7% in 1999. Stimulated by high domestic demand, moderate wage growth and low wage costs, employment rose by 4.6%; the unemployment rate, having been 22% in 1996, stood at 15% at the end of 1999. The economic outlook is good and migration, which is already supported by an active immigration policy, can be expected to increase.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

In 1998, as recorded by the General Directorate for Migration, 26 900 Spanish workers left the country temporarily, an increase of 65% on the previous year. This temporary emigration was motivated by a variety of reasons, such as wage differentials, income supplements and better social protection regarding unemployment, etc. Two out of three labour emigrants went to other European countries, in particular to France (15 000), often to take up seasonal employment (see Table III.36).

Inflows of foreigners

Although the statistics available on the number of permits issued provide only a approximate indication of the immigration flow, it is clear that numbers rose in all immigrant categories in 1998. For example, issuances of settlement permits doubled from 47 000 to over 93 000. The number of permits issued to students rose by 25% (22 100 in 1998) and those to workers by almost 14% (28 100). The new arrivals came mainly from Morocco (29%), the United States (11%), Peru (6%) and a comparable proportion (5% each) from the Dominican Republic and from China.

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Table III.36. **Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force in Spain**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Outflows of nationals	**14.4**	**14.5**	**16.4**	**26.9**
of which: to a European country	9.1	9.2	9.7	17.8
Returns of nationals	**18.5**	**26.6**	. .	. .
Stock of foreign residents[1]	**499.8**	**539.0**	**609.8**	**719.7**
By region of origin				
Europe	254.5	273.3	289.1	330.5
Africa	95.8	98.8	142.8	179.5
America	108.9	121.3	127.0	147.2
Asia	38.5	43.4	49.1	60.7
Oceania	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0
Stateless	0.3	0.4	1.0	0.7
By region of residence				
Madrid	93.0	111.1	116.0	148.1
Barcelona	78.0	84.5	90.7	104.3
Alicante	39.5	42.7	42.6	44.6
Other	289.4	300.7	360.5	422.7
Acquisition of Spanish nationality				
Grants of Spanish nationality (excluding persons recovering their Spanish nationality)	6.8	8.4	10.3	13.2
Total work permits granted[2]	**100.3**	**126.4**	**86.8**	**79.1**
of which: Women	29.5	39.7	31.9	33.7
By industry division				
Agriculture	18.9	26.0	18.4	15.6
Industry	7.5	8.6	5.8	4.4
Building	10.4	12.2	7.2	4.8
Services	57.2	72.7	53.5	53.1
Not specified	6.3	6.9	2.0	1.4
By region of origin				
Africa	57.4	70.6	44.2	32.2
Central and South America	22.7	30.2	23.3	28.0
Asia	11.8	15.8	12.5	11.6
Europe (except EU)[3]	6.6	8.0	5.7	6.2
North America	1.6	1.6	1.1	0.9
Oceania and other	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
By type of permit				
Long-term work permits				
Employees	4.6	29.6	27.3	14.5
Self employed	2.0	4.8	3.7	2.5
One-year work permit				
Employees	83.3	81.1	51.1	58.8
Self employed	8.5	7.0	3.0	1.9
Other[4]	2.0	3.9	1.8	1.5
Stock of foreign workers[5]	**139.0**	**166.5**	**178.8**	**190.6**

1. Stock of foreigners who hold a residence permit. Permits of short duration (less than 6 months) as well as students are excluded. Data refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated and include permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme.
2. Total permits issued, including seasonal and cross-border workers and renewals of permits. Provisional figures for 1998.
3. Since 1 January 1992, the nationals of the European Union do not need a work permit.
4. Seasonal and cross-border workers.
5. Data are for 31 December of each year and are counts of valid work permits. Workers from the EU are not included. Data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. Provisional data for 1998.

Sources: General Directorate on Migration; Ministry of Labour and Social Security; Ministry of Justice.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Application for asylum rose for a second consecutive year. In 1998, 6 760 people filed applications, up 36% over the previous year. Some 38% of the applications were ruled to be admissible, and of those, 42% were approved.

The largest groups of applicants were Algerians (1 600 applications) and Romanians (1 100 applications). Two-thirds of applicants were men between the ages of 18 and 35. Over 80% of applicants did not have more than secondary school education.

Requests for asylum were rejected because applicants were unable to prove that their request was justified (54%) or provided false or dubious documents and information (36%). Romanian nationals have the highest rate of refusal.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Trends in the stock of the foreign population

Since 1991, the foreign resident population has doubled, partly because of the regularisation programmes for illegal foreigners decided upon in 1991 and 1996. Depending on the case, some foreigners were granted both a work and residence permit or a residence permit only. There were 720 000 foreign residents at the end of 1998, 18% more than the previous year; they accounted for slightly less than 2% of the total popula-

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tion (see Table III.36). Since 1994, the stock of foreigners from non-EU countries has been growing steadily, rising by over 20% in 1997 and 1998. This can be explained by the application of the new regulations under the Act on the Status of Foreigners, the main effect of which is to grant permanent, indefinite-term, permits to foreigners; it is also due to the arrival of new immigrants attracted by the upturn in economic activity and employment that has taken place over the past three years and by the progressive increase in the quota for foreign workers.

The residential concentration of foreigners is very high. One-third of foreign residents live in Madrid or Barcelona and three-quarters live in the Mediterranean provinces and the Canary Islands. Among non-EU nationals, Moroccans constitute the largest group. On the whole, the African and Asian communities have grown the most rapidly over recent years, increasing by 87% and 59% respectively between 1995 and 1998. Nevertheless, European residents remain the largest group. The number of foreign residents from all EU Member countries has increased over the past four years, with the sharpest rise in the number of Austrians, Finns and Swedes. However, nationals of the United Kingdom, Germany, Portugal and France remain the largest groups.

The proportion of women among foreign residents has been rising over recent years. Although the number of women and men is roughly the same among European immigrants, African immigrants are mostly male while those from Asia and the Americas are predominantly female.

Naturalisations

Between 1995 and 1998, the number of naturalisations doubled. In 1998, 60% of those naturalised were from South America. Nationals of the Dominican Republic were the most numerous, followed by Moroccans and nationals of Equatorial Guinea. At 7%, Dominican nationals also had the highest naturalisation rate (the percentage of a foreign resident population that has been naturalised).

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

By the end of 1998, more than 190 000 work permits had been issued, down by slightly less than 7% on the previous year. The relative share of wage-earners has been rising yearly and 90% of work permits were issued to workers in this category. The proportion of women has been growing and rose to 40% in 1998, a trend due to the fact that they have entered the labour market more recently, which explains the larger number of work permit renewals. It is also due to the fact that women outnumber men in the annual quotas for workers set by the government.

Half of the workers are based in Madrid (31%) and Barcelona (20%). Non-EU workers are employed in services (60%), agriculture (20%) and the remainder in industry and construction. Nearly half of foreign workers are from Africa, with the largest numbers being Moroccan workers employed in agriculture. Nationals of South American countries are the next largest group.

In 1998 more than 105 000 new applications for permits were filed, with an acceptance rate of 75%. This was the lowest acceptance rate since 1991. Of the permits issued to wage earners (95% of the total), 60% were first permits valid initially for one year, approximately 20% were for a duration of three to five years and 18% were renewals for two years. The remainder consisted of seasonal or cross-border permits. The relative share of the service sector grew in 1998, and this sector employs nearly 70% of foreign workers, 43% in domestic services. African workers (especially Moroccans) were the main recipients of the permits granted in 1998, followed by workers from South America (predominantly Peruvians and Ecuadorians) (see Table III.36).

Spain is developing a policy of quotas for foreign workers based on the needs of the labour market. In 1999, the government decided to grant a maximum of 30 000 work permits to foreigners not residing legally in Spain. The priority sectors are agriculture, construction and services. Between January and August 1999, just under 97 000 applications were filed, an increase of 50% on the corresponding period for the previous year. Slightly more than 26 000 permits were issued to Moroccan (31%), Ecuadorian (12%) and Chinese (11%) nationals.

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4. Policy developments

The influx of foreigners seeking to work in Spain is essentially due to two factors. For five years this trend has been encouraged by the practice of quotas, regularisation programmes and agreements signed with seasonal workers. Since April 1996, this active immigration policy has been supplemented by important legislative amendments that allow for greater flexibility in the management of work permits by making it possible to grant them for longer periods, which provides for greater stability.

In August 2000, the Spanish government agreed to present to parliament a draft reform of the Immigration Act designed to render it more restrictive. The key aspect of the reform concerns more stringent control of undocumented immigrants, who will have to prove that they have been in Spain for over five years, rather than two years, in order to regularise their situation. There are also provisions for increasing the penalties and sanctions imposed on those who help migrants to enter Spain illegally, or employ them illegally.

SWEDEN

Introduction

After a period of stagnation, Sweden's economy has recovered with growth of 3% in 1998 and 3.8% in 1999. The recovery has actually had a highly positive impact on the labour market, with the unemployment rate falling to 6.5%, substantially below 8% for the first time since 1993.

In 1998, there were some 500 000 foreign residents in Sweden, out of a total population of 8.8 million. Over the last ten years migration flows have fluctuated considerably, in both qualitative and quantitative terms. These changes are due both to recent economic trends and to the new thrust of Sweden's migration policy.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Emigration flows of foreigners have been relatively stable for the past five years. In 1998, over 14 000 foreigners left Sweden. These were mainly other Scandinavian nationals. Immigration peaked in 1994 with 75 000 permanent entries (people stating that they wish to remain in Sweden for more than a year, not including asylum seekers with applicants pending). By 1997, the figure had fallen by over half to 33 400. In1998, the figure rose slightly, to 35 701; the migration gain totalled 21 564, an increase of 19.1% on 1997.

Around 40 000 residence permits were issued in 1998 (an increase of some 7.6% over the previous year). Over half the permits were issued on family reunion grounds, nearly 21% to refugees and nearly 15% under European agreements. Immigration for employment purposes is negligible (363).

The main groups are of Scandinavian, Iraqi, Yugoslav, Iranian and Bosnian origin. Immigration from the fifteen European Union countries totalled 8 353, or 23.3% of total immigration. Some 51% of immigrants are female (see Table III.37).

Asylum seekers

Since the early 1990s, the number of asylum seekers has fluctuated significantly, peaking in 1992 during the war in the former Yugoslavia, with a total of 84 000 applications. Numbers have since fallen substantially, numbering 5 800 in 1996. There were 12 460 asylum applications in 1998; the figure for 1999 is likely to be around 11 200.

In 1998, a little over a third of asylum applications were made by Iraqis and nationals of the former Yugoslavia, 5.1% by Iranians, while smaller groups sought asylum from Afghanistan, Turkey, Somalia, Syria and Lebanon.

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Table III.37. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Sweden**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total population[1]	**8 837.5**	**8 844.5**	**8 847.6**	**8 854.3**
% of foreign population	6.0	6.0	5.9	5.6
Stock of foreign population[1]	**531.8**	**526.6**	**522.0**	**499.9**
Nordic countries	163.7	160.8	162.2	159.7
Finland	104.9	103.1	101.3	99.9
Norway	32.3	31.7	31.0	30.6
Denmark	26.5	26.0	25.4	25.0
Other countries	368.1	365.8	359.8	340.2
of which:				
Iraq	21.3	22.8	24.8	26.6
Former Yugoslavia	38.4	36.6	33.6	26.0
Iran	29.3	27.2	26.2	19.8
Inflows of foreigners by nationality or region of origin[2]	**36.1**	**29.3**	**33.4**	**35.7**
Nordic countries	6.3	5.6	5.3	5.8
Finland	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0
Norway	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6
Denmark	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1
Other countries	29.8	23.8	28.1	29.6
of which:				
Iraq	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4
Former Yugoslavia	2.5	0.8	3.9	1.9
Net migration of foreigners by nationality[2]	**21.2**	**14.9**	**18.1**	**21.8**
Nordic countries	–0.2	–1.0	–1.1	–0.3
Finland	0.1	–0.2	–0.2	0.1
Norway	–0.5	–0.5	–0.6	–0.1
Denmark	0.2	–0.2	–0.4	–0.1
Other countries	21.4	15.8	19.3	22.1
of which:				
Former Yugoslavia	2.3	0.6	3.6	1.7

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Number of residence permits by category of admission[3]	**32.4**	**31.7**	**36.6**	**39.4**
Family reunification	19.7	18.8	18.9	21.7
Refugees	5.6	4.8	9.6	8.2
EEA-agreement	4.7	5.2	4.6	5.7
Foreign students	1.5	1.5	2.4	2.7
Adopted children	0.8	1.1	0.7	0.8
Employment	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4
Asylum seekers	**9.0**	**5.8**	**9.6**	**12.5**
of which:				
Iraq	1.8	1.6	3.1	3.8
Former Yugoslavia	2.4	1.1	3.0	3.4
Persons with foreign background[4]	**1 630.1**	**1 656.6**	**1 683.7**	**1 746.9**
Foreign-born	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7
Swedish citizens	497.3	510.6	579.2	558.2
Foreigners	438.7	433.2	375.0	410.5
Born in Sweden[5]	694.0	712.8	729.0	778.6
Swedish citizens	613.8	632.3	646.0	695.5
Foreigners	80.2	80.5	83.0	83.0
Stock of foreign labour[6]	**220**	**218**	**220**	**219**
Nordic nationals	91	90	87	85
Non-nordic nationals	130	128	133	134
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality	**32.0**	**25.6**	**28.9**	**46.5**
Former Yugoslavia	3.6	2.4	6.1	9.0
Finland	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.7
Turkey	2.8	2.0	1.4	1.7
Other countries	23.5	19.1	19.5	34.1
Mixed marriages	**6.4**	**6.2**	**5.0**	**. .**
% of total marriages	17.7	17.2	16.4	. .

1. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.
2. Data are from population registers and refer to persons who declare their intention to stay in Sweden for longer than one year. Figures do not include asylum seekers who are waiting for decisions and temporary workers.
3. Residence permits are not required for Nordic citizens.
4. Foreign background, first or second generation immigrant only.
5. Persons with at least one parent born abroad. The increase between 1997 and 1998 depends mostly on quality improvements in the population register.
6. Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.

Sources: Swedish Immigration Board ; Statistics Sweden.

Although the Swedish Government has taken steps to encourage refugees to return home, the outcome has been patchy. In 1998, for instance, just 375 refugees returned to Bosnia-Herzegovina, 55 to Chile, 26 to Croatia, 14 to Iran and 11 to the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

In 1998, Sweden's total population stood at 8.85 million, of whom 5.6% (499 900) were foreigners. At this time, over 968 700 people had been born abroad (10.9% of the total population). Of these, 40% had been settled in the country for over twenty years and 558 200 held Swedish nationality. A further 779 000 people were born in Sweden but had links, via their parents, with at least one other country. In 1998, there were in total 1 746 900 people of foreign origin, accounting for 19.7% of the total population (see Table III.37).

After declining steadily since 1993, the number of naturalisations rose spectacularly in 1998. Naturalisations totalled 46 502, a level not seen for over ten years, and included 8 991 nationals of the former Yugoslavia, and approximately 1 700 Finns and Turks.

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3. Migration and the labour market

During the 1950s and 1960s, Sweden made intensive use of immigrant labour to meet the needs of its rapidly expanding labour market. Over that period unemployment among immigrants was similar to that for the whole population. The position has deteriorated markedly since then and the number of immigrants receiving social benefits has risen fivefold.

In 1998, there were 219 000 foreign workers in Sweden, of whom 98 000 were women. This figure, relatively stable over the past five years, represents around 5% of the total labour force. Those from the other Nordic countries and the former Yugoslavia predominate on the labour market. The largest group of foreigners are the Finns at around 52 000, followed by Yugoslavs (31 000) and Norwegians (17 000). Iranians, of whom there are approximately 9 000, form the largest non-European group.

The number of residence permits issued for employment purposes, chiefly to highly skilled workers and business persons, was marginal at some 400 in 1998, as in 1997. However, EU and Norwegian nationals are not included in these statistics.

Temporary work permits are not systematically recorded in Sweden, but are issued for example to scientists and artists or for seasonal work, in particular fruit-picking. Temporary work permits totalled 8 400 in 1996.

4. Policy developments

Numerous changes have occurred in Sweden's migration policy over recent years. In particular, migration procedures as a whole are now managed by the Swedish Immigration Council, rather than by the police. The Council has recently taken over responsibility for all applications for residence permits. New offices have been opened in air and sea ports and in some provincial towns. The Council also runs the detention centres and it is gradually taking over responsibility for handling applications lodged at Sweden's embassies throughout the world.

In January 1999, the Council became the executive authority for carrying out expulsion orders, taking over from the police though their assistance is still available when force may be required. Around 5 900 expulsion orders were enforced in 1999. According to the Council's statistics, the police took part in 25% of them.

New naturalisation measures

Since the start of 1999, people who are unable to prove their identity may obtain Swedish citizenship if they have resided in Sweden for at least eight years and can provide some evidence that their declared identity is correct.

A Citizenship Committee recently proposed that Sweden should recognise dual nationality. Other measures to facilitate the acquisition of Swedish nationality for the children of unmarried Swedish fathers, adopted children and stateless persons were suggested.

New integration policy and a new authority

A new policy on integration came into effect in 1998 and a new authority was established to implement it. In September 1997, the government submitted a bill to Parliament entitled "Sweden, the Future and the Plural Society – From Immigration Policy to Integration Policy". In this framework, recognition of cultural and ethnic diversity is considered a prerequisite for the shaping and enforcement of new legislation, in whatever sector or sphere of society. Policies directly addressing immigrants, as a group, should be confined to expenditure and measures necessary in the early years after arrival in Sweden.

Integration policy seeks particularly to:

– Provide opportunities to enable individuals to support themselves and to integrate in society.

– Preserve essential democratic values and work to guarantee equal rights and opportunities for men and women.

– Prevent and eradicate discrimination, xenophobia and racism.

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The National Integration Office was set up in June 1998. It is responsible for implementing measures designed to attain the objectives of integration policy and seeing that the new approach impacts on all sectors of society. The Office further monitors and assesses developments concerning ethnic and cultural plurality in the community as a whole.

SWITZERLAND

Introduction

The upturn in Switzerland economic growth was confirmed in 1998. Real GDP rose by 2.1% as compared with 1.7% the previous year. Accompanying this recovery, unemployment declined by over one percentage point, from 4.8% in 1997 to 3.2%. The recovery has also had an impact on migration, which continued into 1999. For the first time since 1992, for instance, Switzerland recorded noticeable growth in new entries (6.9%), while the number of emigrants fell by 7%. Foreigners, in particular seasonal and cross-border workers, are however still insecurely placed on the labour market compared with Swiss nationals, as evidenced by their greater vulnerability to fluctuations in the business cycle and to corporate restructuring.

At almost 19%, Switzerland has one of the highest proportions of foreign nationals in the OECD area and is in this respect second only to Luxembourg in Europe. Relative to its population, it also receives large numbers of asylum seekers and refugees (applications for asylum rose by 72% in 1998).

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

For the first time since 1992, the migration balance was inverted and the country recorded a gain of 16 000. Whilst net migration was positive with Germany and France (36% of the gain), it was negative with Portugal, Spain and Italy. While nationals of the former Yugoslavia (33% of the overall gain) still form the largest immigrant group in Switzerland, the inflow from that area has been declining since 1994. Excepting nationals of the former Yugoslavia, Germany (9 300), France (5 400), Italy (5 350) and Portugal (5 100) were the principal source countries in 1998 (see Table III.38).

In 1998, some 75 000 people entered Switzerland, 31% of them on family reunion grounds and 36% for employment. Over three-quarters of them were under 35 years of age, and this is helping to slow down the ageing of the Swiss population. Most of the new entrants were seasonal workers, mainly in catering and the hotel industry, construction and agriculture/forestry.

Outflows were down on 1997. Almost 59 000 foreigners left Switzerland, headed by Italians, then Germans and Spaniards. Over half of those leaving the country were aged 20-39 and the greatest number (19%) had worked in banking and insurance.

Refugees and asylum seekers

There was a considerable increase in the number of political asylum seekers in Switzerland in 1998. Almost 42 000 people filed applications (up 72% on the previous year). The political and economic situation in the Balkans contributed to this (60% of applicants were from the area). However, acceptance rates varied widely according to nationality. For instance, 23% of claims by nationals of Bosnia-Herzegovina were successful, compared with 97% for the Vietnamese. In 1998, 3 460 applicants were deported and 6 480 left of their own accord. Initial estimates for 1999 suggest another rise in applications.

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Table III.38. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Switzerland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Population on 31 December of the years indicated	**7 062.4**	**7 081.3**	**7 096.5**	**7 123.5**
% *of foreigners*	18.8	18.9	18.9	18.9
Components of foreign population change[1]	**30.5**	**7.0**	**3.2**	**7.1**
Net migration[1]	26.8	12.0	9.3	16.0
Natural increase	13.3	14.1	13.4	12.7
Acquisitions of Swiss nationality	–16.8	–19.4	–19.2	–21.3
Other[2]	7.2	0.2	–0.3	–0.3
Migration flows of foreigners[3]				
Inflows by main nationality[3]	**87.9**	**74.3**	**72.8**	**74.9**
Former Yugoslavia	22.3	14.1	12.8	11.5
Germany	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.3
France	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.4
Italy	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.3
Portugal	7.6	5.5	4.0	5.1
Other countries	37.7	35.7	37.7	38.3
Outflows by main nationality[3]	**67.5**	**67.7**	**63.4**	**59.0**
Italy	10.3	10.8	9.9	8.6
Portugal	7.4	7.9	8.7	7.8
Former Yugoslavia	8.7	9.0	7.2	6.2
Germany	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.5
France	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.3
Other countries	30.6	30.1	28.2	27.6
Net migration by main nationality[3]	**20.4**	**6.6**	**9.3**	**16.0**
Former Yugoslavia	13.6	5.1	5.6	5.3
Germany	2.0	2.4	2.6	3.8
France	1.2	1.3	1.3	2.1
Portugal	0.2	–2.3	–4.7	–2.7
Italy	–3.6	–5.4	–4.9	–3.2
Other countries	7.0	5.6	9.4	10.7
Asylum seekers	**17.0**	**18.0**	**24.0**	**41.3**
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality	**16.8**	**19.4**	**19.2**	**21.3**
Italy	4.4	5.2	5.0	5.6
Former Yugoslavia	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.3
Turkey	1.2	1.4	1.8	2.1
France	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2
Other countries	7.9	8.9	8.4	9.1

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Foreign population by main nationality[1]	**1 330.6**	**1 337.6**	**1 340.8**	**1 347.9**
Italy	358.9	350.3	342.3	335.4
Former Yugoslavia	294.2	305.0	313.5	321.1
Portugal	134.8	137.1	136.3	135.8
Germany	90.9	92.7	94.7	97.9
Spain	101.4	97.7	94.0	90.4
Turkey	78.6	79.4	79.6	79.5
France	53.6	54.3	55.0	56.1
Other countries	218.1	221.1	225.5	231.6
Foreign workers[4]	**895.7**	**869.7**	**847.4**	**842.3**
of which: Women	319.1	313.6	309.4	309.6
Inflows by status of residence				
% *of resident workers*	81.3	81.5	81.7	82.1
% *of cross-border workers*	16.9	16.9	16.7	17.9
Foreign resident workers				
By main nationality[1]	**728.7**	**709.1**	**692.8**	**691.1**
Italy	214.3	202.5	191.7	184.4
Former Yugoslavia	134.6	136.2	138.2	142.8
Portugal	80.5	79.3	77.4	76.6
Germany	56.3	56.7	57.3	58.7
Spain	63.5	59.8	56.4	53.7
Others	179.5	174.6	171.7	174.9
By major industry division				
Agriculture, forestry	14.8	14.5	15.5	13.6
Extractive and manufacturing industries	325.7	308.2	292.2	283.2
Building	94.2	87.4	80.5	76.2
Trade	91.7	90.6	89.5	90.0
Hotel, restaurants	81.3	80.4	80.0	81.2
Other services	120.9	128.1	135.0	147.0
Cross-border workers by nationality	**151.0**	**147.0**	**142.0**	**142.5**
France (% of the total)	49.0	49.5	50.2	50.3
Italy (% of the total)	24.2	23.4	23.0	22.7
Germany (% of the total)	20.6	21.1	21.0	20.9
Others (% of the total)	6.2	6.0	5.8	6.1

1. Data cover only foreigners with annual or settlement permits and include conversions of seasonal work permits into annual or settlement permits.
2. The introduction of a new data processing system explain the peculiarly high figure for 1995.
3. Data include only foreigners who obtained an annual or settlement permit during the indicated year. Conversions of seasonal work permits into annual or settlement permits are not included.
4. Figures cover foreign workers with settlement, annual, cross-border and seasonnal permits.

Source: Office fédéral des étrangers.

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Family reunion

Over 22 000 people gained permission for family reunion in 1998 (30% of all entries), but fewer than 10% had an occupation. A typical person entering Switzerland on family reunion grounds is female (in 62% of cases), has an annual residence permit (87%) and does not work (92%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Trends in the stock of foreign residents

The foreign population increased by 7 120 to 1.35 million in 1998. They account for 19% of the total population. This increase of some 0.5% was lower than in previous years and the trend has been downward since 1991. The participation rate of the foreign population remained stable at 51.6% in 1998. Over half of all foreigners in Switzerland are married men. Just over one-quarter of the foreign population have one-year residence permits and around three-quarters have lived in Switzerland for over five years.

Over the past 20 years there has taken place considerable change in the nationality mix of the foreign population (see Table III.38). Italians, in spite of steadily falling numbers (down 40% between 1974 and 1998), still comprise the largest group, accounting for almost one-quarter of the foreign population. They are closely followed by migrants from the former Yugoslavia (24%), whose numbers are rising all the time (up 1 300% between 1970 and 1998), Portugal (10%), Germany and Spain (approximately 7% in both cases). Nationals of countries that share borders with Switzerland account for 38% of the foreign population. The great majority of foreigners residing in Switzerland come from EU and EFTA countries.

The German-speaking region has the largest number of foreigners (64% of all those residing in the country) but the French-speaking region still has proportionally most foreigners, nearly 27% of the population there.

The average age of the foreign population is lower than that of the Swiss population. The 0-19 and the 20-64 age groups account for, respectively, 26.1 and 68.8% of the foreign population as compared with 22.5 and 59.9 respectively for the Swiss population. The number of people entitled to an old-age pension is over three times higher among the Swiss than among the foreign population. Furthermore, in 1998 births outnumbered deaths by 12 740, 5% fewer than in 1997.

Naturalisations

The Federal Act on the Acquisition and Loss of Swiss Citizenship distinguishes between ordinary naturalisation, re-integration, facilitated naturalisation, recognition of Swiss citizenship under the new right of filiation, marriage to a Swiss citizen and adoption. With applications sharply up on 1992, Swiss citizenship is becoming popular again. In 1998, 21 280 people acquired Swiss citizenship, 11% more than in 1997. Two thirds applied through the ordinary procedure, one criterion being more than 12 years of residence. Some 30% were eligible for facilitated naturalisation. Most candidates were migrants from EU and EFTA countries.

Mixed marriages

On 1 January 1992, changes were made to the legislation governing the acquisition of Swiss citizenship by marriage. A foreign wife must now wait three years before naturalisation, which is subject to conditions regarding uninterrupted residence and duration of married life. It should be noted that, with regard to the standard requirement of 12 years' residence in Switzerland, years of marriage to a Swiss woman count double.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Of the 3 850 000 people in the Swiss labour force in 1998, 18% were foreign nationals. Of those, 60% held settlement permits and 20% one-year permits. In 1998, the number of seasonal workers stood at almost 28 800 and cross-border workers at approximately 142 500. In all, some 843 000 foreigners were engaged in gainful employment on Swiss soil, 0.5% down on the previous year, thus confirming the downward trend which began

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in 1995. The explanation lies in a decline in economic activity, the application of legal provisions (lower quotas for seasonal workers) and trends in the sectors traditionally employing foreigners (the hotel and construction industries). Heading the list of foreign workers are the Italians, French and Portuguese (see Table III.38).

Some 48% of the unemployed are foreign. Reflecting their greater vulnerability to changes in the business cycle, in 1998 the unemployment rate of foreigners was 7.4% as compared with 2.3% for Swiss nationals

Skilled and highly skilled immigrants

The 1998 figures show that a large proportion of foreigners on the labour market are in commerce, banking and insurance (22%), followed by metalworking and machine tools (16.5%), hotels and catering (11.5%) and construction and civil engineering (10.5%). In comparison with the previous year, the number of foreign workers declined by 5.3% in construction and civil engineering, by 1.7% in metalworking and machine tools and by 2.4% in hotels and catering.

Illegal employment of foreign workers

The only statistic available on foreigners without the required permits is the number of orders banning former illegal foreign residents from re-entering the country. Of the 9 760 bans issued in 1998, 15% concerned illegal workers. The most numerous were nationals of the former Yugoslavia, well ahead of the French, Portuguese and Italians. The hotel sector is the largest employer of illegal immigrants.

Foreigners' labour market integration

Responsibility for integration policy lies with the cantonal and communal authorities. A new Act passed in June 1998 gives the Confederation scope to play a more active role in funding projects that promote social integration. Its annual contribution, according to the Federal Commission for Foreigners (CFE), is estimated at CHF15 million. In 1998, the CFE also launched a two-year project on "Skills for Migrants", with the support of the Federal Office for Vocational Training and Technology. The aim is to give young foreigners better access to apprenticeships and vocational proficiency courses and to encourage foreign employers to provide training places.

4. Policy developments

1998 was marked by the signature of bilateral agreements with the EU that will come into force in 2001. They focus in particular on two policy issues, the free movement of persons and labour market access.

The first agreement establishes the free movement of persons, the granting to all EU nationals residing in Switzerland treatment equal to that accorded to Swiss nationals, the adoption of the *acquis communautaire* on mobility and family reunion and the abolition of the status of seasonal worker (this latter to be replaced by regulations governing short-term stays in line with those of the European Union). The measures contained in the second agreement will be phased in gradually. In the transitional phase, EU nationals can work in Switzerland subject to quotas, priority for residents and the monitoring of pay and working conditions. The priority and monitoring arrangements will lapse two years after the implementation of this agreement, but the quota will apply for five years. Free movement will be introduced during the sixth year. During the seventh, however, Switzerland reserves the right to hold a referendum on the future of the agreement. These agreements with the European Union were endorsed by a referendum on 21 May 2000. Over two-thirds of the Swiss population voted in favour, opening up a new era of co-operation with the EU Member States. There are also plans for Switzerland to join the countries in the Schengen Agreement, whereby a visa issued in any one is valid in all the others.

Revising the law on the residence and settlement of foreigners is a further fundamental aspect of policy. The new legislation sets out the general principles relating to foreigners, asylum, integration as well as foreign policy concerning migration. An "18% initiative", aimed at restricting the number of foreigners to 18% of the total population, was the subject of a referendum in September 2000; it was rejected, as have the four other proposals to limit immigration put forward over the last 30 years.

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Asylum and refugee status

Four principles underlie Switzerland's policy on asylum:

– Any person threatened or persecuted in their country of origin according to criteria recognised by international law will be given asylum in Switzerland.

– Switzerland allows temporary right of entry to those living in war or disaster zones when it is unable to provide assistance to those regions.

– Rejected asylum seekers will systematically be sent back to their country of origin.

– Switzerland vigorously combats abuses of the asylum procedure, in particular when applicants have committed offences.

Temporary permission to enter the country may be given to applicants refused political refugee status (civil war in their country of origin). Between January and December 1998, over 23 700 people were ordered to leave Switzerland; the whereabouts of over half of them are unknown. Given the growing number of applicants, particularly from the Balkans, the Federal Council decided to bar asylum seekers and persons temporarily admitted from taking work for one year, but its impact has not yet been measured.

TURKEY

Introduction

After three years of sustained GDP growth (at an average of 7% from 1995 to 1997), the economy began to slow down in 1998 (growth of 3.1%) due to the financial crises in Asia and the Russian Federation, and then deteriorated markedly in the aftermath of the earthquakes (GDP declined by 5% in 1999). Nevertheless, the labour market does not seem to have suffered; Turkey's unemployment rate declined form 10.1% in 1998 to 7.3% in 1999. The Turkish economy remains highly dependant on the agricultural sector and suffers from an underdeveloped financial sector and chronic monetary instability, due to serious budget deficits that are largely financed through inflation. An agreement concluded with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1998 provides for a restructuring of public finances, the acceleration of privatisation policy and the establishment of a coherent incomes policy based on inflation reduction objectives with the rate of inflation to be cut from nearly 65% in 1999 to 25% by the end of 2000, 12% in 2001 and 7% in 2002. This reduction in the rate of inflation will mainly be contingent on a reduction in wage growth in the civil service and the adoption of a tight monetary policy.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Since 1994, the number of Turks obtaining work abroad through the Turkish Employment Office (TEO) has been declining steadily by nearly 20% per year. In 1999, it fell by approximately one-third in comparison to the previous year (see Table III.39).

Although the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and the Gulf States remain the two areas that receive the most Turkish workers, the pattern has changed following the economic crisis in Russia; Turks have been increasingly going to the European Economic Area (up 30% on 1998) rather than to the former republics of the Soviet Union (down 50% over the same period). Although emigration flows have declined, the waiting list established by the TEO continues to grow, which shows that workers still wish to go abroad, not only to find jobs but also to obtain higher salaries, since three-quarters of candidates are skilled workers and many of these already have a job.

In terms of flows, the leading destination in 1999 was Saudi Arabia (replacing the Russian Federation), followed by Germany. Given the economic outlook in the Gulf States, it is unlikely that migration flows to these

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Table III.39. **Number of Turkish workers sent abroad by the National Employment and Placement Office, by country or region of destination, 1996-1999, Turkey**

Thousands

	1996	1997	1998	1999
New Independent States	25.9	17.0	13.2	6.8
Saudi Arabia	5.6	7.7	6.8	5.2
EU[1]	2.6	1.9	1.8	2.4
of which: Germany	2.4	1.8	1.7	2.4
Israel	3.7	4.3	1.8	1.5
Libya	2.1	1.8	1.0	0.7
Cyprus	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Romania	–	–	0.5	0.2
United States	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Australia	0.1	–	–	–
Other countries	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3
Total	**40.7**	**33.3**	**25.9**	**17.5**

1. The data also include the other countries of the Economic European Area.
Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security, General Directorate of Workers Abroad.

countries will rise. Saudi Arabia's pre-eminent position is due solely to the slack labour market in other countries, and in particular to the economic difficulties in the Russian Federation. In the future, migration to the Russian Federation and Western Europe might rise, since many joint venture projects between Turkish and Russian firms are in the pipeline. There will also be a growing need for migrants in some European countries due to the ageing of their populations, which, in the case of Germany for example, might benefit Turkish workers, even though there is strong competition from Central European countries. Nearly 90% of Turkish emigration flows to other OECD countries are to Germany (which received 13% of total flows in 1999 as compared with 7% in 1998).

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Since the beginning of the 1990s, Turkey has had to cope with very large migration flows from Bulgaria, Bosnia and Iraq. Even though for many migrants Turkey is merely a transit country, the fact remains that its rising standard of living is increasingly attracting immigrant workers from Central Europe and Turkish-speaking students from the republics of the former USSR to stay and/or work for longer in the country.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

Turkey is not considered to be an immigration country. Slightly fewer than 165 000 foreigners were resident there in 1999 (approximately 0.5% of the total population), many of whom come from the CIS and the European Economic Area (15% in each case). Flows from the American continent and the rest of Europe concern highly skilled workers who come to Turkey in connection with foreign direct investment projects.

The number of foreign residents increased by 7% in 1999 over the previous year. Nearly half came from central and eastern Europe, in particular Bulgaria, Romania, Poland and the CIS. Mention should also be made of highly qualified technicians and engineers from the Russian Federation, who have no difficulty in integrating into the Turkish labour market.

Naturalisations

Host country legislation on the acquisition of nationality varies in its restrictiveness. Recently, Germany, the main receiving country, liberalised its legislation in this field and, for the first time, the principle of *jus sanguinis* is

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no longer the only criterion used, since, under certain conditions, *jus solis* can now be recognised. Children born in Germany to foreign parents who have lived in the country for at least 8 years and have had a permanent residence permit for at least 3 years will be eligible for German nationality. But these children will have to choose between German or Turkish nationality between the ages of 18 (age of majority) and 23. Thereafter, they lose the right to apply for German citizenship. It is important to bear in mind that since 1995, although Turkish law allows for dual nationality, renunciation of Turkish nationality no longer automatically results in the confiscation of property.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Germany is the foremost host country for refugees and asylum seekers from Turkey (more than 9 000 applications in 1999, representing 16% of the total number), followed by the United Kingdom and France.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour migration

The official figures for 1998 show that nearly 5% of Turkish nationals live abroad, 36% of whom are employed. The largest number live in the European Economic Area. The employment situation of these Turkish nationals varies considerably across countries. For example, over 90% of Turkish immigrants in Qatar and Saudi Arabia work, while only 35% of them work in Germany. This shows that they emigrate to the Gulf States for economic and work-related reasons, but that family reunion is the predominant reason for going to other countries, particularly in Europe. This difference, despite the agreements with the European Community giving Turkish workers priority for job vacancies not filled by workers from the EU, is explained by poor command of the host country's language, insufficient formal education and a lack of occupational and technical training. As a result, Turks are more vulnerable to economic fluctuations and more affected by unemployment than host country nationals and other foreign communities. This is the case in Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, France and Germany.

The population of Turkey was estimated at approximately 67 million in 1998, of which nearly 35% are actually employed. Given that there is no unemployment benefit system and that family workers and self-employed constitute a large proportion of the labour force, it is as important to estimate underemployment as unemployment which remained stable at around 6% between October 1997 and October 1998. The annual rate of population growth (2%), its demographic structure (a third of the population is below 14 years of age), and the likely rise in the participation rate point to a rapid increase in the labour force in the years to come, which risks leading to a worsening of the general employment situation.

UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction

Although GDP growth marked a pause at the end of 1998, bringing to an end five consecutive years of rates in excess of 2.5%, the slowdown was limited and brief. In the middle of 1999, GDP was up 0.7% on the year before, service sector output up 2.3% but manufacturing output down 1.3%. Whilst the manufacturing sector has shown signs of recovery, particularly in some hi-tech areas, it is the service sector that has really gained momentum during 1999. There is some evidence that the UK economy is becoming less homogeneous, the main dichotomies being between the manufacturing and service sectors and between the North and South. In southern Britain, particularly the South-east, growth is much faster than in the rest of the country.

Although employment growth has decelerated slightly the labour market has remained tight. This is especially the case in London and the South-east where, accompanying the strong growth in the service sector,

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over 55% of the net employment growth between the end of the first quarter of 1998 and that of 1999 took place. Both manufacturing and service companies have been reporting difficulties in recruiting skilled workers.

In 1998, migration inflows again responded positively to the strong economic performance. Net migration was the highest for over 15 years. Furthermore, reversing the traditional labour-force balance of these flows, whereas in 1997 the UK enjoyed an overall net gain of 4 000 persons in employment compared with 56 000 not in employment, the 1998 figures were 71 000 and 60 000 respectively. Having declined in 1997, the number of illegal immigrants detected increased once more in 1998 renewing the strong upward trend of recent years. The number of asylum applications increased by over 40% in 1998, the figure of 58 500 being the highest since 1991.

1. Trends in migration movements

Net flows of non-UK nationals have been positive throughout the 1980s and thus far through the 1990s. The flow pattern has broadly reflected changes in economic conditions with a lag of some 12-18 months. The amplitude of fluctuation has been rather less than that of British citizens. A disaggregation of the flow data into the European Union (excluding Ireland whose citizens share with those of the United Kingdom a Common Travel Area) and non-EU citizens reveals that the former, having fluctuated between –4 and +9 000 during the 1980s (with the exception of 1986), have increased substantially since 1994. Having remained broadly constant in 1997, the number rose once again in 1998, by almost 50% to 43 000 (see Table III.40). During the 1980s and through to 1992, the net flows of non-EU citizens fluctuated to a greater extent around a core value of approximately 40 000 since which time they have increased year on year to 65 000 in 1997 and to 91 000 in 1998, the highest recorded in this data series.

The balance of immigration, traditionally very much in favour of those not in employment, changed in 1998. Whereas in 1997, 59% of the outflow but only 48% of the inflow was employed, in 1998 the figures were 60% and 58% respectively. And so, whereas in 1997 the UK enjoyed an overall net gain of 4 000 persons in employment compared with 56 000 not in employment, the 1998 figures were 71 000 and 60 000.

Illegal immigration and deportation

Some 16 500 "illegal" entrants – persons who entered the country using false papers or clandestinely – were detected in 1998. This compares with 7 500 in 1994, 10 400 in 1995, 14 500 in 1996 and 14 300 in 1997 and thus renews the strong upward trend of recent years. The number of persons removed as illegal entrants, including those who left voluntarily following the initiation of enforcement action, again increased substantially, by over 10% to 7 260.

Asylum

The basis for granting refugee status continues to be the 1951 Geneva Convention and the 1967 Protocol. Applicants who do not fully meet the Convention criteria, but for whom it would be unreasonable to enforce their return to their home country, may be granted "exceptional leave to remain" (ELR) status, renewable annually. From time to time there are special refugee programmes, normally involving people already recognised as Convention refugees, in response to particular problems. These people (such as the 25 000 South-east Asian refugees, mainly Vietnamese, accepted for settlement since 1979) are not normally included in the statistics of asylum applications and decisions. Neither do the figures include certain people who were allowed to remain on an exceptional basis, without applying for asylum, because of the situation in the country of origin, for instance particularly vulnerable individuals from the former Yugoslavia and their dependants received in the United Kingdom under arrangements announced on 30 November 1992 and 6 August 1995.

Applications in 1998

Having fallen back sharply in 1996 following the introduction in February of that year of restrictions on asylum seekers' eligibility for social security benefits, in 1997 the number of applications (including dependants) rose again, by 4 500 to 41 500. In 1998, the number increased by over 40%, the figure of 58 500 being the highest since 1991.

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Table III.40. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of total population and labour force in the United Kingdom**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Migration flows[1]				
Total inflows	**320.7**	**331.4**	**340.7**	**401.5**
Inflows of non-British citizens	229.4	227.8	244.2	290.2
of which:				
EU	59.1	69.5	71.5	77.6
Non-EU	170.3	158.3	172.7	212.6
Inflows of British citizens	91.3	103.6	96.5	111.3
Total outflows	**212.0**	**238.4**	**248.7**	**223.7**
Outflows of non-British citizens	93.9	99.2	117.9	112.5
of which:				
EU	36.6	42.7	52.3	47.2
Non-EU	57.3	56.5	65.6	65.3
Outflows of British citizens	118.1	139.2	130.8	111.2
Net migration	**108.7**	**93.0**	**92.0**	**177.8**
Non-British citizens	135.5	128.6	126.3	177.7
of which:				
EU	22.5	26.8	19.2	30.4
Non-EU	113	101.8	107.1	147.3
British citizens	–26.8	–35.6	–34.3	0.1
Acceptances for settlement	**55.6**	**61.7**	**58.7**	**69.8**
By region of origin				
Europe (excluding EU)[2]	4.0	7.4	7.6	7.3
America	8.2	8.5	7.8	10.8
Africa	12.0	13.0	13.2	16.1
Indian Sub-Continent	14.5	13.6	13.1	16.4
Middle East	2.9	4.8	4.2	4.2
Remainder of Asia	8.8	9.5	8.4	9.5
Oceania	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.7
Other	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.8
By category of acceptance				
Accepted in own right	6.4	6.7	7.6	10.3
Spouses and dependents	44.9	48.6	46.2	53.0
Other	4.3	6.5	4.9	6.4
Stock of total population[3]				
Total population	57 406	57 624	57 870	58 106
Total number of British citizens	55 442	55 680	55 796	55 895
Total number of foreign nationals	1 948	1 934	2 066	2 207

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total grants of citizenship in the United Kingdom by previous country or region of nationality	**40.5**	**43.1**	**37.0**	**53.3**
Europe	4.6	4.7	4.3	5.9
European Economic Area	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.3
Other European countries	2.9	2.9	2.8	4.7
America	4.1	4.3	3.5	5.2
Africa	7.9	9.2	8.0	12.9
Indian sub-continent	9.9	10.8	8.5	14.6
Middle East	3.5	3.5	2.8	4.3
Other Asian countries	4.8	5.2	4.1	6.4
Oceania	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7
Other countries	3.9	3.9	4.3	2.5
Grants of citizenship in Hong Kong, China	**25.7**	**5.5**	**3.4**	**. .**
Asylum seekers (total applications received)	**44.0**	**29.6**	**32.5**	**46.0**
By region of origin				
Europe	7.1	6.5	9.1	17.8
Africa	22.5	11.3	9.5	12.4
Asia	13.0	10.0	10.9	14.7
Other	1.4	1.8	2.9	1.1
According to the place where the application was received				
At port	14.4	12.4	16.6	23.4
In country	29.6	17.2	15.9	22.7
Illegal immigration statistics				
Persons against whom enforcement action taken	16.0	21.4	19.9	21.1
Persons removed from country	5.0	5.4	6.5	7.3
Available sources on inflows of foreign workers				
Labour Force Survey	51.0	50.0	59.0	68.0
International Passenger Survey	77.0	89.0	79.0	120.0
Department of Social Security	133.9	145.9	130.3	. .
Work permits	35.5	37.7	42.4	49.7
of which				
Short-term	15.6	16.8	19.0	. .
Long-term	15.5	16.9	18.7	. .
Trainees	4.4	4.0	4.7	. .
Total stock of employment[3]				
Total	25 699	25 962	26 446	26 736
British citizens	24 835	25 095	25 497	25 696
Foreign nationals	862	865	949	1 039

Note: European Union totals from 1995 onwards include the new member countries (Austria, Finland and Sweden).

1. Data are from the International Passenger Survey. Movements between the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom are not recorded. Data for 1998 are provisional. Data includes adjustments for asylum seekers and for persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for other reasons.
2. An acceptance of settlement is not required for EU citizens.
3. Data are from the national Labour Force Survey.

Sources: International Passenger Survey; Home Office Statistical Bulletin; Control of Immigration Statistics; National Labour Force Survey.

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As in 1997, half of the applications in 1998 were made within the United Kingdom by people who had already entered in some other capacity. This sizeable fall on the proportion of the two previous years (65 and 55% in 1995 and 1996) is assumed to be the consequence of the aforementioned benefit restrictions as well as of the imposition of visa regimes.

Decisions in 1998

The number of initial decisions made on asylum applications in 1998, excluding dependants, was 31 600, a decrease of 12% on 1997. This decrease was due to administrative changes in handling cases.

Of the initial decisions made in 1998, 5 300 (17%, as compared with 10% in 1997, 6% in 1996 and 5% in 1995) were to recognise the applicant as a refugee and grant asylum, 3 900 (12%, as compared to 9, 13 and 15% respectively in the three previous years) were not to recognise as a refugee but to grant exceptional leave to remain and the remaining 22 300 (over 70% as in 1996) were to refuse both asylum and exceptional leave. Thus, in 1998, the proportion of positive decisions increased.

Over 60% of the 5 300 grants of asylum in 1998 were to nationals of Somalia and the former Yugoslavia. There were also significant increases in grants of asylum to Iraqis, Algerians and Colombians. Those granted exceptional leave to remain were mainly from Afghanistan (nearly 40% of the total), Iraqis (15%), Somalis and nationals of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (both 10%).

Of the 22 300 cases refused Pakistanis, Sri Lankans, former USSR nationals each accounted for 9% and Chinese a further 7%. The number of non-compliance refusals (for failure to produce evidence to support the asylum claim, including failure to appear for an interview to establish the applicant's identity) appears to have settled at a low level, implying that the administrative measures introduced in 1991 to deter multiple and fraudulent claims, and the provision in the Asylum and Immigration Appeals Act 1993 to fingerprint asylum seekers, have been successful.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The Labour Force Survey is the only source of data permitting a breakdown by nationality of the stock of foreign population and workforce in the United Kingdom. The survey includes all United Kingdom and foreign citizens, but the relatively small size of the sample (one sample interviewee is weighted up to approximately 300 people) means that disaggregation by nationality and migrant characteristics cannot be detailed.

During the period 1992-96 stocks of foreign nationals in the United Kingdom fluctuated around the 2 million mark. Having increased by almost 7% in 1998 to just over 2.2 million, the figure remained constant in 1999. In 1999, the preponderance of females among the foreign population continued (53.1%) and, indeed increased as a slight fall in male numbers was compensated by a similar rise in those of females.

As in previous years, the Irish were easily the largest national group in 1999, 20% of all foreign nationals, down on the year before (21.6%), but with the number almost unchanged for the last five years. Indians and US citizens again occupied second and third places. There were substantial numbers also from Pakistan and Bangladesh. After the Irish, the next largest European group was German (85 000) for the first time displacing the Italians in that position. A group whose numbers have steadily risen since 1995 is the Turks, up from 29 000 to 63 000 in 1998, but falling back to 41 000 in 1999. The rise in Turkish numbers may principally have been among Kurds who have sought asylum, though this cannot be verified from the LFS data. African numbers continued their rise since 1997, reaching 249 000 in 1999, the largest number recorded from that source, while those from Asia fell slightly but still totalled over half a million. Australian numbers resumed their rising trend having fallen back in 1998, while those of Canadians fell back to the relatively stable level they have assumed since 1993.

Settlement

"Settlement", in the context of migration in the United Kingdom, refers to the acquisition of permanent residence status. Most of the individuals acquiring permanent residence status have already resided in the United Kingdom for a considerable period of time (typically four years continuously) in order to fulfil qualifying periods of residence. In 1998, a total of 69 800 persons were granted settlement, of whom the proportion

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accepted on the basis of family ties with other UK residents declined slightly to 76%. Those accepted on the basis of having held a work permit was almost unchanged at less than 5%.

As in recent years, the majority of those granted settlement in 1997 were young, with almost three quarters of those accepted aged under 35. Only 4% were aged 60 and over. Those from the Indian sub-continent, who accounted for just under one quarter of the total, continued to be generally younger with about 85% of acceptances under 35, though there was a relatively higher proportion from that source aged 60 and over, reflecting acceptances of elderly relatives.

Citizenship and naturalisation

Having been drifting downwards since the beginning of the 1990s, grants of British citizenship increased by 45% in 1998 to 54 000 (see Table III.40). This in large part due to the administrative service's success in reducing the substantial backlog of applications generated by the high level of applications received in 1997 (which had had the effect of reducing the number of decisions made, and hence grants, in that year). Grants on the basis of marriage, having declined by over one quarter in 1997 to account for only 28% of the total as compared to the previous norm of one third, increased by almost 80% in 1998 bringing the proportion up to 43%. The increase in this category had the effect of bringing the proportion of Indian sub-continent nationals up to 27% of the total, as compared to the previous year's figure of 22% and the previous norm of one quarter.

3. Migration and the labour market

The number of foreign nationals working in the United Kingdom fluctuated between 850 and 900 000 from 1993 to 1996. Having since risen strongly, to exceed one million for the first time in 1998 (3.9% of the total in employment), the number fell back slightly to 1.005 million in 1999. A 1.5% decline to 552 000 in the number of foreign workers from non-EU countries is responsible for this, the number of foreign workers from other EU countries having remained almost unchanged at 453 000 (45% of all foreign employment, the highest figure in recent years). Irish workers account for just under half of all EU workers; it would appear that the Republic's continued strong economic growth is having little effect on the net labour migration of its nationals *vis-à-vis* the UK. Significant non-EU groups were the 122 000 from the Indian Sub-continent, the 55 000 United States nationals, the 40 000 from western African states and the 36 000 Australians.

The foreign national working population has a broadly similar socio-economic structure to that of the overall population, but differs in a number of ways. It is generally more skilled, with a higher proportion (30.3% rather than 24.7%) categorised as professionals, employers or managers, at the expense of the intermediate non-manual group. This is particularly the case among non-EU foreigners, 32.1% of whom are in the former category. The situation for EU nationals is affected by the inclusion of the Irish, who proportionately contain about the same number of the first category as the total labour force, but considerably less than the rest of the EU (25 and 31% respectively). Compared with foreigners as a whole, a higher proportion of Irish are also to be found among manual groups (44%). However, the trend in recent years is for the Irish to include more of the highly skilled, bringing them closer into line with the rest of the EU. In general, it would appear that the tendency for foreign nationals to be more skilled than their UK counterparts has been increasing.

Work permits

Applications for work permits are made by the employer on behalf of the non-EEA potential employee in order to fill a specific post. (Since 1994, EEA nationals have not required a work permit.) During 1998, new issues of work permits and first permissions for those engaged in training combined with work experience totalled 49 700, an increase of 17% on 1997. In 1999, the number fell back by 10% to 44 500. The major countries of origin are other advanced industrial countries with which the United Kingdom has developed a network of expertise exchange, notably the United States and Japan.

An analysis of the occupations for which the permits have been accorded reveals that the work permit system is mainly operating to bring in, on a long-term basis, the highly skilled. The rise in the number of long-term work permits holders over the last few years is consistent with an increased demand for skills as the UK

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economy emerged strongly from recession and went into a period of sustained growth. The data also suggest that deregulation in the UK labour market has opened it up to labour from outside the EEA.

The work permit system is characterised by a turnover of labour, though for a substantial minority it results in a grant of the right of settlement. Based on a comparison between the number of permit holders granted settlement and the number of long-term work permits issued four years previously since 1985, the propensity of work permit holders to settle permanently is one quarter.

Seasonal workers

The United Kingdom has one seasonal worker scheme, in agriculture. The origins of the scheme go back to the period after the Second World War when Displaced Persons were employed as seasonal agricultural labourers. Systematic data on the present scheme have only been collected since 1992, however. All new recruits must be students in full time education abroad, and aged between 18 and 25. The period of work is of a maximum of 3 months and should not extend beyond 30 November. The total number recruited each year is governed by a quota, currently set at 10 000, though the actual number is normally below this level. That said, the scheme has been growing in importance with the number of workers admitted rising from less than 3 600 in 1992 to just under 9 450 in 1998. Almost 98% of those admitted are from central and eastern Europe. As in 1997, Poland accounted for almost 40% of the total and the former Soviet Union almost 30% in 1998; of these latter, Lithuanians accounted for over 40%. The majority are male, though their proportion has been falling, from 67% in 1992 to 54% in 1997; the proportion was unchanged in 1998.

Corporate transfers

In 1998/9, the average number of people working abroad a year before the time of the Labour Force Survey was 80 000, the same as in 199$^{7}/_{8}$ though much higher than the averages in 1996/7 and in 199$^{5}/_{6}$ (66 000 and 61 000 respectively). Of these about 30 000 (38%, a fall of just over 2% on 199$^{7}/_{8}$) worked for the same employer at both times and may therefore be assumed to be corporate transferees. The majority (18 000) were foreign nationals. The numbers of corporate transferees for 1997 and 1998 are considerably higher than in the years before and represent a substantial reversal of a fluctuating but generally slow downward trend from the mid-1980s. The 1998/9 figure reflected only a small downward shift in numbers. It is still not clear whether the recent increase was due to random statistical fluctuations caused by the sampling or reflects a significant change in corporate relocation practices.

Working Holidaymakers

Commonwealth citizens aged between 17 and 27 wishing to work in the United Kingdom for limited periods do not require a work permit. Their employment is allowed under the working holidaymakers scheme. The annual number employed under this scheme, having risen from 23 200 in 1990 to 33 300 in 1997, with a peak of 36 000 in 1995, rose by over 20% in 1998 to almost 40 800; the data for the first six months of 1999 point to a further increase.

Source countries are dominated by the "Old Commonwealth", with Australians the largest group, accounting for 42% in 1998. The number of South Africans has grown rapidly following the introduction of black majority rule: having shot up from three in 1993 to over 2 300 in 1994 they have since consistently accounted for over 20% of those employed under the scheme: the figure of 28% in 1998 made them the second most important group ahead of New Zealand (19%) and Canada (9%).

Though little is known about their characteristics, it would be reasonable to assume that they are generally well educated and adaptable. As these people are in the United Kingdom to both work and take a holiday one cannot know how many of them are working at any one time. Although data providing a regional breakdown of where they go to are not available, it may reasonably be expected that London and other major tourist centres would employ the bulk of them, where they account for a numerically significant and highly flexible element in the labour market.

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4. Policy developments

Since 1999 policy development has been dominated by the passage through Parliament and the implementation of the new Asylum and Immigration Act. The background and major provisions of the Act were outlined in the 1999 edition of this report.

Other significant initiatives include:

– As was stated in the 1999 edition of this report, in response to claims that the Eurostar train service from Belgium was being used to bring inadequately documented passengers into the United Kingdom, the Carrier's Liability legislation was extended to the train operator in April 1998 for the route between Brussels and London. For reasons relating to French domestic legislation, however, it had not been possible to extend this liability to the Eurostar train services from France to the UK. In 1999, just under 7 900 passengers arrived at the London terminus without proper documentation. In March 2000, the French and UK governments initialled an additional Protocol to the Channel Fixed Link Protocol which, upon ratification (expected in 2001) will allow British immigration officers to check the documents of would-be travellers to the UK before they leave from the Eurostar termini in France. French officials will similarly be permitted to make checks in the UK.

– The announcement by the government in March 2000 that, in response to reports that significant numbers of asylum seekers were engaged in begging in the streets (a criminal offence, compounded in some cases by the abusive use of small children), legislation would be drafted such that asylum seekers convicted for such an offence would automatically be put on a fast track to have their case for refugee status examined, with a presumption that it would be rejected. The first hearing would be held within seven days, followed by a three-week period of grace for an appeal to be launched, the success of which would be doubtful given the abuse of the benefits system implied by their conviction.

– The introduction in May 2000, in response to an estimated 2 000 persons per month illegally entering the UK hidden in vehicles, of a non-criminal penalty of GBP 2 000 to be imposed on drivers for each illegal entrant to the UK discovered in their vehicle. This measure was accompanied by the publication of a code of practice for the drivers of road haulage and private vehicles, buses and coaches which advises them how they should secure their vehicles before travelling to the UK.

– The announcements in March and in May 2000 that a fast-track work permit system is to be introduced in order to speed up the recruitment of foreign workers by companies experiencing severe skill shortages and that certain information technology, communications and electronics occupations are to be added to the work permit "shortage occupation list". The scheme, which includes measures to accelerate the administrative procedures, is aimed at hard-pressed sectors such as information technology and engineering. This initiative aims to attract skilled workers predominantly from Asia and eastern Europe. The time taken a company to secure and renew work permits for non-EU employees is to be shortened from three months to one week. The issuance of permits and the stamping of passports will in future be combined into a one-stop shop run by the overseas labour service of the Department of Education and Employment. The maximum permit period will be extended from four to five years. "Season ticket" permits for regular, short-term workers and a plan to allow outstanding individuals to apply for permits on their own behalf, rather than through a company, were among other changes announced. It will also be made easier for non-British high-level university students to switch from temporary student visas to full employment permits.

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UNITED STATES

Introduction

The US economy has enjoyed annual growth rates of over 4% in the second half of the 1990s. At less than 4%, the rate of unemployment remains very low. Labour shortages are starting to be felt in some key sectors. As a result, the government is coming under strong pressure to further open up the labour market, especially to highly-skilled immigrants. The question of whether the quota of H-1B visas should be increased has been hotly debated in Congress.

The downward trend in permanent immigration observed in 1997 was confirmed in 1998. Nearly 660 500 immigrants obtained a permanent residence visa, three-quarters of whom on family reunion grounds. This 17% overall decline from the 1997 figure is due essentially however to a lengthening of the waiting list of those (who are often already in the country) who have applied for this type of visa. If processing delays are resolved, it is highly probable that in the next few years permanent immigration will rise.

Most of the legislative reforms proposed recently [in particular, the restoration of food stamps to all eligible immigrants, the extension of an amnesty to nationals of El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Haiti and Liberia] have yet to be voted on by the Congress.

1. Trends in migration flows

Emigration

There do not exist reliable statistics on emigration flows. It is estimated, however, that emigration has been rising steadily since 1950, at an annual rate of more than 100 000 between 1970 and 1990, and more than 200 000 a year in the 1990s. The US Bureau of the Census estimates that the annual emigration flow (of both US citizens and foreigners) is currently 220 000 (*i.e.*, less than 0.1% of the total population). The UN and the European Commission estimate that 200 000 immigrants leave the United States every year, mainly for Mexico, the United Kingdom and Germany.

Inward and outward flows of foreigners

Immigration into the United States can be divided into three main streams, that of: *i*) "immigrants" – persons who possess a permanent residence permit, *ii*) "non-immigrants" – these are persons with a temporary status, and, *iii*) illegal immigrants.

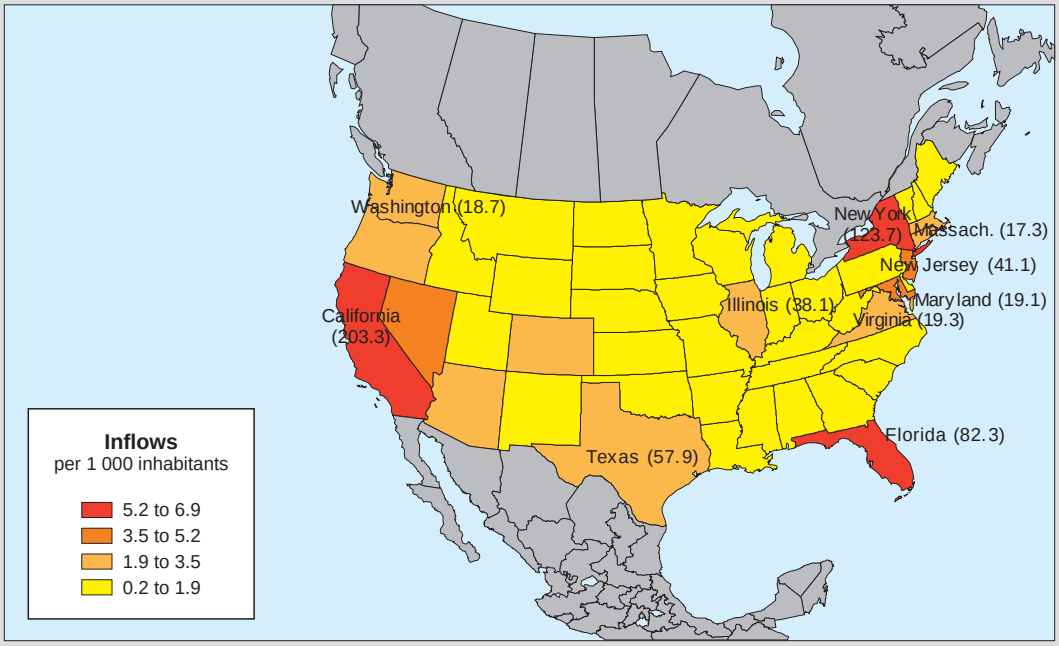
In 1998, slightly less than 660 500 people obtained immigrant status, 17% fewer than the previous year and 28% less than in 1996. This markedly downward trend is due not to a decline in the number of applications but instead largely to a steady increase in the number of people awaiting a decision. This rose from 435 000 in 1996 to 809 000 at the end of 1998. The fact that for 1995-97 [under the Immigration and Nationality Act – Section 245 (I)] undocumented immigrants who have lodged admissible applications can stay in the United States while they are waiting to obtain this immigrant status has helped to lengthen the list. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) has estimated that during the period 1995-98, the annual volume of immigration would, on average, have been 110 to 140 000 higher (*i.e.*, much the same as over the previous three years) had the length of the waiting list remained constant.

Permanent immigrant status is granted primarily on the grounds of family reunion (72% of the total in 1998). In that year, those entering under this category for reasons of employment (including accompanying family members – see Section 3, Migration and the labour market) accounted for a further 11.7% of the total and those accepted on humanitarian grounds accounted for 8.3%.

It must be stressed that the figures available on the number of new immigrants do not reflect the number of new entries into the United States. The possibilities for student, temporary workers or other temporary immigrants to transform their temporary status into permanent immigrant status are numerous. Thus, in 1998,

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Map III.2. **Immigrants admitted to the United States by State of intended residence, Fiscal year 1997**



Note: The 10 States who admitted the largest number of immigrants are pointed out on the map. Figures in parentheses indicate the number of immigrants entered in Fiscal year 1997 (in thousands).
Source: 1997 Statistical Yearbook of the INS, US Department of Justice.

approximately 45% of new immigrants had already been living in the United States. The backlog in the applications process and the decrease in the quota set for a part of family immigration explain the fall in total immigration since 1997. In 1996, exceptionally, the family immigration quota was increased by an amount corresponding to that part of the employment-based quota which had not been used up the previous year. Since 1997, the family immigration quota has been kept at 226 000, its minimum annual level.

Asia, Europe and the Caribbean provide the largest number of immigrants. Mexico remains however the principal country of origin, accounting for a fifth of total immigration in 1998. In that year, six States (California, New York State, Florida, Texas, New Jersey and Illinois) received nearly two-thirds of the new immigrants (see Map III.2).

Between 1900 and 1990, about 38 million permanent immigrants were admitted, and nearly 12 million foreign-born persons emigrated. Thus, for every 100 immigrants admitted, 30 returned to their home country (or moved to another country).

Illegal migration

All those who have crossed the border illegally or who have failed to respect the terms of the residence or employment visa accorded to them are classified as illegal immigrants. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) estimates that visa overstayers accounted for nearly 41% of all illegal immigrants in 1996.

The INS estimates that in 1999 the illegal immigrant population was almost 6 million, having in October 1996 been between 4.6 and 5.4 million. It is estimated that this population is rising by 275 000 every year. Mexicans account for over half of all illegal immigrants, followed, a long way behind, by nationals of El Salvador (6.7%) and Guatemala (3.3%).

Faced with the extent of the phenomenon, Congress passed the Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) of 1986, establishing a legalisation program. Approximately 2.7 million illegal immigrants took advantage of it.

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Penalties were subsequently introduced for those employing illegal immigrants, and border controls were tightened up. In this latter regard, the introduction in 1993 of new measures dramatically increasing border enforcement patrols to discourage illegal border-crossers before they crossed the border. Since the start of the 1990s the government has also become increasingly concerned by the large number of migrants who have stayed on in the country after the expiration of their visa.

Immigrants illegally entering the United States remain there for widely varying lengths of time. Noteworthy in this regard is the considerable extent of short-term circular migration between Mexico and the United States: immigrants come to work in the United States (in massive numbers to California where there exists a large demand for unskilled labour) and then return to their country once they have accumulated sufficient savings, repeating the process on a regular basis. The tightening of border controls has disrupted significantly this form of migration.

Refugees and asylum-seekers

Behind that of admittance for family reunion, the flow of those entering as a refugee or asylum-seeker is often the second largest channel of immigration into the United States. The law defines and treats those persons fleeing persecution differently according to whether they have applied for asylum in the United States (asylum-seekers) or from outside (refugees). Both groups can eventually adjust to immigrant status: refugees are eligible after having been in the country for one year, but successful asylum seekers often take longer as the number of adjustments to immigrant status is limited to 10 000 per year.

Every year, Congress sets a ceiling on the number of refugees to be allowed into the country. It is not strictly a quota since it can be revised during the year (for example, the ceiling was adjusted upwards in August 1999 because of the Kosovo crisis), but nonetheless this figure and the actual number of refugees admitted in are closely correlated. The ceiling contains a regional breakdown, though it is possible for transfers to be made from one region to another during the year if this is considered to be necessary. The ceiling for 2000 was set at 90 000 entries, whereas for the previous three years it was between 78 000 and 83 000.

Since 1994, the largest regional ceiling has been for refugees from the former Soviet Union. Conversely, the ceiling for persons from South-east Asia fell from 45 000 in 1994 to 14 000 in 1998, and was set at 8 000 for 2000. In August 1999, in response to the Kosovo crisis, the total ceiling was raised from 78 000 to 91 000. Nearly 14 000 refugees arrived from Kosovo, of whom 2 600 have left and others are about to.

At the start of 1990s, the United States had to cope with the arrival of large numbers of Haitians and Cubans fleeing their respective countries. The exodus of the Haitians came to an end with the return to power of President Aristide in October 1994. That of the Cubans was checked by an agreement by the US and Cuban governments under which the United States would admit 20 000 Cubans immigrants each year, in return for which the Cuban government agreed to take the necessary steps to stem the outflow of its citizens.

The Asylum Officer Corps has doubled the number of its staff since 1994: 300 officials now process asylum requests. Successive reforms of the applications procedure have made it possible to reduce substantially the backlog of applications. At present, only 20 000 of the requests filed before the reforms are still pending.

Family reunion

Family reunion, the principal component of the immigration into the United States, accounted for 72% of total permanent immigration in 1998. It is composed of two categories:

– Immediate family members of US citizens, *i.e.*, spouses, unmarried minor children and parents. This category does not have a numerical limit and accounted for nearly 45% of all new permanent immigrants in 1998.

– Other family members *i.e.*, adult children, brothers and sisters of US citizens and spouses and unmarried children of permanently resident foreigners. There are four "preference" categories each of which is subject to a numerical limit. They accounted for almost 30% of all new permanent immigrants in 1998.

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2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

Numerical trends

Immigrant data collection from the monthly population survey (Current Population Survey) was launched in January 1994. It provides the United States with a second source of data on the foreign-born population, the other being the ten-year census.

Between 1970 and 1998, the foreign-born population increased much more rapidly than the native population. It rose from 9.6 million to 26.3 million, and its proportion of the total population doubled. Since the early 1990s, the foreign-born population has risen by a third, and the number of economically active persons in that population has increased by 39%, spread between the various sectors of the economy.

The geographical origin of the foreign-born population in the United States has changed considerably since the 1970s. Whereas in 1970 the European-born immigrant population accounted for 60% of the total foreign-born population, it accounted for only 22% in 1990. During the same period, the first European cohorts entered old-age and began to experience high mortality rates. Today, the largest contingents of immigrants are from Asia and Central America.

Naturalisations

To acquire US nationality, it is necessary to meet a number of conditions regarding age, lawful entry and length of residence in the country, command of English and knowledge of the United States' history. The number of naturalisations doubled between 1992 and 1995 (from 240 000 to 488 000) and then again in 1996, to over one million. One of the reasons for this was that in 1996 a large number of immigrants who had been legalised through the IRCA programme became eligible for US citizenship. In the following three years, naturalisations numbered respectively 598 000, 473 000 and 872 000.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Since 1992, the year in which the 1990 Immigration Act (IMMACT 90) came into force, the numerical limit on the annual number of employment-based visas has risen from 54 000 to 140 000. During the period 1992-98, immigrants entering the country for work purposes accounted for (not including accompanying persons) between 4.6 and 5.8% of total immigration flows. The main reason why this percentage has remained low despite the rise in the overall annual quota is the considerable increase in other categories of immigration (especially family reunion). In addition, part of the quota is taken up by workers' families (see Table III.41). The employment-based preference system favours the entry of highly-skilled workers.

Immigration of highly-skilled personnel

The United States also takes in a large number of temporary workers categorised as "non-immigrants", a large proportion of whom are highly-skilled workers. The system of recording temporary migrants was modified two years ago with the collaboration of the Canadian immigration services in order to remedy various shortcomings in the way these migrants are counted. Analysing the statistics in this area is thus problematic. Many of these temporary workers stay in the country for more than one year. Holders of the H-1B visa, created for the highly-skilled, can stay for up to six years for example. The main categories of temporary workers are traders and investors entering on the basis of international agreements, H-1B professionals and intra-company transferees.

The number of Canadian workers entering the country under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) has risen steeply, from 25 000 in 1994 to nearly 60 000 in 1998 (in this latter year there were also 17 000 family members). By contrast, the number of Mexicans entering the country under the agreement is still negligible. This agreement concerns business people, investors, intra-company transferees and highly qualified professionals. Its purpose is to facilitate the temporary entry of this type of personnel. Whereas there are no limits on entries from Canada, the number of entries from Mexico is limited to 5 500 per year. This limit is scheduled to be abolished as from 1 January 2004.

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Table III.41. **Employment-based immigration, by preference, fiscal years 1995-1998, United States**
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Total, employment 1st preference	**17.3**	**27.5**	**21.8**	**21.4**
Aliens with extraordinary ability	1.2	2.1	1.7	1.7
Outstanding professors or researchers	1.6	2.6	2.1	1.8
Multinational executives or managers	3.9	6.4	5.3	5.2
Spouses and children of 1st preference	10.6	16.5	12.7	12.7
Total, employment 2nd preference	**10.5**	**18.5**	**17.1**	**14.4**
Members of the professions holding advanced degrees or persons of exceptional ability	5.0	8.9	8.4	6.9
Spouses and children of 2nd preference	5.5	9.6	8.7	7.5
Total, employment 3rd preference	**50.2**	**62.8**	**42.6**	**34.3**
Skilled workers	9.1	16.0	10.6	8.5
Baccalaureate holders	5.8	5.5	4.0	3.9
Spouses and children of the above	23.3	29.0	19.2	15.6
Chinese Student Protection Act	4.2	0.4	0.1	–
Other workers (unskilled workers)	3.6	6.0	4.0	2.7
Spouses and children of unskilled workers	4.2	5.8	4.7	3.6
Total, employment 4th preference	**6.7**	**7.8**	**7.8**	**6.6**
Special immigrants	2.9	3.5	3.7	2.7
Spouses and children of 4th preference	3.8	4.4	4.1	3.9
Total, employment 5th preference	**0.5**	**0.9**	**1.4**	**0.8**
Employment creation, not targeted area	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Spouses and children	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Employment creation, targeted area	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2
Spouses and children	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.4
Total, employment preferences, principals	37.4	51.6	40.3	33.8
Total, employment preferences, dependents	47.9	65.9	50.3	43.7
Total, employment preferences	**85.3**	**117.5**	**90.6**	**77.5**
% of total permanent settlers	11.8	12.8	11.3	11.7

Source: US Department of Justice, 1997 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

4. Migration policies

New legislation

Because of the forthcoming elections, many legislative proposals will not reach the statute book. On the other hand, other proposals which had been abandoned were brought before Congress again. In particular, the proposal to split the INS into two separate entities was again put forward, as was that for a new Agricultural Guestworker Program. Also, under pressure from the employers concerned, the issue of raising the quota of H-1B visas is being discussed again in Congress.

Admission and residence

Two new programmes provide for the entry of very limited numbers of temporary workers: the Nursing Relief for Disadvantaged Areas Act of 1999 permits the admission of up to 500 nurses each year and the Irish Peace Process and Cultural Training Program of 1998 permits a limited number of young Irish nationals to receive three-years' training in the United States.

Employers in high-technology sectors are pressing for a significant increase in the annual quota of H-1B visas. A figure of 200 000 has been put forward (the 2000 quota was 115 000).

Legislation has been proposed to reinstate section 245(*i*) which would enable those illegal residents eligible for immigrant status to adjust their status without leaving the United States.

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Legislation has also been proposed creating an amnesty programme granting immigrant status to nationals of El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Haiti and Liberia, similar to the legalisation program for Nicaraguans and Cubans created by the 1997 Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (NACARA) of 1997.

The provisions of Proposition 187, the controversial 1994 initiative by the State of California, which would have denied illegal immigrants access to public education, social services and non-emergency medical care were declared unconstitutional.

NEW ZEALAND

Introduction

This report provides an overview and analysis of the historical development of New Zealand's migration flows and policies, with particular emphasis on recent policy initiatives designed to enhance the contribution of immigration to the country's medium-term economic development and to prevent abuses of the system.

Modern immigration to New Zealand dates back to the 19th century at which time, reflecting the country's status as a British colony, the flows were overwhelmingly composed of British migrants and Australian migrants of British descent. This state of affairs was institutionalised by the passing in 1899 of the Immigrants Restriction Act which limited access to those of British or Irish descent or those able to pass a written English language test. From the end of the Second World War through to the beginning of the 1990s, New Zealand's immigration policy became more open and focused essentially on meeting the immediate needs of the labour market. Since 1991, immigration policy has reflected instead a focus on medium-term human (and investment) capital development. The implementation of this policy is rendered transparent through the use of points tests and has recently been refined by the use of risk management tools, in particular the use of refundable bonds which enable travellers who would otherwise have been declined a visa to enter New Zealand as well as the use of non-convertible visas and permits.

1. The history of migration to New Zealand

New Zealand is a country created and shaped by immigration. New Zealand's indigenous people, the Maori, arrived in a series of voyages between 750 and 1350 AD from the islands of Polynesia. Contact with European explorers, followed by sealers, whalers, and traders, began in the late 18th century.

The Treaty of Waitangi was entered into by the Maori people and the British Crown in 1840. The main purpose of the Treaty was to ensure that both parties to it would live together peacefully and develop New Zealand together. The Treaty was an exchange of sovereignty for protection – it gave the British Crown power to govern and in return the Crown extended its royal protection to Maori and promised to respect Maori authority over land, resources and other prized possessions.

At the time of the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi there were between 1 000-2 000 Europeans and 70-90 000 Maori in New Zealand.[3] By the end of the following decade steady immigration and the effects of introduced diseases and firearms resulted in the European population equalling the depleted Maori population of 60 000.[4] These trends continued as a combination of gold rushes and immigration programmes (which assisted selected migrants by subsidising the cost of the long sea journey to the colony) led to the European population nearly trebling in the 1860s and doubling in the 1870s.[5] Assisted immigration would bring 100 000 people to New Zealand between 1871 and 1880.[6] By 1881, the non-Maori population had reached 490 000.[7] This was overwhelmingly composed of English, Irish, and Scottish migrants, who together with Australian migrants of British descent, enjoyed preferential access to New Zealand. Only small numbers of mainly Western European migrants came from other nations.[8]

Immigration declined in importance in the latter part of the 19th century as depression led to the loss of many migrants to Australia, a reversal of earlier trends and part of a cyclical process that would also be

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repeated in the 20th century. The depression resulted in cuts to the assisted immigration programme as many blamed the supposedly excessive immigration of earlier decades for New Zealand's problems. In any case, natural population growth was succeeding immigration in importance as the 1886 Census revealed that 52% of the non-Maori population were born in New Zealand.[9] As a result of this and the effects of the assisted immigration scheme the population began to lose its earlier "frontier" nature and assume a more balanced age and gender structure.

Another feature of this period was rising hostility towards minority migrant groups, in particular small numbers of Chinese migrants (around 5 000 by 1881) who had come to New Zealand to work on the goldfields. Throughout the 1880s and 1890s, a series of progressively harsher Immigration Acts were introduced, culminating in the 1899 Immigrants Restriction Act which limited access to those of British or Irish descent or those able to pass a written English language test.[10]

The turn of the century saw a return of prosperity, and with it, a renewed emphasis on immigration. Droughts in Australia resulted in a return to earlier trends and some 44 000 Australians migrated to New Zealand between 1900 and 1906.[11] There was also a return to assisted immigration in 1905, intended to redress labour shortages and, in the 1920s, to restore the gender balance, which had been disturbed, by the primarily male immigration of the 1900s. Between 1901 and 1928, immigration added over 200 000 people to the population, again overwhelmingly of British, Irish, and Australian provenance as restrictive immigration policies were reinforced in 1919 and 1920 with the aim of maintaining a "White New Zealand", much like Australian policies of the era.[12]

The onset of the Great Depression in the late 1920s saw cuts in immigration as unemployment and housing issues became paramount. Until 1945, immigration fluctuated with economic conditions and wartime disruption.[13] The period is also notable for slightly increased diversity in immigration flows as spouses joined already established minority groups and settlers from India arrived to work on drainage schemes. Together with the acceptance of refugees from fascism in the 1930s and war in the 1940s, these developments foreshadowed the more open immigration policies of the post-war period.

Between 1945 and 1975, New Zealand witnessed its most sustained population growth of the 20th century, growing from 1.7 to 3 million people, a growth rate of 2% which was high compared to other predominantly European nations at the time.[14] This was due largely to natural population growth, but was supplemented by 225 000 migrants between 1947 and 1968.[15] In 1945, the new Dominion Population Committee had recommended that immigration could be used to fill labour shortages, with the additional goal of consolidating New Zealand as a British country.[16]

From 1947 to 1991, New Zealand's immigration policy focused on meeting labour market skills shortages. In 1947, a new assisted passage scheme was introduced, targeting British migrants with specific skills, but ongoing labour shortages saw this expanded over the following years. From the 1950s to the early 1970s, immigration followed a cyclical trend driven by economic fluctuations as migrants were sought in times in prosperity but frequently arrived too late, to become a target of hostility in times of recession until the next economic upswing brought a return to migrant recruitment.[17]

Perhaps more significant was the great increase in migrant diversity in this period. The 1951 bilateral Netherlands migration scheme brought 30 000 Dutch migrants to New Zealand between 1952 and 1972.[18] Even more significant was the growth in migrants from the Pacific Islands who were recruited to fill a labour shortage of unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Between 1945 and 1976, the number of Polynesians living in New Zealand grew from 2 159 to 65 694.[19] Most settled in Auckland, which has became the largest Polynesian city world. In addition, New Zealand continued to accept refugees, largely from Eastern Europe but by the 1960s and 1970s also from Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and South America.

The 1970s saw considerable changes in immigration as a labour shortage early in the decade led to the recruitment of migrants from Britain, Western Europe and the United States. This resulted in a surge of migrants, peaking at 70 000 in 1973-4 but by that time the boom was over.[20] The consequent pressure on services and housing led to a new public attitude to immigration and a reconsideration of traditional policies, although the latter ironically took place during a period of net population outflow, largely to Australia, of 100 000 people between 1976 and 1986.[21] More significantly, the events of the early 1970s led the Government to end the policies of assisted immigration, the bilateral agreement with the Netherlands, and the previously

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unrestricted entry of British migrants. The exception to these changes was the special relationship with Australia (by which citizens of either nation may live and work in the other), which has been maintained to this day.[22] These changes were quickly followed by the opening up of immigration to "non-traditional" sources and the formation in the 1980s of an explicitly non-discriminatory policy emphasising individual merit over ethnicity or nationality.

These developments were expressed in a new policy developed in 1986.[23] This provided for immigration to be managed on the basis of four categories of potential migrant: occupational, business, family, and humanitarian. A new emphasis on business migrants, together with a new policy for occupational migrant selection intended to be more responsive to labour market needs, marked the ongoing development of the traditional policy of selecting migrants that would help strengthen New Zealand's economy.

A major shift in New Zealand's immigration policy took place in 1991. The Wilson Report[24] of that year had noted the inefficiencies of a policy framework based around meeting short term labour market skills. Some modifications were introduced during the policy development phase, but the new General Category and Business Investment Category policies which took effect on 18 November 1991 reflected a focus on medium term human (and investment) capital development rather than immediate labour market needs. Further, in order to introduce transparency and more objectivity into immigration assessments, New Zealand adopted a "points test"' to assess applicants' human and investment capital.

In practice, it quickly became apparent that the policies introduced in 1991 had some deficiencies. In particular, because there was no effective assessment of English skills, many skilled migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds arrived in New Zealand with poor English. This made it difficult for them to find jobs. The difficulties faced by these migrants were compounded by the inability of many to effectively transfer their human capital to New Zealand, because their qualifications (for which they had been awarded immigration points) were not always recognised by professional bodies and/or employers. The settlement difficulties of these skilled migrants were a major driver for a review undertaken in 1994/95,[25] which led to a number of policy changes.

The key objective of developing New Zealand's human (and investment) capital base remained in place, but the importance of that human capital being transferable to New Zealand was recognised in the post-1995 policy framework. Firstly, a robust means of assessing English language skills was introduced; secondly, if registration with a professional body was required before a migrant could work in New Zealand, an applicant had to gain that registration before points for those qualifications could be awarded; fourthly, points for a job offer in New Zealand were increased; finally, some marginal points were awarded for people with New Zealand work experience. There are indications that the post-1995 cohort of skilled migrants have found settlement easier.

Settlement assistance has also developed since 1995, albeit in a piecemeal way. The NZIS's Settlement Information Programme has provided pre-arrival and initial settlement information since 1995, via a pre-arrival settlement pack and video, and post-arrival newsletters for up to two years. Specialist information is also being gradually introduced, with material targeted at young people and older migrants. In addition, the NZIS and the Office of the Race Relations Conciliator have produced an *Ethnic Communities Directory*.

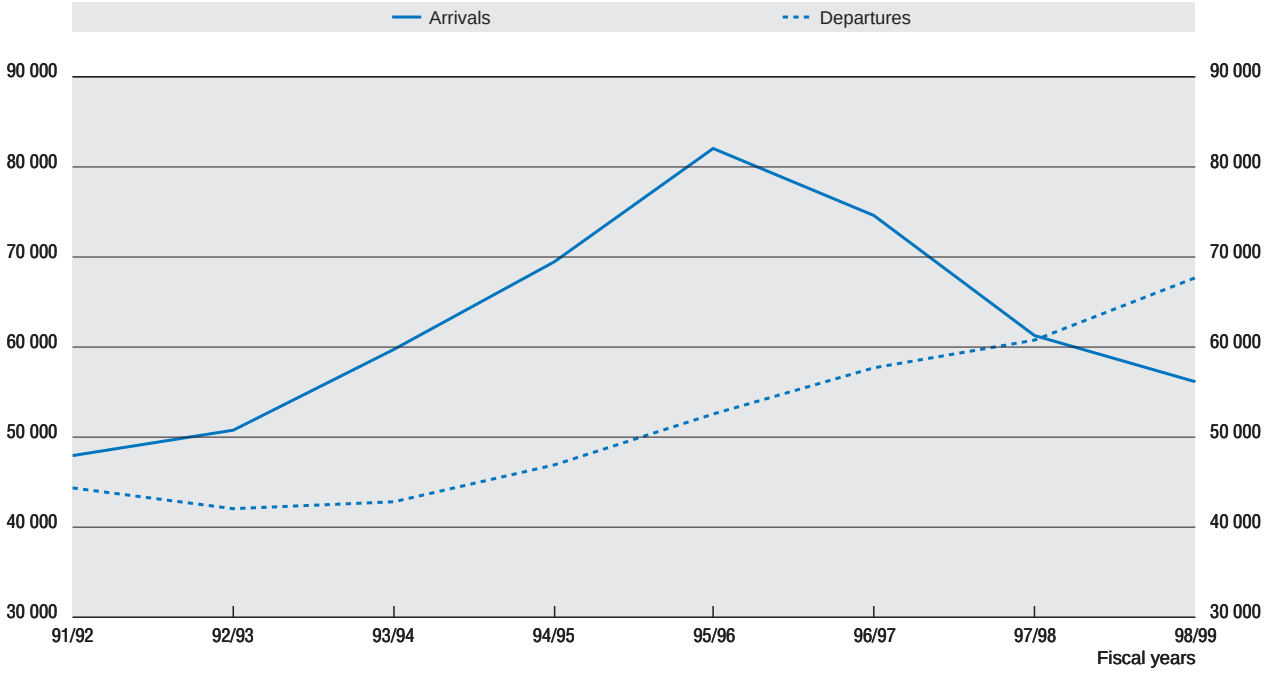
A specialist Business Migrant Liaison Unit, which is a telephony based advice and information source, was established in 1998. More recently, the NZIS has established a national Migrant Helpline offering new arrivals' information and referral to key services.

2. New Zealand's population and migration movements

As at December 1998, New Zealand's population was estimated to be 3 803 900.[26] At the time of the 1996 Census, 75% of the New Zealand population identified with a European ethnic group. Maori, New Zealand's indigenous people accounted for the next largest group of people, around 15%. Five percent of the population identified with Pacific Islands and Asian ethnic groups respectively.[27] In addition to natural increase and immigration, a number of factors impact on New Zealand's population. For example, Trans-Tasman travel[28] and the arrival and departure of New Zealand citizens, migrants and long-term visitors all affect population levels in New Zealand. These factors are illustrated when looking at trends in permanent long term arrivals and departures.[29]

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Chart III.15. **Flows of permanent and long-term residents, 1991/92-1998/99, New Zealand**



Source: Statistics New Zealand.

Permanent and long-term arrivals and departures

"Permanent and long term" refers to those people who indicate on their arrival (or departure) card that they intend to be in (or away from) New Zealand for 12 months or more. Permanent and long-term migration figures are not directly related to immigration residence approvals. Chart III.15 shows permanent and long term arrivals and departures from 1991/92. A break-down by nationality for the 1998/99 year (Table III.42 refers) illustrates the significance of inward and outward flows of New Zealanders. A further break-down reveals that (where information was available) "Professional" was the most frequently recorded occupational classification for both permanent long-term arrivals and departures. It should, however, be noted that for a significant proportion of both arrivals and departures, occupation was unspecified or not collected (approximately 31 000 departures and 29 900 arrivals).

Net migration

The sum of all permanent and long-term arrivals minus permanent and long-term departures produces the net migration gain or loss for a given year. An increase in permanent and long-term departures accompanied by a decrease in permanent long-term arrivals has contributed to steadily decreasing net migration gains in recent years and a net migration loss in 1998/99 (see Table III.43).

3. The objectives of New Zealand's immigration policy

As at November 1998, the purpose of immigration policy is to produce social and economic benefits for New Zealand. In particular, immigration policies seek to:

– Contribute to New Zealand's human capability base by selecting migrants who are able to quickly and effectively match their skills with opportunities in New Zealand.

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Table III.42. **Permanent and long-term flows, 1998/1999, New Zealand**

Top ten nationalities

Inflows		Outflows	
New Zealand	20 039	New Zealand	51 745
United Kingdom	5 535	United Kingdom	3 475
Japan	3 836	Australia	3 179
Australia	3 434	Japan	1 396
China	3 146	United States	989
South Africa	2 077	Korea	830
India	1 924	Malaysia	541
Chinese Taipei	1 469	Canada	417
United States	1 253	India	367
Fiji	1 244	Samoa	365
Other nationalities	12 295	Other nationalities	4 317
Total	**56 252**	**Total**	**67 621**

Source: Statistics New Zealand.

– Foster the development of strong international linkages by, for example, facilitating the entry of residents and travellers who will contribute to the building of strong economic and social links with other countries.

– Contribute to the development of a culture of enterprise and innovation by attracting migrants and business visitors with entrepreneurial skills and experience.

– Complement skills training and employment strategies through allocating temporary work permits in order to fill short-term skills shortages.

– Reunite the families of New Zealanders and responding to the humanitarian needs of persons with close family links to New Zealand.

– Meet New Zealand's obligations as a member of the international community through refugee programmes. And

– To maintain a high level of social cohesion.

These objectives are achieved through both temporary entry and residence policy. While traditionally there has been a distinction between the two, in practice, the outcomes and objectives of each overlap. Immigration polices are considered as an integrated package designed to contribute to New Zealand's economic and social well-being. For example, the temporary entry of skilled workers contributes to short-term capacity formation in the labour market through enabling employers to fill immediate skills shortages. Many go on to become residents. Equally, some residents choose not to stay in New Zealand permanently.

Table III.43. **Net migration, 1992/93-1998/99, New Zealand**

1992/93	8 702
1993/94	16 815
1994/95	22 729
1995/96	29 506
1996/97	16 770
1997/98	450
1998/99	–11 365

Source: Statistics New Zealand.

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In the longer-term, immigration contributes to the development of new economic and labour market opportunities. Along with trade and investment, immigration plays an important role in determining the extent of New Zealand's interaction with the global economy. Immigration policy settings can also influence investment flows into New Zealand, while increasing the diversity of the population helps create economic activity, as well as enriching New Zealand society.

4. The legislative and policy framework

Immigration in New Zealand is governed by the 1987 Immigration Act and its amendments. The Act sets out the legislative parameters for the operation of immigration policy. The Act establishes that persons who are not New Zealand citizens must hold a permit to be in New Zealand. (Australian citizens/resident, however, are exempt from this requirement under the Trans-Tasman travel Agreement). Immigration legislation further prescribes how applications can be made, the powers of immigration officers and the right to certain appeals. Policy relating to eligibility for visas and permits is not specified in legislation.

An amendment to the Immigration Act was passed through Parliament in 1999. The Amendment contained a number of significant changes. In particular, the introduction of new risk management tools have underpinned initiatives to introduce more flexibility into immigration policy. Some of the key aspects of the 1999 Act are outlined below:

Streamlining of the removals process and associated appeal provisions

The Act places a statutory obligation on persons to leave New Zealand on or before the expiry of their temporary permit. Persons who fail to do so have 28 days in which to activate their appeal rights. If no appeal is lodged, there is no further opportunity to appeal against removal. When located, such individuals are now removed immediately.

Provisions to grant limited purpose visas/permits to persons who may otherwise be refused entry into New Zealand.

Limited Purpose Visas/Permits (LPPs) provide for the issue of a visa or permit for an explicit purpose and duration. Essentially a risk management tool, LPPs enable persons who may otherwise have been considered to impose an unacceptable level of immigration risk, to enter New Zealand for a specific reason. Holders of LPPs have no right to change their immigration status in New Zealand and no right to access immigration appeal authorities.

The ability to charge bonds.

The Act provided for the introduction of a system of refundable bonds. Also a risk management tool, bonds enable travellers who would otherwise have been declined a visa, to enter New Zealand. The bond may be refunded once the applicant has departed from New Zealand.

The 1999 Immigration Amendment Act also introduced:

- A flexible cost recovery framework.
- Provisions to protect sensitive security information relevant to immigration matters.
- Provisions to detain illegal entrants in a situation of mass arrival. And
- Provisions to streamline and limit the timeframes for Judicial Review proceedings in relation to immigration matters.

5. Immigration policy in context

Following an atypically high number of residence approvals during the 1994-1996 period, demand for New Zealand residence declined during 1997/98 and 1998/99[30].

A range of factors may account for the increased demand after 1993/94 and subsequent decline, including: the relatively poor performance of the New Zealand economy, settlement difficulties and a perception of New Zealand as unwelcoming of migrants.

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Consequently, a number of policy adjustments were introduced to make New Zealand a more viable and attractive destination for international students, workers and residents in 1997 and 1998. Policy initiatives designed to introduce more flexibility were introduced. A flexible immigration policy is important, to accommodate changing social and economic environments, and to recognise the broad range of factors that motivate prospective migrants' behaviour.

6. The immigration target

In managing immigration, the Government sets a target (or upper limit), on the number of persons that may be granted residence.[31] The importance of stability in immigration flows is one of the factors taken into account by the Government when setting the target. In the 1998/99 and 1999/00 years, the target was set at 38 000 residence approvals.

In addition to refugees and asylum seekers, the immigration target includes residence[32] approvals under the following Categories:

– General Skills (the "points test").

– Business (including the "Investor", "Entrepreneur", "Long-Term (temporary) Business Visa" and "Employees of Relocating Companies" sub-categories).

– Family.

– Humanitarian. And

– Samoan Quota.

The Family, Humanitarian and Business Categories are entirely demand driven – there is no limit on the number of persons that can be granted residence under these categories. The General Skills Category acts as a residual to make up the target number. The Category consists of a points system under which applicants must exceed an automatic fail mark in order to be eligible. A floating passmark that can adjust up or down depending on the number of applications and approvals, operates to deliver within 10% of the annual target. However, the automatic fail mark serves to set a quality standard below which the passmark cannot fall. Therefore, there must be sufficient demand for New Zealand residence in order to meet the annual target.

As noted above, there has been a decline in demand for New Zealand residence in recent years. Consequently there was a shortfall of over 7 000 in meeting the 1998/99 target of 38 000 residence approvals. However, indications are that the inflow of applications is sufficient to reach within 10% of the target of 38 000 residence approvals in 1999/2000.

7. Residence approvals

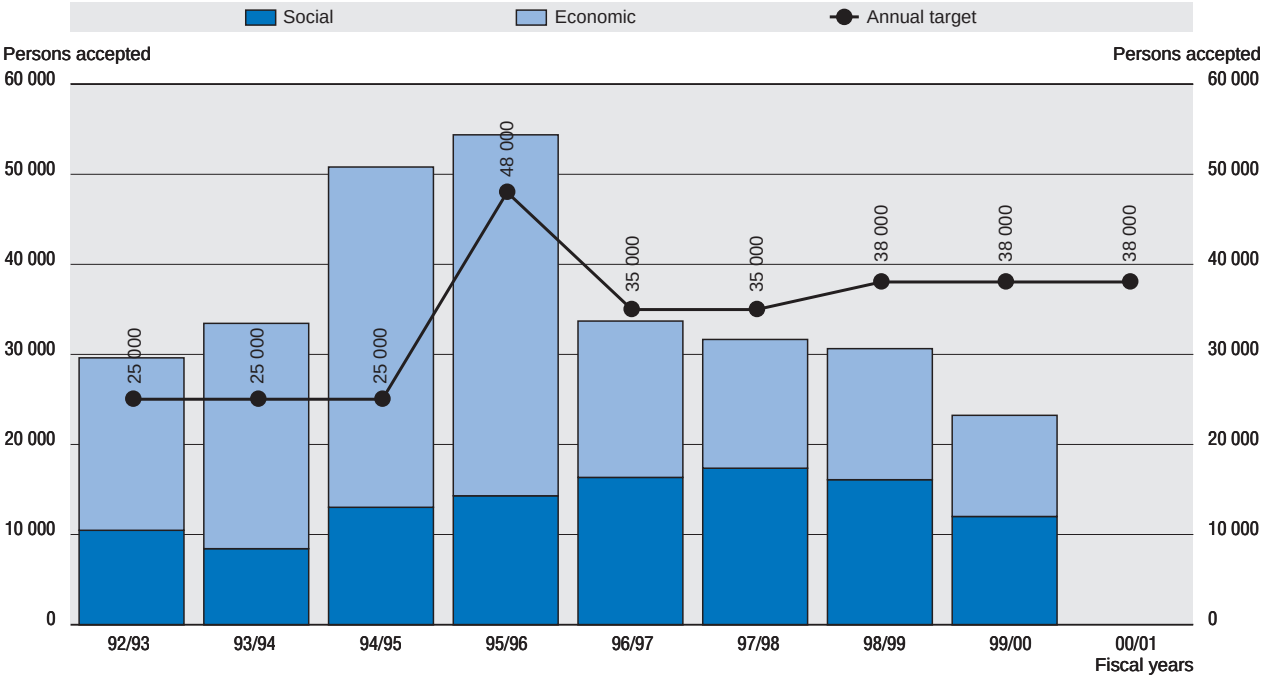
Chart III.16 illustrates the overall numbers of people approved for residence over the past eight years compared to the annual targets set by the Government. These are grouped into economic and social streams for illustrative purposes. The economic stream includes General/General Skills Categories and all business categories. Social includes the Family and Humanitarian Categories, the Samoan Quota and refugees.

Within the social and economic streams, the majority of migrants to New Zealand are approved under the General Skills and Family categories. Chart III.17 provides a category breakdown of approvals in the 1998/99 year. Together, the General Skills and Family categories accounted for over 80% of residence approvals in the 1998/99 year. These figures are largely unchanged from 1997/98.

Other than the special Quota for Samoan nationals, residence policy does not target specific nationalities. Consequently New Zealand's immigration flows are very diverse with people from over 140 countries gaining residence each year. As illustrated in Table III.44, the United Kingdom, the Peoples' Republic of China and South Africa were the single largest source countries in 1998/99.

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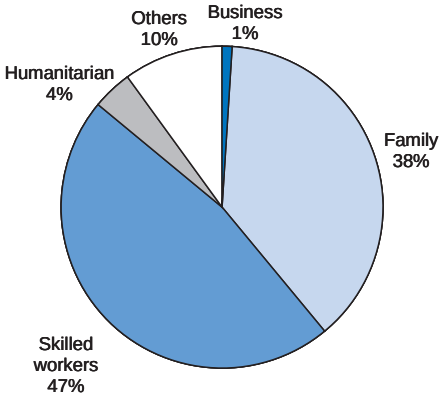
Chart III.16. **Persons accepted for residence in comparison with the annual target, 1992/93-2000/01, New Zealand**



Source: NZIS Statistics.

Chart III.17. **Persons accepted for residence, by category of immigration, 1998/99, New Zealand**

Percentages



Source: NZIS Statistics.

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Table III.44. **Residence permits granted, by category and by nationality, 1998/99, New Zealand**
Top ten nationalites

Business	1998/99	Skilled workers	1998/99
Total	**228**	**Total**	**14 101**
United Kingdom	33	South Africa	3 011
United States	33	United Kingdom	2 416
Netherlands	27	India	2 123
Singapore	19	China	932
Fiji	15	Fiji	682
Chinese Taipei	15	United States	435
Hong Kong (China)	14	Sri Lanka	395
Germany	9	Philippines	384
Italy	8	Korea	354
Malaysia	6	Malaysia	292
Top ten (% of total)	78.5	*Top ten (% of total)*	78.2
Family members		**Humanitarian**	
Total	**11 662**	**Total**	**1 255**
China	2 249	Cambodia	187
United Kingdom	1 774	Fiji	143
Fiji	837	Iraq	142
Tonga	758	China	112
India	722	Somalia	93
Samoa	601	Tonga	65
South Africa	510	Samoa	62
United States	317	United Kingdom	49
Philippines	312	Vietnam	49
Chinese taipei	236	South Africa	36
Top ten (% of total)	71.3	*Top ten (% of total)*	74.7
Others		**Total permits**	
Total	**3 286**	**Total**	**30 532**
Samoa	1 189	United Kingdom	4 345
Somalia	304	South Africa	3 567
Sri Lanka	137	China	3 350
Ethiopia	132	India	2 949
Former Yougoslavia	130	Samoa	1 877
Bangladesh	116	Fiji	1 693
Iran	111	Tonga	1 155
United Kingdom	73	United States	858
United States	66	Sri Lanka	737
India	65	Philippines	736
Top ten (% of total)	70.7	*Top ten (% of total)*	69.7

Note: Data as at 28 February 2000.
Source: New Zealand Immigration Services

8. Residence categories

The general skills category

Immigration policy's key contribution to human capability development is through the General Skills Category. The points system is designed to select highly skilled migrants who are likely to settle well and make a positive contribution to New Zealand. Thus, the key objectives of the General Skills category are to increase New Zealand's human capability base and foster external linkages while maintaining social cohesion.

Points are awarded for a range of human capital and settlement factors such as:

– Qualifications.

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– Employability (including work experience, age and an offer of employment). And
– Settlement factors (including settlement funds, spousal qualifications, family sponsorship and New Zealand work experience).

All applicants and accompanying family members (over the age of 16) are required to meet a minimum standard of English. Accompanying family members may alternatively pre-purchase English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) training. Appendix I contains a more detailed breakdown of the General Skills points system.

In the 1998/99 year, around 46% of the overall migrant intake were approved under the General Skills Category. The top ten nationalities of migrants under this category are illustrated in Table III.44.

New Zealand has been operating a points system since 1991. As previously noted, a review of immigration policy resulted in the introduction of a number of adjustments in October 1995. The 1995 changes were intended to encourage the selection of migrants likely to be able to match their capability with opportunities in New Zealand.

Further immigration policy adjustments were introduced in 1998 and 1999. These more recent changes were designed to introduce more flexibility into qualifying criteria and to remove barriers to obtaining residence. These changes included:

– Introducing English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) pre-purchasing.[33]
– Reducing the minimum pass mark from 25 to 24 points.
– Enabling applicants with insufficient points to be granted residence approval in principle and issued with a work permit enabling them to job search in New Zealand with the aim of gaining a job offer and sufficient points for residence. And
– Increasing the points allocation for a New Zealand qualification.

The business categories

Business immigration policy seeks to contribute to the development of a culture of enterprise and innovation in New Zealand as well as developing New Zealand's human capability base and fostering external linkages.

A major review resulted in the introduction of a new business policy in March 1999. However, in the earlier part of the 1998/99 year, business migrants could still apply for residence under the (now defunct) Business Investor Category. This Category used a points test to assess a range of human and investment capital factors including: business experience, accumulated earnings funds, direct investment funds, age and settlement factors. In the 1998/99 year, around 1% of the overall migrant intake were approved under the now closed Business Investor Category.

A review of the Business Investor Category was initiated in 1998 because it was considered that New Zealand was failing to maximise the opportunities presented by business immigration. The new business immigration policy recognises that there are distinct markets for business immigration and provides business people who wish to migrate to New Zealand with a greater range of options.

The following categories were introduced in March 1999:

– *Investor Category* – for persons with funds to invest in New Zealand. Applicants are assessed by a points system which allocates points for: age; business experience and investment funds.
– *Entrepreneur Category* – for persons who have successfully established a business that is benefiting New Zealand in some way.
– *Long Term Business Visa* (LTBV) – a "stepping stone" for the Entrepreneur Category, the LTBV enables potential migrants to be granted a temporary work permit in order to establish a business in New Zealand. Applicants must have (among other things), a satisfactory business plan, access to sufficient funds and a genuine interest in establishing a business in New Zealand.
– *Employees of Relocating Businesses Category* – enables key employees of businesses relocating to New Zealand to be granted residence. Applicants must demonstrate that they are not eligible for residence under any other category.

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The number of applications received under the new policy has exceeded forecasts. Over 650 applications have been received to date: 67% for Long-term Business Visas and 27.5% in the Investor Category. The key source countries of applications are China, Korea and Britain, together accounting for approximately half of all applications.

Family category

This category enables the close family members of New Zealand residents and citizens to be granted residence. The current objective of the Family Category is to allow individuals to maintain and be part of a family unit while reinforcing the Government's overall objectives in immigration policy. All applicants must be sponsored by a New Zealand resident or citizen. The following family members of New Zealanders may be eligible:

– Spouses, *de facto* partners, dependent children. And

– Parents, siblings, adult children.

Parents must meet a "centre of gravity" test.[34] Siblings and adult children must be single, with no children of their own and with no immediate family members in the country.

In the 1998/99 year, 38% of the overall migrant intake were approved under the Family Category (see Table III.44), China being the single largest source country.

The family category has not been reviewed for quite some time. A major policy review of Family Sponsored Immigration policy is currently underway.

Humanitarian category

The Humanitarian Category enables family members of New Zealanders to be granted residence where serious humanitarian circumstances exist. Migrants under this category must have a family member who is a resident/citizen of New Zealand to sponsor their application. In addition, the following criteria must be met:

– The applicant or a New Zealand party are suffering serious physical and/or serious emotional harm.

– The granting of residence in New Zealand is the only reasonable solution to the serious physical/emotional harm. And

– The granting of residence would not be contrary to the public interest.

In the 1998/99 year, 4% of the overall migrant intake were approved under the Humanitarian Category with Cambodia being the major source country (see Table III.44).

The Humanitarian Category is included in the review of Family Sponsored Immigration policy noted above.

Samoan quota

New Zealand has particularly close links with Samoa, as reflected in the Treaty of Friendship signed by New Zealand and Samoa in 1962 when Samoa became independent. The Samoan Quota scheme reflects this unique relationship. Under the scheme, 1 100 Samoans may be granted residence in New Zealand annually. The key requirement is that applicants have a job offer. There is generally a high level of demand for places under the scheme. Procedural changes were introduced in 1999 to improve the application process.

9. Settlement

Migrants, in common with other New Zealanders, may be eligible for services from various Government agencies that may assist them to settle in New Zealand. The most significant are services in the employment, welfare, education and health sectors. Some migrant-specific services are also provided. For example, the NZIS provides assistance for refugees through the Mangere Refugee Resettlement Centre. Refugees accepted under Refugee Quota Programme are provided with a six week live-in orientation course at the NZIS's Refugee Resettlement Centre. The Refugee and Migrant Service (RMS) is contracted to locate and maintain sponsors for refugees when they leave the Centre.

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A pre-arrival settlement information kit and video is available to all migrants approved for residence. Some post-arrival information is also available including a magazine published quarterly. Settlement information is funded by means of a Settlement Information Fee payable once residence has been approved. A migrant levy is payable by all migrants in the General Skills and Business Categories. It is currently used to contribute towards funding for English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) in the compulsory schools sector and research into immigration outcomes.

In August 1999, a Business Migrant Liaison Unit was established to assist business migrants. The unit provides information on New Zealand's business environment, business opportunities and key contacts. A Migrant Help Line acts as an information and referral service for new migrants.

The above specific services aside, there has been growing concern about the level of support provided to new migrants and refugees to assist them to settle in New Zealand. Settlement policy is currently therefore a key priority for the Government. The incoming Government has asked the NZIS to ensure a migrant settlement and refugee resettlement strategy is developed to address the settlement needs of refugees and migrants in a more systematic and comprehensive way.

10. Refugees and asylum seekers

The refugee quota programme

New Zealand accepts up to 750 refugees who have been mandated as in need of resettlement by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The Programme contributes to New Zealand's international humanitarian objectives and reflects New Zealand's commitment to the principle of "international burden sharing".

Refugees accepted for resettlement spend their first 6 weeks at the Mangere Refugee Resettlement Centre. This Centre provides initial accommodation and orientation services in addition to medical screening/treatment. At the end of the six week period, sponsors assist refugees to settle into local communities.

To assist the UNHCR to provide protection to the most vulnerable refugee cases, the Quota is divided into the following sub-categories:

Women at risk	75 places
Medical/disabled	75 places
Protection cases	600 places
Total	**750 places**

These categories operate as "targets" rather than absolute limits. Flexibility is exercised in managing the overall quota. For example, if there are insufficient referral to meet the "women-at-risk" target, then these places could be used for protection cases. In the 1998/99 year, refugee cases accepted under the Quota comprised of the following:

Emergency	14
Family Reunion	2
Medical	31
Protection	568
Women-at-Risk	112
Total	**727**

Source: NZIS Statistics

The nationalities of refugees accepted for resettlement in New Zealand in the 1998/99 year are detailed in Table III.45.

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Table III.45. **Refugee quota programme, 1998/99, New Zealand**
Major nationalities

Somalia	212
Ethiopia	199
Iraq	130
Eritrea	47
Afghanistan	42
Iran	39
Sudan	33
Rwanda	14
Other	11
Total	**727**

Source: Statistiques du NZIS

Asylum seekers

As a signatory to the 1951 United Nations Convention and the 1967 Protocol on the Status of Refugees, New Zealand is obliged to consider all claims for refugee status (or political asylum). The number of claimants has increased significantly in the past ten years.

All claims are considered, in the first instance, by the Refugee Status Branch of the New Zealand Immigration Service. Unsuccessful claimants have the opportunity to lodge an appeal against the NZIS's decision to the Refugee Status Appeal Authority (RSAA). The RSAA is an independent body.

Claimants are generally granted a work permit while their claim is being determined. They are also entitled to receive welfare assistance (income support, accommodation assistance, health care and education). Around 30% of all claims are determined to be genuine by the NZIS or the RSAA.

11. Temporary migration

Temporary entry to New Zealand may be gained for the purpose of visiting, studying or temporary employment. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, New Zealand has pursued a policy of reducing visitor visa requirements in line with reducing other barriers to trade, tourism and other economic activity. In recognition of the increasingly blurred distinction between temporary entry and residence, recent policy initiatives have introduced incentives for temporary entrants to apply for residence. For example, initiatives designed to facilitate a transition from "student to resident' and to enable working holiday makers to apply for residence.

Visitors to New Zealand

Citizens from 51 countries do not need to apply for a visa in order to visit New Zealand for visits of up to three months.[35] Consequently, over 90% of visitors enter New Zealand visa free. Appendix II contains a list of visa waiver countries as at 1 March 2000. In the 1998/99 year, over 1.5 million overseas visitors entered New Zealand.

International students

The NZIS approved around 28 900 applications from international students wishing to study in New Zealand in the 1998/99 year. The majority were attending short-term courses, often in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Others were tertiary or secondary school students.

Temporary workers

Work permit policy is intended to enable employees to fill short-term skills or labour shortages. Applicants are required to have an offer of employment in a job which there are no suitable New Zealanders avail-

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Table III.46. **Working Holiday schemes, by nationality, 1999, New Zealand**

	Places	Duration of stay
Canada	400	12 months
France[1]	100	12 months
Ireland	250	12 months
Japan	No limit	12 months
Korea	200	12 months
Netherlands	250	12 months
Malaysia	100	6 months
Singapore	200	6 months
United Kingdom	4 000	12 months

1. 100 places have been agreed for the calendar year 2000.
Source: New Zealand Immigration Statistics (NZIS)

able to fill. In the 1998/99 year, around 39 000 people were granted the right to work temporarily in New Zealand.

However, work permits/visas may also be granted for "social" reasons. For example, to the spouse, *de facto* partners and fiance(e)s. Analysis of work visas/permits issued in 1999 showed that 51% were issued to spouses, partners or fiance(e)s of New Zealanders.

Working holiday makers

New Zealand operates a number working holiday schemes for young people who wish to undertake incidental employment while visiting New Zealand. These schemes are generally reciprocal arrangements and are currently available to citizens from Canada, France, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Netherlands, Singapore and the United Kingdom (UK). The current overall cap of 10 000 on the total number of working holiday makers able to enter New Zealand in any given year is currently under review.

The number of places under each Scheme are outlined in TTable III.46.

12. Risk management

Effective risk management is achieved by facilitating the entry of migrants and temporary entrants who will benefit New Zealand while managing the risk posed by those likely to impose costs. Costs are incurred by persons who fail to comply with the conditions of their temporary permits, for example, by failing to leave New Zealand. Costs are also imposed by persons seeking to enter New Zealand to work unlawfully.

Immigration risks are managed by refusing visas and permits to high risk travellers. For example, improperly documented travellers and persons who intend to work illegally in New Zealand may be refused entry at the border.

The Government has introduced new mechanisms to facilitate risk management through the 1999 Immigration Amendment Act. The introduction of bonds and limited purpose permits has enabled the NZIS to adopt a more flexible and facilitative approach to border management. The Act also provided for the introduction of a streamlined removals process, making it easier for the NZIS to remove persons not entitled to be in New Zealand. Another initiative to enable more effective management of immigration risks has been the introduction of an offshore "interdiction" programme. Interdiction involves working with airline staff to identify ill-properly documented passengers prior to their arrival in New Zealand.

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Appendix I

Points System – General Skills Categories 1998-99

Qualifications	
Base qualification	10
Advanced qualification	11
Masters degree or higher	12
Employability	
Work experience	
2 years	1
4 years	2
6 years	3
8 years	4
10 years	5
12 years	6
14 years	7
16 years	8
18 years	9
20 years	10
Offer of employment	5
Age (maximum age: 55 years)	
18-24 years	8
25-29 years	10
30-34 years	8
25-39 years	6
40-44 years	4
45-49 years	2
Settlement factors	
Settlement funds	
$100 000	1
$200 000	2
Partner's qualifications	
Base qualification	1
Advanced qualification	2
NZ Work Experience	
1 year	1
2 years	2
Family sponsorship	3
Maximum settlement points	7

The principal applicant had to score 25 points or more to gain residence in 1998-99. This was reduced to 24 points on 1 November 1999.

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Appendix II

Visa Waiver Countries as at 1 March 2000

Visits up to 3 months, except for UK (*visits up to six months*)

Citizens of:

Andorra	Argentina	Austria
Bahrain	Belgium	Brazil
Brunei	Canada	Chile
Czech Republic	Denmark	Finland
France	Germany	Greece
Hong Kong*	Hungary	Iceland
Ireland	Israel	Italy
Japan	Korea (South)	Kiribati
Kuwait	Liechtenstein	Luxembourg
Malaysia	Malta	Monaco
Nauru	Netherlands	Norway
Oman	Portugal**	Qatar
San Marino	Saudi Arabia	Singapore
Slovenia	South Africa	Spain
Sweden	Switzerland	Thailand
Tuvalu	United Arab Emirates	United Kingdom
United States of America	Uruguay	Vatican City
Zimbabwae		

* Residents of Hong Kong travelling on Hong Kong Special Administrative Region or British National (Overseas) passports.

** Portuguese passport holders must also have the right to live permanently in Portugal.

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Notes

1. The Zapata Canyon Project, the only source of information available for measuring flows of illegal Mexican emigrants, is a study launched in September 1987, based on interviews with prospective migrants to the United States in the main border areas.
2. Deborah Garrett, Cameron Bayly & Justin Hurrelle (Policy, Research & Development Group of the NZIS).
3. *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, New Zealand Immigration Service (NZIS) for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, p. 1; J.M.R. Owens, "New Zealand Before Annexation", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 50.
4. Gordon Schroff, 1988, "New Zealand's Immigration Policy", in the *New Zealand Official Yearbook* 1988-89, Department of Statistics, Wellington, p. 194.
5. W.J. Gardner, "A Colonial Economy", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, pp. 66, 74; Jeanine Graham, "Settler Society", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 116.
6. Raewyn Dalziel, "Railways and Relief Centres", in Keith Sinclair (Ed.), 1990, *The Oxford Illustrated History of New Zealand*, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 104.
7. W.J. Gardner, "A Colonial Economy", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 74.
8. *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, NZIS for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, p. 1.
9. Jeanine Graham, "Settler Society", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 112.
10. Gordon Schroff, 1988, "New Zealand's Immigration Policy", in the *New Zealand Official Yearbook* 1988-89, Department of Statistics, Wellington, pp. 194-195.
11. *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, NZIS for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, p. 2.
12. Malcolm McKinnon, "New Zealand in the World", in Keith Sinclair (Ed.), 1990, *The Oxford Illustrated History of New Zealand*, Oxford University Press, Auckland, pp. 243-244; Erik Olssen, "Towards a new Society", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 257.
13. *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, NZIS for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, p. 2.
14. Graeme Dunstall, "The Social Pattern", in Geoffrey W. Rice (Ed.), 1992, *The Oxford History of New Zealand*, 2nd edition, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 454.
15. *Ibid.*
16. Erik Olssen, "Depression and War", in Keith Sinclair (Ed.), 1990, *The Oxford Illustrated History of New Zealand*, Oxford University Press, Auckland, p. 235.
17. *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, NZIS for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, pp. 2, 4.
18. *Ibid.*, p. 4; Gordon Schroff, 1988, "New Zealand's Immigration Policy", in the *New Zealand Official Yearbook* 1988-89, Department of Statistics, Wellington, pp. 196-198.
19. Mary Boyd, "New Zealand and the Other Pacific Islands", in Keith Sinclair (Ed.), 1990, *The Oxford Illustrated History of New Zealand*, Oxford University Press, Auckland, pp. 314-315.
20. Gordon Schroff, 1988, "New Zealand's Immigration Policy", in the *New Zealand Official Yearbook* 1988-89, Department of Statistics, Wellington, p. 198.
21. *Ibid*, pp. 198, 200.
22. *Ibid*; *New Zealand Immigration Policy and Trends*, NZIS for the Population Conference, Wellington, 13-14 November 1997, p. 5.
23. This was based on the *Review of Immigration Policy*, August 1986, also known as the Burke Report.
24. *Report of the Working Party on Immigration*, March 1991.
25. *Review of Residence Policy*, NZIS, September 1994.
26. *New Zealand's Official Yearbook on the Web* (1999), Statistics New Zealand.

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27. *Statistics for Presenters*, Statistics New Zealand for the Population Conference 13-14 November 1997, p. 29.
28. The trans-Tasman travel agreement between Australia and New Zealand means that Australian residents and citizens and New Zealand citizens may enter each others' country to visit, live and work without having to meet prior entry requirements.
29. Unless otherwise stated, all statistics relate to the New Zealand financial year which runs from 1 July to 30 June.
30. All immigration statistics have been obtained from the New Zealand Immigration Service's "Residence Information Management System" for statistics to 30/06/97, thereafter, the "Management Information System".
31. It should be noted that the immigration target relates to residence approvals rather than arrivals.
32. Applications for residence are assessed in terms of whether the principal applicant meets the eligibility criteria. With the exception of some sub-categories in the Family Category, principal applicants may be accompanied by their spouse/partner and dependent children who are also afforded the status of resident. All migrants to New Zealand must meet health and character requirements.
33. Family members who do not meet the minimum standard of English may instead pre-purchase ESOL training. The amount of training purchased varies according to the applicant's level of English ability.
34. The centre of gravity is deemed to be in New Zealand if the parent(s) have an equal or greater number of their adult children living in New Zealand than in any other country. For parents with dependent children, the number of dependent children must be equal to or fewer than the number of adult children living in New Zealand.
35. British citizens and other British passport holders who can produce evidence of the right to reside permanently in the United Kingdom may enter New Zealand visa free for visits of up to six months.

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STATISTICAL ANNEX

Data on the flows and stocks of migrants and related issues, such as their performance in the labour market, are derived from a wide variety of sources and the nature of these sources varies across countries. This makes the application of standardised definitions difficult and hence particular attention needs to be paid to the characteristics of the data, especially in the context of international comparisons. Section A of this annex describes the sources and methods used to generate migration statistics and is followed by presentation of data in Section B. These data are a selection from the OECDs' database of migration statistics.

Some preliminary remarks are required concerning the nature of the OECDs' migration data. Most of the data are taken from the individual contributions of correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of national governments. In this regard it should be noted that:

- As discussed in the Foreword to this report, the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) covers almost all of the Member countries of the OECD.
- The coverage of countries in the data and the ability to construct time-series is to a certain extent affected by the dates at which countries became members of the SOPEMI network. Recent participants to SOPEMI do not necessarily provide historical data in their reports and, in addition, further clarification is sometimes required before data can be published.
- SOPEMI has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It has an observatory role 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.

A. SOURCES AND COMPARABILITY OF MIGRATION STATISTICS

Compared to some other areas of statistics, such as labour force data, there exists little international standardisation of migration statistics. Consequently there are varying degrees of comparability between countries. One reason for this is that relatively few sources have as their *raison d'être* the recording of migration. Population registers, a common source of migration statistics, are used for a number of other administrative and statistical purposes. As a result, tailoring registers such that migration data conform to an international standard is made more difficult. Comparability is also problematic if data are based on residence or work permits. The data reflect migration systems and the policies of national governments and so, once again, it can be difficult to generate harmonised data. Hence, although there has been some development and agreement in the definition and classification of migration for statistical purposes (see Box 1), these standards have proved difficult to implement.

Aside from problems relating to international comparability, there are other difficulties with migration statistics, most notably the problem of measuring illegal immigration. Estimation is difficult and the figures that exist should be viewed, therefore, with some scepticism (see OECD, 1989). For this reason, explicit estimates of illegal immigrants have not been included in this annex. However, some stock and flow data partially incorporate illegal migration, therefore the phenomenon does not necessarily go completely unmeasured. For example, individuals may remain on population registers after their permits have expired, residing as illegal (or "undocumented") immigrants. Finally, it should be noted that those achieving legal status under "regularisation programmes" are sometimes included in inflow data and must be taken into account when analysing trends. In addition, regularisation programs may be followed by an additional wave of immigration depending on the extent to which the acquisition of legal status allows family reunification.

The following provides a brief review of the sources of migration statistics (1); this is followed by a discussion of the techniques used for measuring migration flows (2), and of data issues relating to stocks of migrants and the immigrant population (3).

1. Sources of migration statistics

The principle sources of migration statistics are population registers, residence or work permits, censuses and surveys. However, a wide variety of other data sources (*e.g.* special surveys, counts at border crossings, analysis of landing cards) may sometimes be used. Table 1 provides an overview of data sources and shows that population registers are commonly used as a source of flow and stock data on migration, especially in northern Europe. In

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Box 1. **Definitions of migration flows and immigrant populations developed by the United Nations**

New recommendations on statistics relating to international migration

The United Nations, in co-operation with other international organisations, has recently revised its 1976 recommendations on statistics relating to international migration in order to 1) propose a simplified and more pragmatic definition of "international migrant" which would take into account the emerging importance of temporary migration and 2) provide guidelines for the compilation of statistical information which would fit with the new definitions (United Nations, 1998).

According to the new United Nations recommandations, an international migrant is defined as "any person who changes his or her country of usual residence". The "country of usual residence" refers to the country in which a person lives, that is to say, the country in which he or she has a place to live where he or she normally spends the daily period of rest. As a consequence, all movements which are not accompanied by a change of usual residence are not considered as migrations. For example, movements for the purpose of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage should not be considered as migrations.

In order to take into account the increase in short term international movements (except tourism), long term and short term migrations have been taking into account separately:

– A long-term migrant is a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.

– A short-term migrant is a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year (12 months) except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage.

Immigrant population

The immigrant population is usually measured either as the part of the resident population who are foreign nationals, or as the part of the foreign-born in the resident population. In the latter case there are situations where individuals are difficult to classify due to changes in national boundaries. The United Nations recommends that the "foreign-born" be defined as those born outside the country or area where the "country or area of birth" is based on current national boundaries (or, more precisely, those that existed at the time the data were collected) (UN, 1989, pp. 103).

other countries, data on residence permits and census data are the most common means of measuring flows and stocks of international migrants.

Population registers

Population registers are accounts of residents within a country. They are typically maintained via the legal requirement that both nationals and foreigners residing in the country must register with the local authorities. Aggregation of these local accounts results in a record of population and population movement at the national level. As a result, the registers can provide data on all migrant flows (inflows and outflows of both nationals and foreigners) as well as data on stocks of foreigners and nationals. For this reason they tend to be widely used. However there are some drawbacks: individuals often fail to record their departures and therefore data on outflows can be less reliable. Also, there are differences in the type of migrants counted which must be taken into account in international comparisons.

Permit data

Residence and work permit data commonly form the basis of flow statistics for countries which do not have population registers. The data are necessarily more limited in scope as they do not capture all flows and it can be difficult to use them to generate stock and outflow data as these require careful accounting of the number of permits both issued and expired.

Census and household survey data

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every 5 to 10 years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be very small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may under-represent migrants, especially where they tend not to be registered

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Table 1. **Summary table on the sources of migration statistics**

	Foreign and foreign-born population						Foreign and foreign-born labour force			
	Inflows of foreigners	Outflows of foreigners	Asylum seekers	Stocks of foreign-born population	Stocks of foreign population	Naturalisation	Inflows of foreign workers	Seasonal workers	Stocks of foreign-born workers	Stocks of foreign workers
Australia	P		A	C		A	R	A	S	
Austria			A		F	A	R			R
Belgium	F	F	A		F	A	R			R
Canada	P		A	C		A	R	A	C	
Czech Republic			A		F					
Denmark	F	F	A	F	F	A	R			F
Finland	F	F	A	F	F	A				R
France	R		A		C	A	R	A		S
Germany	F	F	A		F	A	R	R		A
Greece	R		A							
Hungary	F		A		F	A	R			R
Ireland	A		A		S		R			S
Italy	R		A		R	A	R	R		R
Japan	F	F			F	A				R
Korea					F	A				
Luxembourg	F	F	A		F	A	R			R
Netherlands	F	F	A	F	F	A		A		A
New Zealand	R	R	A							
Norway	F	F	A	F	F	A		R		F
Poland			A							
Portugal			A		R					R
Spain			A		R	A	R			R
Sweden	F	F	A	F	F	A				S
Switzerland	F	F	A		F	A	R	R		R
United Kingdom	A		A		S	A	R	A		S
United States	P		A	C, S	C	A	R	R	C	

F Population register or register of foreigners.
R Residence or work permits (renewable).
P Acceptances for permanent settlement.
C Census.
S Labour Force Survey.
A Other administrative sources.

for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys do not usually cover those living in institutions, such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants).

2. Measurement of migration flows

The inflows and outflows included in this annex are all based either on population registers or on permit data. The types of flow measured differ quite markedly between these two sources and there are also differences to account for between different registers and the different types of permit used to generate the statistics.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners, however there are differences in the type of flows measured due to differences in the way migrants are defined in the registers. In this regard, a key condition used to define immigrants is intention to reside for more than a specified length of time. In addition, foreigners who register may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, however a period of (intended) absence is not typically specified.

Key features of migration data derived from population registers are as follows:

- Departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals, often because registration results in certain rights and benefits to the individual, whereas there is less incentive to inform authorities of departure. In order to provide more accurate figures, some countries use additional information such as host-country estimates to generate emigration data.

- The rules governing entry into the register and who is defined as a migrant vary across countries. Notably, the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants varies between three months and one year, implying that for some countries the data include short as well as longer term migration flows.

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– Asylum seekers are included in some register data but excluded from others. Inclusion typically occurs when the asylum seekers live in private households (as opposed to reception centres and hotels). In the data presented in this annex, some asylum seekers are included in the data for Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, and Norway.

Despite these qualifications, population registers are generally regarded as a good source of migration data and are used in preference to other sources, especially in the generation of annual estimates.

Flows derived from residence and work permits

Countries which do not have population registers use a variety of sources to generate flow data. Inflows for Australia, the United States, Canada, and France are based on residence and/or work permits. Data for the United Kingdom are based on information from landing cards. Note that permit data usually represent the number of permits issued in a given period and have the following general characteristics:

– The nature of the flows measured obviously depends on the type of permit(s) used to generate the statistic. Inflows for the so-called "settlement countries" (Australia, Canada and the United States) are calculated as the number of permanent residence permits (also known as "acceptances for settlement") issued. In the case of France, a sum of various types of permit issued (all of limited duration) is used.

– Flows of nationals are not recorded in the data and some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, depending on the type of permit used as a basis for the statistic and also on the nature of free-circulation agreements. In France, some inflows from other EU countries are included in the data as permanent work permits are still required for EU nationals (this is a formality rather than a means of restricting entry).

– Permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: *i*) permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; *ii*) permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit. The data for Australia do not include those who have been accepted for permanent settlement whilst resident in Australia, whereas data for Canada and the United States include all issues of permanent settlement permits.

– Permit data may be influenced by the processing capacity of government agencies. In some instances a large backlog of applications may build up and therefore the true demand for permits may only emerge once backlogs are cleared.

Estimation of net migration

From the preceding discussion on flow data it is evident that some countries have readily available means to calculate net migration (*e.g.* through population registers) whilst others face greater difficulties and estimates must be made on the basis of a variety of sources. This annex contains data for the net migration of foreigners. Note that for some countries, figures for total net migration (*i.e.* including the movement of both foreigners and nationals) are presented in the Country Notes. The OECD also publishes a series of total net migration figures in *Labour Force Statistics*. These are calculated as a residual from data on annual population change and natural increase.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Asylum seekers are usually allowed to remain in the country whilst their applications are processed. The time taken to process applications varies and it is therefore difficult to determine whether they should be counted as migrants or not. In practice, asylum seekers are not generally counted in migrant inflows unless they are subsequently granted asylum. However there are some countries where they are partially, or wholly included in the data. For example, asylum seekers often enter population registers because they have been resident for some time and live outside reception centres.

Statistics on asylum seekers and the numbers granted asylum are usually readily available from administrative sources, however there are some differences in the type of data made available. In a number of countries, asylum seekers are only counted when their application has been approved, in which case they appear in the statistics, not according to the date of arrival but according to the date of approval (note that approval of application simply means that the application will be considered by the authorities and allows the individual certain rights as an asylum seeker whilst their application is being processed). For some countries (*e.g.* Switzerland), the data include the dependants of the principal applicant; for certain others (*e.g.* France), they do not, since dependants are admitted under other provisions.

In addition to asylum seekers entering under the usual administrative channels, there are some cases where individuals are allowed entry under exceptional circumstances and who are given other forms of status. For example, in the early 1990s, a number of European countries (*e.g.* Austria, and the Nordic countries) granted temporary residence to those fleeing conflict in the former Yugoslavia. To date, evidence suggests that these individuals have largely been allowed to remain in these countries through renewal of permits and therefore effectively represent a group of *de facto* refugees.

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3. Stocks of migrants and characteristics of the immigrant population

Time series of stocks are used in conjunction with flow data to examine trends in migration. In addition, data which include socio-economic variables can be used to examine differences between immigrants and native populations. In both cases, there are differences in how "immigrants" are defined.

Definition of the immigrant population

In data, the immigrant population is usually defined in one of two ways. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data that represents foreign nationals (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (Australia, Canada and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and the history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation (see Box 2).

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 population of foreign nationals may represent second and higher generations as well as first-generations of migrants. 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. Higher generations of immigrants arise in situations where they retain their foreign citizenship even when native-born. The nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives foreigners have to naturalise both play a role in determining the extent to which this occurs in practice.

A more comprehensive view of the immigrant population is possible when both nationality and birthplace are known. This type of data is becoming increasingly available for some OECD countries and allows four sub-populations to be examined: the foreign-born who are foreign citizens; the foreign-born who are nationals; the native born who are foreign nationals and the native born who are nationals. The first three of these groups represent the "immigrant population", as defined either by nationality or by place of birth. Note that in some countries, such as the United States, those who are native-born but who are foreign nationals are a non-existent or negligible group as legislation is such that birth within the country usually entitles individuals to citizenship.

Time series of stocks of the immigrant population

Time series of stocks are generally derived either from population registers or from labour force survey or census data. In this annex, the figures for Australia, Canada France, Ireland, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States are based on survey, census or permit data, data for all other countries are from population registers (see Table 1).

Impact of naturalisation on the development of the immigrant population

Naturalisations must be taken into account in the analysis of the populations of foreigners and nationals. Also, differing approaches to naturalisation between countries must be considered when making international comparisons. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly readily acquire the nationality of the country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the native population. In Germany and Switzerland (see OECD, 1995), on the other hand, where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects, for example during the 1980s, a number of 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 as a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen or becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application for naturalisation and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures.

B. STATISTICAL SERIES

Introduction to the statistical Annex tables

The Tables are divided into two series. The A series tables provide aggregate data on stock and flow statistics as well as administrative data on asylum seekers and naturalisations. The B series tables present data disaggregated by country of origin (as defined either by country of birth or by nationality). As is evident from the preceding discussion on the sources and methods used to generate migration statistics, the presentation of the tables in a relatively standard format should not lead users to think that the data have been fully standardised and are comparable at an international level. In order to facilitate

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Box 2. Migration systems

Historically, migration systems developed alongside the evolution of nation-states and the concomitant desire to enumerate and sometimes influence the size and composition of the resident population. The need to implement immigration control is also linked to the increased numbers of individuals who are aware of attractive economic and social conditions elsewhere and able to afford the expense and risk associated with a long-term, or permanent move overseas. In some areas of the world, immigration control has also developed at an international as well as national level, creating zones of free movement, the most notable example being the European Union.

Whether operating at a national or an international level, most migration systems have the following features:

- The opportunity to enter the country and remain there for a limited length of time (often three months). Depending on the nationality of the entrant, a visa may or may not be required. Generally, the regulations are designed to encourage movements of individuals which provide economic benefits. Such movements include, *inter alia*, tourism and business travel. However, there are situations where entry may be strictly monitored. This type of movement is not regarded as migration as such and is commonly referred to as "short-term movement".
- A mechanism for spouses and close relatives of citizens or permanent residents to enter the country on a permanent basis. They may arrive as "accompanying family" at the same time as the migrant, or at a later date under what is often called "family reunion".
- A means for individuals who claim social and political persecution in their country of origin to apply for asylum. Such "asylum seekers" are usually treated on a case-by-case basis and may also have the right to remain in the country whilst their application is being processed.
- Mechanisms for individuals to enter largely for the purpose of employment and business. Policies governing this type of migration may reflect purely economic considerations such as perceived labour shortages or a desire to encourage international business links. However, policy may also be influenced by diplomatic considerations as well as policies and agreements in international trade.
- Means by which foreign citizens can acquire national citizenship ("naturalisation"). The ease with which this may be achieved and the incentives to do so vary across countries and may also depend on the implications of a change in legal status in the country of origin (see OECD, 1995, pp. 157-181).

Beyond these general features of immigration systems, it is common to distinguish between "temporary permit" systems and "permanent residence" systems (for a more detailed classification, see OECD ,1994). In temporary residence systems, characteristic of most OECD countries, initial entry to the country is typically made on the basis of a temporary residence permit and permanent status can only be granted after several years stay in the country. Only certain special groups (*e.g.* close relatives, refugees) are able to acquire permanent residence status on entry into the country. In permanent residence systems, typified by settlement countries (*e.g.* Australia, Canada and the United States), there are more channels available for individuals to enter with permanent resident status, beyond those catering for special groups. This reflects the historical, if not always current, use of migration policy as a means for populating the country. The additional channels available to immigrants take a variety of forms but are generally based on attracting individuals with certain characteristics, such as high levels of skill or experience in certain occupations.

There are differences between these systems in the type of migration statistics commonly used. "Permanent residence" type countries tend to focus on acceptances for permanent settlement as an indication of inflows and on the population of foreign-born as an indication of the stock of immigrants. "Temporary permit" type countries, coincidentally, tend to have population registers and use these to focus on inflows and stocks of foreign citizens (as distinct from the foreign-born). Two notable exceptions are France and the United Kingdom who do not have population registers and rely on other sources of data.

understanding of the data, detailed notes on the sources and definitions are presented at the end of the Statistical Annex.

A number of general comments apply to the tables:

a) The tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1989-1998). However data relating to the stock of foreigners by nationality (Tables B.1.6 and B.2.2) are only given for certain years (in general 1985, 1990, 1995 and the most recent available year).

b) Up to 1994 (inclusive), European Union (unless stated otherwise) refers to the following 12 countries: Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, members of the European Union at 31 December 1994. From 1995 onwards, European Union also

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includes the following three countries: Austria, Finland and Sweden.

c) The A series tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other tables, the nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available. In series B.1.3. (Net migration of foreigners by nationality), net migration has been calculated for the fifteen principal immigration countries; the countries are listed in the same order as that of series B.1.1. (Inflows of foreigners by nationality). Countries for which emigration data are not available do not feature in the table.

d) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the main 15 countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.

e) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.

f) The symbols used in the tables are the following:

– . . Data not available.

– – Nil, or negligible.

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TABLES OF THE STATISTICAL ANNEX

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Inflow data based on population registers:										
Belgium	43.5	50.5	54.1	55.1	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7
Denmark	15.1	15.1	17.5	16.9	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	. .
Finland	4.2	6.5	12.4	10.4	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3
Germany	770.8	842.4	920.5	1 207.6	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5
Hungary	33.7	37.2	23.0	15.1	16.4	12.8	13.2	12.8	13.4	12.8
Japan	237.4	223.8	258.4	267.0	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5
Luxembourg	8.4	9.3	10.0	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.7
Netherlands	65.4	81.3	84.3	83.0	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7
Norway	18.5	15.7	16.1	17.2	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7
Sweden	58.9	53.2	43.9	39.5	54.8	74.7	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7
Switzerland	80.4	101.4	109.8	112.1	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	72.8	74.9
Inflow data based on other sources:										
Australia	145.3	121.2	121.7	107.4	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3
Canada	192.0	214.2	230.8	252.8	255.8	223.9	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.1
France	53.2	102.4	109.9	116.6	99.2	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	138.1
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	38.2
Ireland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.5	20.8
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	111.0
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	36.2
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	203.9	190.3	193.6	206.3	216.4	236.9	. .
United States	1 090.9	1 536.5	1 827.2	974.0	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	660.5

Note: Data from population registers are not fully comparable because the criteria governing who gets registered differ from country to country. Counts for the Netherlands, Norway and especially Germany include substantial numbers of asylum seekers. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Belgium	27.5	27.0	35.3	28.1	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3
Denmark	4.8	4.6	5.2	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	. .
Finland	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7
Germany	438.3	466.0	497.5	614.7	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0
Japan	204.8	166.1	181.3	204.8	200.5	204.2	194.4	160.1	176.6	187.8
Luxembourg	5.5	5.5	5.9	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.8
Netherlands	21.5	20.6	21.3	22.7	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.9
Norway	10.6	9.8	8.4	8.1	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0
Sweden	13.1	16.2	15.0	13.2	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1
Switzerland	57.5	59.6	66.4	80.4	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.3. **Net migration of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Belgium	16.1	23.4	18.8	26.9	21.8	21.9	20.0	19.5	14.6	14.4
Denmark	10.3	10.5	12.3	12.1	10.5	10.5	27.7	18.8	13.7	. .
Finland	3.2	5.6	11.2	8.9	9.4	6.1	5.8	4.5	6.6	6.6
Germany	332.5	376.4	423.0	592.9	276.6	152.5	227.2	148.9	–21.8	–33.5
Japan	32.6	57.7	77.1	62.2	34.0	33.3	15.5	65.3	98.2	77.6
Luxembourg	2.8	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.2	3.9	4.7	3.7	3.6	3.9
Netherlands	43.9	60.7	63.0	60.3	65.4	45.7	45.3	54.8	54.8	60.4
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.3
Norway	8.0	5.9	7.7	9.1	11.8	8.3	7.5	7.2	12.0	14.7
Sweden	45.8	37.0	28.9	26.3	40.0	59.0	20.7	14.9	18.1	21.6
Switzerland	22.9	41.8	43.3	31.7	32.8	27.5	20.4	6.6	9.3	15.9

Note: Data are derived from Tables A.1.1. and A.1.2. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table A.1.4. **Inflows of asylum seekers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia	3.8	17.0	4.1	4.6	4.2	5.1	6.0	9.3	7.8	. .
Austria	22.8	27.3	16.2	4.7	5.1	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1
Belgium	13.0	15.4	17.6	26.5	14.7	11.7	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8
Canada	36.7	32.3	37.7	21.1	21.7	25.5	25.4	24.2	25.2	29.4
Czech Republic	1.8	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	8.6
Denmark	5.3	4.6	13.9	14.3	6.7	5.1	5.9	5.1	5.7	6.5
Finland	2.7	2.1	3.6	2.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1
France	54.8	47.4	28.9	27.6	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9
Germany	193.1	256.1	438.2	322.6	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1
Greece	4.1	2.7	2.0	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.6	4.4	2.6	1.5
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1	7.4	11.5
Ireland	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.4	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7
Italy	4.7	31.7	2.6	1.3	1.8	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4
Luxembourg	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.6	2.9
Netherlands	21.2	21.6	20.3	35.4	52.6	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2	39.3
New Zealand	. .	1.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.3	1.6	2.9	2.1
Norway	4.0	4.6	5.2	12.9	3.4	1.5	1.8	2.3	7.7	10.2
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0
Portugal	0.1	0.2	0.6	2.1	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Spain	8.6	8.1	11.7	12.6	12.0	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.8	8.4
Sweden	29.4	27.4	84.0	37.6	18.6	9.0	5.8	9.6	12.5	11.2
Switzerland	35.8	41.6	18.0	24.7	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.2	46.1
United Kingdom	38.2	73.4	32.3	28.0	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.0	91.2
United States	73.6	56.3	104.0	144.2	146.5	154.5	128.2	85.9	55.0	42.5

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Australia	. .	. .	3 753.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 908.3	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	22.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.1	. .	. .
Canada	. .	. .	4 342.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	4 971.1	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	16.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	17.4	. .	. .
Denmark	. .	. .	. .	207.4	215.0	222.1	244.5	259.2	276.8	287.7
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.4
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4
Netherlands	1 166.8	1 217.1	. .	. .	1 375.4	1 387.4	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9
% of total population	7.8	8.1	. .	. .	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6
Norway	183.3	. .	195.7	. .	216.2	233.4	240.3	246.9	257.7	273.3
% of total population	4.3	. .	4.6	. .	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1
Sweden	. .	. .	. .	834.5	869.1	922.1	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	9.6	9.9	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.0	10.8
United States	. .	19 767.3	. .	. .	. .	22 600	23 000	24 600	25 800	26 300
% of total population	. .	7.9	. .	. .	. .	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.7	9.8

Note: Data are from censuses for Australia, Canada and the United States and from population registers for the other countries. For more details on sources, see the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table A.1.6. **Stocks of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Austria	387.2	456.1	532.7	623.0	689.6	713.5	723.5	728.2	732.7	737.3
% of total population	5.1	5.9	6.8	7.9	8.6	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1
Belgium	880.8	904.5	922.5	909.3	920.6	922.3	909.8	911.9	903.2	892.0
% of total population	8.9	9.1	9.2	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	41.2	77.7	103.7	158.9	198.6	209.8	219.8
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.8	1.0	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1
Denmark	150.6	160.6	169.5	180.1	189.0	196.7	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3
% of total population	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.8
Finland	21.2	26.6	37.6	46.3	55.6	62.0	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1
% of total population	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6
France	. .	3 596.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	6.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Germany	4 845.9	5 342.5	5 882.3	6 495.8	6 878.1	6 990.5	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.6
% of total population	7.7	8.4	7.3	8.0	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	137.9	139.9	142.5	143.8	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	. .
Ireland	78.0	80.0	87.7	94.9	89.9	91.1	96.1	118.0	114.4	111.0
% of total population	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0
Italy	490.4	781.1	863.0	925.2	987.4	922.7	991.4	1 095.6	1 240.7	1 250.2
% of total population	0.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.1
Japan	984.5	1 075.3	1 218.9	1 281.6	1 320.7	1 354.0	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 512.1
% of total population	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2
Korea	47.2	49.5	51.0	55.8	66.7	84.9	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9
% of total population	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Luxembourg	106.9	113.1	117.8	122.7	127.6	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9
% of total population	27.9	29.4	30.2	31.0	31.8	32.6	33.4	34.1	34.9	35.6
Netherlands	641.9	692.4	732.9	757.4	779.8	757.1	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4
% of total population	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2
Norway	140.3	143.3	147.8	154.0	162.3	164.0	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1
% of total population	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7
Portugal	101.0	107.8	114.0	123.6	131.6	157.1	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8
% of total population	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8
Spain	249.6	278.8	360.7	393.1	430.4	461.4	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6
% of total population	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8
Sweden	456.0	483.7	493.8	499.1	507.5	537.4	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9
% of total population	5.3	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.8	6.1	5.2	6.0	6.0	5.6
Switzerland	1 040.3	1 100.3	1 163.2	1 213.5	1 260.3	1 300.1	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9
% of total population	15.6	16.3	17.1	17.6	18.1	18.6	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.0
United Kingdom	1 812	1 723	1 750	1 985	2 001	2 032	1 948	1 934	2 066	2 208
% of total population	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8
United States	. .	11 770.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	4.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Note: Data are from population registers or from register of foreigners except for France and the United States (Census), Portugal (residence permits), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey) and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated unless otherwise stated. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table A.1.7. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Countries where national/foreigner distinction is prevalent										
Austria	8.5	9.2	11.4	11.9	14.4	16.3	15.3	16.2	16.3	18.3
% of foreign population	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.5
Belgium	. .	. .	8.5	46.4	16.4	25.8	26.1	24.6	31.7	34.0
% of foreign population	. .	. .	0.9	5.0	1.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.5	3.8
Denmark	3.3	3.0	5.5	5.1	5.0	5.7	5.3	7.3	5.5	10.3
% of foreign population	2.3	2.0	3.4	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.7	3.3	2.3	4.1
Finland	1.5	0.9	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.4	4.0
% of foreign population	8.1	4.2	4.7	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	5.0
France	82.0	88.5	95.5	95.3	95.5	126.3	92.4	109.8	116.2	122.3
% of foreign population	. .	. .	2.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Germany	68.5	101.4	141.6	179.9	199.4	259.2	313.6	302.8	271.8	236.1
% of foreign population	1.5	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.1	3.8	4.5	4.2	3.7	3.2
Hungary	1.1	3.2	5.9	21.9	11.8	9.9	10.0	12.3	8.7	6.4
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.3	8.8	6.1	4.5
Italy	. .	. .	4.5	4.4	6.5	6.6	7.4	7.0	9.2	9.8
% of foreign population	. .	. .	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Japan	6.1	6.8	7.8	9.4	10.5	11.1	14.1	14.5	15.1	14.8
% of foreign population	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0
Korea	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.4	. .	. .
% of foreign population	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.3	. .	. .
Luxembourg	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6
% of foreign population	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4
Netherlands	28.7	12.8	29.1	36.2	43.1	49.5	71.4	82.7	59.8	59.2
% of foreign population	4.6	2.0	4.2	4.9	5.7	6.3	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7
Norway	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.1	5.5	8.8	11.8	12.2	12.0	9.2
% of foreign population	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	5.4	7.2	7.6	7.6	5.9
Spain	5.9	7.0	3.8	5.3	8.4	7.8	6.8	8.4	10.3	13.2
% of foreign population	1.6	2.8	1.3	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.2
Sweden	17.6	16.8	27.7	29.3	42.7	35.1	32.0	25.6	28.9	46.5
% of foreign population	4.2	3.7	5.7	5.9	8.5	6.9	6.0	4.8	5.5	8.9
Switzerland	10.3	8.7	8.8	11.2	12.9	13.8	16.8	19.4	19.2	21.3
% of foreign population	1.0	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6
United Kingdom	117.1	57.3	58.6	42.2	45.8	44.0	40.5	43.1	37.0	53.5
% of foreign population	6.4	3.2	3.4	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.4
Countries where native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent										
Australia	119.1	127.9	118.5	125.2	122.1	112.2	114.8	111.6	108.3	112.3
Canada	. .	87.5	104.3	118.6	116.2	150.6	217.3	227.7	155.6	134.4
United States	233.8	270.1	308.1	240.3	314.7	434.1	488.1	1 044.7	598.2	473.2

7. Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to age, residency, etc., criteria, as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") indicates the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

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Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Australia										
Permanent settlers	43.8	42.8	48.4	40.3	22.1	12.8	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0
Temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	14.6	14.9	14.2	14.3	15.4	12.5	. .
Austria	37.2	103.4	62.6	57.9	37.7	27.1	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4
Belgium	3.7	. .	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.1	2.8	2.2	2.5	7.3
Canada	289.2	229.5	233.8	230.4	185.6	172.9	. .	. .	. .	. .
Denmark	2.7	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2
France										
Permanents	15.6	22.4	25.6	42.3	24.4	18.3	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3
APT	3.1	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3
Germany	84.8	138.6	241.9	408.9	325.6	221.2	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5
Hungary	25.3	51.9	41.7	24.6	19.5	18.6	18.4	14.5	19.7	22.6
Ireland	1.2	1.4	3.8	3.6	4.3	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.6
Italy	. .	. .	125.5	123.7	85.0	99.8	111.3	129.2	166.3	. .
Luxembourg	14.7	16.9	16.9	15.9	15.5	16.2	16.5	18.3	18.6	. .
Spain	14.1	16.0	81.6	48.2	7.5	15.6	29.6	31.0	23.2	. .
Switzerland	37.1	46.7	46.3	39.7	31.5	28.6	27.1	24.5	25.4	26.8
United Kingdom										
Long term	13.3	16.1	12.9	12.7	12.5	13.4	15.5	16.9	18.7	. .
Short term	12.2	13.8	12.6	14.0	13.3	12.9	15.6	16.8	19.0	. .
Trainees	4.2	4.8	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.8	4.4	4.0	4.7	. .
Total	29.7	34.6	29.0	30.1	29.3	30.1	35.5	37.7	42.4	64.5
United States										
Permanent settlers	57.7	58.2	59.5	116.2	147.0	123.3	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5
Temporary workers	141.3	144.9	169.6	175.8	182.3	210.8	220.7	254.4	. .	. .

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.2.2. **Inflows of seasonal workers in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Australia	32.0	38.0	36.7	25.2	25.6	29.6	35.4	40.3	50.0	. .
Canada	. .	. .	. .	11.1	11.2	10.4	10.9	. .	. .	. .
France	61.9	58.2	54.2	13.6	11.3	10.3	9.4	8.8	8.2	7.5
Germany	–	–	–	212.4	181.0	155.2	192.8	220.9	226.0	201.6
Italy	. .	. .	. .	1.7	2.8	5.8	7.6	8.9	8.4	. .
Netherlands	. .	. .	. .	1.0	0.9	0.5	–	–	–	. .
Norway	. .	4.3	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.5	5.0	5.4	6.1	7.5
Switzerland	156.4	153.6	147.5	126.1	93.5	83.9	72.3	62.7	46.7	39.6
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	3.6	4.2	4.4	4.7	5.5	9.3	9.4
United States	. .	. .	. .	16.4	16.3	13.2	11.4	9.6	. .	. .

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Stocks of foreign labour force										
Austria	178.0	229.5	277.2	295.9	304.6	316.5	325.2	328.0	326.3	327.1
% of total labour force	5.9	7.4	8.7	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.0	9.9	9.9
Belgium	291.3	288.9	302.5	321.6	335.9	351.2	357.6	363.7	374.2	375.4
% of total labour force	7.2	7.1	7.4	7.8	8.1	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.8
Denmark	66.9	68.8	71.2	74.0	77.7	80.3	83.8	88.0	93.9	. .
% of total labour force	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	. .
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	24.4	26.9	29.7	33.0	34.7
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4
France	1 593.8	1 549.5	1 506.0	1 517.8	1 541.5	1 593.9	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7
% of total labour force	6.6	6.2	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.1
Germany	1 940.6	2 025.1	2 179.1	2 360.1	2 575.9	2 559.6	2 569.2	2 559.3	2 521.9	. .
% of total labour force	7.0	7.1	7.5	8.0	8.9	8.9	9.0	9.1	9.1	. .
Hungary	. .	31.7	33.4	15.7	17.6	20.1	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Ireland	33.0	34.0	39.3	40.4	37.3	34.5	42.1	52.4	51.7	47.5
% of total labour force	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.2
Italy	. .	. .	285.3	296.8	304.8	307.1	332.2	. .	. .	. .
% of total employment	. .	. .	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	. .	. .	. .
Japan	. .	. .	. .	85.5	95.4	105.6	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Luxembourg	76.2	84.7	92.6	98.2	101.0	106.3	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6
% of total employment	42.4	45.2	47.5	49.2	49.7	51.0	52.4	53.8	55.1	57.7
Netherlands	192	197	214	229	219	216	221	218	208	. .
% of total employment	3.2	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.9	. .
Norway	47.7	46.3	46.3	46.6	47.9	50.3	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9
% of total employment	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0
Portugal	48.7	51.8	54.9	59.2	63.1	77.6	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6
% of total labour force	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Spain	69.1	85.4	171.0	139.4	117.4	121.8	139.0	166.5	178.7	190.6
% of total labour force	0.5	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2
Sweden	237	246	241	233	221	213	220	218	220	219
% of total labour force	5.2	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1
Switzerland	631.8	669.8	702.5	716.7	725.8	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1
% of total labour force	17.0	18.9	17.8	18.3	18.5	18.9	18.6	17.9	17.5	17.3
United Kingdom	914	882	828	902	862	864	862	865	949	1 039
% of total employment	3.5	3.3	3.0	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9
Stocks of foreign-born labour force										
Australia	. .	. .	2 182.3	. .	2 194.9	2 164.1	2 138.8	2 238.8	2 251.6	2 293.9
% of total labour force	. .	. .	25.7	. .	25.3	24.8	23.9	24.6	24.8	24.8
Canada	. .	. .	2 681.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 839.1	. .	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	18.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.2	. .	. .
United States	. .	11 564.6	. .	. .	. .	12 900	12 900	14 400	15 400	16 100
% of total labour force	. .	9.4	. .	. .	. .	9.8	9.7	10.7	11.3	11.7

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **AUSTRALIA, inflows of permanent settlers and temporary residents by country or region of birth**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
A. Permanent settlers[1]										
New Zealand	11.2	7.5	7.2	6.7	7.8	10.5	12.3	13.1	14.7	18.7
United Kingdom	23.5	20.7	14.5	9.5	9.0	10.7	11.3	9.7	9.2	8.8
Former Yugoslavia	2.0	1.9	2.5	4.2	4.9	6.7	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
China	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.0	2.7	3.7	11.2	7.8	4.3	6.1
South Africa	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.0	1.7	2.8	3.2	3.2	4.3	5.0
Philippines	6.1	6.4	5.9	3.7	4.2	4.1	3.2	2.8	2.8	3.3
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9
India	3.0	5.1	5.6	3.6	2.6	3.9	3.7	2.7	2.8	2.6
Vietnam	11.2	13.2	9.6	5.7	5.4	5.1	3.6	3.0	2.3	2.1
Hong Kong (China)	8.1	13.5	12.9	6.5	3.3	4.1	4.4	3.9	3.2	1.9
Fiji	2.6	2.4	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.1	1.6
Chinese Taipei	3.1	3.5	3.2	1.4	0.8	0.8	1.6	2.2	1.5	1.6
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.4	2.1	2.1	1.4
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1
United States	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.0
Other countries	43.2	40.2	37.5	28.1	24.7	31.8	37.2	31.6	26.7	26.0
Total	**121.2**	**121.7**	**107.4**	**76.3**	**69.8**	**87.4**	**99.1**	**85.8**	**77.3**	**84.1**
B. Temporary residents										
United Kingdom and Ireland	53.6	47.0	34.9	26.5	35.7	42.1	42.8	49.1	60.7	70.0
Northern Europe	15.6	15.5	14.4	12.7	15.9	16.9	17.7	18.9	22.1	24.1
Southern Europe	3.4	3.9	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.2	3.1
Asia (excluding Middle East)	39.5	38.0	34.9	26.1	30.6	30.4	33.1	41.6	46.8	52.1
Middle East	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.5
United States and Canada	32.8	29.5	26.1	20.8	24.1	26.1	27.9	25.3	29.7	31.2
South and other America	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0	0.8	1.4	1.3	2.1
Africa	0.6	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.9	2.2	1.8	4.1	5.8	7.1
Oceania	0.9	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.3
Other and not stated	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.8
Total	**149.0**	**139.0**	**117.8**	**93.2**	**115.2**	**124.4**	**130.2**	**147.1**[3]	**173.2**[3]	**194.1**[3]

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (July to June of the given year). For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any.
2. From 1996 on, data are available for Bosnia Herzegovina, Croatia, FYROM, Slovenia and Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.
3. Including 17 049, 51 998 and 79 232 holders of a Temporary Business Entry (TBE) visa (Long stay) in 1996/1997, 1997/98 and 1998/99 respectively. This new visa was introduced on 1 November 1995.

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Table B.1.1. **BELGIUM, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
France	. .	. .	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.4
Netherlands	. .	. .	6.2	6.6	6.7	4.3	6.5	7.8	6.3	6.2
Morocco	2.3	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.4	4.8	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.3
Germany	. .	. .	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.2
United States	. .	. .	2.9	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8
United Kingdom	. .	. .	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7
Italy	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.8	1.9	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.5
Turkey	1.8	2.4	2.9	2.7	2.5	3.6	2.5	2.5	1.4	2.4
Portugal	1.7	1.7	1.9	3.2	2.1	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.4
Spain	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1
Poland	. .	. .	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1
Japan	. .	. .	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9
Zaire	. .	1.8	1.9	2.7	2.3	2.2	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7
China	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7
Greece	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5
Other countries	33.5	37.7	17.3	15.3	14.6	17.9	16.1	12.7	12.4	12.6
Total	**43.5**	**50.5**	**54.1**	**55.1**	**53.0**	**56.0**	**53.1**	**51.9**	**49.2**	**50.7**
of which: EU	22.5	24.6	24.8	27.1	26.4	27.0	26.6	28.7	27.6	27.4

Note: Data are from population registers. Asylum seekers awaiting a decision are excluded from 1995 on. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **CANADA, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of origin**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Asia and the Pacific	76.5	89.6	97.6	120.9	130.8	128.2	112.9	124.8	117.1	84.0
China	4.4	8.0	13.9	10.4	9.5	12.5	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.7
India	8.8	10.6	12.8	12.7	20.5	17.2	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.3
Philippines	11.4	12.0	12.3	13.3	19.8	19.1	15.2	13.2	10.9	8.2
Hong Kong (China)	19.9	29.3	22.3	38.9	36.6	44.2	31.8	30.0	22.2	8.1
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.7	4.0	7.8	11.2	8.1
Chinese Taipei	3.4	3.7	4.5	7.5	9.9	7.4	7.7	13.2	13.3	7.2
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.7	3.7	5.8	7.5	6.8
Sri Lanka	2.4	3.1	6.8	12.6	9.1	6.7	8.9	6.2	5.1	3.3
Vietnam	9.4	9.1	9.0	7.7	8.3	6.2	4.0	2.5	1.8	1.6
Other Asian countries	16.7	13.8	15.9	17.9	17.2	8.5	8.1	7.4	6.9	5.7
Europe	52.1	51.9	48.1	44.9	46.6	38.6	41.3	40.0	38.7	38.5
United Kingdom	8.4	8.2	7.5	7.1	7.2	6.0	6.2	5.6	4.7	3.9
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	4.9	6.3	5.1	3.8	3.7
Poland	16.0	16.6	15.7	11.9	6.9	3.4	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.4
Other European countries	27.7	27.1	24.8	25.9	29.7	24.3	26.6	27.2	28.5	29.5
Africa and the Middle East	31.0	38.3	41.6	41.6	36.5	29.4	32.9	36.5	37.8	32.5
Lebanon	6.2	12.5	12.0	6.5	4.7	2.6	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.2
Other African countries	24.9	25.8	29.7	35.1	31.9	26.8	31.0	34.7	36.5	31.3
America	32.4	34.5	43.5	45.4	41.9	27.6	25.7	24.7	22.5	18.8
United States	6.9	6.1	6.6	7.5	8.0	6.2	5.2	5.9	5.0	4.8
El Salvador	2.8	4.3	7.0	5.6	2.9	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5
Other American countries	22.6	24.1	29.9	32.3	31.0	20.3	19.7	18.2	16.8	13.5
Total	**192.0**	**214.2**	**230.8**	**252.8**	**255.8**	**223.9**	**212.9**	**226.1**	**216.0**	**173.8**

Note: Counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any. Figures include backlog clearance. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **DENMARK, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	1.5	2.5	1.8
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.2	16.1[1]	. .	1.4
Iraq	0.4	0.5	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1
Norway	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1
Sweden	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
Turkey	1.1	1.8	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.0
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9
Iceland	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.2	0.9
United States	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
France	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4
Thailand	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Iran	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4
Poland	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Other countries	8.4	9.5	9.5	8.7	6.1	5.8	11.9	7.4
Total	**15.1**	**17.5**	**16.9**	**15.4**	**15.6**	**33.0**	**24.7**	**20.4**
of which: EU[2]	2.3	2.6	2.7	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.9	4.9

Note: Entries of foreigners staying in Denmark for more than one year. Asylum seekers and refugees with a provisional residence status are not included. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including 16 077 ex-Yugoslavs who have been recognised as refugees after 3 years of legal residence in Denmark as war refugees (temporay status).
2. Including Finland and Sweden from 1995 on.

Table B.1.1. **FINLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former USSR	2.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5
Sweden	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Estonia	2.1	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7
Somalia	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4
Iraq	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Iran	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2
Vietnam	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Thailand	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Turkey	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	1.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Ukraine	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.8	2.1
Total	**10.4**	**10.9**	**7.6**	**7.3**	**7.5**	**8.1**	**8.3**

Note: Entries of foreigners intending to stay in Finland for longer than one year. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **FRANCE, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Algeria	6.3	13.8	12.9	12.3	13.1	9.7	8.4	7.8	12.2	16.7
Morocco	13.6	18.0	18.2	16.4	13.8	8.1	6.6	6.6	10.3	16.1
Turkey	5.3	7.0	9.2	9.2	6.8	4.7	3.6	3.4	5.1	6.8
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	0.9	0.7	2.8	5.7
Tunisia	3.2	4.0	4.3	4.0	3.5	2.3	1.9	2.2	3.6	5.3
Zaire	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.2	1.3	0.9	0.9	2.9	4.6
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	1.2	1.1	1.2	4.0	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.5	2.4
Haiti	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.2	1.9	1.4	0.8	1.9	1.9
Poland	1.4	2.9	2.5	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.4
Japan	. .	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Romania	. .	0.7	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.7	0.9
Cambodia	. .	1.3	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8
Vietnam	. .	3.5	3.1	1.3	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
Lebanon	. .	6.4	4.4	1.8	. .	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7
Other countries	22.8	42.3	50.3	66.1	47.0	33.9	27.1	27.1	35.1	50.7
Total[1]	**53.2**	**102.4**	**109.9**	**116.6**	**99.2**	**69.3**	**56.7**	**55.6**	**80.9**	**116.9**
of which: EU	. .	11.3	11.7	25.9	14.4	10.8	7.9	7.1	6.4	6.1
Total[2]	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**. .**	**91.5**	**77.0**	**75.5**	**102.4**	**138.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Up to 1989, inflows include permanent workers, holders of provisional work permits and persons admitted under family reunification. From 1990 on, spouses of French nationals, parents of French children, refugees, the self-employed and others eligible for a residence permit are also included. Provisional work permits, on the other hand, are not included. In 1998, data include 45 800 persons who benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme.
2. Figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of European Economic Area citizens for example).

Table B.1.1. **GERMANY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Poland	260.3	200.9	128.4	131.7	75.2	78.6	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.3
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	61.5	65.2	221.0	341.3	141.6	63.2	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9
Turkey	85.7	83.6	81.9	80.6	67.8	63.9	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.2
Italy	40.2	36.9	35.4	30.1	31.7	38.7	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6
Russian Federation[1]	. .	. .	. .	24.6	29.4	33.4	33.0	31.9	24.8	28.4
Hungary	. .	15.9	24.9	27.9	24.2	19.3	18.8	16.6	11.2	19.3
Portugal	5.3	7.0	10.7	10.1	12.9	26.5	30.5	32.0	26.4	18.8
Former USSR	32.6	37.0	39.0	15.2	13.3	7.8	2.3	2.3	4.4	17.6
United States	. .	. .	. .	21.3	17.6	15.8	16.0	16.3	15.1	17.0
Romania	14.2	78.2	61.4	109.8	81.6	31.4	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0
Greece	29.5	26.5	28.3	23.6	18.3	18.9	20.3	18.8	16.4	16.1
Croatia[2]	. .	. .	. .	38.6	26.0	16.7	14.9	12.3	10.0	10.1
Bosnia Herzegovina[3]	. .	. .	. .	. .	107.0	68.3	55.2	11.1	6.9	8.5
Spain	4.4	4.4	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.0	7.2	7.8	7.8	7.5
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	31.4	27.2	10.4	8.0	6.3	6.3	5.3
Other countries	237.1	286.8	284.4	315.8	307.1	275.0	294.5	296.0	274.2	230.0
Total	**770.8**	**842.4**	**920.5**	**1 207.6**	**986.9**	**774.0**	**788.3**	**708.0**	**615.3**	**605.5**
of which: EU[4]	142.0	139.6	147.4	140.8	136.7	155.8	177.2	172.5	151.5	136.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in Former USSR until 1991.
2. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1991.
3. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1992.
4. European Union 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.1. **GREECE, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Russian Federation	4.8	3.1
Bulgaria	2.9	2.2
Albania	2.7	1.9
Egypt	2.2	0.3
Romania	2.1	1.6
Ukraine	1.7	1.2
Former Yugoslavia	1.4	0.9
United States	1.4	0.8
Poland	1.3	1.1
Germany	1.3	0.8
United Kingdom	1.2	0.7
Philippines	1.0	0.8
Turkey	0.8	0.3
Syria	0.7	0.2
Lebanon	0.7	0.2
Other countries	12.0	6.9
Total	**38.2**	**23.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **HUNGARY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998[1]
Romania	26.6	29.6	10.9	6.5	6.1	4.3	4.7	4.0	4.3	4.6
Ukraine	0.6	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.9	1.9
Former Yugoslavia[2]	0.4	0.4	3.6	3.2	5.0	2.3	1.4	0.9	1.1	1.4
China	0.1	0.7	2.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.2	1.7	1.5	0.9
Germany	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Croatia	0.1	–	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Vietnam	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
Israel	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Poland	1.3	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Austria	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Greece	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Norway	–	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	. .
Other countries	2.2	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.0	1.7
Total	**33.7**	**37.2**	**23.0**	**15.1**	**16.4**	**12.8**	**13.2**	**12.8**	**13.4**	**12.8**
of which: EU[3]	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.6	10.5

Note: Data are from the Register of long-term residence permits. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Data are estimates.
2. Excluding Croatia.
3. European Union 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.1. **IRELAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
United Kingdom	6.3	5.8	8.3	8.2	8.3	7.9
United States	2.0	1.5	4	4.2	2.2	2.5
Other countries	5.0	6.3	9.2	11.1	10.3	11.2
Total	**13.3**	**13.6**	**21.5**	**23.5**	**20.8**	**21.6**
of which: EU	9.6	9.0	13.3	13.7	14.1	14.7

Note: CSO estimates on the basis of 1996 Census results. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **ITALY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998
Albania	11.2
Morocco	7.3
Romania	5.9
Former Yugoslavia	5.7
United States	4.7
Poland	3.9
China	3.4
Germany	3.3
Russian Federation	3.2
Iraq	3.0
Sri Lanka	2.7
Philippines	2.6
India	2.6
France	2.5
Brazil	2.4
Other countries	46.6
Total	**111.0**

Table B.1.1. **JAPAN, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
China	53.1	29.9	35.6	52.4	45.2	38.9	38.8	45.6	53.3	55.7
Philippines	48.0	48.8	63.8	57.5	48.2	58.8	30.3	30.3	43.2	47.6
United States	28.6	30.8	29.8	29.3	27.4	27.6	27.0	27.9	27.7	27.7
Brazil	5.3	11.6	17.3	19.2	14.6	11.8	11.9	16.4	39.6	21.9
Korea	21.0	23.1	26.6	26.0	21.3	21.3	18.8	17.1	17.9	17.1
Thailand	6.1	7.0	8.3	7.7	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.6	6.4	7.5
United Kingdom	6.9	7.5	6.1	6.7	5.9	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.9	6.8
Chinese Taipei	6.5	7.3	7.6	6.0	5.2	4.7	4.7	4.4	5.1	4.9
Canada	3.1	3.8	4.2	4.2	3.8	4.1	4.1	4.6	4.8	4.6
Germany	3.7	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.7	4.2	4.3	4.4
Peru	4.3	2.8	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.7	2.4	3.1	3.1
Other countries	50.8	46.9	53.9	52.9	51.3	51.9	55.9	59.6	62.6	64.1
Total	**237.4**	**223.8**	**258.4**	**267.0**	**234.5**	**237.5**	**209.9**	**225.4**	**274.8**	**265.5**

Note: New entry except temporary visitors. Re-entry are excluded. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **LUXEMBOURG, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Portugal	2.9	3.4	3.5	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0
France	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0
Belgium	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2
Germany	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Italy	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
United States	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Netherlands	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.0	2.3	2.9	3.9	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.8	3.4
Total	**8.4**	**9.3**	**10.0**	**9.8**	**9.2**	**9.2**	**9.6**	**9.2**	**9.5**	**10.7**
of which: EU[1]	6.9	7.6	7.8	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	. .	. .	. .

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. **NETHERLANDS, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Morocco	8.4	9.4	8.9	7.2	5.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.5	5.3
Turkey	11.0	12.6	12.4	9.1	7.8	4.3	4.8	6.4	6.5	5.1
Germany	4.6	5.6	6.8	7.1	7.4	6.1	4.7	5.7	5.7	4.7
United Kingdom	4.2	5.4	6.0	6.5	5.0	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.7
United States	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.2	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.3
Suriname	4.4	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.8	2.9	1.7	2.8	2.6	3.2
France	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.4	. .	1.7	2.1	2.1
Belgium	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.9
Poland	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	0.8	. .	1.4	1.4	1.5
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	4.9	8.9	8.4	7.3	3.4	1.6	1.4
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1	1.0	. .	1.3	1.6	1.4
Italy	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	. .	1.2	1.2	1.4
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.1	. .	1.3	1.2	1.2
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.3	1.2
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	0.3
Other countries	24.6	32.3	34.4	32.0	34.2	30.8	38.2	37.4	35.8	43.0
Total	**65.4**	**81.3**	**84.3**	**83.0**	**87.6**	**68.4**	**67.0**	**77.2**	**76.7**	**81.7**
of which: EU[1]	15.7	18.6	20.8	22.3	19.7	16.0	14.8	19.2	20.3	19.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. **NEW ZEALAND, inflows of permanent and long-term migrants by country of birth**

Thousands

	1998
United Kingdom	5.5
Japan	3.8
Australia	3.4
China	3.1
South Africa	2.1
India	1.9
Chinese Taipei	1.5
United States	1.3
Fiji	1.2
Other countries	12.3
Total	**36.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **NORWAY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sweden	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.9	4.9	6.0
Denmark	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.1
United Kingdom	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1
Somalia	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.1
Iran	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7
Pakistan	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.2	3.2	1.7	1.0	0.6	0.5
Turkey	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Sri Lanka	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4
Philippines	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.0	0.8	1.0	2.5	1.7	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3
Poland	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Morocco	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Other countries	7.8	7.1	7.4	7.2	6.7	6.5	6.9	7.3	9.3	10.9
Total	**18.5**	**15.7**	**16.1**	**17.2**	**22.3**	**17.9**	**16.5**	**17.2**	**22.0**	**26.7**
of which: EU[2]	4.1	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.0	3.9	6.6	7.7	10.8	. .

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yugoslavia before 1993.
2. Excluding Austria, Finland and Sweden.

Table B.1.1. **SWEDEN, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Iraq	1.4	2.0	2.5	3.8	4.6	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4
Finland	4.5	4.1	3.0	2.7	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0
Former Yugoslavia	1.7	2.2	2.0	1.8	3.3	15.8	2.5	0.8	3.9	1.9
Norway	8.7	7.3	2.6	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6
Iran	7.0	4.5	3.8	3.6	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.5
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	20.7	25.7	4.6	1.2	1.8	1.3
Denmark	4.5	3.1	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1
United Kingdom	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0
United States	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.8
Poland	1.7	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6
Turkey	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.5
Chile	5.9	1.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
India	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3
Romania	1.3	1.5	1.0	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Other countries	18.8	21.2	21.7	18.7	15.0	14.8	14.0	13.8	12.0	15.1
Total	**58.9**	**53.2**	**43.9**	**39.5**	**54.8**	**74.8**	**36.1**	**29.3**	**33.4**	**35.7**
of which: EU[2]	11.6	10.2	7.2	6.2	5.8	7.0	7.9	7.9	7.1	8.4

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yougoslavia before 1993.
2. EU 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.1. **SWITZERLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1995	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	15.9	21.9	27.0	33.6	34.2	25.3	22.3	14.1	12.8	11.5
Germany	8.4	9.8	9.9	9.6	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.3
France	4.9	5.4	4.9	5.1	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.4
Italy	7.9	8.8	8.3	8.3	7.3	6.9	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.3
Portugal	9.5	13.8	14.1	13.3	10.0	8.6	7.6	5.5	4.0	5.1
United States	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8
United Kingdom	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.7
Turkey	4.0	6.0	6.7	5.3	4.8	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.4	2.6
Spain	4.8	5.6	4.6	3.9	3.1	2.3	2.7	2.0	1.8	1.7
Austria	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Netherlands	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.0
Canada	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9
Other countries	16.2	20.4	24.2	23.4	22.8	22.3	22.0	21.6	24.1	25.4
Total	**80.4**	**101.4**	**109.8**	**112.1**	**104.0**	**91.7**	**87.9**	**74.3**	**72.8**	**74.9**
of which: EU	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	37.8	39.3	35.7	34.4	35.1

Note: Data are from the register of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
United States	43.9	37.3	38.2	39.4	43.2	42.5
Australia	25.0	21.5	27.2	26.6	25.1	26.5
India	9.2	8.9	9.9	11.6	13.0	16.1
South Africa	2.3	2.6	5.6	11.1	12.9	13.0
New Zealand	10.6	9.3	12.1	12.0	11.0	12.1
Japan	10.4	9.4	10.4	10.1	10.8	10.4
Pakistan	8.3	7.5	6.6	7.2	7.8	9.6
Canada	6.4	5.8	6.7	6.7	7.4	8.3
Philippines	2.6	3.3	5.2	6.5	6.8	7.5
Poland	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6	5.4
Korea	. .	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.2
Bangladesh	3.2	3.2	3.2	2.8	3.3	4.0
Russian Federation	. .	. .	3.5	4.2	3.6	4.0
Malaysia	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.6
China	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.2	2.5
Other countries	73.6	71.2	53.4	55.6	58.3	67.3
Total	**203.9**	**190.3**	**193.6**	**206.3**	**216.4**	**236.9**

Note: Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data exclude visitors, passengers in transit or returning on limited leave or who previously settled. Students and au pair girls are excluded. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.1. **UNITED STATES, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of birth**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
North and Central America	607.4	957.6	1 211.0	384.0	301.4	272.2	231.5	340.5	307.5	253.0
Mexico	405.2	679.1	946.2	213.8	126.6	111.4	89.9	163.6	146.9	131.6
Dominican Republic	26.7	42.2	41.4	42.0	45.4	51.2	38.5	39.6	27.1	20.4
Cuba	10.0	10.6	10.3	11.8	13.7	14.7	17.9	26.5	33.6	17.4
Jamaica	24.5	25.0	23.8	18.9	17.2	14.3	16.4	19.1	17.8	15.1
El Salvador	57.9	80.2	47.4	26.2	26.8	17.6	11.7	17.9	18.0	14.6
Haiti	13.7	20.3	47.5	11.0	10.1	13.3	14.0	18.4	15.1	13.4
Canada	12.2	16.8	13.5	15.2	17.2	16.1	12.9	15.8	11.6	10.2
Other North or Central American countries	57.2	83.3	80.9	45.2	44.4	33.5	30.1	39.7	37.5	40.4
Asia	312.1	338.6	358.5	357.0	358.0	292.6	267.9	307.8	265.8	219.7
China	32.3	31.8	33.0	38.9	65.6	54.0	35.5	41.7	41.1	36.9
India	31.2	30.7	45.1	36.8	40.1	34.9	34.7	44.9	38.1	36.5
Philippines	57.0	63.8	63.6	61.0	63.5	53.5	51.0	55.9	49.1	34.5
Vietnam	37.7	48.8	55.3	77.7	59.6	41.3	41.8	42.1	38.5	17.6
Korea	34.2	32.3	26.5	19.4	18.0	16.0	16.0	18.2	14.2	14.3
Pakistan	8.0	9.7	20.4	10.2	8.9	8.7	9.8	12.5	13.0	13.1
Other Asian countries	111.7	121.5	114.7	113.0	102.3	84.1	79.2	92.6	71.8	66.9
Europe	82.9	112.4	135.2	145.4	158.3	160.9	128.2	147.6	119.9	90.8
Former USSR[1]	11.1	25.5	57.0	20.4	28.2	27.2	22.5	22.0	16.7	. .
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	8.9	12.1	15.2	14.6	19.7	16.6	11.5
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	14.4	18.3	21.0	17.4	21.1	15.7	. .
Other European countries	71.8	86.9	78.3	101.8	99.7	97.5	73.7	84.8	70.8	79.3
South America	58.9	85.8	79.9	55.3	53.9	47.4	45.7	61.8	52.9	45.4
Colombia	15.2	24.2	19.7	13.2	12.8	10.8	10.8	14.3	13.0	11.8
Peru	10.2	15.7	16.2	9.9	10.4	9.2	8.1	12.9	10.9	10.2
Other South American countries	33.5	45.9	44.0	32.2	30.7	27.4	26.8	34.6	29.0	23.4
Africa	25.2	35.9	36.2	27.1	27.8	26.7	42.5	52.9	47.8	40.7
Oceania	4.4	6.2	6.2	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.7	5.3	4.3	3.9
Total	**1 090.9**	**1 536.5**	**1 827.2**	**974.0**	**904.3**	**804.4**	**720.5**	**915.9**	**798.4**	**660.5**

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the given year). Since 1989, approximately 2.9 millions of immigrants obtained a permanent residence permit following legalization under the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Russian Federation and Ukraine from 1992 on.

Table B.1.2. **BELGIUM, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
France	. .	. .	4.4	3.3	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.3
Netherlands	. .	. .	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.4	4.2
United States	. .	. .	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.2
United Kingdom	. .	. .	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.9
Italy	2.5	2.5	3.6	2.0	2.0	0.7	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.7
Germany	. .	. .	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.6
Spain	1.2	1.2	2.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.6
Portugal	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.3
Japan	. .	. .	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Greece	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.4	2.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
Morocco	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8
Turkey	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6
Poland	. .	. .	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5
China	. .	. .	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5
Zaire	. .	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.4	0.4
Other countries	21.4	20.1	8.3	7.2	9.2	9.6	8.0	8.1	8.3	8.1
Total	**27.5**	**27.0**	**35.3**	**28.1**	**31.3**	**34.1**	**33.1**	**32.4**	**34.6**	**36.3**
of which: EU	15.6	15.5	20.7	15.7	16.6	19.1	20.0	19.7	15.4	23.3

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.2. **DENMARK, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Iceland	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7
Norway	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Sweden	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
United States	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	. .	0.3
France	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Somalia	. .	. .	–	–	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2
Turkey	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Finland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Italy	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Iran	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.8	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.5	1.6	2.0	1.9
Total	**4.6**	**5.2**	**4.8**	**4.9**	**5.0**	**5.3**	**6.0**	**6.7**
of which: EU[1]	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.2	1.8	2.5

Note: Departures of foreigners for more than one year. Departures of asylum seekers and refugees with a provisional residence status are not included. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Finland and Sweden from 1995 on.

Table B.1.2. **FINLAND, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sweden	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Estonia	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2
Former USSR	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Somalia	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
China	–	–	–	–	0.1	–	–
Turkey	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	–	–	–
Thailand	–	. .	–	–	–	–	–
Former Yugoslavia	. .	–	–	. .	–	–	–
Other countries	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.1	0.5	0.7
Total	**1.5**	**1.5**	**1.5**	**1.5**	**3.0**	**1.6**	**1.7**

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.2. **GERMANY, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.3	16.5	15.7	27.2	83.9	106.8
Poland	142.5	157.7	115.3	109.5	101.8	65.8	70.7	71.7	70.2	60.8
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	36.0	38.3	53.0	99.4	73.5	62.1	40.4	34.3	44.5	58.5
Turkey	37.7	35.1	36.1	40.3	45.5	46.4	43.2	43.5	46.0	47.2
Italy	38.5	34.1	36.4	32.7	31.0	32.1	33.5	36.8	37.9	37.9
Portugal	2.8	2.9	4.1	4.9	6.3	14.3	20.5	25.4	26.5	22.1
Greece	14.6	14.3	15.4	16.2	17.5	19.2	19.3	20.1	21.8	20.3
Croatia[2]	. .	. .	. .	28.5	25.0	28.5	22.0	17.3	18.9	16.7
United States	. .	. .	. .	16.2	16.9	17.2	16.0	16.0	5.6	15.7
Romania	3.5	15.8	30.2	51.9	101.9	44.0	25.2	16.6	13.6	13.5
Hungary	. .	8.7	14.9	21.2	25.1	22.0	18.8	17.0	15.1	12.2
Russian Federation[3]	. .	. .	. .	6.2	7.8	12.3	13.5	12.6	11.2	11.0
Spain	6.4	6.1	6.2	6.5	7.2	7.6	7.2	8.2	9.2	8.4
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	10.8	34.9	17.8	10.3	7.0	6.3	4.9
Morocco	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.8
Other countries	155.0	151.5	183.9	168.1	202.8	212.4	202.1	203.1	223.9	200.3
Total	**438.3**	**466.0**	**497.5**	**614.7**	**710.2**	**621.5**	**561.1**	**559.1**	**637.1**	**639.0**
of which: EU[4]	104.9	100.9	114.6	111.8	116.4	133.4	139.6	153.9	159.3	146.7

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1992.
2. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1991.
3. Included in Former USSR until 1991.
4. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. **JAPAN, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Philippines	40.3	50.7	57.2	43.2	50.7	44.2	16.3	31.4	34.9
United States	26.5	25.0	26.0	25.7	25.6	24.9	24.8	24.3	24.8
China	14.5	12.7	17.0	23.0	20.9	21.7	21.8	23.6	24.2
Brazil	3.7	6.9	13.8	20.7	19.7	16.8	14.0	14.1	20.0
Korea	16.1	18.2	18.9	16.6	16.5	14.5	12.4	12.4	10.4
United Kingdom	6.7	4.9	5.8	5.1	5.9	5.5	5.0	5.4	5.5
Thailand	5.9	6.7	6.8	6.1	5.4	5.5	5.3	4.7	5.2
Germany	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.9	3.9	4.2
Canada	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6
Chinese Taipei	6.1	5.9	5.2	4.4	4.2	4.0	3.2	3.5	3.3
Peru	0.8	0.8	2.1	1.8	1.4	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7
Other countries	38.7	42.6	44.6	46.6	46.9	49.5	49.3	49.2	51.1
Total	**166.1**	**181.3**	**204.8**	**200.5**	**204.2**	**194.4**	**160.1**	**176.6**	**187.8**

5. Data are from the register of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources,refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.2. **LUXEMBOURG, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Portugal	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5
France	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1
Belgium	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
Germany	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Italy	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
United States	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.9
Total	**5.5**	**5.5**	**5.9**	**5.6**	**5.0**	**5.3**	**4.9**	**5.6**	**5.8**	**6.8**

Note: Data are from the Central Population Register. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. **NETHERLANDS, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Germany	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.5	3.1	3.0
United Kingdom	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.6
United States	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.2	1.8
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9	0.9	. .	1.1	1.1	1.0
Belgium	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0
Turkey	3.0	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.1	0.9
France	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	. .	0.8	0.8	0.8
Morocco	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	. .	0.5	0.5	0.6
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2	0.2	. .	0.3	0.4	0.4
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.3	. .	0.4	0.4	0.4
Suriname	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	. .	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	7.7	7.9	8.4	9.1	6.5	7.4	10.4	7.2	7.6	7.7
Total	**21.5**	**20.6**	**21.3**	**22.7**	**22.2**	**22.7**	**21.7**	**22.4**	**21.9**	**21.3**
of which: EU[1]	9.7	8.9	9.6	10.0	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.7	10.0	10.3

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. **NEW ZEALAND, outflows of permanent and long-term migrants by country of birth**

Thousands

	1998
United Kingdom	3.5
Australia	3.2
Japan	1.4
United States	1.0
Korea	0.8
Malaysia	0.5
Canada	0.4
India	0.4
Samoa	0.4
Other countries	4.3
Total	**15.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.2. **NORWAY, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sweden	1.7	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.7	2.7
Denmark	2.6	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.4
United Kingdom	1.5	1.5	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.8
Germany	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .		0.2	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.4
Pakistan	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.2
Sri Lanka	–	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Philippines	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Chile	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Iran	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
United States	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	. .
Other countries	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.8	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.5	3.6	5.4
Total	**10.6**	**9.8**	**8.4**	**8.1**	**10.5**	**9.6**	**9.0**	**10.0**	**10.0**	**12.0**
of which: EU[2]	5.4	4.5	3.6	3.0	3.5	3.3	5.0	5.1	5.5	. .

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yugoslavia before 1993.
2. European Union 15 from 1995 on.

Table B.1.2. **SWEDEN, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Finland	5.4	5.4	4.5	3.1	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9
Norway	2.0	3.9	4.1	3.4	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.8
Denmark	1.8	2.4	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2
United States	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Iran	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4
Greece	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Former Yugoslavia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Poland	0.1	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Chile	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3	–
Other countries	2.3	2.9	2.8	3.2	4.5	5.2	6.5	5.5	5.9	5.6
Total	**13.1**	**16.2**	**15.0**	**13.2**	**14.8**	**15.8**	**15.4**	**14.5**	**15.3**	**14.1**
of which: EU[1]	8.5	9.2	7.9	6.2	6.0	6.1	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.3

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.2. **SWITZERLAND, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Italy	11.6	11.7	11.5	15.3	11.7	9.9	10.3	10.8	9.9	8.6
Portugal	4.2	4.7	6.3	10.1	8.7	7.5	7.4	7.9	8.7	7.8
Former Yugoslavia	5.2	5.9	6.4	7.5	7.0	8.0	8.7	9.0	7.2	6.2
Germany	6.2	6.2	7.2	7.1	7.3	6.2	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.5
Spain	6.6	7.2	7.9	11.6	8.1	6.1	6.1	6.3	5.8	5.3
France	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.3
Turkey	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.3
Austria	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.0
Other countries	16.1	16.0	18.9	20.2	20.0	18.9	20.5	20.1	19.0	19.0
Total	**57.5**	**59.6**	**66.4**	**80.4**	**71.2**	**64.2**	**67.5**	**67.7**	**63.4**	**59.0**
of which: EU	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	42.3	42.6	41.7	. .

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. **BELGIUM, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
France	. .	. .	1.4	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.1
Netherlands	. .	. .	2.8	3.3	3.2	0.7	2.6	3.8	1.9	2.1
Morocco	1.6	1.9	2.5	2.8	2.7	4.2	2.7	3.2	3.2	3.6
Germany	. .	. .	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6
United States	. .	. .	–0.2	0.1	–0.3	—	0.1	0.2	0.2	–0.4
United Kingdom	. .	. .	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.2	–0.1	–0.2
Italy	0.2	0.2	–1.0	0.6	0.8	1.1	0.4	0.8	0.6	–0.2
Turkey	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.8	1.9	2.0	0.9	1.9
Portugal	1.3	1.2	1.1	2.6	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.1
Spain	–0.4	–0.4	–1.3	–	–	–0.2	–0.4	–0.1	–0.3	–0.5
Poland	. .	. .	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Japan	. .	. .	—	–0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0	–0.1	–0.1	–0.1
Zaire	. .	0.9	0.9	2.2	1.7	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
China	. .	. .	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2
Greece	0.1	0.2	–0.3	0.2	0.4	–0.8	—	–0.1	–0.1	–0.2
Other countries	12.2	17.7	9.0	8.1	5.4	8.3	8.1	4.6	4.1	4.5
Total	**16.1**	**23.4**	**18.8**	**26.9**	**21.8**	**21.9**	**20.0**	**19.5**	**14.7**	**14.4**
of which: EU	6.9	9.1	4.1	11.3	9.8	8.0	6.5	9.0	12.2	4.0

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.3. **DENMARK, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	2.4	1.6
Former Yugoslavia	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.2	16.6	. .	1.2
Iraq	0.4	0.5	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.2
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7
Norway	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4
Sweden	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6
Turkey	1.0	1.6	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.8
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3
Iceland	–0.1	–	–0.1	0.1	0.4	1.0	0.8	0.2
United States	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Iran	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.3
Poland	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Pakistan	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Other countries	6.1	6.9	7.0	6.2	5.8	4.1	9.8	5.3
Total	**10.5**	**12.3**	**12.1**	**10.5**	**10.5**	**27.7**	**18.8**	**13.7**
of which: EU[1]	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.5

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Including Finland and Sweden from 1995 on.

Table B.1.3. **FINLAND, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former USSR	2.8	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.3	2.4
Sweden	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Estonia	2.1	1.9	1.2	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.5
Somalia	0.3	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.5	. .
United States	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	0.1	0.1
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	–	0.1	0.2
Iran	0.2	0.1	0.2	. .	0.1	0.3	. .
Vietnam	. .	0.2	. .	. .	–	0.1	. .
Germany	–	–	–	0.1	–	0.1	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.1
Thailand	0.1	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Turkey	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Former Yugoslavia	. .	1.7	0.1	. .	0.1	0.2	0.1
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.1	. .
Other countries	2.5	2.1	1.7	2.1	1.0	1.3	2.2
Total	**8.9**	**9.4**	**6.1**	**5.8**	**4.5**	**6.6**	**6.6**

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.3. **GERMANY, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Poland	117.8	43.1	13.1	22.2	–26.6	12.9	16.5	5.7	1.0	5.5
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	25.5	26.9	168.0	241.9	68.1	1.0	13.8	8.6	–13.3	1.4
Turkey	48.0	48.5	45.8	40.3	22.3	17.6	30.4	29.7	10.0	1.0
Italy	1.7	2.8	–1.0	–2.7	0.7	6.6	14.5	9.0	1.1	–2.3
Russian Federation[1]	. .	. .	. .	18.4	21.7	21.1	19.5	19.3	13.6	17.4
Hungary	. .	7.2	10.0	6.8	–0.8	–2.7	–	–0.4	–3.9	7.1
Portugal	2.5	4.1	6.6	5.2	6.6	12.2	10.0	6.6	–0.1	–3.3
Former USSR	22.3	25.6	26.9	11.9	9.2	4.8	0.5	0.8	3.1	. .
United States	. .	. .	. .	5.1	0.7	–1.3	0.0	0.4	9.5	1.3
Romania	10.7	62.4	31.2	58.0	–20.2	–12.6	–0.3	0.4	0.7	3.5
Greece	14.9	12.2	12.9	7.4	0.7	–0.3	0.9	–1.2	–5.3	–4.2
Croatia[2]	. .	. .	. .	10.1	1.0	–11.8	–7.1	–5.0	–8.9	–6.6
Bosnia Herzegovina[3]	. .	. .	. .	. .	96.7	51.8	39.4	–16.1	–77.0	–98.3
Spain	–2.0	–1.7	–1.1	–1.1	–1.3	–1.6	–	–0.4	–1.5	–0.9
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	20.6	–7.6	–7.5	–2.3	–0.7	0.1	0.4
Other countries	91.1	145.2	110.6	148.7	105.7	62.3	91.6	92.0	49.2	44.5
Total	**332.5**	**376.4**	**423.0**	**592.9**	**276.6**	**152.5**	**227.2**	**148.9**	**–21.8**	**–33.5**
of which: EU[4]	37.1	38.7	32.8	29.0	20.3	22.4	37.7	18.6	–7.8	–10.7

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in Former USSR until 1991.
2. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1991.
3. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1992.
4. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.3. **JAPAN, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
China	15.4	22.9	35.4	22.2	18.0	17.1	23.8	29.7	31.6
Philippines	8.5	13.1	0.3	5.0	8.1	–13.9	14.0	11.8	12.7
United States	4.3	4.8	3.3	1.7	2.0	2.1	3.1	3.4	2.9
Brazil	7.9	10.4	5.4	–6.1	–7.9	–4.9	2.4	25.5	1.9
Korea	7.0	8.4	7.1	4.7	4.8	4.3	4.7	5.5	6.7
Thailand	1.1	1.6	0.9	0.4	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.7	2.2
United Kingdom	0.8	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.9	1.4	1.5	1.3
Chinese Taipei	1.2	1.7	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.6	1.6
Canada	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.3	1.3	1.1
Germany	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.2
Peru	2.0	0.3	–1.2	–0.8	–0.4	0.8	1.6	2.5	2.4
Other countries	8.2	11.3	8.3	4.7	5.0	6.4	10.3	13.4	12.9
Total	**57.7**	**77.1**	**62.2**	**34.0**	**33.3**	**15.5**	**65.3**	**98.2**	**77.6**

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.3. **LUXEMBOURG, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Portugal	1.9	2.2	2.2	1.0	1.7	1.2	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.6
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9
Belgium	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.5
Germany	0.1	–	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Italy	–0.1	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
United States	–	–	–0.1	0.1	–	–	–	–0.1	–0.1	–
Netherlands	–	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	–	–	–	–
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	–	0.1	–	–	0.1	–
Other countries	0.5	0.9	1.5	2.5	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.6
Total	**2.8**	**3.8**	**4.1**	**4.2**	**4.2**	**3.9**	**4.7**	**3.7**	**3.7**	**3.9**

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. **NETHERLANDS, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Morocco	7.1	8.4	7.8	6.1	4.8	2.0	2.0	3.2	3.7	4.7
Turkey	8.0	10.3	10.7	7.3	6.0	2.7	3.2	4.9	5.4	4.2
Germany	2.1	3.3	4.1	4.2	4.4	3.0	1.8	2.2	2.6	1.7
United Kingdom	1.7	2.9	3.5	4.1	2.4	0.7	0.7	1.9	2.0	2.1
United States	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.7	1.2	0.9	1.5
Suriname	3.9	6.3	6.1	6.2	7.2	2.4	1.3	2.4	2.3	2.9
France	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.6	. .	0.9	1.3	1.3
Belgium	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.0
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.5	. .	1.1	1.0	1.1
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	. .	4.6	8.6	8.1	. .	3.0	1.2	1.0
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.0	0.9	. .	1.1	1.4	1.2
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.4	. .	0.7	0.7	0.8
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	. .	0.2	0.1	0.2
Other countries	18.0	25.7	27.5	24.4	27.7	23.5	35.2	31.2	31.0	36.7
Total	**43.9**	**60.7**	**63.0**	**60.3**	**65.4**	**45.7**	**45.3**	**54.8**	**54.8**	**60.4**
of which: EU[1]	6.0	9.7	11.1	12.2	9.2	5.6	4.8	8.6	10.3	9.6

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.3. **NEW ZEALAND, net migration of permanent and long-term migrants by country of birth**

Thousands

	1998
United Kingdom	2.1
India	1.6
Japan	0.7
United States	0.3
Australia	0.3
Other	15.5
Total	**20.3**

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.3. **NORWAY, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sweden	–0.6	–	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.8	3.3	3.3
Denmark	–0.4	–0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	–0.1	0.2	0.4	0.7
United Kingdom	–0.6	–0.8	–0.2	0.2	–0.1	–0.1	–	–0.1	0.1	0.5
Germany		0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.7
Iran	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6
Pakistan	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	6.2	3.1	1.4	0.1	0.0	0.1
Sri Lanka	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.2
Philippines	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.9	0.4	0.6	1.9	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.3
Chile	0.4	–	–	–0.1	–0.2	–0.1	–	–	0.1	–
United States	–0.1	–	0.2	0.2	–0.1	0.0	–0.1	–0.1	0.1	. .
Other countries	5.6	4.6	5.1	4.8	3.3	3.3	3.8	3.9	5.9	7.5
Total	**8.0**	**5.9**	**7.7**	**9.1**	**11.8**	**8.3**	**7.5**	**7.2**	**12.0**	**14.7**
of which: EU[2]	–1.3	–1.0	0.1	0.9	0.5	0.6	1.6	2.6	5.4	. .

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yugoslavia before 1993.
2. European Union 12 for all years.

Table B.1.3. **SWEDEN, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Finland	–0.9	–1.3	–1.5	–0.4	–0.4	0.2	0.2	–0.2	–0.2	0.1
Former Yugoslavia	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.6	2.7	15.1	2.3	0.6	3.6	1.7
Norway	6.7	3.4	–1.5	–1.5	–1.4	–0.8	–0.5	–0.5	–0.6	–0.1
Iran	6.8	4.3	3.6	3.4	1.4	0.8	0.9	0.6	1.3	1.1
Denmark	2.7	0.7	–0.5	–0.5	–0.4	0.2	0.2	–0.2	–0.4	–0.1
United Kingdom	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4
United States	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.2	–	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1
Poland	1.6	. .	. .	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.4
Turkey	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.4
Chile	5.7	1.4	0.4	0.1	–0.1	–0.3	–	0.1	–	0.3
Greece	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	–0.1	–0.1	0.1	0.1	–0.1	–0.1
Other countries	19.2	23.8	24.0	20.2	36.3	42.0	15.3	12.4	12.9	17.3
Total	**45.8**	**37.0**	**28.9**	**26.3**	**40.0**	**59.0**	**20.7**	**14.9**	**18.1**	**21.6**
of which: EU[1]	3.2	1.0	–0.7	—	–0.2	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.6	2.0

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.3. **SWITZERLAND, net migration of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	10.7	16.0	20.6	26.1	27.2	17.3	13.6	5.1	5.6	5.3
Germany	2.2	3.6	2.7	2.5	1.4	2.5	2.0	2.4	2.6	3.8
France	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.1	0.8	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3	2.1
Italy	–3.7	–2.8	–3.1	–7.1	–4.4	–3.0	–3.6	–5.4	–4.9	–3.2
Portugal	5.3	9.0	7.8	3.2	1.3	1.1	0.2	–2.3	–4.7	–2.7
Turkey	1.5	3.4	4.0	2.4	1.8	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.1	0.3
Spain	–1.8	–1.6	–3.3	–7.7	–4.9	–3.7	–3.4	–4.3	–4.0	–3.7
Austria	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.2	–	0.2	–	0.1	0.2	0.2
Other countries	7.0	12.0	13.3	10.9	9.7	10.7	9.3	8.9	12.2	13.8
Total	**22.9**	**41.8**	**43.3**	**31.7**	**32.8**	**27.5**	**20.4**	**6.6**	**9.3**	**16.0**
of which: EU	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	–3.0	–7.0	–7.3	. .

Note: Data are derived from Tables B.1.1. and B.1.2. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **BELGIUM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.3	6.0
Zaire	0.9	1.1	2.0	3.8	4.1	2.0	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.8
Romania	0.2	1.7	2.4	3.4	5.1	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.5
Albania	–	–	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	–	0.4	1.0	1.1
Rwanda	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.1
Slovak Republic	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.2	0.3	1.0
Armenia	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.7
Somalia	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5
Georgia	–	–	–	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5
Bulgaria	–	0.3	0.4	0.5	1.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.5
Other countries	6.9	9.4	9.6	8.7	14.4	8.2	6.7	6.1	5.6	7.4
Total	**8.2**	**12.9**	**15.4**	**17.5**	**26.4**	**14.6**	**11.7**	**12.4**	**11.8**	**22.1**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **CANADA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sri Lanka	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.6	2.5
China	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.1
Pakistan	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.8
Hungary	–	–	0.1	0.4	1.4
Mexico	0.2	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2
India	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2
Algeria	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.8
Iran	1.5	1.9	1.7	1.2	0.8
Russia	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7
Nigeria	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7
Zaire	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.6
Somalia	2.0	1.6	0.9	0.7	0.6
Bangladesh	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.4
Afghanistan	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Romania	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Other countries	9.4	12.0	11.2	10.5	9.7
Total	**21.7**	**25.5**	**25.4**	**24.2**	**25.2**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.4. **FRANCE, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Romania	3.3	2.4	2.2	2.7	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.1	3.0
China	0.8	2.4	2.1	0.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.1
Zaire	5.8	4.3	3.1	2.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.8
Former Yugoslavia	0.4	0.9	2.4	2.5	1.9	1.4	0.9	1.0	1.7
Turkey	11.8	9.7	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.6
Former USSR	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.0
Algeria	0.1	0.2	0.6	1.1	2.4	1.8	0.6	0.9	0.9
Cambodia	1.1	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.4	. .	0.6
Haiti	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	. .	0.4
Vietnam	3.3	2.3	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.4	0.4	. .	0.2
Laos	1.1	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.3	. .	0.2
Sri Lanka	2.5	3.4	4.0	2.8	1.7	1.1	. .	1.6	. .
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	. .
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	. .
Mauritania	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	. .
Other countries	23.6	18.7	9.5	11.4	8.3	4.5	5.0	6.0	8.9
Total	**54.8**	**47.4**	**28.9**	**27.6**	**26.0**	**20.4**	**17.4**	**21.4**	**22.4**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **GERMANY, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	19.4	22.1	74.9	122.7	74.1	30.4	26.2	18.1	14.8	35.0
Turkey	20.0	22.1	23.9	28.3	19.1	19.1	25.5	23.8	16.8	11.8
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.2	2.1	6.9	10.8	14.1	7.4
Afghanistan	3.7	7.3	7.3	6.4	5.5	5.6	7.5	5.7	4.7	3.8
Vietnam	1.0	9.4	8.1	12.3	11.0	3.4	2.6	1.1	1.5	3.0
Iran	5.8	7.3	8.6	3.8	2.7	3.4	3.9	4.8	3.8	3.0
Sri Lanka	. .	4.4	5.6	. .	3.3	4.8	6.0	5.0	4.0	2.0
Armenia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.1	3.4	3.5	2.5	1.7
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	6.2	21.2	7.3	4.9	3.5	1.7	1.5
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.5
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.7	2.8	1.9	1.5
Togo	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	3.5	. .	1.0	1.1	0.7
Nigeria	. .	5.4	8.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.7	1.1	0.7
Lebanon	6.2	16.2	. .	5.6	. .	. .	. .	1.1	1.0	0.6
Romania	3.1	35.3	40.5	103.8	73.7	9.6	3.5	1.4	0.8	0.3
Other countries	65.2	98.8	119.3	252.9	181.6	43.4	35.1	30.9	33.1	24.6
Total	**121.3**	**193.1**	**256.1**	**438.2**	**322.6**	**127.2**	**127.9**	**116.4**	**104.4**	**98.6**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.4. **NETHERLANDS, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	2.7	5.6	10.2	13.4	6.1	2.0	3.8	8.3
Iraq	0.4	0.7	0.8	3.2	2.9	2.4	4.4	9.6	8.3
Afghanistan	0.6	0.3	0.4	1.5	2.5	1.9	3.0	5.9	7.1
Somalia	1.7	1.7	4.2	4.3	5.4	4.0	1.5	1.3	2.8
Former USSR	0.2	1.0	0.6	1.6	4.5	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.7
Sudan	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.9
Iran	1.7	1.7	1.3	2.6	6.1	2.7	1.5	1.3	1.7
Turkey	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2
Sri Lanka	3.0	1.8	1.0	1.9	1.8	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.0
China	. .	. .	. .	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.9
Algeria	. .	. .	. .	0.3	1.4	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.8
Zaire	. .	. .	. .	1.3	2.2	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.4
Liberia	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.2
Romania	2.2	1.7	1.0	1.1	2.8	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	9.8	8.7	4.3	4.9	7.5	5.0	3.9	4.5	7.8
Total	**21.2**	**21.6**	**20.3**	**35.4**	**52.6**	**29.3**	**22.9**	**34.4**	**45.2**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **SWEDEN, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Iraq	2.0	2.2	3.2	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.6	3.1	3.8
Former Yugoslavia	2.3	13.2	69.4	29.0	10.6	2.4	1.1	3.0	3.4
Iran	4.3	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3
Turkey	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3
Somalia	2.4	1.4	2.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.2
Syria	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2
Lebanon	3.6	0.3	0.2	0.1	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1
Ethiopia	2.0	0.5	0.2	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1
Peru	. .	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.1	–	–
Romania	2.7	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	–	–
Cuba	. .	. .	. .	0.2	1.2	0.3	–	. .	–
Uganda	. .	. .	. .	0.5	0.1	–	–	–	–
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	. .
Other countries	7.9	7.8	5.6	2.8	2.4	1.9	1.6	2.0	3.2
Total	**29.4**	**27.4**	**84.0**	**37.6**	**18.6**	**9.0**	**5.8**	**9.6**	**12.5**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **SWITZERLAND, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	1.4	5.6	14.2	. .	12.1	7.5	9.0	7.5	6.9	20.4
Albania	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.0	. .	. .	. .	3.1	3.8
Sri Lanka	4.8	4.8	7.3	. .	1.7	1.5	1.0	2.0	2.1	1.9
Turkey	9.4	7.3	4.3	. .	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.3	. .	. .	0.7	0.9	0.6
Angola	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1	0.5	. .	0.3	. .
Lebanon	2.5	5.5		. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	. .
Romania	. .	. .	2.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	6.4	12.6	13.1	18.0	5.5	5.1	5.2	6.5	9.1	13.1
Total	**24.4**	**35.8**	**41.6**	**18.0**	**24.7**	**16.1**	**17.0**	**18.0**	**24.0**	**41.3**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.4. **UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	–	–	0.3	5.6	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.0	2.3	8.0
Somalia	1.9	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.8	3.5	1.8	2.7	4.7
Sri Lanka	1.8	3.3	3.8	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.8	3.5
Former USSR	–	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.4	2.0	2.8
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.7	1.1	2.4
Turkey	2.4	1.6	2.1	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.4	2.0
Pakistan	0.3	1.5	3.2	1.7	1.1	1.8	2.9	1.9	1.6	2.0
China	. .	. .	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.9	1.9
Poland	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.6	1.6
Nigeria	–	0.1	0.3	0.6	1.7	4.3	5.8	2.9	1.5	1.4
Iraq	0.2	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3
Algeria	–	–	–	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.9	0.7	0.7	1.3
India	0.6	1.5	2.1	1.5	1.3	2.0	3.3	2.2	1.3	1.0
Kenya	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	1.1	1.4	1.2	0.6	0.9
Zaire	0.5	2.6	7.0	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7
Other countries	4.0	12.2	22.2	6.9	8.5	11.9	14.6	9.6	11.2	10.6
Total (excluding dependents)	**11.6**	**26.2**	**44.8**	**24.6**	**22.4**	**32.8**	**44.0**	**29.6**	**32.5**	**46.0**
Total (including dependents)	**16.8**	**38.2**	**73.4**	**32.3**	**28.0**	**42.2**	**55.0**	**37.0**	**41.5**	**58.0**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **UNITED STATES, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mexico	–	0.6	6.4	9.3	9.7	9.7	18.8
Guatemala	–	43.9	34.2	34.4	23.2	13.9	9.8
El Salvador	–	6.8	14.6	18.6	75.9	65.6	8.2
China	–	3.5	14.5	10.9	5.0	3.5	5.7
Haiti	–	5.4	10.9	9.5	2.6	4.4	5.4
India	–	3.2	5.7	4.5	3.4	4.7	4.9
Former USSR	63.2	4.5	0.4	0.1	2.4	2.4	2.7
Somalia	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.2	1.9
Honduras	–	1.1	2.8	4.4	3.2	1.8	1.9
Nicaragua	–	2.1	3.2	4.7	1.9	2.0	1.7
Pakistan	–	3.3	4.5	3.3	2.5	1.4	1.4
Mauritania	–	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	1.4
Philippines	–	4.0	4.0	2.4	1.0	1.7	1.4
Bangladesh	–	1.0	3.8	3.7	1.9	1.0	1.2
Ethiopia	4.9	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1
Other countries	54.9	23.3	37.9	39.7	20.8	12.5	18.5
Total	**123.5**	**104.0**	**144.2**	**146.5**	**154.5**	**128.2**	**85.9**

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the given year). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.5. **AUSTRALIA, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth, census results of 1986, 1991 and 1996**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996
United Kingdom	1 083.1	1 122.4	1 072.5
New Zealand	211.7	276.1	291.4
Italy	261.9	254.8	238.2
Former Yugoslavia[1]	150.0	161.1	175.5
Vietnam	83.0	122.3	151.1
Greece	137.6	136.3	126.5
China[2]	37.5	78.8	111.0
Germany	114.8	114.9	110.3
Philippines	33.7	73.7	92.9
Netherlands	95.1	95.8	87.9
India	47.8	61.6	77.5
Malaysia	47.8	72.6	76.2
Lebanon	56.3	69.0	70.2
Hong Kong (China)	28.3	59.0	68.4
Poland	67.7	68.9	65.1
Other and not stated	791.0	986.0	1 093.5
Total	**3 247.4**	**3 753.3**	**3 908.3**
% of total population	20.8	22.3	21.1

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. In 1996, data include Croatia (47 000), Republic of Macedonia (42 200), Bosnia Herzegovina (13 600), Serbia (9 000), Slovenia (6 700) and Former Yugoslavia (57 000) without further description.
2. Excluding Chinese Taipei.

Table B.1.5. **CANADA, stock of immigrant population by country of birth, census results of 1986, 1991 and 1996**

Thousands

				Of which : Women		
	1986	1991	1996	1986	1991	1996
United Kingdom	793.1	717.8	655.5	425.8	385.6	352.2
Italy	366.8	351.6	332.1	173.0	165.5	158.0
United States	282.0	249.1	244.7	160.8	141.4	139.8
Hong Kong (China)	77.4	152.5	241.1	38.7	77.3	124.3
India	130.1	173.7	235.9	63.5	84.8	117.0
China	119.2	157.4	231.1	62.6	81.5	122.2
Poland	156.8	184.7	193.4	78.0	92.8	100.1
Philippines	82.2	123.3	184.6	48.1	73.2	111.7
Germany	189.6	180.5	181.7	96.8	92.8	95.2
Portugal	139.6	161.2	158.8	68.6	79.8	79.3
Vietnam	82.8	113.6	139.3	38.5	53.8	69.7
Netherlands	134.2	129.6	124.5	64.1	62.4	60.9
Former Yugoslavia	87.8	88.8	122.0	41.7	42.4	59.3
Jamaica	87.6	102.4	115.8	49.5	58.6	67.3
Former USSR	109.4	99.4	108.4	56.3	52.0	57.1
Other and not stated	1 069.6	1 357.4	1 702.2	529.8	669.0	851.4
Total	**3 908.2**	**4 342.9**	**4 971.1**	**1 995.7**	**2 212.9**	**2 565.7**
% of total population	15.6	16.1	17.4	8.0	8.2	9.0

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.5. **DENMARK, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	9.3	9.5	9.7	24.2	27.6	31.6	32.2
Turkey	24.0	24.4	24.7	25.3	26.3	27.3	28.2
Germany	21.6	21.7	21.8	21.9	22.3	22.6	22.9
Norway	11.8	11.8	11.9	13.0	12.3	12.6	12.9
Sweden	11.9	11.9	11.8	11.9	12.9	12.3	12.5
Lebanon	10.4	10.8	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.5	11.6
Iran	9.6	9.8	9.9	10.0	10.3	10.7	11.0
Iraq	4.1	4.9	5.5	6.3	7.2	8.7	10.8
Somalia	2.0	3.2	4.4	5.7	7.9	9.9	10.7
United Kingdom	9.0	9.4	9.8	9.9	10.2	10.5	10.7
Poland	9.3	9.5	9.6	9.7	9.8	10.1	10.2
Pakistan	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.9	9.1	9.4	9.7
Vietnam	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.6	7.9	8.1
Sri Lanka	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.8	6.0	6.5	6.6
United States	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.5
Other countries	58.9	61.7	65.1	68.1	73.0	79.8	84.2
Total	**207.4**	**215.0**	**222.1**	**244.5**	**259.2**	**276.8**	**287.7**
% of total population	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.4

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **FINLAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former USSR	24.8	26.4	28.8	31.4
Sweden	26.6	27.0	27.4	27.8
Estonia	5.6	6.0	6.5	7.0
Somalia	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.1
Former Yugoslavia	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8
Germany	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.3
United States	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9
Vietnam	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8
Iraq	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.6
United Kingdom	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5
Turkey	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9
China	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.9
Iran	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7
Thailand	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5
Poland	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.2
Other countries	25.1	25.7	26.9	28.7
Total	**106.3**	**111.1**	**118.1**	**125.1**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.5. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1990	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Suriname	162.9	182.9	180.9	181.0	181.6	182.2	184.2
Turkey	149.5	166.0	166.0	167.5	169.3	172.7	175.5
Indonesia	186.1	183.7	180.4	177.7	174.8	172.1	170.3
Morocco	122.9	139.4	139.8	140.7	142.7	145.8	149.6
Germany	128.7	129.4	131.2	130.1	128.0	126.8	125.5
Former Yugoslavia	15.2	29.7	37.2	43.8	46.1	46.7	47.5
Belgium	42.2	44.0	43.2	43.3	43.3	44.0	44.6
United Kingdom	38.3	44.8	43.3	42.3	41.7	42.3	42.7
Iraq	1.5	4.8	7.4	10.2	14.4	20.4	27.3
Somalia	3.6	11.9	14.9	17.2	19.8	20.6	21.0
United States	14.7	17.0	17.1	17.4	17.9	18.6	19.5
China	11.8	15.2	15.2	16.1	16.9	18.0	19.4
Iran	6.3	10.8	12.7	14.9	17.3	18.5	19.3
Spain	17.3	17.5	17.5	17.4	17.4	17.6	17.9
France	13.7	15.3	15.4	15.4	15.8	16.5	17.2
Other countries	302.5	362.9	365.3	372.1	386.5	406.3	432.4
Total	**1 217.1**	**1 375.4**	**1 387.4**	**1 407.1**	**1 433.6**	**1 469.0**	**1 513.9**
% of total population	8.1	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **NORWAY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1989	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Sweden	18.1	20.0	23.2	24.3	26.0	29.3	32.6
Denmark	20.5	20.5	21.2	20.9	20.9	21.1	21.7
United States	15.0	14.7	15.4	15.2	15.0	15.0	15.1
United Kingdom	14.3	13.4	13.7	13.6	13.5	13.6	14.1
Pakistan	10.5	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.9
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	5.1	8.1	10.8	11.1	11.1	11.2
Vietnam	7.5	10.4	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.0
Germany	8.1	8.4	9.3	9.5	9.7	10.1	10.8
Iran	5.2	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.3	7.7	8.3
Former Yugoslavia	4.2	9.0	8.9	7.9	7.3	7.2	7.5
Sri Lanka	4.7	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.7	7.0
Turkey	5.0	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.6	6.9
Korea	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8
Poland	4.3	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6
Chile	5.5	5.3	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.3	5.4
Other countries	55.6	69.0	76.5	79.9	84.1	89.6	97.3
Total	**183.3**	**216.2**	**233.4**	**240.3**	**246.9**	**257.7**	**273.2**
% of total population	4.3	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yugoslavia in 1989.

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Table B.1.5. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Finland	209.5	207.8	205.7	203.4	201.0	198.8
Former Yugoslavia	70.5	112.3	119.5	72.8	70.9	70.9
Iran	48.1	48.7	49.0	49.2	49.8	50.3
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	. .	46.8	48.3	50.0
Norway	47.1	45.9	53.9	43.8	42.7	41.9
Poland	38.5	39.0	39.4	39.5	39.6	39.7
Denmark	41.1	40.9	40.5	39.8	38.9	38.2
Iraq	20.2	23.4	26.4	29.0	32.7	37.9
Germany	36.6	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.8	37.2
Turkey	28.5	29.2	29.8	30.2	. .	31.0
Chile	27.7	27.2	27.0	26.9	26.7	26.6
Lebanon	21.2	21.6	. .	21.6	21.4	20.2
Hungary	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.7	14.5	14.4
United States	13.8	13.7	13.8	13.8	14.0	14.0
United Kingdom	12.5	12.6	12.7	13.1	13.3	13.7
Other countries	238.8	248.4	267.2	262.7	303.6	283.9
Total	**869.1**	**922.1**	**936.0**	**943.8**	**954.2**	**968.7**
% of total population	9.9	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.0	10.8

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1995.

Table B.1.5. **UNITED STATES, stock of foreign-born population by place of birth, census results of 1970, 1980 and 1990**

Thousands

	1970	1980	1990
Mexico	759.7	2 199.2	4 298.0
Philippines	184.8	501.4	912.7
Canada	812.4	842.9	744.8
Cuba	439.0	607.8	737.0
Germany	833.0	849.4	711.9
United Kingdom	708.2	669.1	640.1
Italy	1 008.7	831.9	580.6
Korea	88.7	289.9	568.4
Vietnam	. .	231.1	543.3
China	172.2	286.1	529.8
India	51.0	206.1	450.4
Former USSR	463.5	406.0	398.9
Poland	548.1	418.1	388.3
Dominican Republic	. .	169.1	347.9
Jamaica	. .	196.8	334.1
Other and not stated	3 550.0	5 375.0	7 581.1
Total	**9 619.3**	**14 079.9**	**19 767.3**
% of total population	4.7	6.2	7.9

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.6. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1997[1]
Italy	252.9	241.2	210.7	202.6	92.8
Morocco	123.6	141.7	140.3	125.1	64.4
France	92.3	94.3	100.1	105.1	52.2
Netherlands	59.6	65.3	77.2	84.2	35.6
Turkey	74.2	84.9	81.7	70.7	38.7
Spain	51.2	52.2	48.3	46.6	23.0
Germany	24.3	27.8	31.8	34.0	15.9
United Kingdom	20.8	23.3	26.0	25.9	12.0
Portugal	9.5	16.5	23.9	25.5	12.2
Greece	19.3	20.9	19.9	18.8	9.1
Zaire	8.9	12.0	12.2	12.4	5.9
United States	11.0	11.7	12.0	12.4	6.2
Algeria	10.0	10.7	9.5	8.5	4.1
Poland	. .	4.9	5.4	6.3	3.8
Tunisia	5.9	6.4	5.3	4.2	1.8
Other countries[2]	83.0	90.5	105.6	109.5	54.2
Total	**846.5**	**904.5**	**909.8**	**892.0**	**431.9**
of which: EU	538.1	551.2	554.5	562.5	262.0
Total women	386.5	417.5	428.0	427.1	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. The breakdown by nationality is not available for 1998.
2. Including refugees whose stock is not broken down by nationality. In 1997, 19 700 refugees were registered.

Table B.1.6. **CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign residents by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1995	1998
Ukraine	. .	28.2	52.7
Slovak Republic[1]	. .	39.7	49.6
Vietnam	2.6	14.2	22.9
Poland	12.7	23.1	22.2
Russian Federation	. .	4.4	10.0
Former Yugoslavia	2.4	6.4	6.0
Bulgaria	2.9	4.3	6.0
Germany	1.5	5.6	5.1
China	1.4	4.2	4.2
United States	1.5	4.4	3.9
Romania	0.2	1.6	2.7
Austria	. .	2.2	2.3
United Kingdom	. .	1.9	1.6
Other	16.1	18.8	30.7
Total	**41.2**	**158.9**	**219.8**

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Up to 1 January 1993, Slovak permanent residents were registered in the National Population Register. Since the split of the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovak citizens residing in the Czech Republic are subject to the same rules as any other foreign resident and they are registered in the Central Register of Foreigners.

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Table B.1.6. **DENMARK, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Turkey	20.4	29.7	35.7	38.1	18.8
Former Yugoslavia	7.9	10.0	28.1	34.5	16.8
Somalia	. .	0.6	6.9	13.1	6.1
United Kingdom	9.7	10.2	12.1	12.9	4.6
Germany	8.2	8.4	10.6	12.4	5.7
Norway	9.8	10.2	11.1	12.2	7.1
Iraq	0.7	2.8	7.1	11.3	4.9
Sweden	8.1	8.2	9.1	10.4	5.9
Pakistan	6.6	6.2	6.6	7.1	3.8
Iran	4.7	9.0	7.4	6.3	2.9
Iceland	3.3	3.0	4.8	5.9	2.9
Poland	2.2	4.7	5.3	5.5	3.8
United States	4.3	4.5	5.1	5.2	2.3
Vietnam	3.7	3.7	5.0	5.2	2.8
Sri Lanka	0.6	5.1	5.7	5.1	2.8
Other countries	26.7	44.2	62.2	71.0	36.9
Total	**117.0**	**160.6**	**222.7**	**256.3**	**128.0**
of which: EU[1]	37.3	38.2	46.5	53.2	23.6
Total women	54.0	75.2	109.2	128.0	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.6. **FINLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Russian Federation[1]	1.6	4.2	15.9	20.5	12.4
Estonia[1, 2]	. .	. .	8.4	10.3	6.2
Sweden	4.9	6.1	7.0	7.8	3.5
Somalia	. .	. .	4.0	5.4	2.5
Former Yugoslavia	. .	. .	2.4	2.9	1.3
Iraq	. .	. .	1.3	2.7	1.2
Germany	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.1	0.7
United Kingdom	1.1	1.3	1.9	2.1	0.5
United States	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.0	0.9
Vietnam	. .	. .	2.1	2.0	1.0
Turkey	. .	0.2	1.3	1.7	0.4
Iran	. .	0.1	1.3	1.7	0.7
China	. .	. .	1.4	1.7	0.8
Bosnia Herzegovina[3]	. .	. .	0.9	1.5	0.7
Thailand	. .	. .	0.8	1.1	0.9
Other countries	6.6	11.8	16.4	19.7	8.2
Total	**17.0**	**26.6**	**68.6**	**85.1**	**42.0**
of which: EU	. .	. .	13.7	15.7	
Total women	. .	11.5	32.8	42.0	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December ofthe years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Figures include Ingrians (ethnic Finns).
2. Included in former USSR until 1990.
3. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1991.

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Table B.1.6. **FRANCE, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1975	1982	1990	*of which*: Women 1990
Portugal	758.9	767.3	649.7	304.2
Algeria	710.7	805.1	614.2	253.9
Morocco	260.0	441.3	572.7	250.7
Italy	462.9	340.3	252.8	108.0
Spain	497.5	327.2	216.0	103.7
Tunisia	139.7	190.8	206.3	84.8
Turkey	50.9	122.3	197.7	87.5
Former Yugoslavia	70.3	62.5	52.5	24.5
Cambodia	4.5	37.9	47.4	22.6
Poland	93.7	64.8	47.1	28.9
Senegal	14.9	32.3	43.7	17.0
Vietnam	11.4	33.8	33.7	15.3
Laos	1.6	32.5	31.8	15.0
Other countries	365.4	456.1	631.0	298.0
Total	**3 442.4**	**3 714.2**	**3 596.6**	**1 614.3**
of which: EU	1 869.9	1 594.8	1 311.9	613.9
Total women	1 381.6	1 594.6	1 614.3	

4. Data are from the population censuses. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **GERMANY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women[4] 1998
Turkey	1 401.9	1 694.6	2 014.3	2 110.2	965.2
Former Yugoslavia[1]	591.0	662.7	797.7	719.5	310.3
Italy	531.3	552.4	586.1	612.0	246.0
Greece	280.6	320.2	359.5	363.5	163.5
Poland	104.8	242.0	276.7	283.6	134.2
Croatia[2]	. .	. .	185.1	208.9	101.6
Bosnia Herzegovina[2]	. .	. .	316.0	190.1	91.5
Austria	172.5	183.2	184.5	185.2	83.5
Portugal	77.0	85.5	125.1	132.6	55.9
Spain	152.8	135.5	132.3	131.1	61.8
Iran	51.3	92.2	107.0	115.1	46.3
United Kingdom	88.1	96.5	112.5	114.1	46.1
Netherlands	108.4	111.7	113.1	112.1	51.8
United States	85.7	92.7	108.4	110.7	47.3
France	74.8	85.1	99.1	105.8	56.9
Other countries	658.7	988.3	1 656.5	1 825.1	830.6
Total	**4 378.9**	**5 342.5**	**7 173.9**	**7 319.6**	**3 292.3**
of which: EU[3]	1 539.0	1 632.6	1 811.7	1 854.3	818.9
Total women	1 867.4	2 330.7[4]	2 459.8[4]	3 292.3[4]	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the given year. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. From 1993 on, Serbia and Montenegro.
2. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1992.
3. European Union 15 for all years (except Swedish citizens before 1991).
4. Women aged 16 years and over.

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Table B.1.6. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	*of which*: Women 1997
Romania	65.7	61.6	57.4	26.4
Former Yugoslavia	15.5	14.9	16.0	6.7
Ukraine	11.5	12.0	12.2	7.2
Germany	7.8	8.3	8.4	5.2
China	4.3	6.7	7.9	2.8
Russian Federation	3.7	4.1	5.4	3.3
Poland	4.5	4.3	4.5	1.9
Slovak Republic	3.5	3.7	3.7	2.6
Greece	1.6	1.8	2.0	0.8
Vietnam	1.3	1.6	1.8	0.8
Bulgaria	1.6	1.5	1.7	0.8
United Kingdom	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.4
Austria	0.7	0.9	1.1	0.3
Israel	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.3
Syria	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.1
Other	16.0	18.5	18.6	7.2
Total	**139.9**	**142.5**	**143.8**	**66.7**
of which: EU	13.0	14.7	15.9	7.9
Total women	65.6	66.1	66.7	

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **ITALY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998
Morocco	2.6	78.0	94.2	145.8
Albania	. .	. .	34.7	91.5
Philippines	7.6	34.3	43.4	67.6
United States	51.1	58.1	60.6	55.8
Tunisia	4.4	41.2	40.5	47.3
Former Yugoslavia[1]	13.9	29.8	56.1	40.8
Germany	37.2	41.6	39.4	40.7
China	1.6	18.7	21.5	38.0
Romania	. .	7.5	24.5	37.1
Senegal	0.3	25.1	24.0	35.9
Sri Lanka	2.5	11.5	20.3	31.3
France	23.7	24.4	27.3	29.5
Poland	. .	17.0	22.0	28.2
Egypt	7.0	19.8	21.9	27.7
United Kingdom	27.9	26.6	27.7	27.0
Other countries	243.1	347.6	433.4	505.9
Total	**423.0**	**781.1**	**991.4**	**1 250.2**
of which: EU	. .	148.6	164.0	171.6

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding the data for Croatia, Republic of Macedonia and Bosnia Herzegovina.

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Table B.1.6. **JAPAN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998
Korea	683.3	687.9	666.4	638.8
China[1]	74.9	150.3	223.0	272.2
Brazil	2.0	56.4	176.4	222.2
Philippines	12.3	49.1	74.3	105.3
United States	29.0	38.4	43.2	42.8
Peru	0.5	10.3	36.3	41.3
Thailand	2.6	6.7	16.0	23.6
Indonesia	1.7	3.6	7.0	15.0
United Kingdom	6.8	10.2	12.5	14.8
Vietnam	4.1	6.2	9.1	13.5
Canada	2.4	4.9	7.2	9.0
India	. .	. .	5.5	8.7
Australia	1.8	4.0	6.0	7.6
Iran	. .	. .	8.6	7.2
Malaysia	1.8	4.7	5.4	6.6
Other countries	4.0	42.6	65.5	83.5
Total	**827.2**	**1 075.3**	**1 362.4**	**1 512.1**

Note: Data are based on registered foreign nationals which include foreigners staying in Japan for more than 90 days and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Chinese Taipei.

Table B.1.6. **KOREA, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
China	–	0.1	19.2	30.9	14.5
of which: Chinese of Korean descent	–	–	7.4	11.8	4.9
United States	8.4	14.0	22.2	26.1	12.2
Chinese Taipei	24.8	23.6	23.3	22.9	10.5
Japan	3.0	5.3	9.4	13.0	8.8
Indonesia	–	0.1	3.4	9.7	2.2
Vietnam	–	–	5.7	8.1	2.8
Philippines	0.2	0.6	9.0	8.0	3.3
Bangladesh	–	–	2.7	5.7	–
Canada	0.4	0.6	3.0	3.0	1.2
Sri Lanka	–	0.1	1.7	2.4	0.9
Uzbekistan	–	–	0.8	2.0	0.3
Thailand	–	0.1	0.5	1.6	0.5
Pakistan	–	–	0.8	1.3	–
Germany	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.4
France	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.4
Other	3.4	3.7	6.8	10.9	4.1
Total	**41.6**	**49.5**	**110.0**	**147.9**	**62.2**
of which: EU	3.1	3.0	3.6	4.4	1.6
Total women	. .	22.6	47.0	62.2	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.6. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998
Portugal	29.0	39.1	51.5	55.9
Italy	20.7	19.5	19.8	20.0
France	12.6	13.0	15.0	17.5
Belgium	8.5	10.1	11.8	13.8
Germany	8.9	8.8	9.7	10.3
Spain	2.2	2.5	2.8	. .
Other countries	16.0	20.1	27.5	35.4
Total	**97.9**	**113.1**	**138.1**	**152.9**

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Morocco	116.4	156.9	149.8	128.6	60.0
Turkey	156.4	203.5	154.3	102.0	50.3
Germany	41.0	44.3	53.9	54.1	27.1
United Kingdom[1]	38.5	39.0	41.1	38.8	15.7
Belgium	22.8	23.6	24.1	24.8	13.0
Former Yugoslavia	11.7	13.5	33.5	22.3	10.7
Italy	17.8	16.9	17.4	17.6	5.9
Spain	19.0	17.2	16.7	16.8	7.9
United States	10.5	11.4	12.8	13.4	6.6
Portugal	7.5	8.3	9.1	8.8	4.0
Greece	3.8	4.9	5.4	5.3	1.9
Tunisia	2.6	2.6	1.9	1.4	0.5
Other countries	104.5	150.3	205.4	228.5	112.6
Total	**552.5**	**692.4**	**725.4**	**662.4**	**316.2**
of which: EU[2]	166.4	173.9	191.1	192.2	89.3
Total women	239.8	311.1	335.4	316.2	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Hong Kong (China).
2. European Union 15 for all years.

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Table B.1.6. **NORWAY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Sweden	10.0	11.7	15.4	24.0	12.5
Denmark	15.7	17.2	17.9	19.1	9.4
Bosnia Herzegovina[1]	. .	. .	11.2	11.8	6.0
United Kingdom	12.5	11.8	11.1	11.2	4.4
United States	10.0	9.5	9.0	8.6	4.5
Pakistan	8.4	11.4	9.7	6.9	3.7
Germany	3.7	4.3	4.8	6.0	3.1
Former Yugoslavia	1.7	4.2	6.4	5.5	2.5
Finland	. .	3.1	3.7	5.3	3.0
Iraq	. .	0.9	2.6	4.2	1.8
Somalia	. .	1.7	3.7	4.1	2.0
Iceland	. .	2.2	2.9	4.1	2.0
Sri Lanka	1.0	5.2	5.1	3.7	2.2
Iran	0.3	5.9	4.7	3.6	1.6
Netherlands	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	1.6
Other countries	35.8	51.6	49.6	43.6	23.8
Total	**101.5**	**143.3**	**160.8**	**165.1**	**84.3**
of which: EU[2]	52.9	55.9	61.6	75.5	36.8
Total women	48.1	66.5	80.3	84.3	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1992.
2. All figures include the 15 countries of the European Union.

Table B.1.6. **PORTUGAL, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1988	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Cape Verde	27.1	28.8	38.7	40.1	16.1
Brazil	9.3	11.4	19.9	19.9	9.1
Angola	4.4	5.3	15.8	16.5	6.6
Guinea-Bissau	3.1	4.0	12.3	12.9	3.5
United Kingdom	7.1	8.5	11.5	12.7	5.9
Spain	7.1	7.5	8.9	10.2	4.9
Germany	4.1	4.8	7.4	8.8	3.9
United States	6.1	6.9	8.5	8.1	3.5
France	2.8	3.2	4.7	5.8	2.8
Mozambique	2.8	3.2	4.4	4.4	2.0
Sao Tome and Principe	1.7	2.0	4.1	4.4	2.2
Venezuela	4.8	5.1	4.5	3.5	1.2
Netherlands	1.5	1.8	2.7	3.3	1.5
China	1.0	1.2	2.2	2.5	0.9
Italy	1.1	1.2	1.9	2.4	0.9
Other countries	10.6	12.7	20.7	22.4	9.9
Total	**94.7**	**107.8**	**168.3**	**177.8**	**74.5**
of which: EU	25.3	28.8	41.5	48.2	
Total women	. .	. .	69.5	74.5	

Note: Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.6. **SPAIN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998
Morocco	5.8	11.4	74.9	135.7
United Kingdom	39.1	55.5	65.3	72.5
Germany	28.5	31.2	41.9	55.9
Portugal	23.3	22.8	37.0	40.7
France	17.8	19.7	30.8	38.3
Italy	10.3	10.8	19.8	25.8
Peru	1.7	2.6	15.1	23.9
Dominican Republic	1.2	1.5	14.5	23.2
China	1.6	2.8	9.2	19.8
Argentina	9.7	12.1	18.4	16.5
Philippines	6.2	5.1	9.7	13.2
Netherlands	10.9	11.7	13.0	. .
United States	12.2	11.0	14.9	. .
Cuba	5.0	3.5	. .	. .
Belgium	7.4	8.2	8.9	. .
Other countries	61.2	68.9	126.6	254.1
Total	**242.0**	**278.8**	**499.8**	**719.6**
of which: EU	143.5	164.6	235.6	295.3

Note: Numbers of foreigners with a residence permit. Data refer to the population on the 31 December of the year indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women
					1998
Finland	138.6	119.7	104.9	99.9	55.7
Norway	26.4	38.2	32.3	30.6	16.0
Iraq	3.5	7.7	21.3	26.6	12.0
Former Yugoslavia	38.4	41.1	38.4	26.0	12.3
Denmark	25.1	28.6	26.5	25.0	10.7
Iran	8.3	39.0	29.3	19.8	10.0
Turkey	21.5	25.5	20.3	17.4	8.8
Poland	15.5	15.7	16.0	15.9	10.8
Germany	12.0	13.0	13.4	15.1	7.1
United Kingdom	8.9	10.1	11.2	12.1	4.1
Chile	9.2	19.9	13.0	11.4	5.3
United States	6.4	8.0	9.2	9.5	4.2
Greece	9.4	6.5	4.6	4.4	1.6
Italy	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.3	1.3
Iceland	3.4	5.3	4.9	4.2	2.0
Other countries	58.0	101.4	182.5	177.8	91.3
Total	**388.6**	**483.7**	**531.8**	**499.9**	**253.5**
Total women	192.7	237.5	256.5	253.5	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.6. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Italy	392.5	378.7	358.9	335.4	143.6
Former Yugoslavia	69.5	140.7	294.2	321.1	78.8
Portugal	30.9	85.6	134.8	135.8	66.5
Germany	81.0	83.4	90.9	97.9	45.4
Spain	108.4	116.1	101.4	90.4	41.1
Turkey	50.9	64.2	78.6	79.5	36.8
France	47.1	50.0	53.6	56.1	27.0
Austria	29.2	28.8	28.1	28.6	12.8
United Kingdom	15.4	16.7	18.4	18.7	8.0
Netherlands	10.8	11.9	13.6	13.8	6.6
United States	9.1	9.7	11.4	11.1	5.6
Belgium	4.8	5.6	6.3	6.9	3.4
Greece	8.7	8.3	7.1	6.3	2.7
Sweden	3.8	4.6	5.1	5.0	2.6
Vietnam	6.8	7.2	6.1	4.9	2.5
Other countries	70.8	88.7	121.9	136.3	142.2
Total	**939.7**	**1 100.3**	**1 330.6**	**1 347.9**	**625.5**
of which: EU	702.7	760.2	824.9	. .	. .
Total women	419.1	483.7	608.7	625.5	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign population by country or region of nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	*of which*: Women 1999
Ireland	569	478	443	442	227
India	138	156	114	149	86
United States	86	102	110	123	70
Germany	36	41	51	85	51
Central and Eastern Europe[1]	68	58	75	83	48
Italy	83	75	80	80	39
Bangladesh	41	38	53	78	41
Western Africa	43	37	87	77	42
Pakistan	49	56	81	73	36
France	27	38	60	68	38
Eastern Africa	28	39	40	61	32
Australia	28	44	47	55	25
Caribbean and Guyana	135	82	82	54	27
Spain	28	25	31	45	26
Portugal	–	21	30	44	26
Other countries	372	433	564	691	358
Total	**1 731**	**1 723**	**1 948**	**2 208**	**1 172**
of which: EU	796	731	902	886	476
Total women	. .	910	1 036	1 172	

Note: Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including former USSR.

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Table B.1.6. **UNITED STATES, stock of foreign population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1990
Mexico	3 328.3
Philippines	420.5
El Salvador	393.9
Cuba	361.0
Canada	341.9
Korea	337.5
United Kingdom	322.3
Vietnam	311.5
China	296.4
India	293.2
Dominican Republic	252.0
Japan	208.3
Jamaica	205.9
Colombia	203.3
Germany	199.9
Other	4 294.4
Total	**11 770.3**

Note: Data are from 1990 population census and refer to the foreign population born overseas. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **AUSTRALIA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
United Kingdom	39 495	36 488	41 963	39 876	36 401	36 134	35 431	27 294	23 080	13 529
China	3 342	1 743	5 018	4 872	5 242	5 971	4 250	16 173	21 053	10 947
New Zealand	7 538	6 562	8 502	9 772	7 786	9 033	11 724	9 982	8 764	6 320
Vietnam	8 256	6 723	9 697	12 406	10 713	7 772	7 741	5 083	4 685	3 083
India	1 933	1 960	2 130	2 645	2 836	3 107	2 638	2 563	3 358	2 695
Philippines	9 504	9 275	6 763	6 633	6 600	5 408	4 021	3 815	3 688	2 606
Former Yugoslavia[1]	4 726	3 679	3 487	2 972	3 043	3 534	5 188	3 207	4 088	2 465
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 637	2 728	1 841
Sri Lanka	2 516	2 576	2 003	2 104	1 691	1 730	1 644	1 620	2 049	1 707
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 591	2 877	1 698
Fiji	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 018	2 204	1 815	1 721	1 934	1 665
South Africa	3 029	2 569	2 006	1 781	1 595	1 324	1 262	1 578	1 880	1 606
Lebanon	4 090	3 405	2 585	2 976	2 122	1 392	1 105	1 076	1 364	1 091
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 634	1 912	2 272	1 701	1 565	1 083
Turkey	2 331	1 910	2 500	2 252	1 728	1 468	1 307	1 064	1 029	951
Others	41 097	41 620	38 504	33 796	28 777	33 768	31 239	28 161	28 201	36 716
Total	**127 857**	**118 510**	**125 158**	**122 085**	**112 186**	**114 757**	**111 637**	**108 266**	**112 343**	**76 474**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina from 1997 on.

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Table B.1.7. **AUSTRIA, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Turkey	723	1 106	1 809	1 994	2 688	3 379	3 209	7 499	5 068	5 683
Former Yugoslavia	2 323	2 641	3 221	4 337	5 791	5 623	4 538	3 133	3 671	4 151
Central and Eastern Europe	1 664	2 118	2 413	1 839	1 858	2 672	2 588	2 083	2 898	3 850
Germany	886	517	455	410	406	328	202	140	164	157
Others	2 874	2 817	3 496	3 340	3 659	4 268	4 772	3 388	4 473	4 480
Total	**8 470**	**9 199**	**11 394**	**11 920**	**14 402**	**16 270**	**15 309**	**16 243**	**16 274**	**18 321**

Note: Figures include naturalisations granted to persons living abroad. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **BELGIUM, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Morocco	2 091	6 862	5 500	8 638	9 146	7 912	11 076	13 484
Turkey	879	3 886	3 305	6 273	6 572	6 609	6 884	6 177
Italy	762	22 362	1 431	2 326	2 096	1 940	1 726	1 536
Zaire	185	454	410	474	452	442	756	1 202
Algeria	191	932	543	714	780	556	608	672
Tunisia	96	486	416	573	537	406	566	585
Former Yugoslavia	211	386	353	417	416	. .	438	499
France	514	2 179	532	618	608	539	530	491
Romania	273	69	94	118	85	115	358	387
Poland	151	237	174	239	176	175	220	277
Netherlands	217	1 179	222	335	336	259	292	249
Lebanon	58	103	81	158	137	150	306	248
China	64	113	101	181	170	166	199	225
Spain	110	1 795	196	281	246	261	221	180
Greece	104	940	170	312	294	253	238	175
Others	2 551	4 385	2 848	4 130	4 078	4 798	7 269	7 647
Total	**8 457**	**46 368**	**16 376**	**25 787**	**26 129**	**24 581**	**31 687**	**34 034**

Note: Data cover all means of acquiring the nationality. From 1992 on, following a change in nationality law a significant number of foreigners were granted Belgian nationality. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **CANADA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
China	3 995	4 574	4 982	4 706	7 777	14 228	12 878	10 560	11 528	14 105
Hong Kong (China)	3 502	5 556	9 845	13 347	11 717	17 109	14 978	15 110	9 744	13 097
Philippines	3 235	3 932	5 988	6 776	9 388	11 508	12 953	9 771	12 701	11 057
India	3 284	3 893	4 297	4 946	6 306	8 953	11 677	10 754	10 760	8 800
United Kingdom	11 015	8 908	11 257	9 131	10 012	12 620	11 173	8 952	11 491	6 187
Sri Lanka	1 034	2 645	2 609	2 164	2 848	5 768	10 154	6 288	4 920	6 109
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	. .	1 121	1 538	2 036	2 738	3 774	4 750	4 346
Vietnam	5 884	8 527	3 744	2 623	3 833	5 223	6 426	4 579	5 519	4 146
Poland	3 674	5 853	6 270	7 155	11 528	16 384	14 011	7 879	4 859	3 051
Former Yugoslavia	716	931	1 035	1 226	1 704	2 114	1 920	2 926	4 036	2 861
Romania	. .	. .	. .	1 521	1 814	2 288	2 489	2 294	3 297	2 848
Iran	1 621	2 462	2 214	2 329	3 229	5 124	6 457	3 226	2 601	2 630
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	887	1 469	2 597	3 341	2 596	2 867	2 393
United States	1 999	1 729	3 521	3 266	4 334	5 244	4 812	3 120	2 753	2 140
Lebanon	1 750	2 518	3 925	2 992	6 772	15 875	9 802	2 887	3 707	2 105
Stateless and others	45 769	52 739	58 943	52 011	66 301	90 249	101 911	60 911	59 011	48 519
Total	**87 478**	**104 267**	**118 630**	**116 201**	**150 570**	**217 320**	**227 720**	**155 627**	**154 544**	**134 394**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **DENMARK, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Turkey	195	107	376	502	560	915	797	917	1 036	1 243
Iran	21	73	989	1 083	710	491	531	829	553	969
Lebanon	12	16	44	109	234	237	216	314	160	811
Iraq	9	20	181	236	241	166	177	339	244	718
Former Yugoslavia	133	130	128	78	138	806	413	629	291	695
Sri Lanka	14	19	84	179	370	515	635	765	376	613
Vietnam	583	501	568	209	169	125	137	200	126	365
Pakistan	611	433	551	265	192	203	145	220	149	284
Morocco	109	114	202	167	168	136	122	201	110	248
Poland	120	152	317	278	219	151	175	237	130	241
Germany	175	167	231	158	134	140	118	126	138	173
Sweden	143	131	163	177	188	154	149	135	144	153
Norway	158	188	165	174	164	163	143	151	132	152
United Kingdom	121	106	133	109	85	94	82	98	96	84
Others	854	871	1 352	1 380	1 465	854	1 420	2 122	1 797	3 513
Total	**3 258**	**3 028**	**5 484**	**5 104**	**5 037**	**4 296**	**5 260**	**7 283**	**5 482**	**10 262**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **FINLAND, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Europe	1 000	539	736	506	450	342	335	365	509	1 245
of which:										
Russia/Former USSR	. .	85	142	232	158	48	149	198	254	804
Nordic countries	404	240	306	162	114	94	104	111	106	148
Asia	201	130	200	140	214	152	144	328	489	1 299
Africa	80	70	101	104	67	56	81	120	180	788
North America	107	46	57	7	5	11	1	5	6	7
South America	37	41	45	48	39	32	27	30	46	70
Oceania	14	4	10	4	1	–	2	1	2	6
Stateless and unknown	65	69	87	66	63	58	44	132	207	602
Total	**1 504**	**899**	**1 236**	**875**	**839**	**651**	**668**	**981**	**1 439**	**4 017**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **FRANCE, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Morocco	5 393	7 741	10 289	12 292	13 131	22 676	12 249	15 452	16 365	16 345
Algeria	4 070	5 355	6 631	7 410	7 909	10 868	9 499	13 218	13 488	13 377
Tunisia	2 538	3 076	4 375	4 991	5 370	9 248	4 182	5 109	5 420	5 699
Turkey	921	914	1 124	1 296	1 515	3 197	2 143	3 447	3 977	4 530
Portugal	7 027	6 876	7 126	5 575	5 233	6 908	3 775	4 644	4 997	4 505
Cambodia	1 724	1 827	1 729	1 701	1 847	3 319	2 445	2 950	2 896	2 404
Vietnam	2 478	2 326	2 139	1 888	1 775	2 660	1 950	2 773	2 432	2 186
Lebanon	. .	1 287	1 390	1 508	1 568	2 445	1 689	2 390	2 104	1 783
Former Yugoslavia	1 249	1 405	1 367	1 400	1 652	2 278	1 499	1 722	1 549	1 536
Laos	1 305	1 468	1 343	1 305	1 187	1 991	1 496	1 647	1 539	1 361
Italy	2 576	1 869	1 475	1 117	936	1 370	1 022	1 255	1 353	1 261
Poland	1 587	1 446	1 230	873	755	1 047	892	1 164	1 270	1 176
Haiti	. .	626	714	678	744	1 351	962	1 202	1 174	1 145
Cameroon	. .	618	625	707	729	1 271	809	973	1 027	1 002
Spain	3 320	2 868	2 317	1 528	1 385	1 514	780	924	885	732
Others	15 142	14 664	15 781	14 977	14 271	20 939	16 492	21 108	23 200	22 870
Total[1]	**49 330**	**54 366**	**59 655**	**59 246**	**60 007**	**93 082**	**61 884**	**79 978**	**83 676**	**81 912**
Total (estimates)[2]	**82 000**	**88 500**	**95 500**	**95 300**	**95 500**	**126 337**	**92 410**	**109 823**	**116 194**	**122 261**

Note: From 1994 onwards, data broken down by nationality include children acquiring French nationality as a consequence of the parent's naturalisation. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data exclude people automatically acquiring French nationality upon reaching legal majority (this procedure was in effect until 1993) as well as people born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.
2. Data include estimates of people acquiring French nationality upon reaching legal majority until 1993 as well as the number of people born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.

Table B.1.7. **GERMANY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Kazakhstan[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	101 000	94 961	88 583	83 478
Russian Federation[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	60 000	60 662	62 641	65 868
Turkey	1 713	2 034	3 529	7 377	12 915	19 590	31 578	46 294	40 396	56 994
Romania	11 868	14 410	29 011	37 574	28 346	17 968	12 028	9 777	8 668	6 318
Poland	24 882	32 340	27 646	20 248	15 435	11 943	10 174	7 872	5 763	4 968
Former USSR	13 557	33 339	55 620	84 660	105 801	43 086	35 477	21 457	8 966	3 925
Former Yugoslavia	2 076	2 082	2 832	2 326	5 241	4 374	3 623	2 967	2 244	2 721
Italy	548	437	679	1 218	1 154	1 417	1 281	1 297	1 176	1 144
Austria	659	537	793	959	810	772	493	605	582	533
Others	13 223	16 198	21 520	25 542	29 741	160 020	57 952	56 938	52 754	10 198
Total naturalisations	**68 526**	**101 377**	**141 630**	**179 904**	**199 443**	**259 170**	**313 606**	**302 830**	**271 773**	**236 147**
of which: naturalisations by discretionary decision	17 742	20 237	27 295	37 042	44 950	26 295	31 888	37 604	37 534	. .

Note: Data include naturalisations on the basis of a claim, which concern essentially ethnic Germans. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including in former USSR until 1994.

Table B.1.7. **HUNGARY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Romania	2 568	5 274	20 480	10 589	6 943	7 055	8 549	5 229	3 842
Former Yugoslavia	222	12	153	272	852	1 132	1 999	1 610	1 082
Former USSR	228	271	788	567	1 585	1 182	1 227	788	713
Other	152	336	459	378	525	651	491	1 030	799
Total	**3 170**	**5 893**	**21 880**	**11 805**	**9 905**	**10 021**	**12 266**	**8 658**	**6 435**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **ITALY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Romania	112	194	446	521	577	639	811	222
Dominican Republic	89	133	245	375	390	468	544	151
Albania	–	–	–	–	–	198	72	123
Brazil	128	123	175	225	191	215	131	110
Former USSR	112	179	325	260	435	282[1]	106[1]	105[1]
Morocco	126	141	235	295	333	323	586	97
Poland	228	211	262	211	313	302	96	76
Argentina	278	432	570	392	286	260	73	68
Iran	113	64	95	73	131	168	39	53
Philippines	164	169	222	139	177	162	32	45
Egypt	222	152	246	169	223	228	28	32
Switzerland	335	385	472	423	638	514	768	26
Vietnam	80	154	115	88	243	162	23	21
Other countries	2 555	2 071	3 077	3 442	3 505	3 040	5 928	8 714
Total	**4 542**	**4 408**	**6 485**	**6 613**	**7 442**	**6 961**	**9 237**	**9 843**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Russian Federation.

Table B.1.7. **JAPAN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Korea	4 759	5 216	5 665	7 244	7 697	8 244	10 327	9 898	9 678	9 561
China	1 066	1 349	1 818	1 794	2 244	2 478	3 184	3 976	4 729	4 637
Others	264	229	305	325	511	424	593	621	654	581
Total	**6 089**	**6 794**	**7 788**	**9 363**	**10 452**	**11 146**	**14 104**	**14 495**	**15 061**	**14 779**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **LUXEMBOURG, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Italy	162	113	191	123	147	151	169	209	193	192
France	126	98	106	75	75	89	71	78	85	79
Belgium	105	78	79	76	86	63	75	67	65	64
Germany	104	84	97	54	68	78	64	70	55	60
Netherlands	29	31	30	11	13	18	16	15	20	17
Others	236	200	245	243	220	279	344	363	361	337
Total	**762**	**604**	**748**	**582**	**609**	**678**	**739**	**802**	**779**	**749**

Note: Minor children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents are excluded. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **NETHERLANDS, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Turkey	3 280	1 950	6 110	11 520	18 000	23 870	33 060	30 700	21 190	13 480
Morocco	6 830	3 030	7 300	7 990	7 750	8 110	13 480	15 600	10 480	11 250
Former Yugoslavia	520	240	520	1 060	2 090	1 880	1 700	2 240	2 830	6 670
Suriname	3 570	1 640	4 010	5 120	4 990	5 390	3 990	4 450	3 020	2 990
United Kingdom	1 880	620	900	670	490	460	820	1 170	690	580
Germany[1]	670	190	380	380	330	310	500	780	560	560
Egypt	. .	20	30	30	350	540	810	1 080	550	390
Italy	150	50	90	90	100	140	200	280	330	300
Portugal	220	120	140	110	130	140	190	300	300	230
Belgium	250	100	140	160	120	110	170	290	180	200
France	100	30	50	70	60	70	110	160	120	180
Greece	90	40	60	80	90	80	150	250	230	170
Spain	100	40	60	60	50	90	120	160	140	120
Stateless	510	270	360	210	180	170	610	820	680	120
Others	10 560	4 450	8 960	8 690	8 340	8 090	15 530	24 420	18 530	21 930
Total	**28 730**	**12 790**	**29 110**	**36 240**	**43 070**	**49 450**	**71 440**	**82 700**	**59 830**	**59 170**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Western Germany until 1989, Germany as a whole from 1990 onwards.

Table B.1.7. **NORWAY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Pakistan	582	899	778	1 054	664	616	997	1 530	1 583	1 097
Vietnam	940	1 039	1 082	931	746	710	727	1 446	1 276	781
Turkey	280	304	474	238	393	752	793	836	837	705
Former Yugoslavia	160	111	140	201	274	659	754	554	520	560
Chile	127	106	82	81	117	310	923	531	416	240
Poland	332	264	234	215	265	275	374	267	282	192
India	131	149	166	220	242	251	346	313	274	157
Philippines	219	294	235	298	213	243	343	315	360	155
Morocco	124	128	280	299	275	257	248	318	294	154
Sweden	117	72	103	108	153	150	130	112	167	154
Denmark	200	156	108	108	119	187	102	91	143	149
Korea	149	138	95	107	105	135	121	122	109	146
United Kingdom	100	96	93	107	106	136	110	162	142	129
Colombia	211	199	270	221	217	204	143	144	130	111
Iran	23	15	39	72	317	1 287	1 419	1 154	834	. .
China	51	48	76	95	149	148	235	383	348	. .
Others	876	739	800	777	1 183	2 458	4 013	3 959	4 322	4 514
Total	**4 622**	**4 757**	**5 055**	5 132	**5 538**	**8 778**	11 778	12 237	12 037	9 244

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **SPAIN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Peru	154	242	136	212	246	468	658	1 150	1 159	1 863
Dominican Republic	. .	156	105	146	298	393	499	833	1 257	1 860
Morocco	2 122	1 675	427	597	986	897	785	687	1 056	1 542
Argentina	732	1 096	639	944	1 532	1 690	1 314	1 387	1 368	1 126
Cuba	144	163	119	146	. .	172	169	250	442	773
Portugal	404	496	234	447	424	503	372	452	524	677
Colombia	. .	260	174	247	433	383	364	457	478	624
Philippines	192	318	188	283	380	340	281	455	583	499
Chile	342	440	249	344	725	335	317	425	428	473
Uruguay	. .	266	147	187	268	246	217	260	279	310
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	128	217	. .
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	106	74	109	180	. .
Guinea-Bissau	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	118	118	183	. .	. .
Venezuela	136	237	139	183	373	211	130	133	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	129	111	128	. .	. .
Others	1 692	1 684	1 195	1 544	2 747	1 811	1 347	1 396	2 338	3 430
Total	**5 918**	**7 033**	**3 752**	**5 280**	**8 412**	**7 802**	**6 756**	**8 433**	**10 309**	**13 177**

Note: Persons recovering their former (Spanish) nationality are not included. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **SWEDEN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Former Yugoslavia	1 318	1 152	2 832	3 969	10 940	6 352	3 550	2 416	6 052	8 991
Turkey	832	832	1 358	1 569	4 201	2 742	2 836	2 030	1 402	1 694
Finland	4 611	3 532	4 208	3 805	3 070	2 974	2 125	2 009	1 882	1 668
Poland	1 397	1 205	1 309	1 294	1 164	998	895	636	523	454
Chile	667	663	1 323	1 305	1 762	1 446	946	707	545	426
Denmark	574	397	407	418	283	345	318	272	296	272
Norway	671	480	539	445	291	450	363	276	186	208
Germany	188	130	169	141	155	137	128	154	117	111
United Kingdom	135	102	143	138	101	107	96	90	60	52
Greece	669	457	783	377	464	244	140	113	68	25
Spain	73	62	74	49	34	38	33	23	20	15
Others	6 417	7 758	14 518	15 816	20 194	19 251	20 563	16 826	17 716	32 586
Total	**17 552**	**16 770**	**27 663**	**29 326**	**42 659**	**35 084**	**31 993**	**25 552**	**28 867**	**46 502**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **SWITZERLAND, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Italy	2 479	1 995	1 802	1 930	2 778	3 258	4 376	5 167	4 982	5 613
Former Yugoslavia	528	552	607	936	1 454	1 821	2 491	2 783	2 956	3 311
Turkey	238	211	333	614	820	966	1 205	1 432	1 814	2 093
France	1 025	684	677	809	862	935	871	1 045	985	1 152
Spain	560	401	408	353	319	305	432	453	481	619
Germany	1 404	1 144	971	1 099	890	657	706	675	644	605
Portugal	160	170	146	101	89	119	175	262	291	421
United Kingdom	183	141	135	307	347	263	278	299	269	285
Former CSFR	344	352	362	338	415	370	385	465	272	231
Hungary	277	202	186	223	207	243	297	278	206	187
Austria	579	431	478	465	413	256	261	248	223	186
Netherlands	149	153	111	90	76	57	52	55	71	76
Others	2 416	2 222	2 541	3 943	4 258	4 507	5 266	6 213	5 976	6 501
Total	**10 342**	**8 658**	**8 757**	**11 208**	**12 928**	**13 757**	**16 795**	**19 375**	**19 170**	**21 280**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.1.7. **UNITED KINGDOM, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Africa	6 304	7 452	7 877	7 940	9 162	8 018	12 941
Europe	5 253	5 475	5 165	4 615	4 650	4 330	5 938
EEA (excluding Ireland)	2 257	2 177	2 058	1 755	1 722	1 546	. .
Ireland	. .	100	100	200	100	85	. .
Other European countries	. .	3 198	3 007	2 660	2 828	2 699	. .
Middle East and Turkey	. .	5 000	5 000	4 200	4 400	3 951	. .
America	4 562	4 828	4 531	4 096	4 266	3 544	5 224
North America	. .	2 100	2 000	1 800	1 900	1 646	. .
West Indies	. .	1 900	1 800	1 600	. .	1 213	. .
Other American countries	. .	828	731	696	2 366	685	. .
British Dependent Territories citizens	. .	1 900	2 200	2 000	2 100	2 225	. .
Oceania	1 462	1 452	1 539	1 666	1 542	1 443	1 645
Others	24 662	19 684	17 721	15 999	16 949	13 499	27 777
Total	**42 243**	**45 791**	**44 033**	**40 516**	**43 069**	**37 010**	**53 525**
Acquisitions of nationality in Hong Kong (China)	**. .**	**41 800**	**5 900**	**25 700**	**5 500**	**3 406**	**3 400**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.7. **UNITED STATES, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mexico	22 085	18 520	17 564	22 066	12 880	23 630	39 310	67 238	217 418	134 494
Vietnam	21 636	19 357	22 027	29 603	18 357	22 427	26 833	28 074	47 625	33 349
Philippines	24 580	24 802	25 936	33 714	28 579	33 864	37 304	33 634	45 210	28 075
Former USSR	5 304	3 020	2 847	2 822	1 648	2 763	6 708	16 172	36 265	25 965
Dominican Republic	5 842	6 454	5 984	6 368	8 464	12 274	11 399	9 892	27 293	19 450
India	9 983	9 833	11 499	12 961	13 413	16 506	20 454	17 880	28 932	18 812
Jamaica	6 441	6 455	6 762	6 838	6 765	7 976	12 173	10 949	24 270	18 746
El Salvador	2 291	2 001	2 410	3 653	2 056	3 057	4 998	11 505	33 240	17 818
China	10 509	11 664	13 563	16 783	13 488	16 851	20 828	20 009	30 656	17 552
Haiti	2 350	3 692	5 009	4 436	3 993	5 202	7 982	7 855	24 556	15 667
Korea	13 012	11 301	10 500	12 266	8 297	9 611	11 389	14 170	24 693	13 996
Africa	7 122	7 209	8 770	10 230	9 628	11 293	15 327	17 020	21 842	13 862
Cuba	11 228	9 514	10 291	9 554	7 763	15 109	15 896	16 994	62 168	12 860
United Kingdom	7 042	7 865	8 286	9 935	7 800	10 158	15 003	14 143	20 052	11 418
Colombia	5 021	4 736	5 540	5 513	6 439	9 976	12 067	12 333	26 115	10 911
Others	87 617	87 354	113 113	121 316	90 682	113 984	149 727	147 985	374 354	205 250
Total	**242 063**	**233 777**	**270 101**	**308 058**	**240 252**	**314 681**	**407 398**	**445 853**	**1 044 689**	**598 225**

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.2.1. **AUSTRALIA, foreign-born labour force by place of birth, selected years**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	1999	*of which:* Women 1999
Europe	1 319.2	1 342.4	1 220.8	1 179.3	463.9
United Kingdom and Ireland	670.2	703.6	660.1	656.2	262.7
Former Yugoslavia	106.6	109.7	110.2	96.2	35.7
Italy	153.0	139.5	95.5	93.8	31.2
Germany	69.9	70.4	59.8	61.3	26.0
Greece	86.4	81.2	59.7	56.8	21.8
Netherlands	62.9	55.8	45.0	42.6	16.1
Poland	28.9	. .	. .	. .	. .
Malta	28.1	. .	. .	. .	. .
Others	113.2	182.2	190.5	172.4	70.4
Asia	267.5	342.7	428.2	516.7	228.1
Vietnam	. .	60.6	82.9	76.4	28.1
China[1]	. .	59.3	55.5	69.8	27.2
Philippines	. .	44.2	55.9	64.6	39.0
India	. .	40.0	48.8	57.4	23.3
Malaysia	. .	43.4	50.8	44.2	22.2
Others	267.5	95.2	134.3	204.3	88.3
New Zealand	138.1	187.8	208.6	247.3	107.6
America	55.4	76.1	96.7	115.4	53.1
North Africa and the Middle East[2]	93.6	94.4	103.7	101.0	30.4
Lebanon	23.6	37.0	35.3	33.4	7.8
Others	70.0	57.4	68.4	67.6	22.6
Other and not stated	26.7	138.9	180.8	149.9	65.2
Total	**1 900.5**	**2 182.3**	**2 238.8**	**2 309.6**	**948.3**
% of total labour force	25.4	25.7	24.6	24.6	23.4

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Chinese Taipei.
2. Africa (excluding North Africa) in 1986.

Table B.2.1. **CANADA, foreign-born labour force by place of birth, 1991 and 1996 census results**

Thousands

	1991	1996
United Kingdom	422.0	372.5
Italy	214.0	166.2
India	127.0	158.3
United States	144.0	142.0
Hong Kong (China)	96.0	129.4
Philippines	. .	126.7
China	90.0	113.8
Portugal	111.0	101.0
Germany	115.0	100.7
Poland	89.0	98.0
Vietnam	. .	85.8
Jamaica	. .	79.5
Netherlands	82.0	70.5
Other Countries	1 191.0	1 094.7
Total	**2 681.0**	**2 839.1**
% of total labour force	18.5	19.2

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.2.1. **UNITED STATES, foreign-born labour force by place of birth, census results of 1990**

Thousands

Mexico	2 630.9
Philippines	629.0
Cuba	459.2
Germany	378.3
Canada	371.8
United Kingdom	349.4
Korea	328.7
China	313.6
El Salvador	308.8
India	308.6
Vietnam	303.7
Italy	266.0
Jamaica	232.3
Dominican Republic	195.4
Colombia	192.5
Other countries	4 296.4
Total	**11 564.6**
% of total labour force	9.4

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1988	1990[1]	1995	1999	*of which*: Women 1999
Former Yugoslavia	83.1	110.5	108.0	77.1	32.9
Turkey	34.2	50.6	55.7	47.7	12.7
Bosnia Herzegovina[2]	. .	. .	22.8	34.2	12.9
Croatia[3]	. .	. .	16.0	23.2	8.6
Hungary	. .	. .	9.6	9.0	1.8
Poland	. .	. .	10.8	8.7	2.3
Romania	. .	. .	9.3	7.5	2.5
Slovenia	. .	. .	5.8	6.0	1.6
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	2.9	4.0	1.2
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia[2]	. .	. .	1.9	4.0	0.7
Czech Republic	. .	. .	3.6	3.9	1.2
China[4]	. .	. .	2.0	1.5	0.5
Bulgaria	. .	. .	1.5	1.1	0.4
Philippines	. .	. .	2.1	1.1	0.7
India	. .	. .	1.8	1.0	0.3
Other countries	33.6	56.5	15.9	9.0	2.3
Total	**150.9**	**217.6**	**269.7**	**239.1**	**82.6**
of which: EU[5]	. .	. .	–	–	–
Total women	57.9	76.4	89.5	82.6	
Total including foreign unemployed[6]	**160.9**	**236.0**	**325.2**	. .	

Note: Annual average. Data by nationality are from valid work permits. Figures may be over-estimated as a result of persons holding more than one permit. The self-employed are excluded. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data not corrected (data for Table A.2.3. have been corrected. See the note attached to the series).
2. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1993.
3. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1991.
4. Including Chinese Taipei.
5. From 1994 on, EEA members no longer need work permits.
6. From 1994 on, data on employed foreigners are stock of workers registered with Social Security offices (including EEA nationals).

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Table B.2.2. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign workers by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1995	1997	1998
Italy	94.4	100.7	102.5	. .
France	42.9	50.9	56.4	. .
Morocco	. .	44.3	44.3	. .
Netherlands	22.5	29.5	32.2	. .
Turkey	. .	29.9	29.9	. .
Spain	21.7	22.6	23.1	. .
Portugal	5.5	10.4	11.7	. .
Germany	6.8	8.2	8.8	. .
United Kingdom	6.4	8.1	8.4	. .
Greece	6.2	6.8	6.9	. .
Zaire	. .	3.6	4.1	. .
Algeria	. .	3.4	3.3	. .
Tunisia	. .	2.3	2.2	. .
Luxembourg	1.4	1.5	1.5	. .
Ireland	0.9	1.0	1.0	. .
Others	78.1	34.3	37.9	. .
Total	**286.9**	**357.6**	**374.2**	**375.4**

Note: Data are estimates on the basis of MET, INASTI and ONEM data. They include self-employed and unemployed. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **DENMARK, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1997	*of which*: Women
					1997
Turkey	10.1	12.8	13.5	14.0	5.4
Former Yugoslavia	4.2	4.9	6.3	9.3	3.7
United Kingdom	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.6	2.2
Germany	4.8	5.1	5.9	6.5	2.7
Norway	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.2	3.5
Sweden	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.5	3.1
Iceland	1.4	1.3	2.3	2.9	1.4
Pakistan	2.5	2.2	2.4	2.5	0.9
Finland	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.8
Other countries	16.1	25.0	34.2	38.3	16.1
Total	**56.5**	**68.8**	**83.8**	**93.9**	**39.7**
of which: EU	14.8	16.7	26.5	28.9	11.5
Total women	23.6	28.3	35.2	39.7	

Note: Data are from population registers and give the count as of the end of the given year (end of November until 1991, end of December from 1992). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.2.2. **FINLAND, stock of foreign workers by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998[Note:]
Former USSR	6.0	6.6	7.2	8.0	8.6
Estonia	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.1	4.3
Sweden	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1
United Kingdom	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2
Somalia	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1
Germany	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1
Former Yugoslavia	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1
Turkey	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9
Vietnam	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7
United States	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
Iraq	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6
China	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Bosnia Herzegovina	. .	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5
Iran	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Thailand	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Others	6.6	7.1	7.9	8.7	9.2
Total	**24.4**	**26.9**	**29.7**	**33.0**	**34.7**

1. Figures are estimated.
For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **FRANCE, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	*of which*: Women 1999
Portugal	456.8	428.5	375.0	325.7	143.2
Algeria	279.0	248.5	245.6	237.2	83.7
Morocco	186.4	168.1	197.5	226.9	65.0
Spain	117.8	108.5	82.1	86.5	32.0
Tunisia	75.1	74.7	81.0	83.9	20.7
Turkey	41.6	53.9	66.4	76.1	21.4
Italy	125.9	96.9	76.6	75.6	22.0
Former Yugoslavia	44.1	29.6	32.3	31.4	15.4
Poland	14.2	15.1	7.1	14.0	7.1
Other countries	308.3	325.6	409.6	436.5	178.5
Total	**1 649.2**	**1 549.5**	**1 573.3**	**1 593.9**	**588.9**
of which: EU[1]	771.6	716.2	629.1	589.5	241.7
Total women	495.8	484.7	553.6	588.9	

Note: Data are derived from the Labour Force Survey and refer to the month of March. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. European Union 12 for all years.

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Table B.2.2. **GERMANY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1997	*of which*: Women 1997
Turkey	589.0	680.2	752.0	745.2	232.9
Former Yugoslavia	324.9	339.0	468.9	348.0	131.3
Italy	232.8	199.8	245.1	246.5	70.9
Greece	115.4	117.8	139.4	134.2	52.2
Portugal	38.3	45.5	58.1	58.9	20.9
Spain	73.7	66.3	56.4	52.5	19.9
Other countries	449.3	576.5	849.4	936.5	335.2
Total	**1 823.4**	**2 025.1**	**2 569.2**	**2 521.9**	**863.3**
Total women	578.5	668.6	873.8	863.3	

Note: Data are for 30 September of each year and include cross-border workers but not the self-employed. Data cover only western Germany for all years. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1995	1998
Romania	26.2	9.8	10.6
China	. .	2.6	2.8
Slovak Republic	. .	0.9	1.1
Former USSR	3.0	1.4	1.0
Poland	. .	1.4	1.0
Former Yugoslavia	. .	0.7	0.5
Vietnam	. .	0.2	0.3
Other	2.5	4.0	5.2
Total	**31.7**	**21.0**	**22.4**

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **JAPAN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1992	1995	1998
China[1]	. .	17.1	23.3	32.6
Philippines	. .	21.3	13.7	25.7
United States	. .	18.3	17.5	17.2
Korea	. .	5.5	6.4	8.2
United Kingdom	. .	5.2	5.6	7.0
Canada	. .	3.3	4.1	5.2
Australia	. .	2.0	2.4	3.5
India	. .	1.3	1.7	2.9
France	. .	1.3	1.4	1.7
Germany	. .	1.3	1.3	1.4
Other	. .	8.8	10.6	13.7
Total	**30.6**	**85.5**	**88.0**	**119.0**

Note: Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Chinese Taipei.

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Table B.2.2. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1997
France	11.2	21.2	33.2	39.7
Portugal	15.7	22.8	27.3	28.3
Belgium	8.9	14.6	19.6	22.4
Germany	5.5	9.1	12.7	14.6
Italy	8.5	8.5	7.7	7.7
Former Yugoslavia	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.5
Spain	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
Other countries	3.6	6.3	8.6	9.6
Total	**55.0**	**84.7**	**111.8**	**124.8**
of which: EU	52.3	79.8	105.4	118.0
Total women	18.4	29.4	39.9	44.8

Note: Data are for 1 October of each year and cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1997	*of which*: Women
					1997
Morocco	25	27	32	35	8
Turkey	35	41	39	29	4
Belgium	21	24	22	23	10
United Kingdom	15	18	22	23	8
Germany	16	18	15	14	4
Spain	8	8	7	11	3
Other countries	45	61	84	73	29
Total	**166**	**197**	**221**	**208**	**66**
of which: EU	65	88	98	96	36
Total women	40	53	69	66	

Note: Estimates are for 31 March and include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed, family workers and the unemployed. From 1990 onwards, foreigners legally residing in the Netherlands but working abroad are excluded. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **NORWAY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1988	1990	1995	1998
Sweden	6.2	5.5	7.8	12.9
Denmark	9.2	8.6	9.0	9.9
United Kingdom	5.1	4.6	5.2	5.9
United States	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.4
Germany	1.9	1.9	2.2	3.0
Finland	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.8
Netherlands	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7
Pakistan	2.6	2.2	1.9	1.7
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.5
Chile	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.3
Turkey	1.6	1.4	1.0	1.0
India	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.9
Poland	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7
Other countries	12.1	11.4	14.2	20.2
Total	**49.5**	**46.3**	**52.6**	**66.9**

Note: Data are for the 2nd quarter (except for 1995 and 1996: 4th quarter). The unemployed and the self-employed are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

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Table B.2.2. **PORTUGAL, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1991	1995[1]	1998
Cape Verde	16.9	21.8	21.9
Brazil	5.4	9.6	9.6
Angola	1.7	7.9	8.2
Guinea-Bissau	2.3	7.0	7.2
United Kingdom	4.2	5.4	6.0
Spain	3.9	4.7	5.5
Germany	3.0	4.1	4.8
France	2.1	2.8	3.5
United States	2.7	3.0	3.1
Mozambique	1.6	1.8	1.9
Venezuela	1.0	0.7	0.4
Other countries	10.1	15.5	16.5
Total	**54.9**	**84.3**	**88.6**

Note: Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). For more details on sources,refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Figures include workers benefiting from the 1992-1993 regularisation procedure.

Table B.2.2. **SPAIN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1988	1990	1995	1998[1]	*of which*: Women 1998[1]
Morocco	5.0	8.8	51.6	73.3	13.0
Peru	0.6	0.9	11.4	15.9	10.7
Dominican Republic	0.5	0.7	9.7	13.1	11.2
China	1.3	1.7	6.2	11.6	4.1
Philippines	3.3	4.1	7.1	8.3	5.5
Ecuador	. .	. .	1.4	7.3	5.4
Argentina	3.5	6.3	7.5	4.7	1.8
Senegal	. .	. .	3.4	4.5	. .
Colombia	0.8	1.2	3.1	4.2	3.0
Algeria	. .	0.2	2.7	3.7	. .
Poland	. .	. .	2.6	3.7	1.3
Gambia	. .	0.9	2.7	3.2	. .
Cuba	. .	. .	1.4	2.9	1.2
Romania	. .	. .	0.9	2.4	. .
Chile	1.3	1.7	2.5	. .	1.0
Other countries	42.1	58.9	24.7	31.8	11.6
Total	**58.2**	**85.4**	**139.0**	**190.6**	**69.8**
of which: EU	31.4	34.8	. .	. .	. .
Total women	21.5	29.8	46.1	69.8	

Note: Data are for 31 December of each year and are counts of valid work permits. From 1992 onwards, workers from the EU are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Provisional data (including work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme).

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Table B.2.2. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
Finland	85	72	56	52	29
Former Yugoslavia	22	21	15	31	12
Norway	14	20	19	17	9
Denmark	15	17	13	13	5
Iran	. .	. .	15	9	3
Poland	. .	8	9	7	4
Turkey	. .	11	7	5	1
Other countries	79	97	86	85	35
Total	**216**	**246**	**220**	**219**	**98**
Total women	100	114	98	98	

Note: Annual average. Estimates are from the annual Labour Force Survey. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	*of which*: Women 1998
A. Resident workers[1]					
Italy	228.7	234.3	214.3	184.4	61.4
Former Yugoslavia	47.2	84.4	134.6	142.8	52.4
Portugal	20.9	55.2	80.5	76.6	32.7
Germany	46.8	53.6	56.3	58.7	21.6
Spain	68.7	75.1	63.5	53.7	21.0
Turkey	26.0	33.2	35.6	32.8	11.7
France	27.2	31.5	32.3	30.7	12.1
Austria	19.7	20.9	19.4	17.8	6.4
United Kingdom	7.6	9.2	9.9	10.0	2.9
Netherlands	5.6	7.0	8.1	7.8	3.0
United States	3.8	4.8	5.4	5.6	1.9
Other countries	47.1	60.5	68.7	70.2	29.8
Total	**549.3**	**669.8**	**728.7**	**691.1**	**256.8**
of which: EU	. .	476.1	499.2	452.8	166.5
Total women	185.1	228.7	261.3	256.8	
B. Seasonal workers[2]					
Portugal	26.2	40.5	23.8	16.6	4.4
Italy	17.8	13.5	6.1	3.7	0.5
Spain	21.9	14.6	4.1	2.1	0.4
Germany	1.9	2.4	2.3	2.1	1.1
France	2.0	2.5	2.0	1.8	0.7
Austria	1.9	2.5	1.6	1.3	0.8
Former Yugoslavia	29.7	44.5	12.2	–	–
Turkey	0.2	–	–	–	–
Other countries	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.3	0.6
Total	**102.8**	**121.7**	**53.7**	**28.8**	**8.5**
Total women	17.4	20.3	12.7	8.5	

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data as of 31 December of each year and are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded.
2. Data as of 31 August of each year, when seasonal work is at its peak.

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Table B.2.2. **UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign labour by country or region of nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	*of which*: Women 1999
Ireland	269	268	216	220	101
Africa	51	59	83	120	50
India	66	84	60	66	29
United States	37	50	49	55	30
France	17	24	34	44	25
Germany	18	22	27	44	25
Italy	56	48	43	43	17
Australia[1]	23	39	34	36	14
Pakistan[2]	27	27	20	27	4
Central and Eastern Europe[3]	25	20	23	25	17
Spain	14	16	17	25	12
Caribbean and Guyana	77	48	38	24	11
New Zealand	. .	. .	19	23	12
Portugal	–	11	18	20	10
Bangladesh	. .	. .	–	17	2
Other countries	128	166	181	216	257
Total	**808**	**882**	**862**	**1 005**	**465**
of which: EU	382	419	441	453	224
Total women	. .	393	421	465	

Note: Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. The symbol "–" indicates that figures areless than 10 000. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including New Zealand until 1991.
2. Including Bangladesh until 1991.
3. Including former USSR.

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Notes related to tables A.1.1. to A.1.3. and B.1.1. to B.1.3.

Migration flows in selected OECD countries

***Flow data based on* Population Registers**

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Belgium	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Until 1994, some asylum seekers were included in the Population Register. Since 1995 then they have been recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, Institut national de la statistique.
Denmark	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data only count immigrants once they have lived in the country for 1 year. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Excluded from inflows are asylum seekers, and all those with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees).	Central Population Register, Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Inflows of those of Finnish origin are included.	Central Population Register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
Germany	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. The figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991.	Population Register, Statistisches Bundesamt.
Hungary	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data for 1997 are preliminary.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: remaining in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Office.
Luxembourg	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months.	In 1998, flows of foreigners were deduced with reference to the total flows by making the assumption that flows of nationals did not change between 1997 and 1998.	Central Population Register, Service central de la statistique et des études économiques.
Netherlands	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 6 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population Registers, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	From 1987 includes asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Sweden	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	*Criteria for registering foreigners*: holding a permanent or an annual residence permit.	Inflows do not include conversions from seasonal permits to non-seasonal permits.	Register of Foreigners, Federal Foreign Office.

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Notes related to tables A.1.1. to A.1.3. and B.1.1. to B.1.3.

Migration flows in selected OECD countries (*cont.*)

Inflow data based on residence and work permits

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	A. Permanent migrants: Issues of permanent residence permits (including accompanying dependents). B.Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (*i.e.* excluding students). In 1997, data include 17 049 holders of a Temporary Business entry (TBE) visa (long stay).	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated). Data do not include persons granted permanent residence whilst already temporary residents in Australia.	Department of Immigration and Population Research
Canada	Issues of permanent residence permits.	Data include those already present in Canada, and also those granted residence in a programme eliminating a backlog of applications.	Statistics Canada
France	– Until 1989 the data consist of those entering as permanent workers, those with provisional work permits and those entering under family reunification. – Since 1990, those with provisional work permits are not included. Those entering as self employed and additional permits relating to family reunification have been added to the figures.	Entries from the EU are not counted, except permanent workers (including entries from the EEA since 1994) who are included through declarations made by employers to the authorities. From 1994 on, figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of EEA citizens for example).	Office des migrations internationales
Greece	Issues of residence permits	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order
Ireland	Estimates on the basis of 1996 Census results.	Data on 1998 are preliminary.	Central Statistics Office
Italy	Issues of residence permits (excluding renewals).		Ministry of the Interior
New Zealand	Permanent and long-term arrivals/ departures.		Statistics New Zealand
United Kingdom	Passengers, excluding EEA nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom.	Data exclude visitors, passengers in transit or returning on limited leave or who previously settled. Students and au pair girls are excluded.	Home Office
United States	Issues of permanent residence permits.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States: those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice

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Notes related to tables A.1.4. and B.1.4. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

	Comments	Source
Australia	Excluding accompanying dependents.	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Austria	Excluding *de facto* refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina.	Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	–	Institut national de statistique, Office des étrangers, Commissaire général aux réfugiés et aux apatrides.
Canada	–	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Czech Republic	–	Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	–	Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	–	Ministry of the Interior.
France	Excluding accompanying dependents.	Office français de protection des réfugiés et des apatrides.
Germany	–	Bundesministerium des Innern.
Greece	–	Ministry of the Interior.
Hungary	–	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Ireland	–	Department of Justice.
Italy	Excluding accompanying dependents.	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Luxembourg	–	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Ministry of Justice.
Netherlands	–	Ministry of Justice.
New Zealand	–	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Norway	–	Immigration Directorate.
Poland	–	Department for Migration and Refugee Affairs, Ministry of the Interior.
Portugal	–	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Excluding accompanying dependents.	Officine de Asilo y Refugio.
Sweden	–	Swedish Immigration Board.
Switzerland	–	Office fédéral des réfugiés.
United Kingdom	Breakdown by country excludes accompanying dependents.	Home Office.
United States	Excluding accompanying dependents. Fiscal years (October to September of the years indicated). From 1993 on, figures include applications reopened during year.	US Department of Justice.

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Notes related to tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign-born population**

	Comments	Source
Australia	–	Quinquennial censuses, Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Canada	–	Quinquennial censuses, Statistics Canada.
Denmark	*Coverage*: "Immigrants" defined in Danish statistics as foreign-born citizens to parents born abroad or in the country.	Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	Coverage: Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in Population Register. Includes those who are of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
Netherlands	*Reference date*: 31 December.	Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	*Reference date*: 31 December.	Statistics Norway.
Sweden	*Reference date*: 31 December.	Statistics Sweden.
United States	*Coverage*: Persons born overseas whose parents are US citizens are not included in the 1980 and 1990 census figures. Note that estimates by country of birth are not sufficiently accurate in the Current Population Survey and are not shown in the tables.	Decennial censuses, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Current Population Survey (1994-1996) Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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Notes related to tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. **Foreign population**

	Comments	Source
Austria	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. *Reference date*: Annual average *Other comments*: The data were revised following the 1991 Census. A breakdown by nationality is not available.	Population Register, Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Until 1994, asylum seekers were included in the Population Register. Since 1995 then they have been recorded in a separate register. *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: There are two breaks in the series between 1984-1985 and 1991-1992, due to important changes in the law on nationality in June 1984 and September 1991.	Population Register, Institut national de la statistique.
Czech Republic	*Coverage*: Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable). *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: 1992 data cover former Czech and Slovak Federal Republic.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees). *Reference date*: 31 December.	Central Population Register, Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Includes inflows of those who are of Finnish origin. *Reference date*: 30 September.	Central Population Register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
France	*Coverage*: Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Comprises of permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and frontier workers are not included. *Reference dates*: 4 March 1982, 6 March 1990.	Census (25 per cent sample), Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques.
Germany	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign citizens of German origin (ethnic Germans). *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: Since 1992, disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over. Figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991. 1987-1989 figures are adjusted to take into account results of the 1987 census.	Central Population Register, Statistisches Bundesamt.
Hungary	*Coverage*: Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	*Coverage*: Special Survey. *Other comments*: The only significant distinction between nationalities is between EU/non-EU and the United States (not published in this Annex).	Labour Force Survey, Central Statistical Office (CSO).
Italy	*Coverage*: Holders of residence permits on Population Register. Minors registered in the permits of their parents are not counted in the figures. Figures include results of the 1987-88, 1990 and 1995-96 regularisation programmes. *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: The falls in stocks in 1989 and 1994 are the result of a clean-up of the Register of Foreigners.	Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	*Coverage*: Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in Population Registers as stated by the law. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Office of Immigration.
Korea	*Coverage*: Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in Population Registers as stated by the law.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) or frontier workers. *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: Figures have been revised from 1987 on to take into account the effects of the change in the legislation on naturalisation which took place at the end of 1986.	Population Register, Service central de la statistique et des études économiques.

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Notes related to tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. **Foreign population** (*cont.*)

	Comments	Source
Netherlands	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: The fall in stocks between 1994 and 1995 is due to revision of estimates. Figures for 1997 are provisional.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. From 1987 includes asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. *Reference date*: 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Portugal	*Coverage*: Holders of a valid residence permit. Data take into account the 1992-93 and 1996 regularisation programmes.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	*Coverage*: Holders of a long term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	*Coverage*: Holders of residence permits. Does not include those with temporary permits (less that six months duration) and students. The figures for 1992 include 108 372 permits issued following a regularisation program held in 1991. *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: The fall in figures between 1988 and 1989 is due to a clean-up of the Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	*Coverage*: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in Population Register. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	*Coverage*: Stock of all those with annual or settlement permits. Does not include seasonal or frontier workers. *Reference date*: 31 December	Register of Foreigners, Federal Foreign Office.
United Kingdom	*Coverage*: Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 to 15 000 persons). *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.
United States	*Coverage*: Foreign-born persons who are not American citizens. Table B.1.6. gives a breakdown by country of birth. *Reference date*: April 1990.	1990 Census, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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Notes related to tables A.1.7. and B.1.7. **Acquisition of nationality**

	Comments	Source
Australia	–	Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs.
Austria	–	Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	Significant numbers of foreigners were naturalised as a result of changes to the law on nationality in June 1984 and September 1991.	Institut national de statistique and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	–	Statistics Canada.
Denmark	–	Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of those of Finnish origin.	Central Statistical Office.
France	Excludes minors who were automatically naturalised on reaching adulthood under legislation existing prior to 1 January 1994 and those under new legislation (July 1993) requiring minors to state their intention to become French citizens.	Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Solidarité.
Germany	Includes naturalisations of those of German origin.	Statistisches Bundesamt.
Hungary	Including ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
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.
Netherlands	–	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	–	Statistics Norway.
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	–	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	–	Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	–	Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

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Notes related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

	Types of workers recorded in the data	Source
Australia	**A. Permanent settlers** Skilled workers including the following categories of visas: Employer nominations, Business skills, *Occupational Shares System*, special talents, Independent. Including accompanying dependents. *Period of reference*: fiscal years (July to June of the given year). **B. Temporary workers** Skilled temporary resident programme (including accompanying dependents). Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme from 1995/1996. Including accompanying dependents. *Period of reference*: fiscal years (July to June of the given year).	Department of Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) Member states are not included, except for those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992.	Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail.
Canada	Grants of work permits.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included.	Danmarks Statistik.
France	**1. Permanent workers** "Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the Office des Migrations Internationales (OMI). Certain citizens of EU Member states employed for short durations may not be included. Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time are not included **2. Provisional work permits (APT)** Provisional work permits (APT) cannot exceed six months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.	Office des migrations internationales.
Germany	New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers. Citizens of EU Member states are not included, except those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992. Data refer to western Germany up to 1990, to Germany as a whole from 1991 on.	Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners.	Ministry of Labour and ISTAT.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.	Inspection générale de la sécurité sociale.
Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for self employed). Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (*e.g.* trainees). The data also include holders of a settlement permit returning to Switzerland after a short stay abroad. Issues of an annual permit to persons holding a seasonal one are not included.	Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits. Most long-term permits are delivered to highly qualified workers. Short duration permits are for students doing temporary or part-time jobs, or taking training with a firm. Citizens of EU Member states are excluded. "First permissions" (issued to foreigners already residents and now entering the labour market) are included.	Department of Employment.

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Notes related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** (*cont.*)

	Types of workers recorded in the data	Source
United States	**A. Permanent settlers** Prior to fiscal year 1992, data include members of the professions or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences and arts, skilled and unskilled workers in short supply, and special immigrant visas. Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas from fiscal year 1992 on. *Period of reference*: fiscal years (October to September of the given year). **B. Temporary residence permits** Including trainees, excluding intra-company transferees and treaty traders/ investors. *Period of reference*: fiscal years (October to September of the given year). Figures may be overestimated because of multiple entries by the same person.	US Department of Justice.

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Notes related to table A.2.2. **Inflows of seasonal workers**

	Comments	Source
Australia	WHM programme (Working Holiday Makers) for young persons aged 18 to 25. The duration of stay is restricted to 1 year (not renewable). *Period of reference*: fiscal year (July to June of the given year).	Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs.
Canada	Caribbean and Mexican Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada
France	Number of contracts with the Office des migrations internationales (OMI). European Union nationals are not subject to OMI control.	Office des migrations internationales.
Germany	Workers recruted under bilateral agreements. From 1991 on, data cover Germany as a whole.	Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.
Italy	Agricultural seasonal workers entered in Italy with a work authorisation.	Ministry of Labour.
Netherlands	–	CBS.
Norway	Not renewable work permits granted. Issued for 3 months mostly to Polish nationals.	Statistics Norway.
Switzerland	–	Officé fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Seasonal workers under the special Agricultural Workers Scheme. Including readmissions.	Department of Employment.
United States	Agricultural workers with a H-2A visa (non-immigrants).	US Department of Justice.

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Notes related to tables A.2.3., B.2.1. and B.2.2. **Foreign and foreign-born labour**

Foreign labour

	Comments	Source
Austria	Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded. Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. Figures may be overestimated as a result of persons holding more than one permit. In Table A.2.3., data for 1990 and 1991 have been adjusted to correct for a temporary over-issue of work permits relative to the number of jobs held by foreigners, between August 1990 and June 1991. From 1994 on, data on employment are from Social Security records and include EEA nationals.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Data are estimates on the basis of MET (for salaried workers), INASTI (for unemployed) and ONEm data (for self employed). *Reference date*: 30 June.	Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail (MET), Office national de l'Emploi (ONEm), Institut national d'Assurances sociales pour les Travailleurs indépendants (INASTI).
Denmark	Data are from Population Registers *Reference date*: 30 November until 1991; 31 December from 1992 on.	Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	All foreigners working in Finland (holders of a work permit and workers exempted from a permit after two years legally residing in the country. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
France	Labour Force Survey. *Reference date*: March of each year.	Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques.
Germany	Number of work permits. Including cross-border workers but not self-employed. Figures cover western Germany for all years. *Reference date*: 30 September.	Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits *Reference date*: 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey.	Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Figures refer to number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including self-employed). Data exclude unemployed. EU citizens do not need a work permit.	ISTAT.
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent resident, spouse or child of Japanese national, spouse or child of permanent resident and long term resident have no restriction imposed to the kind of activities they can engage in Japan and are excluded from these data.	Ministry of Justice, Service of Immigration.
Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. *Reference date*: 1 October.	Inspection générale de la sécurité sociale.
Netherlands	Estimates include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed, family workers and the unemployed. From 1990 onwards, foreigners legally residing in the Netherlands but working abroad are excluded. *Reference date*: 31 March.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	Data are from Population Registers. Excluding unemployed and self-employed. *Reference date*: second quarter of each year (except in 1995 and 1996: 4th quarter).	Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Including foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Number of valid work permits. From 1992 on, EU workers are not included. From 1991 to 1993, the data include work permits delivered following the 1991 regularisation programme. The data for 1997 are provisional. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.	Statistics Sweden.

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Notes related to tables A.2.3., B.2.1. and B.2.2. **Foreign and foreign-born labour** (*cont.*)

Foreign labour (*cont.*)

	Comments	Source
Switzerland	Data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. *Reference date*: 31 December (resident workers); 31 August (seasonal workers).	Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included.	Employment Department.

Foreign-born labour

	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date*: August 1986; June 1993; June 1994; August 1995; August 1996.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	1991 Census.
United States	Coverage: Labour force aged 15 and over. Foreign-born citizens with American parents are not included in the immigrant population (*foreign-born*).	1990 Census (US Department of Commerce).

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