Trends in International Migration



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Trends in International Migration

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Foreword

This twenty-ninth annual report of the OECD Continuous Reporting System on Migration is based in large part on 34 written contributions from national correspondents (see the list at the end of this volume) and on the summary of discussions at their last annual meeting (December 2003).

This 2004 Edition is divided into three parts and a statistical annex. Part I describes overall trends in international migration and focuses on the magnitude, nature and direction of flows, as well as on foreign workers in the labour market and in different sectors of economic activity. Taking a regional approach, an analysis is made of immigration to and from the countries of east and central Europe, and to and from East and South Asia, Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa. Special attention is directed to labour-related migration flows and to the difficulty faced by specific groups of immigrants in integrating into the labour market. Part I finishes with an overview of migration policies, especially those aiming to manage migration flows, to counter irregular immigration and the illegal employment of foreigners, to assist immigrants to integrate into host countries and to reinforce international co operation between sending and receiving countries.

Part II is devoted to identifying and measuring immigrants and expatriates in OECD member countries. The information presented in this part comes from a new database on persons born abroad by education level and country of birth, which allows for the first time to make international comparisons for all OECD member countries.

Part III contains country notes describing recent developments in migration flows and policies in 29 OECD member and selected non-member countries (the Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania).

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General Introduction

While international migration has taken on a new significance, data in the phenomenon are partial and imperfect.

Although the issue of international migration has taken on a new significance in the context of ageing populations and of the increasing globalisation of national economies, migration statistics, regrettably, continue to be partial and imperfect. There are several reasons for this. They include constraints arising from institutional factors related to the collection of statistics (from population registers or censuses, residence and work permits or household surveys, depending upon the country concerned), differences in permit durations across countries for migration movements of the same types and the different policy approaches to migration (whether immigration is to be temporary or permanent, how easy or difficult it is to be naturalised, whether a change of status is possible during the course of a migrant's stay, etc.).

To help remedy this, the OECD has just compiled a new data base…

More precise and up-to-date statistics can contribute to the development and implementation of immigration and integration policies which are better suited to current geopolitical, demographic, economic and social realities. The development of specific studies, notably through surveys, in particular longitudinal surveys, and the improvement of the comparability of international migration statistics, present major challenges. In this context, the 2004 annual OECD report *Trends in International Migration* makes a significant contribution in presenting the results of a new database on the immigrant stock and in giving an update, through a series of boxes, on the major issues and challenges associated with measuring migration phenomena.

… which focuses on the foreign-born by country of residence and country of birth.

The main settlement countries of the OECD (Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand) publish statistics on immigrants (the foreign-born) while the European and Asian OECD countries use instead the concept of foreigner (a criterion based on nationality). This difference is symptomatic of the difficulties in harmonising migration statistics. For the first time, this edition of *Trends in International Migration* focuses on foreign-born persons and presents comparable statistics for them by country of residence and country of birth, for 29 OECD member countries. Thanks to this information, it is possible to provide a detailed and reliable picture comparing immigrant populations in OECD member countries and to assess the cumulative results of movements within and into the OECD area over the course of the past decades.

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Other issues relating to migration statistics are also discussed.

The problems of comparability which are the most difficult to resolve are those which relate to flow statistics and those which concern certain specific migrant populations, such as asylum seekers, students and undocumented migrants. These questions are discussed in a series of boxes throughout the first section of this report. They have, as a common theme, the measurement of migration statistics and the challenges this presents. The following questions are discussed: *i)* How are migration flows measured? *ii)* Are asylum seekers really migrants? *iii)* How is the immigrant population measured? *iv)* How is net migration measured? *v)* Is it appropriate to compare the unemployment rate of foreigners with that of nationals? *vi)* How many illegal migrants are there? *vii)* How many foreigners obtain the nationality of their host country? From the information in these boxes, it is possible to draw up an inventory of the methods and practices used in describing and analysing the characteristics of migrants and to suggest some possible avenues of research to refine our understanding of the phenomenon of migration.

The special chapter provides, for the first time, an estimate of the numbers of immigrants and of expatriates by country of origin and level of education.

The special chapter "Counting immigrants and expatriates in OECD member countries: a new perspective" supplies estimates of the number of expatriates by country of origin (both member and non-member countries) and provides a better understanding of the much discussed issue of the international mobility of highly skilled workers and its impact on their countries of origin, in other words, the "brain drain" debate. The results of the analysis undertaken in the chapter show that *i)* the percentage of those born abroad in European OECD member countries is markedly higher than that of foreigners living in these countries (Germany, Sweden and Austria); *ii)* international migration tends to be more common among highly skilled workers; *iii)* in most OECD member countries, the number of immigrants with a tertiary level of education exceeds the number of emigrants with the same level of education; and *iv)* amongst non-member countries, it is small countries and less developed countries, notably in Africa and in the Caribbean, which are particularly affected by the international mobility of highly skilled workers.

The report also underlines a recent trend towards the stabilisation of migration flows…

As each year, the current report analyses trends in migration movements and policies. After several years of increase, international migration towards OECD member countries has shown a tendency to stabilise in 2002-2003. Flows of asylum seekers have greatly diminished, for example, into the United Kingdom or the Netherlands, and the same is true of family reunion migration in certain OECD countries (for example, in Denmark). On the other hand, migration for work purposes, notably skilled workers, accounts for a growing share of the international movement of people. The growth in the entry of foreign

students, for example to Australia and France, and of seasonal workers, notably to Germany and to the United Kingdom, is part of the same development.

... and the importance of nationals from China and Russia in the recent flows.

Migration from nearby countries and that resulting from traditional historic links between countries are predominant. The report also emphasises the importance of certain nationalities and, in particular, analyses recent flows of migrants from China and Russia. Completing the overview is an analysis of four regions: *i)* the countries of Central and Eastern Europe in the context of their accession to the European Union, *ii)* East and South-east Asia, *iii)* South America, and *iv)* sub-Saharan Africa.

The share of foreigners in the working population is increasing but women and young people face difficulties in integrating into the labour market…

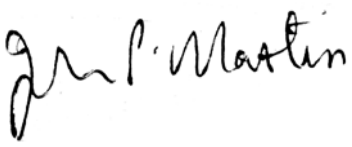
An examination of the labour markets of OECD member countries indicates that in most of them, the share of foreigners and immigrants in the labour force continues to increase, a trend that was not affected by the recent economic downswing. The report also analyses the participation rates of foreigners and the main factors affecting them. This analysis highlights the nature and seriousness of difficulties faced by immigrants, particularly women and young people, in integrating fully into the labour market.

... despite new measures aimed at assisting them in doing this.

This report also presents an inventory of the principal migration policies adopted by OECD member countries. Several countries have taken new measures aimed at assisting the integration of foreigners and immigrants into their societies. These can be summarised under the formula "information, incentives, sanctions". Measures taken by member countries include the establishment of observatories related to the integration of immigrants (for example, in France and Portugal), the reform of integration programmes for new arrivals (the Netherlands, Norway and Canada), and the reinforcement of measures to fight against discrimination (see, in particular, the new Directives of the European Union). Member countries also take the view that improving the control of immigration flows will allow them to improve the living and stay conditions of legal migrants.

The report also includes country notes, describing in detail recent developments in migration movements and policies. The statistical annex at the end of the publication contains statistics on flows, on the number of immigrants and foreigners, and on naturalisations.

John P. Martin



Director for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs

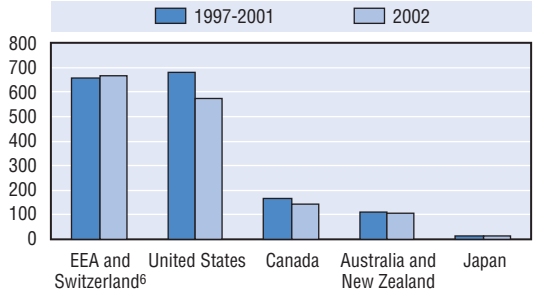
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Overview of migration trends in OECD countries

	Migration flows			Stock of foreign-born population and naturalisations		
	Annual average				Latest available year	
	1997-2001	2002	2003 (preliminary data)		Thousands	% of total population
Inflows of foreigners (thousands)				**Stock of foreign-born population**[5]		
European Economic Area (EEA)[1]				United States	34 635	*12.3*
and Switzerland	**1 896**	**2 616**	**2 461**	EEA and Switzerland	31 558	*9.7*
United States				Canada	5 717	*19.3*
Permanent immigration	803	1 064	706	Australia	4 073	*23.0*
Temporary immigration[2]	1 146	1 283	1 233	Japan and Korea	1 445	*0.8*
Australia						
Permanent immigration	89	88	94			
Temporary immigration	197	340	359			
Japan [3]	**304**	**344**	**374**			
Canada						
Permanent immigration	212	229	221			
Temporary workers[4]	77	77	67			
Net migration (for 1 000 inhabitants)						
Australia and New Zealand	4.4	6.5	7.0			
Canada	5.7	6.3	6.0			
European Economic Area (EEA)						
and Switzerland	2.5	3.5	5.3			
United States	3.5	4.5	4.4			
Japan	0.4	–0.4	0.5			
Asylum seekers (thousands)						
EEA and Switzerland	387	421	333			
United States	62	82	61			
Central and Eastern Europe	25	34	34			
Canada	33	33	32			
Australia	10	6	4			

Acquisition of nationality

Thousands (annual average)



1. Countries mentioned in Table A.1.1. of the Statistical Annex, except Greece. Inflows include significant numbers of short-term migrants (such as seasonal workers and international students) for some countries (Belgium, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Spain). The total given here covers flows of varying coverage across countries. Data relate to 2002 when 2003 figures are not yet available.
2. Non-immigrant visas issued. Excluding visitors, transit migrants, foreign government officials and students. Accompanying dependents are included. In previous editions of the publication, data double-counted some immigrants and are therefore not comparable with these new figures.
3. Includes short-term movements.
4. Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (excluding seasonal workers).
5. OECD database on immigrants and expatriates. See special Chapter "Counting Immigrants and Expatriates in OECD countries: A New Perspective" for details.
6. Data refer to EEA member countries included in Table A.1.6. of the Statistical Annex.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes; UNHCR; Eurostat.

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PART I

Trends in International Migration

The first part of the 2004 report *Trends in International Migration* is divided into three sections describing the principal developments observed in 2002-2003. The first of these sections looks at changes in migration movements and in the foreign population in OECD member countries (I.A); the second focuses on the status of immigrants in the labour market (I.B), while the third provides an overview of migration policies (I.C).

A. *Migration and population trends*

After a period of relatively subdued growth in the OECD area, marked by weak corporate investment, the recovery seemed to take hold in 2003-2004 in most member countries. This recovery nonetheless remains weak and vulnerable to geopolitical events and higher prices for raw materials and oil. The data on international migration for 2002 and 2003, the period covered by the current edition of *Trends in International Migration,* show that economic growth in the Euro zone has slowed. GDP in real terms rose by merely 0.9% in 2002 and 0.5% in 2003. In contrast, the recovery was stronger in other OECD member countries. Growth in the OECD area as a whole was 1.7% in 2002 and 2.2% in 2003.

The standardised unemployment rate in the OECD area showed a small increase in 2002, rising to 7% compared with 6.5% the previous year. This trend reflects deteriorating conditions in the labour market, which continued to worsen in 2003 with an unemployment rate of 7.1%. In Europe, however, employment managed to weather the worsening economic climate better than it had during the previous recession in the early 1990s; the unemployment rate rose by merely half a percentage point to 8.8% over the period 2001-2003.

Against this background, international migration to OECD member countries, after several years of growth, appeared to level off in 2002. In addition, concern over international terrorism, the war in Iraq and the SARS epidemic helped to slow down the international mobility of persons in many regions within the OECD during the period 2002-2003. These developments may suggest that a trend reversal is imminent in the next few years. Such a scenario nonetheless remains hypothetical, however, in that a part of the migration flows to OECD member countries is still influenced by the expected effects of population ageing and ongoing needs for labour, particularly skilled labour, on the one hand, and the extent of family reunification, on the other. To date, the cyclical trends in international migration are uncertain, reflecting those apparent in the world economy as well as international geopolitical tensions.

Nonetheless, the reinforcement of legislation relating to the entry and residence of foreigners in several OECD member countries, the introduction of faster review procedures for asylum applications and the strengthening of international co-operation to combat human trafficking and illegal migration illustrate the firm resolve of member countries to strengthen immigration controls.

1. Trends in migration movements

The upward trend in immigration flows observed over the past few years in the OECD area tapered off slightly in 2002 in several countries, although it is not yet possible to make any precise predictions regarding a possible trend reversal.

a) Towards a stabilisation of migration flows in 2002?

In 2002, migration flows stabilised in several OECD member countries (see left-hand part of Figure I.1). This was the case in the United States, Switzerland, Japan, Canada, as well as the Netherlands, Germany, Luxembourg, Finland, Hungary and Portugal, the latter due to the scale of regularisations in 2001. Moreover, in all these countries, apart from Switzerland and Hungary, outflows of foreigners increased between 2001 and 2002. Immigration levels remained high, however, and close to the historical record levels recently observed. In 2002, for example, over a million immigrants were granted a permanent residence permit and a further 1.3 million immigrants (excluding students) were granted a temporary permit in the United States, while almost two and a half million immigrants were reported in the European Union (15) (including 660 000 admissions to Germany, 443 000 to Spain, 418 000 to the United Kingdom and 388 000 to Italy) and 344 000 in Japan (see Box I.1 for further details on the measurement of migration flows).[1]

It is still too early to say whether this trend points towards a significant fall in immigration flows. For example, some OECD member countries which had experienced a fall in inflows reported a fairly sharp increase in immigration in 2002. This was the case in particular for Norway, the United Kingdom and Belgium, where inflows rose by around 21%, 12% and 6% respectively in 2002, after experiencing a slight downturn in 2001 following several consecutive years of growth. The same is true of Italy where over 388 000 new permits were issued in 2002 (in addition to the exceptional regularisation exercise in 2003 in which over 700 000 applications were received).

Other OECD member countries such as France, Ireland, New Zealand, Sweden and Spain, have reported continued growth in entries of foreigners over at least the past three years. The inflows to each of these countries in 2002 were the highest observed over the past twenty years. Inflows to Ireland and New Zealand between 2001 and 2002 rose by over 22% (40 000 and 70 500 permits issued respectively). Over 156 000 “permanent” immigrants entered France in 2002, an increase of almost 11% on the 2001 level and 4 times that of 1986, the lowest level reported during the period (1980-2003). Sharp increases in inflows were also reported in the Czech Republic and Poland.

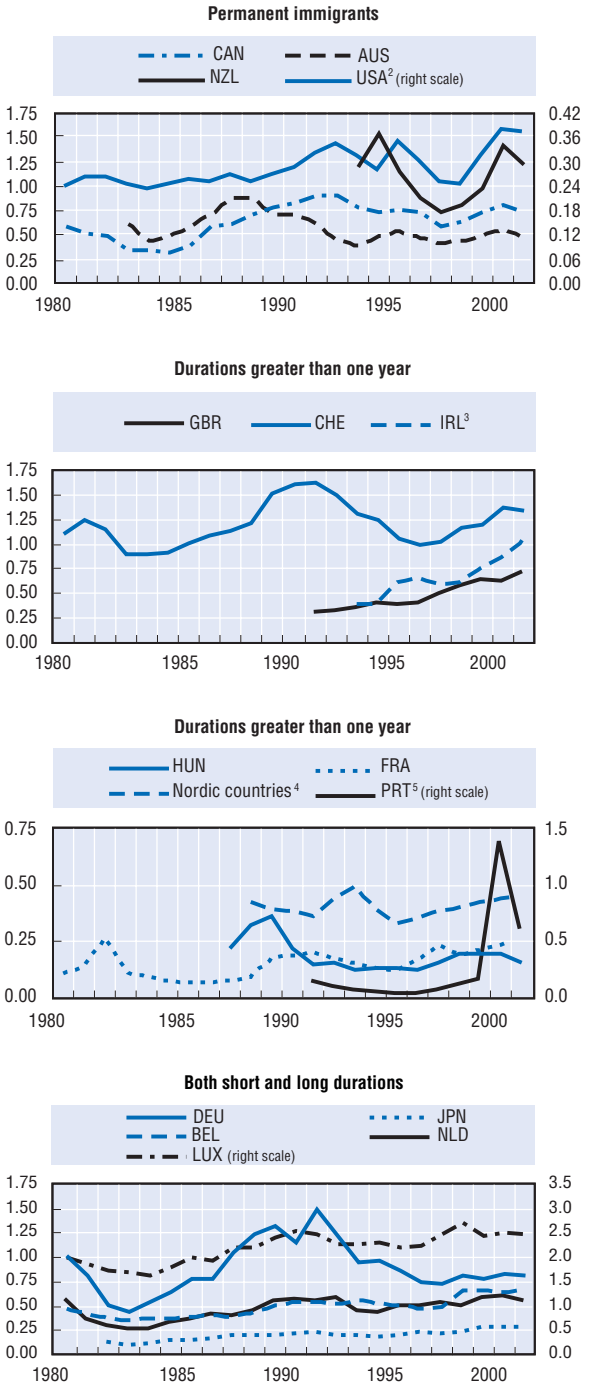
Recent migration trends are more or less a continuation of those observed over the past few years and therefore have not significantly modified the ranking by volume of inflow of the main immigration countries (see right-hand section of Figure I.1). In 2002, the United States admitted the largest number of immigrants, followed by Germany, Spain, the United Kingdom, Italy and Japan. The appearance of two southern European countries in this ranking is a new development, however, and is attributable to the increased inflows to these countries, on the one hand, and to the statistical impact of the recent regularisation programmes on the other. The share of the total population accounted for by new immigrants is particularly high in Luxembourg, Switzerland and New Zealand (over 1.2%).

A number of OECD member countries that have experienced large-scale emigration in the past are currently seeing significant numbers of such migrants, and sometimes their descendents as well, return to their home country (Spain, Portugal, Ireland, Greece, Turkey and Mexico).

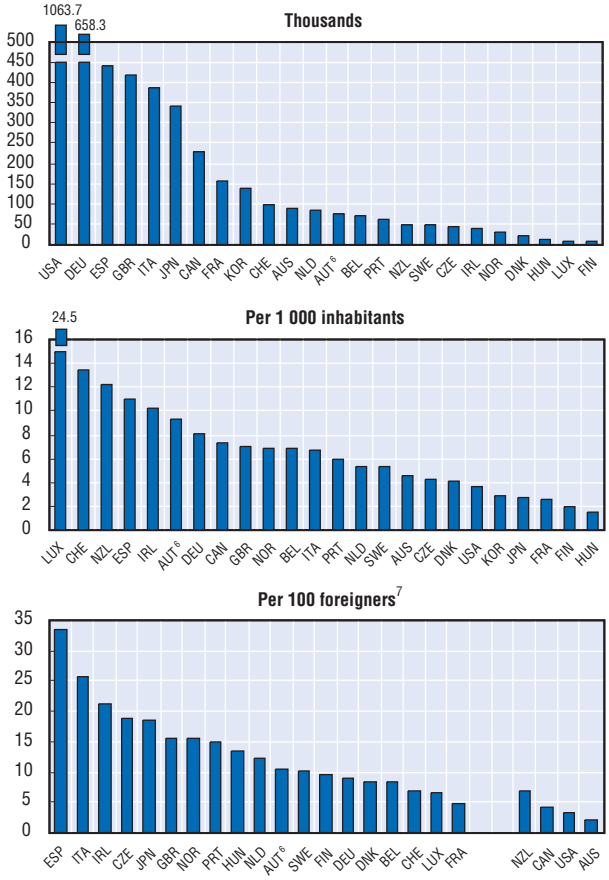
Figure I.1. **Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-2002**

Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners

Inflows of foreigners[1], 1980-2002
% of total population



Inflows of foreigners in 2002
Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners



Note: Data for the United Kingdom have been revised and come from the *International Passenger Survey;* for New Zealand, data refer to residence approvals. For Australia, Canada and the United States, data relate to new permanent immigrants; for France and south European countries, data are from residence permits.

For Australia, data refer to fiscal year (July to June of the given year) and for the United States, data refer to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).

For all other countries, data are based on Population Registers.

1. The host countries have been split into 4 groups according to the expected duration of stay or the duration of the resident permits. The first group relates to the countries in which inflows refer only to permits of unlimited duration; the second and the third, where the expected duration of stay is one year or more; and the fourth group to both short and long durations.
2. Excluding immigrants legalised in the United States under IRCA regularisation programme.
3. Data are estimates on the basis of 1996 and 2002 Census results.
4. Including Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden. Norway figures cover expected stays of more than six months.
5. The big increase is due to the fact that 2001 and 2002 figures include respectively 126 901 and 47 657 permits which have been delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation.
6. Data for inflows in Austria refer to 2001.
7. For Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, inflows in 2002 are expressed as a percentage of the stock of foreign-born residents. Data for Canada and New Zealand refer to the stocks of the foreign-born population in 2001 and to the foreign population in 1999 for France.

Sources: National Statistical Offices. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata relative to Table A.1.1. of the Statistical Annex.

AUS	Australia	CZE	Czech Republic	GBR	United Kingdom	KOR	Korea	PRT	Portugal
AUT	Austria	DEU	Germany	HUN	Hungary	LUX	Luxembourg	ESP	Spain
BEL	Belgium	DNK	Denmark	IRL	Ireland	NLD	Netherlands	SWE	Sweden
CAN	Canada	FIN	Finland	ITA	Italy	NZL	New Zealand	USA	United States
CHE	Switzerland	FRA	France	JPN	Japan	NOR	Norway		

Box I.1. **How are migration flows measured?**

The statistics on international migration flows that appear in this publication are by and large national statistics, that is, they are harmonised only to the extent that national definitions happen to be similar across countries. This is not always the case. Although this is not a satisfactory state of affairs, the information required to harmonise is not currently available or well enough understood. The statistical annex of this publication, however, contains detailed information on differences in definitions used across countries.

The estimates of migration flows appearing in *Trends in International Migration* do not cover the cross-border movements of the citizens or nationals of the countries involved. For some countries the statistics include considerable numbers of persons who entered the country in previous years, but are only counted as immigrants when their status changes to a category that is counted in the migration statistics. Recognised asylum seekers generally fall into this group, as well as persons who manage to change their status from a temporary one, often short-term, to one that is longer term in nature. For example, in recent years close to one half of persons counted as immigrants in the United States were already present in that country, on the basis of a previously granted temporary permit.

The lack of comparability in the migration estimates is significant and the numbers can give a distorted picture across countries of relative migration movements. This is mainly due to the fact that countries differ fundamentally regarding who is considered an immigrant. An immigrant is variously defined as a person who obtains the right of permanent residence, who obtains a residence permit of a minimum limited duration, or who registers in a population register and intends to stay in the host country for longer that a specified number of months.

For example, the estimates of total in-migration for the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) have tended to include only permanent migrants, which cover persons selected on the basis of their age and qualifications as well as humanitarian and family migrants. Although these countries have significant number of persons entering with temporary permits, (see Table A.1.1. in the Statistical Annex of this publication) the latter are not in general included in calculations of in-migration rates. The temporary and permanent migration regimes in these countries are considered to be very different from each other and although the passage from one regime to the other is becoming more common, the adding of temporary and permanent migrant totals to yield a single statistic is not generally encouraged by national data-providers. Many persons granted temporary permits in these countries would be considered international migrants in the official statistics of other OECD countries.

In European countries for which migration statistics are based on permit data, immigrants are generally defined as persons entering with permits of duration one year or more. Short-term movements are thus not recorded, among which are temporary workers, asylum seekers, some students and also foreign nationals not needing a permit to enter the country (in particular those benefiting from free movement regimes). According to estimates, the short-term flows represented 33% of the all registered flows in 1999 and 2000 in France.

In many countries, the data source of reference for migration data is a population register or foreigners' register. The population register consists of a register maintained at the municipal level of all persons living in the municipality, whether citizens or non-citizens. Persons are required to register when they move into a municipality and to deregister when they leave. Among persons entering the country from outside, only those not currently resident, intending to stay in the country for a minimum number of months and possessing a permit of the required minimum duration have to register. Note that the

Box I.1. **How are migration flows measured?** *(cont.)*

granting of a permanent permit upon entry is generally rare or even unknown in these countries. The number of persons entering the country and registering over the course of a year is generally the official national statistic of immigrants for the year.

Because the threshold duration for entry into the register varies from country to country, certain categories of movements may be counted as immigration in some countries (seasonal workers, trainees and international students) but not in others. In the case of Germany, for example, more than half of the recorded inflows of foreigners would appear to concern short-term movements that are not counted as immigration in many other OECD countries. Since the reason for admission or the permit duration is not generally captured on the population register, it is impossible to achieve comparability by including/excluding certain groups from the register totals.

Comprehensive data on persons granted a residence permit, by reason and permit duration, would allow a more transparent view of international migration movements, at least for movements that are regulated by receiving countries. It would provide a broad picture of both short and longer-term migration in OECD countries, at a time when both the source countries and the means of entry have been diversifying.

Other OECD member countries are trying to determine the share of their skilled and highly skilled nationals who eventually return to the home country. However, it is difficult to measure these return migration flows in that both the administrative and statistical reporting systems are usually designed primarily to determine inflows of foreigners and not the movements of return migrants. However, there are a number of surveys that attempt to measure the scale of return migration as well as other statistical sources that can be used for that purpose. Australia and New Zealand, for example, have a system that reports all inflows and outflows according to the period of time which the migrant expects to be resident and which is noted on his passenger card. In recent years returns of nationals have thus accounted for between 25% and 30% of long-term admissions to Australia. The United Kingdom estimates flows of nationals by means of the International Passenger Survey (IPS). Since the early 1980s, net migration by nationals each year has remained negative, fluctuating in most cases between –20 000 and –40 000. Ireland draws up estimates on the basis of quarterly surveys of households, which are regularly updated to take account of census findings. These estimates show that some 32 000 nationals apparently returned to Ireland in 2002, compared with 17 500 in 2003 and 16 900 in 2004. Portugal uses sample surveys to estimate permanent and temporary emigration as well as returns of nationals. In 2002, the number of returning nationals was estimated at 19 100, of whom slightly over half returned from other countries of the European Union.

b) Geographical basis of constantly evolving migration flows

In terms of nationality, the observed growth in traditional migration flows from neighbouring countries appears to be borne out by the most recent data which confirm increased migration from Romania to Hungary and Italy, from Poland and Turkey to Germany, from the Maghreb countries to France, from China to Australia, New Zealand and Japan, and from Germany to Switzerland and Austria.

Figure I.2 illustrates the relative intensity of migration flows by country of origin by comparing average inflows (dotted lines) during the 1990s with those (shown in blue)

Figure I.2. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected countries, 1990-2001 and 2002**

2002 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows[1]

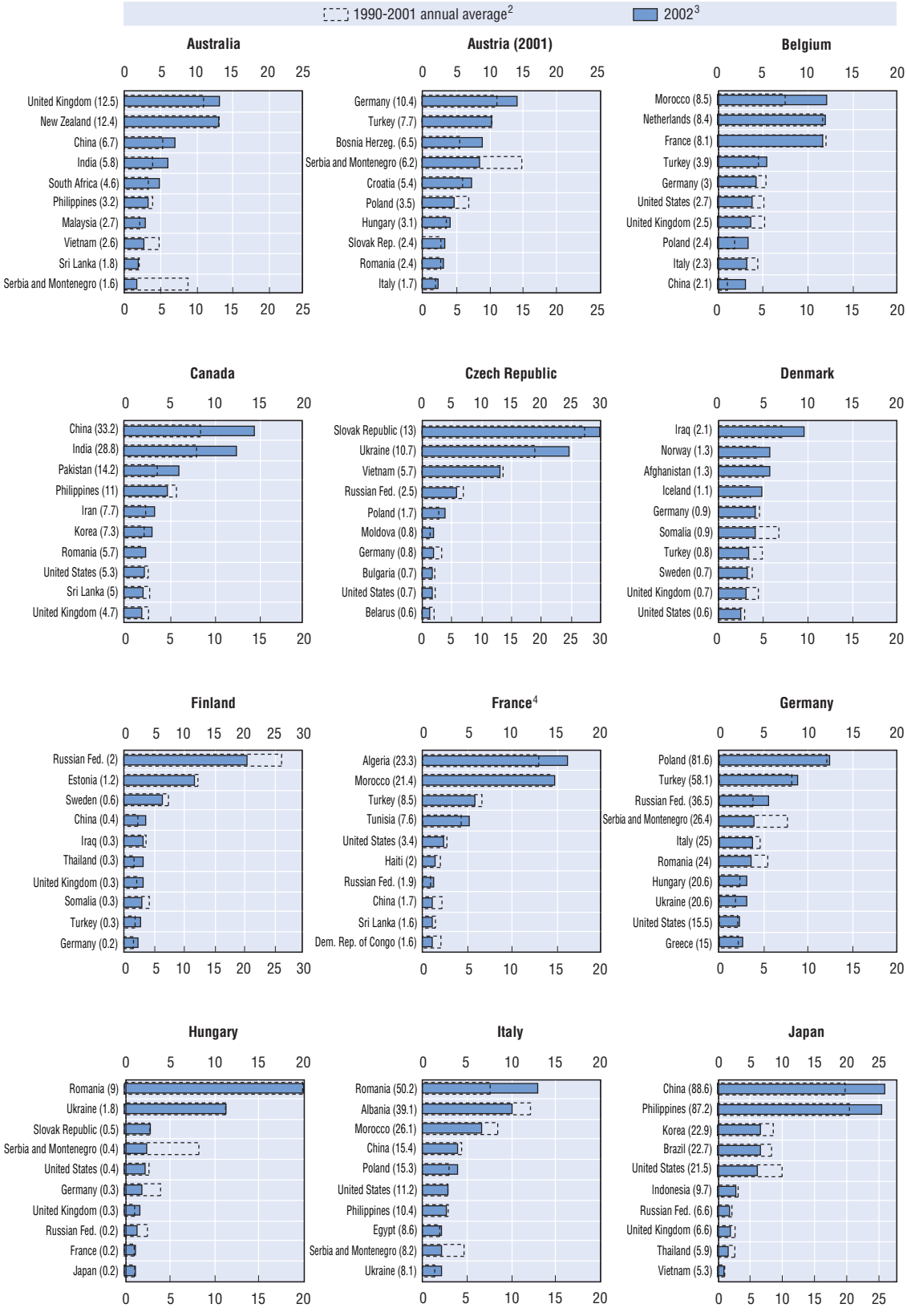
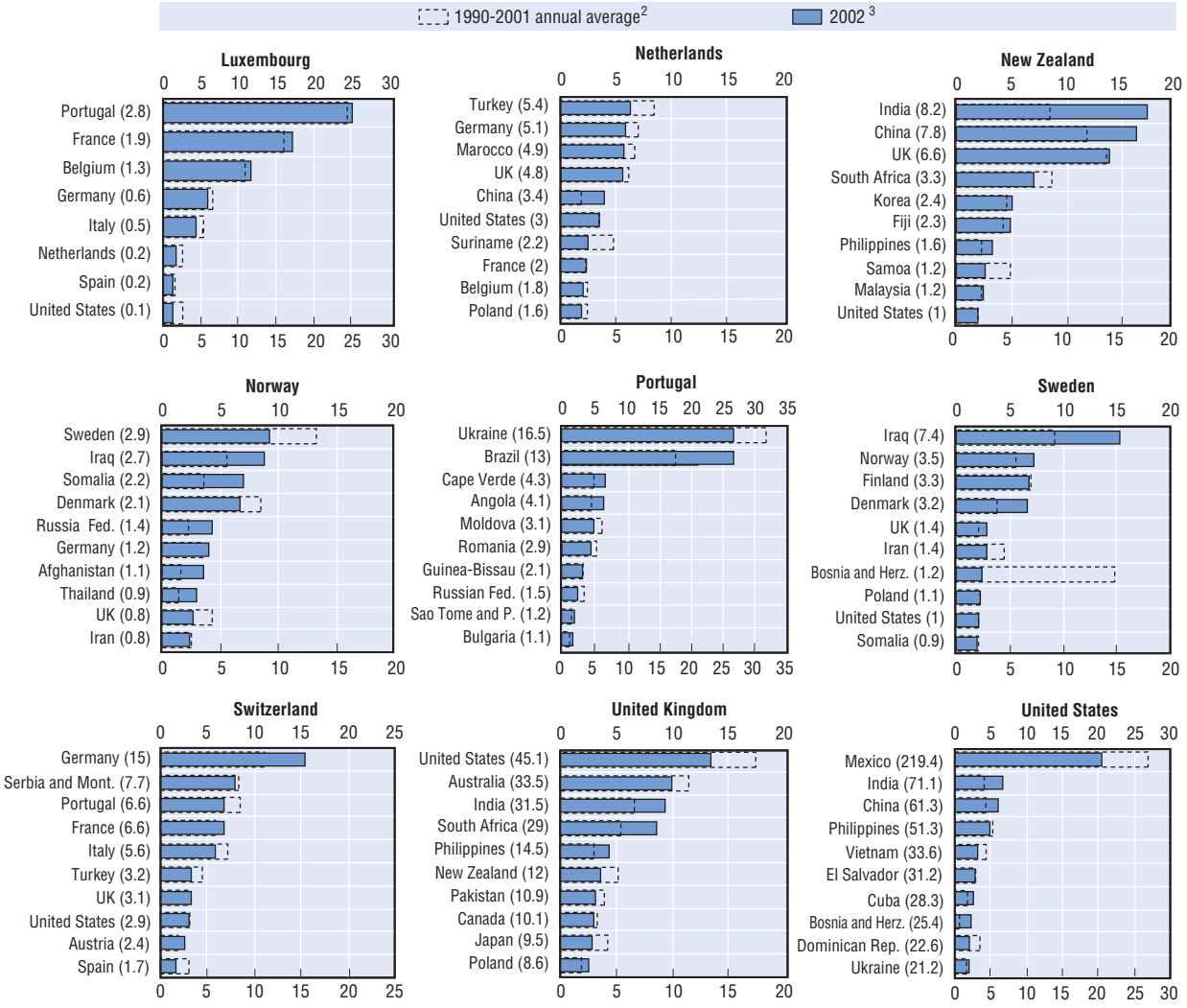


Figure I.2. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected countries, 1990-2001 and 2002** *(cont.)*

2002 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows[1]



Note: The top 10 source countries are presented in decreasing order of the number of immigrants in 2002. Data for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States refer to inflows of permanent settlers by country of birth, for France, Italy and Portugal to issues of certain types of permits. For the United Kingdom, the data are from the *International Passenger Survey*. For all other countries, figures are from Population registers or Registers of foreigners. The figures for the Netherlands, Norway and especially Germany include substantial numbers of asylum seekers.

1. The figures in brackets are inflows in thousands in 2002.
2. Annual average flows for the period 1990-2001 except for Finland, Portugal, United Kingdom (1992-2001) and Austria (1998-2000).
3. 2001 for Austria.
4. 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.

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

reported in 2002. The area not coloured in blue for a given host country indicates that the share attributed to this country of origin in overall flows is lower for the latest available year than during the 1990s. For example, even though Mexico continues to be the leading source of immigration to the United States, the proportion of Mexicans in overall

documented flows has fallen from an average of 26.8% between 1990 and 2001 to less than 20.6% in 2002. A similar trend is observable for Russians and Estonians in Finland, Moroccans and Turks in the Netherlands, and Koreans in Japan. The trend is even more marked for flows of nationals of Serbia-Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina to most of the host countries considered.

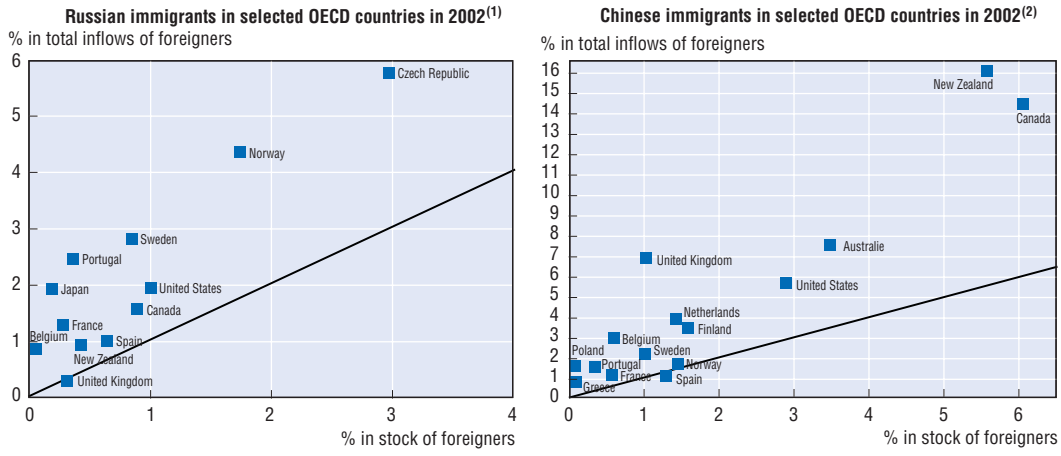
A number of nationalities now dominate immigrant inflows from developing or transitional countries to the OECD area as a whole, namely Russians and Ukrainians (including flows to non-European OECD countries) as well as Chinese and Indians. Russians, for example, are the seventh largest source of immigrants to Japan and the third largest to Germany, while Ukrainians are the largest source of immigrants to Portugal and the tenth largest to the United States. Chinese nationals rank among the top ten nationalities in inflows to half of the 21 countries considered. Migration inflows from China are growing particularly strongly in Australia, the United States, Canada, Japan and New Zealand, and also Finland, the Netherlands and Belgium. Figure I.3 illustrates this development by showing that the share of Chinese and Russian nationals in inflows is greater than the share accounted for by such nationals in the stock of foreign population of most OECD member countries.

The more detailed data given in the Statistical Annex (see Tables B.1.1. in the Annex) also reveal an increase in migration flows from Latin America, primarily to Mexico (Guatemalans), Spain (Argentines, Venezuelans and more recently Bolivians and Ecuadorians), to Portugal and Japan (Brazilians) as well as Italy (Ecuadorians).

A high degree of mobility can also be observed between OECD member countries, particularly with regard to US, German and UK nationals. US nationals, for example, are ranked in the top ten nationalities in around three quarters of the other member countries. While this is not a new development, it may be noted that this movement has gained pace in recent years, notably with regard to the two European nationalities mentioned above.

Figure I.3. **Proportion of Chinese and Russian immigrants in inflows and stock of foreigners in selected OECD countries, 2002**

Percentage



Note: Data for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States relate to stock of foreign-born persons. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata for Tables B.1.1, B.1.4. and B.1.5 of the Statistical Annex.

1. Data points for Finland, Greece and Poland do not appear in the Chart: Russians immigrants as a percent of total inflows and stocks of foreigners in those three countries represent respectively: 20.4 and 2%; 12.7 and 6.5%; 6.3 and 7%.
2. Data points for Japan and Korea do not appear in the Chart: Chinese immigrants as a percent of total inflows and stocks of foreigners in those two countries represent respectively: 25.8 and 19.6%; 20.3 and 37.3%.

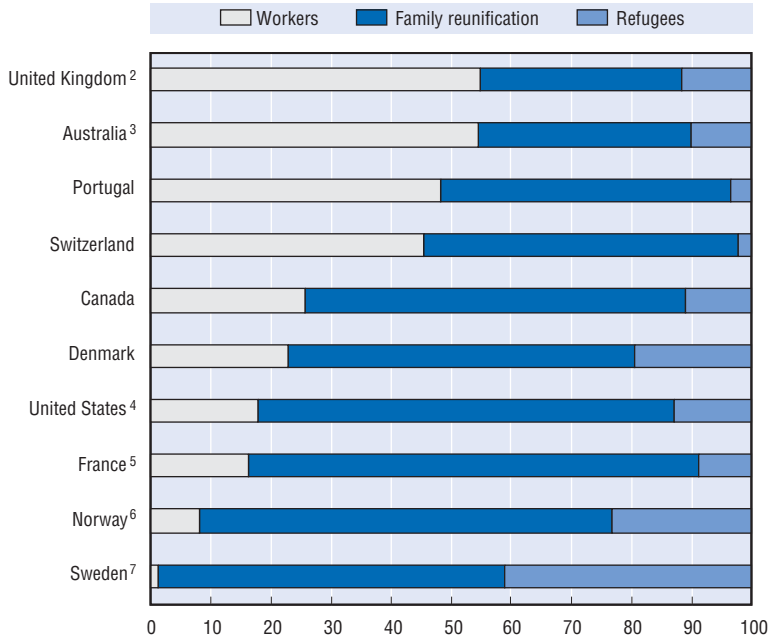
This trend can doubtless be explained in part by the increased migration of skilled workers within the OECD area (see special chapter – Part II).

c) Increasingly stringent controls on family reunification flows

While the trends described above are strongly marked by migration for employment (see below), entries by family members continue to dominate migration flows to many countries (see Figure I.4). This is the case, for example, in the United States where family

Figure I.4. **Permanent or long-term immigration flows into selected OECD countries by main categories[1] in 2002**

Percentage of total inflows



Note: Countries are ranked by decreasing order of the percentage of workers in total inflows. Categories give the legal reason for entering the country. A worker who has benefited from the family reunification procedure is regrouped into this latter category even if he has a job in the host country while entering. Family members who join a refugee are counted among other refugees.

1. For Australia, Canada, the United States, Norway and Sweden, data concern acceptances for settlement. For Denmark, France, Portugal and Switzerland, entries correspond to residence permits usually delivered 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 EEA citizens). For Australia, "Workers" includes accompanying dependents who are included in the category "Family reunification" for all other countries.
2. Passengers, excluding EEA citizens, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees.
3. Data refer to fiscal year (July 2001 to June 2002). Category "Workers" includes accompanying dependents. Excluding citizens from New Zealand who do not need a visa to enter the country.
4. Data refer to fiscal year (October 2001 to September 2002). Excluding immigrants who obtained a permanent residence permit following the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA).
5. Entries of EU family members are estimated. Excluding visitors. Among those who benefited from the regularisation programme, only those who received a permit under the family reunification procedure are counted. The "family" category also includes spouses of French citizens and scientists; parents of French children; and those with family relationships, who received the permit "*vie privée et familiale*".
6. Category "Workers" includes specialists and other permits that constitute grounds for permanent residence in Norway. Non-renewable permits are not included. Category "Refugees" includes refugees and persons granted residence permit on humanitarian grounds on permanent basis.
7. Excluding Nordic and EEA citizens.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

reunification remains the cornerstone of migration policy and accounted for over 69% of permanent immigration in 2002. This is also the case for France where family members accounted for 75% of permanent admissions and in Canada where family reunification and accompanying families accounted for approximately 64% of immigration in 2002.[2] In Switzerland, 52% of entries were under the family reunification procedure. The same was true in Austria where over 40% of the residence permits awarded to third-country nationals were under the family reunification procedure. Family members also accounted for a large share of inflows to Nordic countries which also admit large numbers of refugees; in contrast, however, their share was far lower in the new immigration countries of Southern or Central and Eastern Europe, as well as in Asian OECD member countries where immigration was primarily work-related.

In 2002 and 2003, several European OECD member countries took steps to restrict the number of family members allowed to enter, in particular Ireland, Italy, France and Denmark (see Part I.C on migration policies for further details). Denmark, for example, introduced a requirement that both spouses had to be over 24 years of age to qualify for the family reunification procedure, and also set conditions in terms of assets and other elements determining the nature of the family ties. As a result of these measures, entries to this country under the family reunification procedure fell by almost 25% between 2001 (10 950) and 2002 (8 151).

d) Continued increase in temporary migration for employment despite the fluctuating economic climate

Temporary migration flows for employment continue to grow in several OECD member countries (see Table I.1). Examples include Australia (+5.1% between 2001 and 2002), France (+14.4%), Germany (+5.5%), Japan (+1.8%), Korea (+7.6%), New Zealand (+16%) and the United Kingdom (+10.2%).

In the United States, on the other hand, temporary entries stabilised in 2002. The tighter border controls introduced after the Terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 are partly responsible for this trend[3] which the partial data available for 2003 suggest might well prove to be transitory.

There was a particularly sharp decline in the number of new H1B visas issued in 2002 (103 600 in 2002 compared with 201 100 in 2001), although this was not borne out by the 2003 figures (105 300).[4] The annual quota for H1B visas has been reduced from 195 000 to 65 000 from 2004 onwards, although the provisions whereby H1B visas can be issued outside the quota, notably to institutions of higher education and not-for-profit organisations, have remained unchanged. Entries by workers under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) also fell sharply by over 11% in 2002 and by almost 40% in 2003, partly because of the trend in the economic climate in Canada and the United States. Since January 2004, the quota limit of 5 000 on the number of Mexican professionals allowed to work in the United States under this agreement no longer applies.

The sole significant increase reported in the number of temporary workers entering the United States was in the category of non-agricultural seasonal workers (H2B visas). Around 62 600 visas were issued in 2002, an increase of 7.5% on the previous year and a four-fold increase compared with 1997. In 2002, most of the immigrants granted an H2B visa were Mexican or Jamaican nationals. They worked mainly as gardeners, lumberjacks or domestic staff. In 2003, the number of H2B visas issued rose further to almost 79 000, *i.e.* more than the

Table I.1. **Entries of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 2000-2003**

Thousands

	1992	2000	2001	2002	2003
Australia					
Skilled temporary resident programme (offshore and onshore)[1]	14.6 |	39.2	45.7	43.3	47.4
Working Holiday Makers (offshore)	25.2	71.5	76.6	85.2	88.8
Total	**39.8**	**110.7**	**122.2**	**128.5**	**136.1**
	(40.3)	*(32.3)*	*(35.7)*	*(36.1)*	*(38.5)*
Canada[2]					
Total	**70.5**	**94.9**	**95.6**	**87.9**	**82.1**
	(254.8)	*(227.3)*	*(250.5)*	*(229.1)*	*(221.3)*
France					
Employees on secondment	0.9	2.2	2.3	1.8	. .
Researchers	0.9	1.6	1.7	1.6	. .
Other holders of an *APT*[3]	2.8	3.8	5.6	6.4	. .
Seasonal workers	13.6	7.9	10.8	13.5	. .
Total	**18.1**	**15.4**	**20.4**	**23.4**	**. .**
	(42.3)	*(18.4)*	*(22.2)*	*(20.5)*	. .
Germany					
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	64.8	46.8	45.4	43.8
Seasonal workers	212.4	219.0	277.9	298.1	309.5
Trainees	5.1	5.9	5.3	4.9	5.9
Total	**332.6**	**289.7**	**330.1**	**348.4**	**359.2**
	(408.9)	*(333.8)*	*(373.8)*	*(374.0)*	
Italy					
Seasonal workers	1.7	30.9	30.3	. .	. .
Japan					
Highly skilled workers	108.1	129.9	142.0	145.1	. .
Trainees	. .	54.0	59.1	58.5	. .
Total	. .	**183.9**	**201.0**	**203.6**	. .
Korea					
Highly skilled workers	3.4	19.1	27.6	40.5	. .
Trainees	4.9	104.8	100.3	97.2	. .
Total	**8.3**	**123.9**	**128.0**	**137.7**	. .

	1992	2000	2001	2002	2003
New Zealand[4]					
Business	. .	1.5	2.7	1.8	0.8
General work permit	. .	17.4	21.1	29.8	35.6
Trainees/Working Holiday Makers	. .	13.9	18.2	21.7	23.1
Special highly qualified (medical, teaching, research, specialist)	. .	6.2	6.3	4.1	5.4
Other	. .	4.0	6.4	6.1	6.6
Total	. .	**43.1**	**54.6**	**63.5**	**71.5**
Sweden					
Grants of temporary permits (mainly seasonal workers)	. .	19.4	12.7	10.2	. .
	(0.2)	*(0.4)*	*(0.4)*	*(0.4)*	*(0.3)*
Switzerland					
Seasonal workers (status abolished in 2002)	126.1	49.3	54.9	–	–
Trainees	1.6	1.1	1.3	1.0	. .
Total	**127.8**	**50.3**	**56.2**	**–**	**–**
	(39.7)	*(34.0)*	*(41.9)*	*(40.1)*	. .
United Kingdom					
Work permits issued (work permits and first permissions)	36.3	64.6	85.1	88.6	. .
Working Holiday Makers	24.0	38.4	35.8	41.7	46.5
Seasonal agricultural workers[5]	3.6	10.1	14.9	19.4	. .
Total	**63.8**	**113.1**	**135.8**	**149.7**	**. .**
United States[6]					
Highly skilled workers					
Specialists (visa H-1B)	35.8	133.3	161.6	118.4	107.2
Specialists (visa H-2B)	. .	45.0	58.2	62.6	79.0
Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN)	–	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.4
Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O-1 and O-2)	3.0	8.4	8.6	8.0	8.6
Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	7.2	30.2	31.5	31.5	29.9
Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4
Total	**47.8**	**219.3**	**262.4**	**222.6**	**226.5**
	(147.0)	*(107.0)*	*(179.2)*	*(175.0)*	. .

Table I.1. **Entries of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 2000-2003** *(cont.)*

Thousands

Note: The categories of temporary workers differ from one country to another. Only the principal categories of temporay workers are presented in this table. The figures in brackets indicate the number of entries of permanent workers (except for Germany where contract and seasonal workers are also included).

| break in series.

1. The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. From 2000 on, the data are on and offshore and include the Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
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. Figures have been revised from 1996 on.
3. Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
4. Fiscal years. Data refer to permits and visas granted to persons who came to New Zealand to work. Humanitarian and familial migration are therefore excluded. "Other" contains "arts, culture and sports", special work permits and the category "job search".
5. Seasonal work concerns students in full time education aged between 18 and 25.
6. The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). Data in the 1992 column refer to 1993. Figures refer to non-immigrant visas issued.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales, Annuaire des migrations; Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Italy: Ministry of Labour; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; New Zealand: Immigration Service; Sweden: Ministry of Labour; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

annual quota of 66 000. The latter quota was filled in 2004. This trend reflects a sharp increase in demand from the hotel sector, notably in ski resorts. In all, approximately 110 000 seasonal visas (H2A and H2B) were issued in 2003 in the United States.

It is worth noting that the number of seasonal visas issued has risen sharply in several OECD member countries, reflecting the tensions that exist in the labour market in certain sectors employing large numbers of unskilled labour, despite the more or less favourable trend in the general employment situation. The increase in seasonal migration is particularly marked in the United Kingdom (19 400 permits issued in 2002), Norway (15 721), France (15 300) and Canada (10 700 Mexican seasonal workers). Germany, however, admitted 293 000 seasonal workers in 2002, the largest number of permits issued since the entry into force of the bilateral labour agreements with Poland in 1990.

The United Kingdom introduced a new programme (Sector Based Scheme – SBS) in May 2003 to cope with shortages of unskilled labour in the agro-food and hotel-catering sectors. Quotas of 10 000 permits per sector were approved until January 2004. From June 2004 onwards, however, these quotas have been revised downwards to a total of 15 000 permits available from now until May 2005 instead of the 20 000 previously available. Other measures have also been taken in 2003 to extend the working holiday programme (Working Holiday Makers – WHM) and the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS). In June 2004, the latter was also reduced from 25 000 to 16 250 annual permits. Indeed, the Home Ministry has decided to introduce a new rule under which no given nationality can be awarded more than 20% of the permits available under the SBS and SAWS programmes. These recent changes in UK policy with regard to certain categories of economic migrants must be viewed in the context of the enlargement of the European Union and the accession of ten new member States whose nationals are allowed to work in the United Kingdom without restriction since 1 May 2004 (see I.A.3 for further details).

During the 1990s, most OECD member countries relaxed the entry requirements for highly skilled workers and/or the recruitment of other types of foreign workers. The downturn in the economic climate has not fundamentally changed these developments, even though several countries have started to make the conditions of entry for certain categories of foreign worker more restrictive. This has been the stance taken by the United States with regard to H1B visas as we have seen above, although the same is also true of the United Kingdom and France where exceptional measures aimed at facilitating the recruitment of foreign IT workers have been withdrawn. Ireland, which had largely liberalised access to its labour market in the late 1990s, reintroduced controls to restrict the conditions for issuing work permits in April 2003. Apart from these few examples, however, the trend is still towards growth in migration for employment and the introduction of new measures designed to facilitate such migration.

Canada's new Immigration and Refugee Protection Act (June 2002), for example, has amended the conditions of entry for temporary workers and no longer systematically imposes the employment criterion that requires the employer to prove that the temporary recruitment of a foreign worker will have a neutral or positive effect on the labour market. If the improvement in the employment outlook is confirmed, this amendment can be expected to lead to a new increase in flows of temporary economic immigrants from 2003 onwards, following the slight downturn in 2002.

At the end of 2003 New Zealand amended the selection criteria for skilled immigrants in order to better target the skills required by the New Zealand economy. This change

indirectly facilitated the transition from a temporary to a permanent residence permit. This trend is particularly significant in view of the growth in temporary migration for employment to this country (+115% between 1998 and 2002).

The Czech Republic has embarked on a project (Project of Active Selection of a Qualified Foreign Labour Force) aimed at actively recruiting highly skilled foreign workers through a points system based on individual criteria (age, level of education, professional experience, etc.). The workers selected, according to conditions in the labour market, will be allowed fast-track access to a permanent residence permit (2.5 years instead of the 10 years normally required). An initial quota of 300 workers has been set for the first year of the project, and 1 400 visas are expected to be issued in 2004.

In Germany, the new immigration act was finally adopted in May 2004. In particular, this legislation eases the conditions for the recruitment of certain categories of highly skilled workers and provides for their permanent settlement. Special provisions have also been introduced for foreign investors (see Part I.C on migration policies for further details). For the time being, the special (green card) programme for IT workers has been extended until the end of 2004 within the limit of the original quota of 20 000 permits (15 800 permits have been issued between August 2000 and January 2004). Furthermore, an agreement has been signed with Croatia and Slovenia to facilitate the recruitment of nurses and nursing auxiliaries. It is also worth noting that in July 2002 Denmark introduced a simplified procedure for certain skilled professions, namely engineers, scientists, doctors and nurses and that Italy has decided to discontinue its quota system for the recruitment of foreign nurses.

In 2003, the UK authorities decided to maintain a trial programme, originally introduced in January 2002, under which highly skilled workers are authorised to enter the United Kingdom for a period of one year in order to seek work. Between 1 February 2002 and 31 July 2003, approximately 5 000 applications were received, 61% of which were accepted. Applicants mainly consisted of financial specialists, IT workers and health professionals. Since January 2002, Norway has also introduced a programme of this type.

Some countries, such as Korea and Japan, issue a large number of temporary work permits to trainees who are usually employed in industry. Some 55 500 workers entered Japan on this type of visa in 2002. Around 100 000 trainees were registered in Korea in 2002. Indeed, Korea has decided to radically revise the conditions of recruitment for less skilled foreign workers by authorising small and medium-sized enterprises in sectors where there are labour shortages to hire foreigners on temporary work contracts (maximum of three years). This programme is due to enter into force in 2004.

Another form of mobility that has been growing strongly is that of transfers within multinational firms (see Table I.2). In the United States, this category of entry, which is not subject to quota restrictions, has given rise to heated debate. In 2002, over 57 700 L1 visas (employees transferred within multinational enterprises) were issued, a decline, however, of 2.8% from the previous year, after many years of very steep increases (between 1993 and 2002, the number of L1 visas issued annually virtually tripled). Similar trends, reflecting the changing economic climate for international trade and investment, were observed in several other OECD member countries, with the exception of the United Kingdom where this category of entry rose very slightly between 2002 and 2003.

Lastly, mention should be made of cross-border workers who, even though they concern a limited number of countries, are also growing significantly in number (see Table I.3). The number of cross-border workers in Switzerland grew by 3% between 2001

Table I.2. **Intracompany transferees in selected OECD countries, 1996-2002**

Thousands

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Austria[1]	. .	. .	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.9	1.9
Canada[1]	. .	2.1	2.8	2.5	3.0	3.2	2.8
France	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.3	1.8
Japan	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.5	2.9
Netherlands	1.6	2.3	2.7	2.5	. .	. .	. .
United Kingdom[2]	13.0	18.0	22.0	15.0	16.0	17.0	19.0
United States (visa L1)[3]	32.1	36.6	38.3	41.7	55.0	59.4	57.7

Note: Intra-EU transferees are not taken into account in statistics related to EU countries.

1. Stock of non-EU intracompany transferees who hold a residence permit on 1 July of the given year.
1. Temporary business persons with employment authorisations entering Canada under NAFTA, CCFTA or under GATS.
2. Results are derived from the Labour Force Survey.
3. Issuances of L1 visas.

Sources: Austria: Federal Ministry of the Interior; Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Japan: Ministry of Justice, Immigration Service; Netherlands: Employment Office; United Kingdom: Labour Force Survey; United States: US Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Table I.3. **Cross-border workers in selected OECD countries, 1996-2002**

Thousands

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Austria[1]	. .	. .	2.1	4.0	5.2	5.4	5.7
Belgium	. .	. .	20.5	22.9	25.0	28.7	30.5
Germany[2]	. .	16.3	9.7	8.8	9.4	10.0	9.0
Luxembourg[3]	59.6	64.4 |	72.9	80.6	90.7	98.8	103.1
Switzerland	147.0	142.2	142.5	144.8	156.0	168.1	173.2

1. Stock of non-EU cross-border workers who hold a residence permit on 1 July of the given year.
2. Flow data (including renewals of permits).
3. Before 1998, data refer to annual averages and since 1998 data refer to the end of the year.

Sources: Austria: Federal Ministry of the Interior; Belgium: Institut national d'assurance maladie-invalidité; Germany: Ministry of Labour; Luxembourg: National Statistical Office; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers.

and 2002 to 173 000. Around 88 100 permits were issued to French nationals, 39 600 to Italian nationals, 35 900 to German nationals and 7 100 to Austrian nationals. Luxembourg also admits a large number of cross-border workers (103 100 in 2002) who account for 38% of total employment in this country.

e) A spectacular increase in inflows and stocks of foreign students

Another salient feature of recent migration trends is the rising trend in the number of foreign students in most OECD member countries, several of which have introduced policies to ease their admission and change in status once they have completed their studies (see Part I.C on migration policies).

The United States had the largest number of foreign students in 2002 (see Table I.4), despite heightened security controls for this category of entry, which has been classified as sensitive since the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001. Following enactment of the USA Patriot Act, a centralised computer system was set up to store information about students (Student and Exchange Visitor System) in August 2003.

The United Kingdom and Germany have an equally high number of foreign students, even though the growth in stocks in those countries, composed primarily of nationals of

Table I.4. **Stock of foreign students in selected OECD countries, 2002**

Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	*Of which:* from an OECD country (%)	Increase since 2001 (%)
United States	583.0	35.7	22.7
United Kingdom	227.3	55.4	0.7
Germany	219.0	49.2	10.0
Australia	179.6	23.5	48.5
France	165.4	25.2	12.2
Japan	74.9	29.9	17.7
Spain	44.9	63.1	12.3
Belgium	40.4	59.1	5.8
Switzerland	29.3	70.4	5.5
Sweden	28.7	58.8	9.0
Austria	28.5	69.7	–10.2
Italy	28.4	42.4	–2.7
Netherlands	18.9	59.6	13.9
New Zealand	17.7	19.2	60.0
Turkey	16.3	10.4	–2.0
Denmark	14.5	38.5	15.4
Hungary	11.8	36.2	4.8
Czech Republic	9.8	60.1	25.8
Norway	9.5	46.7	7.6
Ireland	9.2	67.3	12.2
Poland	7.4	24.2	11.1
Finland	6.8	34.6	7.5
Korea	5.0	21.5	28.7
Mexico	1.9	44.9	–2.6
Slovak Republic	1.6	34.9	–2.8
Iceland	0.5	80.1	12.1

Source: Database on Education, OECD.

OECD member countries, has been less marked. In France, on the other hand, 55 000 new foreign students were registered in 2002, 39% more than the previous year and twice the number of entries reported in 1998. Most of this increase is attributable to students from Africa (North and Sub-Saharan Africa) and China. There were a total of 165 000 foreign students in France in 2002.

These trends are also apparent in several recent immigration countries like Spain, where around 45 000 foreign students were reported in 2002, or Ireland, as well as in Asian OECD member countries, notably Japan where there were 75 000 foreign students in 2002 (+18% compared with 2001).

In Australia and Canada, the recent trend in foreign student stocks is the outcome of a positive policy towards international students. In 2001, the Australian authorities introduced measures aimed in particular at simplifying administrative procedures for foreign students. The number of study visas awarded to foreign students has consequently grown by over 27% since the reform was implemented and by almost 50% within a period of four years. In Canada, where new admissions of foreign students rose to over 68 800 in 2002 (approximately 30 000 on average in the early 1990s), the government has entered into negotiations with university institutes and provincial administrations with a view to developing a programme aimed at attracting even more foreign students.

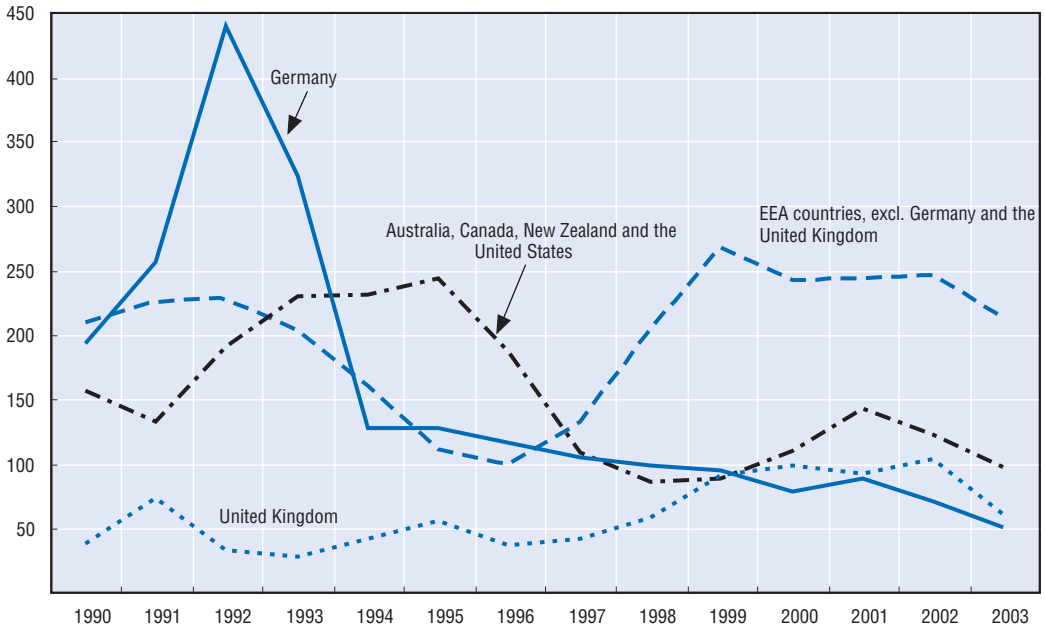
f) Gradual regulation of asylum-seeker flows

After several years of uninterrupted growth, a trend reversal was observed in all member countries (see Figure I.5). The reason for this is that the main host countries have reacted to the rise in asylum applications by accelerating application review procedures and by introducing restrictive measures such as extended visa regimes or stricter appeal procedures. More recently, some countries have taken specific measures aimed at systematically deporting all rejected asylum applicants, as well as denying social benefits to applicants who fail to file an asylum application on arriving in the country (see Part I.C on migration policies). The decline observed in 2003 is also partly attributable to the easing of a number of conflicts (*e.g.* in the former Yugoslavia or Afghanistan) that in recent years have helped to swell flows of asylum seekers, particularly towards European OECD member countries.

The United Kingdom received the largest number of asylum applications in 2003, despite a decline of over 25% compared with the previous year. The United States ranked in second place with approximately 79 800 applications, followed by France and Germany with slightly over 50 000 applications each, a figure equivalent to that of 2002 in the case of France but down by around 27% in the case of Germany. The decline was also very marked in Denmark (–32.2%), Australia (–26.6%), Ireland (–26.2%) and the Netherlands (–24.8%). Apart from the Central European countries (*e.g.* the Czech Republic and Poland) and Greece, which all reported significant increases, the number of asylum applications declined more or less throughout the OECD area. A total of 502 000 asylum applications were registered in the OECD area as a whole in 2003, *i.e.* 80 000 fewer than in 2002 (see Box I.2).

Figure I.5. **Inflows of asylum seekers to OECD countries, 1990-2003**

Thousands



Source: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

Box I.2. **Asylum seekers: fully fledged migrants?**

Over recent years, inflows of asylum seekers have had a particular significance in several OECD member countries. As long as decisions on their applications have not been finalised (and appeal procedures, where they exist and are used, can substantially prolong processing times), it is difficult to know whether such persons should be counted as migrants or not. As a rule, only refugees (*i.e.* persons whose requests for asylum have been granted) are counted, but the annual entry statistics of a number of countries that keep population registers (including Germany and Norway) include asylum seekers residing in private households.

Asylum seeker statistics published in *Trends in International Migration* come from the UNHCR database.[1] Despite efforts at harmonisation, the use of these data raises a number of problems, especially when one wants to make international comparisons. For example, some countries (such as the United States and the United Kingdom) count filings by primary applicants, while most other countries register all persons individually. For the first group of countries, data must therefore be adjusted on the basis of estimates.[2] Similarly, since exit statistics and demographic data for refugees and asylum-seekers are particularly limited, statistics on stocks are in many cases available only through estimates.

Nor do asylum seeker statistics systematically identify minors, who are particularly vulnerable and pose special problems, especially if they are unaccompanied. For example, in 2003 some 12 800 unaccompanied minors were recorded in the 28 industrialised countries for which statistics are available (United Kingdom, 2 800; Austria, 2 050; Switzerland, 1 330; Netherlands, 1 220; Germany, 980; Norway, 920). In France, it is estimated that 1 980 unaccompanied minors were given refuge in 2001 – more than three times as many as two years earlier.

Another problem arises from how recognition rates are calculated. Ideally, there should be longitudinal data that would take all appellate procedures into account. Unfortunately, this is not the case, and recognition rates are generally computed by comparing the number of applications approved in a given year with the number of applications denied. Recognition rates are relatively low, however (averaging 24.6% for EU15 between 1982 and 2001), with a number of notable exceptions, such as the Nordic countries (*e.g.* 69.5% in Denmark), the Netherlands (52.7%) and Canada (59.3%). Recognition rates also vary very sharply by country of origin.

A final important point to mention concerns exactly who is counted. It is in fact necessary to distinguish between refugees who obtain protection under the Geneva Convention and those who have some other status (temporary protection, territorial asylum, humanitarian refugee, and so on). Official UNHCR statistics include all Geneva Convention refugees, while in some countries non-Convention refugees may constitute very large groups. In the United Kingdom, for example, 14 410 refugees were admitted under the Geneva Convention in 2001, whereas 25 580 obtained a right of abode in the United Kingdom for humanitarian reasons (respectively 75 and 2 720 in Denmark, for example).

1. UNHCR, whose mandate is to carry out and co-ordinate international actions on behalf of refugees, has since 1950 been producing comprehensive statistics on refugees and asylum-seekers in the OECD countries and in other countries in the world on a regular basis (*www.unhcr.ch/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/statistics*).
2. Coefficients applied to the United Kingdom and the United States for estimating the number of persons concerned are equal to 1.289 and 1.4 respectively.

Alongside these trends there has also been a change in the main nationalities concerned (see Table I.5). In 2003, Russians accounted for the largest group with over 33 000 applications filed in all OECD member countries, compared with 26 500 nationals of Serbia and Montenegro, 24 200 Turks, 23 400 Iraqis and 15 900 Chinese. The increase in applications by Russian nationals, some of whom were from Chechnya, was as abrupt and significant as the decline in applications by Serbians (125 000 in 1999), Afghans (60 000 in 2001) or Iraqis (51 000 in 2002). Besides the changes in asylum policies, flows therefore remained driven by humanitarian crises and international conflicts.

Table I.5. **Inflows of asylum seekers to OECD countries, 1998-2003**
Top 10 countries of origin in 2003

	1998-2002 annual average	2003
Russian Federation	8 538	33 274
Serbia and Montenegro	68 615	26 498
Turkey	26 549	24 183
Iraq	42 385	23 434
China	17 679	15 890
India	12 198	13 968
Afghanistan	33 590	13 253
Somalia	13 718	11 249
Iran	15 235	11 217
Pakistan	10 324	10 618
Total (above countries)	**248 832**	**183 584**
As a per cent of total applications received in OECD	*46.4*	*40.2*

Source: United Nations High Commisioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

2. Trends in the foreign and immigrant populations

a) The share of immigrants in the total population varies widely from one country to another…

In the major settlement countries such as Australia, New Zealand or Canada, immigrants accounted for a large share of the resident population in 2001: 23.0% in Australia, 19.5% in New Zealand and 19.3% in Canada (see Figure I.6). The number of foreign-born residents in the United States apparently amounted to 34.6 million in 2001, *i.e.* 12.3% of the population.

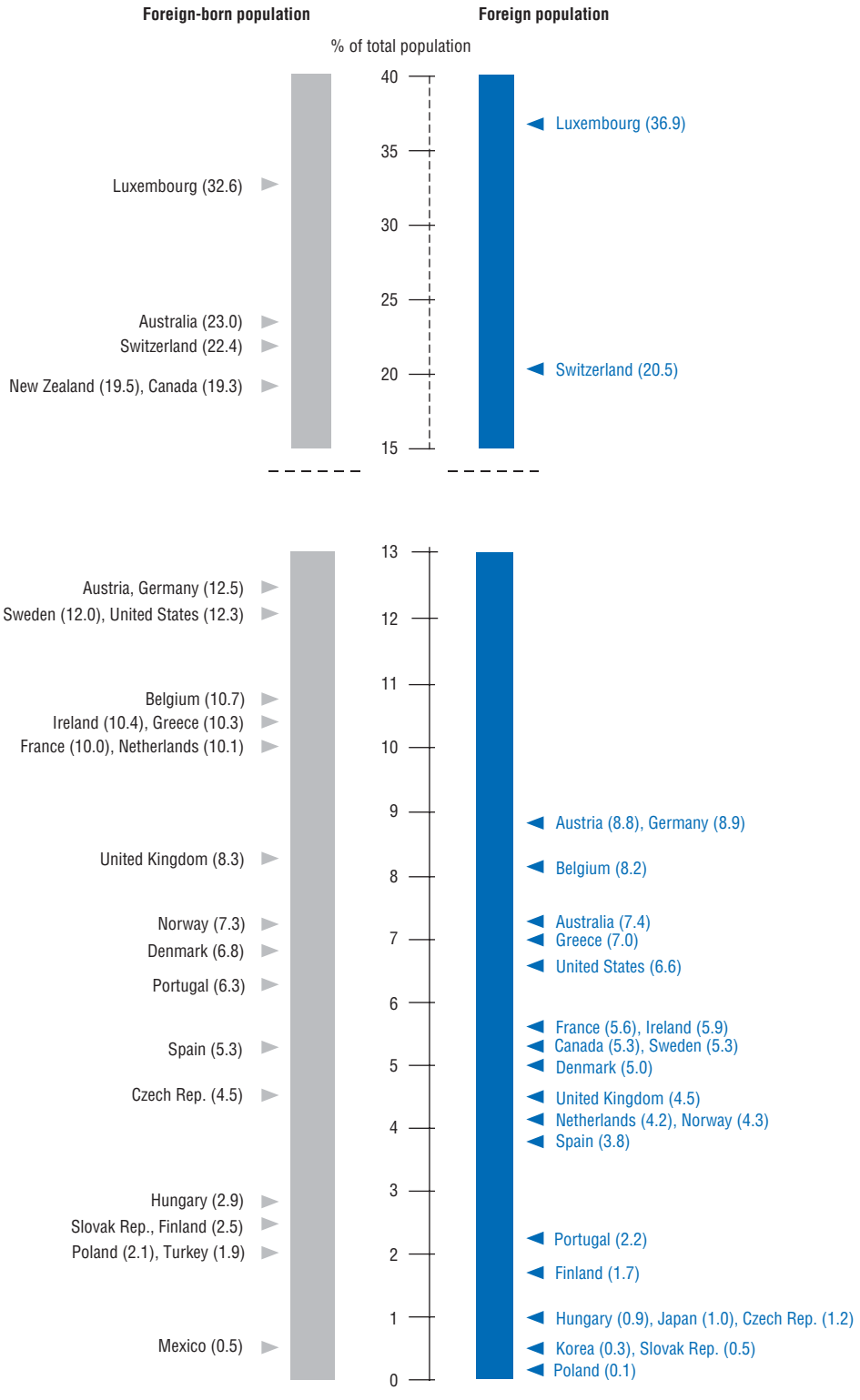
According to the latest available census data, the share of the foreign population in the total population of European OECD member countries varies substantially. It is very high, for example, in Luxembourg (36.9%) and Switzerland (20.5%). In other traditional immigration countries, the share of the foreign population in the total population ranges from 4.4% in the United Kingdom to approximately 8.9% in Germany and Austria.

In the Nordic countries, the share of foreigners in the total population ranges from 4.3% in Norway to 5.3% in Sweden. However, it is smaller in Finland (1.7%). In the new immigration countries of Southern Europe, the foreign population varies from 2.2% (in Portugal) to 7% (in Greece). Likewise, in Ireland, a country which for many years experienced negative net immigration, foreigners now account for 5.9% of the total population.

Lastly, the share of foreigners in Central and Eastern European countries, as well as in Asian OECD member countries, remains relatively low; it amounts to 1% in Japan and Hungary and is no more than 0.5% in the Slovak Republic, Korea and Poland.

Figure I.6. **Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, last Census year**

Percentages of total population



Source: Census data except for Germany (register of foreigners, 2002) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey), Secretariat calculations.

Box I.3. **Measuring the immigrant population**

Nationality and place of birth are the criteria most commonly used to define the "immigrant population". Some national institutes of statistics also produce series based on nationality at birth, or even the place of birth or nationality of forebears. Statistics on foreign-born residents are usually used in settlement countries, and those on foreigners in European and Asian OECD member countries.

The foreign-born population covers persons who are first-generation migrants. It includes specific groups of immigrants, who are nationals by birth or because they have acquired the nationality of the country of residence by virtue of historical links between their country of birth and the country of residence. In the former category, for example, are nationals repatriated from Algeria residing in France or from Portuguese-speaking African countries to Portugal; the latter category includes the German *Aussiedler* born in the former USSR, Romania or Poland; ethnic Hungarians born in Romania; and ethnic Finns born in Russia or Estonia. The foreign-born population can in some cases also include the foreign-born children of expatriate parents.

The foreign population, on the other hand, includes immigrants who have kept the nationality of their home country as well as second- and third-generation immigrants born in the host country. The size and the timing of migrant arrivals, the degree of stringency of the legislation relating to the acquisition of nationality, as well as the reasons for which foreigners acquire the nationality of their country of residence, all contribute to determining the trends in stocks of foreign nationals.

A comparison of these two sets of statistics (foreign-born residents and foreigners) shows that in several OECD member countries the foreign population (whatever the place of birth) accounts for much less than half of the foreign-born population (whatever the nationality). While the successive redrawing of historical borders can explain this phenomenon in Poland, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Hungary, there are different reasons in other countries. In Canada, Australia, the Netherlands and Sweden, the large share of nationals among foreign-born residents can be attributed to high rates of naturalisation, whereas in Portugal the main reason is the repatriation of nationals. In countries where it is harder to acquire nationality (*e.g.* Luxembourg or Switzerland), and in countries that have experienced high immigration flows in recent years (Spain) or those whose population comprises a high share of EU nationals (Belgium, Norway), most foreign-born residents are of foreign nationality.

Nevertheless, in comparing country rankings by type of statistic (foreign-born residents and foreigners), the difference between the two sets of figures is only significant in a small number of countries such as Australia, Canada, the Netherlands, Sweden and, to a lesser extent, the United States. In these countries statistics on foreign-born residents provide a significantly clearer picture of the scale of migration relative to other countries.

When information is available on nationality at birth (France, Canada, Switzerland, Belgium, United States, Norway), it is possible to identify immigrants as foreign-born persons who were foreign nationals at birth (whatever their current nationality). This definition has the three-fold advantage of being independent of the naturalisation rate, of taking account solely of residents who have actually migrated and of excluding the returns of expatriate children. Apart from the specific case of France, where the immigrant population (foreign-born foreigners) accounts for 73% of the foreign-born population, this rate is over 85% and indeed in the case of Canada close to 100%. Only a minority of migrants are therefore both foreign-born and hold the nationality of their current country of residence at birth (such migrants account for 13% of the foreign-born population in Belgium, 10% in the United States, 8% in Norway and 6% in Switzerland). Thus the place of birth criterion seems a reasonable compromise to estimate the foreign-born foreign population.

Figure I.6 also presents the percentage share of foreign-born residents in the total population of European member countries, statistics that have been available up to now for only a limited number of countries (see Box I.3). This percentage amounts to over 10% in Austria, Germany, Sweden, Belgium, Greece and the Netherlands, a level that places these countries close to what is generally reported, for example, for the United States.

b) ... but the immigrant population is rising in most OECD member countries

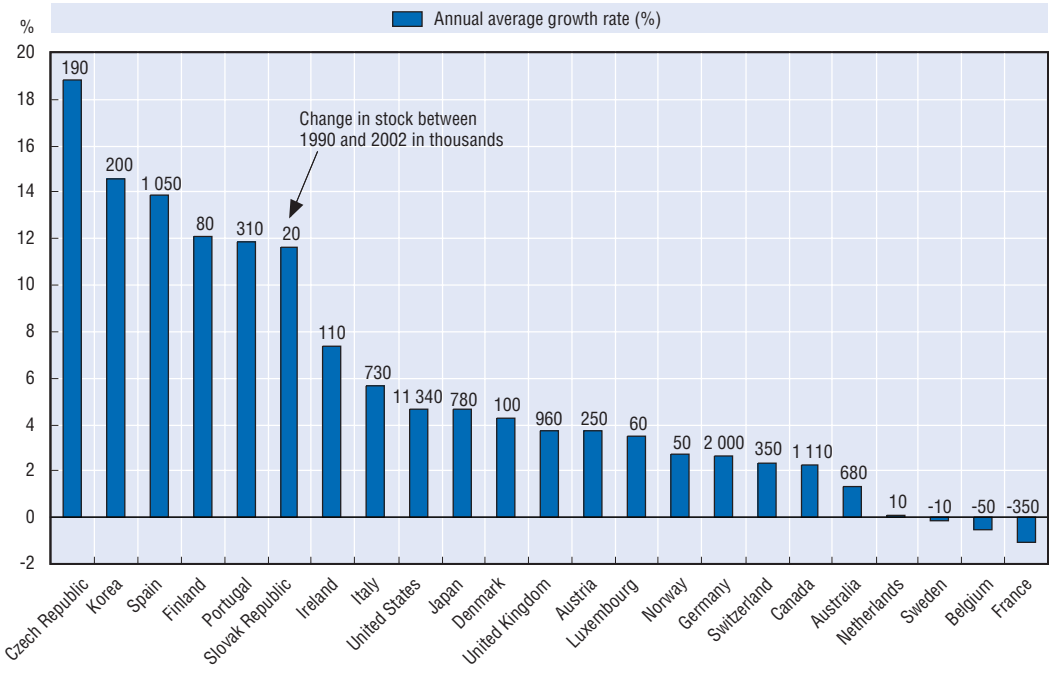
The share of foreigners in the total population increased in many member countries between 1990 and 2002, as shown in Figure I.7.

The percentage share of foreigners in the total population increased at an annual rate of over 10% in Portugal, Finland, Spain, Korea, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. The increase was also quite high in Italy and Ireland. In the United States, the percentage share of foreign-born residents in the total population rose from 7.9% in 1992 to 12.3% in 2002, that is to say over 11 million new foreign-born residents were added to the population between the two dates.

On the assumption that immigration and naturalisation rates observed over the period 1995-2002 remain constant, it would take five years in Spain, six years in Portugal and Korea and seven years in Ireland for the foreign population to double. In these countries, where the percentage share of immigrants remains relatively low compared with other member countries, the acceleration in migration flows is remarkable

Figure I.7. **Change in stock of foreign population between 1990 and 2002**[1]

Thousands and annual average growth rate



1. Data for Australia, Canada and the United States relate to the foreign-born population. Reference years are: 1991 and 2001 for Canada; 1990 and 1999 for France; 1990 and 2000 for the United States.

Sources: Refer to the metadata relative to Tables A.1.4. and A.1.5. of the Statistical Annex.

(see Map I.1). The foreign population of Spain is growing at a rate of over 15% a year. Likewise, while it would have taken around 28 years in 1995 for the foreign population of the United Kingdom to double in size, on the basis of the immigration and naturalisation rates reported over the past five years that figure had fallen to 15 years in 2002.

The trend in the stock of foreigners is also influenced by naturalisations (which are rising in several OECD member countries). The latter tend to reduce the size of the foreign population. By contrast, regularisation programmes, of which there have been many in recent years, contribute to an increase in the number of foreigners. Belgium (2000), the United States (2000), Switzerland (2000), Spain (2000 and 2001), Mexico (2000 and 2001), Greece (2001), Portugal (2001), Korea (2002), Italy (2002-2003) and Poland (2003) have all introduced, although admittedly in differing contexts, regularisation programmes on various scales (for further details of regularisation and naturalisation programmes see Part I.C on migration policies).

c) Migration flows contribute to population growth

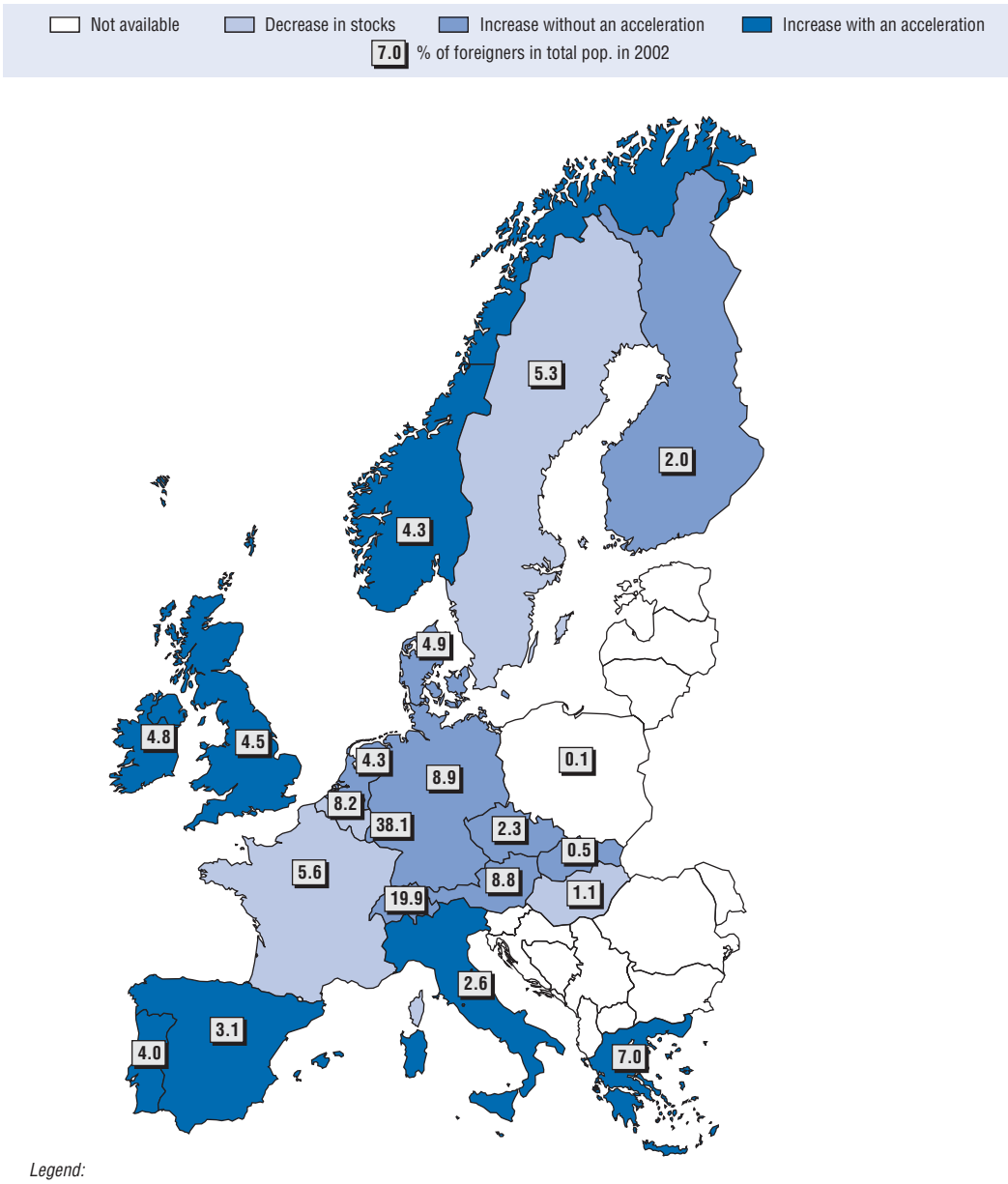
Migrations play a major role in the annual growth of the total population of several OECD member countries. Firstly, the presence of a foreign or immigrant population contributes to the natural increase in population (the amount by which births outnumber deaths). This contribution is even greater when the fertility rate of foreigners is higher than that of nationals. In addition, if net migration is positive, the total population of the host country will increase correspondingly.

Figure I.8 describes the contribution of net migration (of both nationals and foreigners) and of natural increase (births less deaths) to population growth in the European Union and in other OECD countries over the past four decades.

Since the 1960s, natural population increase and net migration have followed opposing paths in the European Union and thereby lent increasing weight to the share of international migration flows in population growth. This trend will not be affected by the recent enlargement of the EU to 25 new member States. In the European Union as a whole, and in all the European OECD member countries considered apart from France, the migration component makes a larger contribution to population growth than natural increase. The reason for this lies in the rebound in international migration described in the previous sections and in low fertility rates. Over the past few years, several European OECD member countries would have experienced a decline in their total population had it not been for inflows of new immigrants. This is particularly the case for Germany since 1972, as well as Italy since 1993 and Sweden since 1997 (except in 2002).

In other OECD member countries, population growth is generally driven by natural increase. In 2002, however, the rates of natural increase and of net migration in several countries converged. This was the case in Australia, the United States, Japan and New Zealand. It is still the case in Turkey and Mexico, too. However, population growth in those countries remains high and well above the European average. Japan and Poland are exceptions, however, in that a low fertility rate is accompanied by almost zero net immigration, resulting in extremely low population growth.

Map I.1. **Rates of growth in the foreign population in Europe, 1990-2002**



Legend:

Decrease in stocks:
Derease in stocks of foreigners between 1990 and 2002.

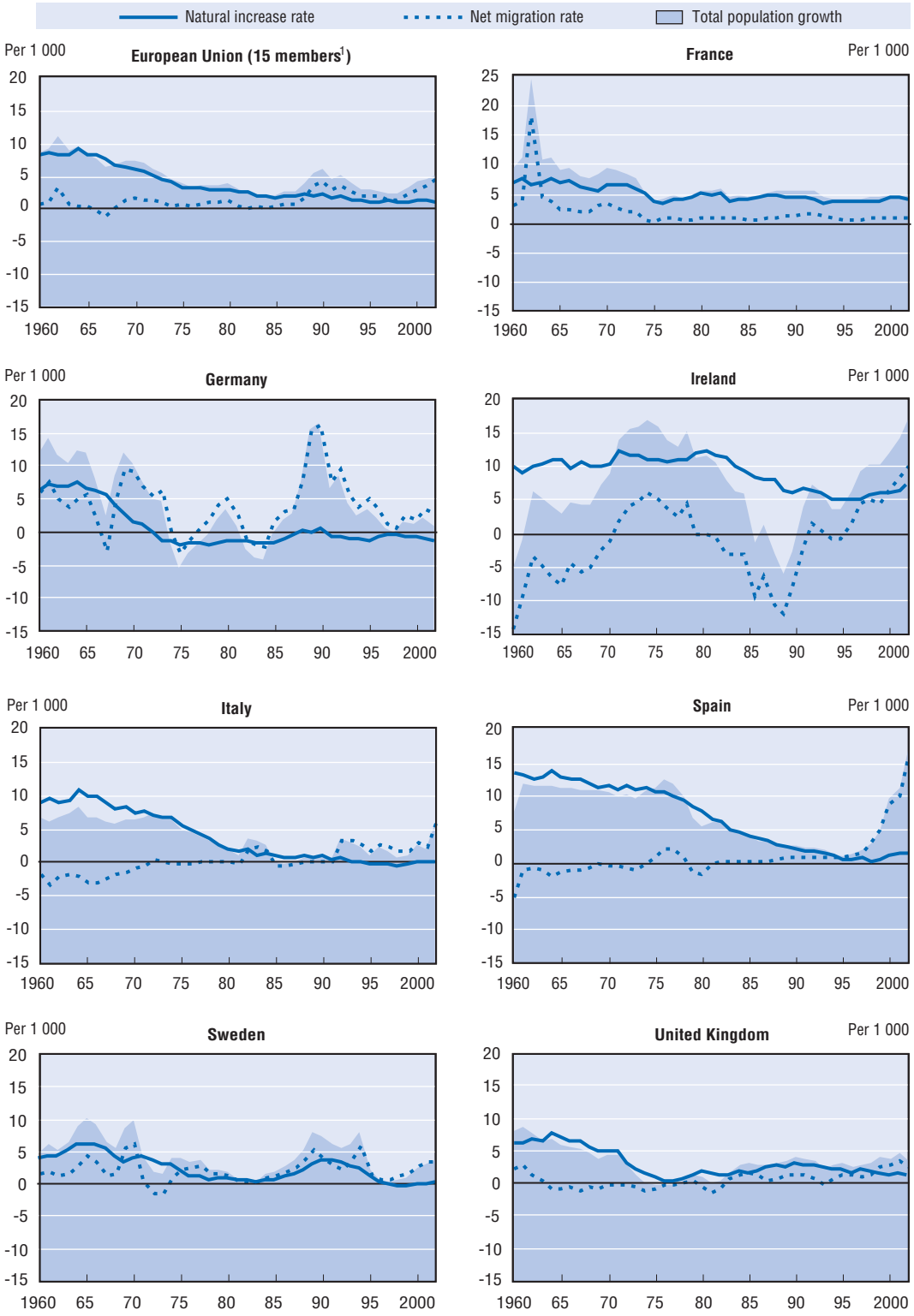
Increase without any acceleration:
Increase in stocks of foreigners between 1990 and 2002, with an annual growth rate lower at the end of the period (1995-2002) than in the beginning of the period (1990-1995).

Increase with an acceleration:
Increase in stocks of foreigners between 1990 and 2002, with an average annual growth rate higher at the end of the period (1995-2002) than in the beginning of the period (1990-1995).

Sources: National statistical institutes.

Figure I.8. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and selected OECD countries, 1960-2002**

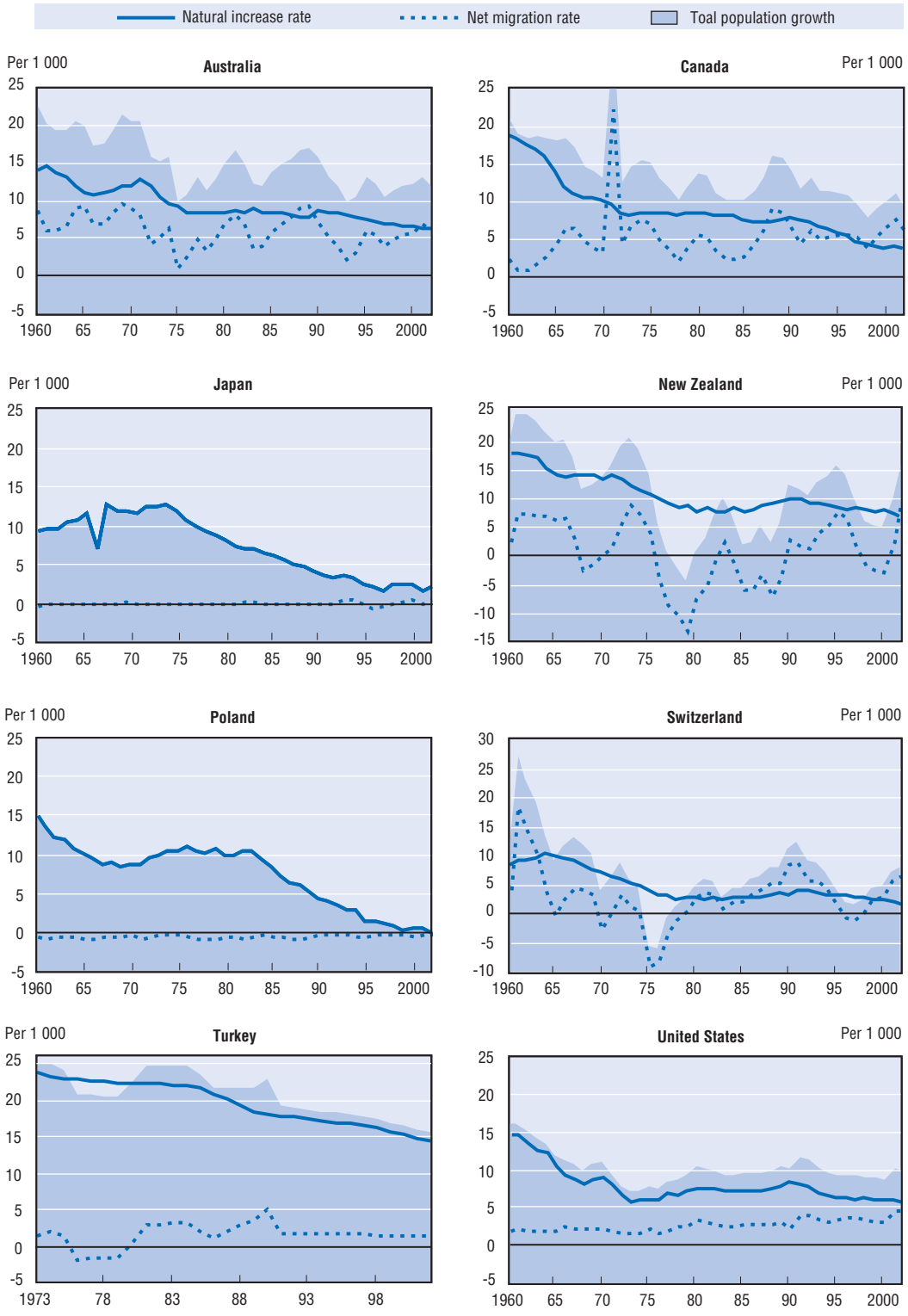
Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION: SOPEMI 2004 EDITION – ISBN 92-64-00792-X – © OECD 2005

Figure I.8. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and selected OECD countries, 1960-2002** *(cont.)*

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



1. Excluding Portugal (from 2001 on) and Greece (from 2000 on).

Source: *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 2004.

Box I.4. **How is net migration estimated?**

Every OECD country publishes on an annual basis estimates of the resident population within its borders. These estimates are generally based on a demographic accounting method that measures the components of population change (births, death, net migration) since the previous reporting period. The net migration measure gives the excess of in- over out-migration for the reference period. It is the measure that allows one to estimate the extent of population growth that is attributable to migration as opposed to natural increase (the excess of births over deaths). As is well known, in most OECD countries the proportion of population growth due to migration has been increasing over the past few decades.

Net migration is estimated in a variety of ways, depending on the country and the available data sources. Some of these are described here. Countries with population registers have procedures in place which, in principle, capture all movements into or out of municipalities for which the intended presence in/absence from the country exceeds a particular time period. Persons registering/deregistering are asked to supply their previous/subsequent address (which may be in a foreign country). Figures for net migration are then generated by taking the difference between the number of persons who register following entry into the country and the number of persons who deregister preceding a departure from the country.

In practice, however, the situation is not so simple. It is well known that departures are imperfectly recorded because there may be certain advantages, fiscal and otherwise, associated with presence on the register. Persons who leave may thus not deregister. As a result the net flows may tend to be overestimated

The United Kingdom measures net migration by means of the International Passenger Survey, which is a sample survey of international travelers arriving or leaving the United Kingdom at airports or seaports, who are asked if they are resident in the United Kingdom and if they intend to enter or leave the country for more than one year. In recent years, there have been adjustments for persons whose intended length of stay may not have corresponded to what they reported, in particular visitor switchers, asylum seekers and their dependents. The changes have led to a decrease of nearly 351 000 in estimated net migration between 1992 and 2001 (*e.g.* a 28% decrease).

Canada estimates net migration by matching together income tax files for two consecutive years and comparing addresses. About 70% of the Canadian population files a tax return and an additional 26% of the population is picked up as dependents of tax filers. A coverage adjustment is carried out by age and gender at small area level, since persons filing in two consecutive years make up less than the expected population.

Regardless of how net migration is estimated, the resulting figures are essential in tracking the evolution of the total population in countries. The latter is viewed as such a key statistic that even where there are no existing direct measures of the movements of citizens or of emigrants, estimates are produced for this purpose. Because of uncertainty in these estimates and of illegal migration, however, the actual resident population may be different from that calculated on the basis of the net migration estimates. When a new population total becomes available (say, following a census), the estimates of net migration may be revised back to agree with the new net migration figure, estimated residually. In the United Kingdom, a 1.1 million overestimate in the post-censal population estimates was noticed when compared to the 2001 Census results, of which 305 000 was attributed to errors in estimating net migration.

3. Regional aspects of international migration towards OECD countries

As mentioned previously, international migration is changing rapidly and new itineraries are emerging. In this context, migration from Central and Eastern European countries, from East and South East Asian countries as well as from South America or Sub-Saharan Africa play an increasing role which often goes beyond traditional OECD receiving countries. This section reviews the recent changes with regard to international migration originating from the four continental regions mentioned above.

a) Recent trends in migration from Central and Eastern European Countries (CEEC)[5]

Though the region as a whole is still an area of net emigration, some Central and Eastern European Countries (CEEC), among which the Czech Republic, Hungary and to a lesser extent the Slovak Republic have become countries of positive net migration. Countries with a Schengen border (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic) but also Romania and Bulgaria may be considered as transit countries for immigrants going to Western Europe.

The Czech Republic and Hungary are hosting significant numbers of long-term immigrants, even if foreigners still represent a relatively small share of their population (see Table I.6). A significant proportion of their foreign population is originating from neighbouring or nearby countries (especially Ukraine). More than 230 000 foreigners (2.3% of the total population) are residing legally in the Czech Republic in 2003, mainly originating from the Slovak Republic (27.9%), from Ukraine (25.4%) and Vietnam (11.8%). Foreigners in Hungary represents around 1% of the total population (115 000 persons) and are mainly composed of Romanians and Ukrainians.

Emigrants from the region mainly go to OECD neighbouring countries, such as Austria, Germany, or Italy. Nationals from CEEC account for about 80% of Austria's foreign workers (*i.e.* more than 180 000 people). In absolute numbers, Germany is the principal destination country, hosting more than 1.7 million immigrants from CEEC, comprising 30% of Germany's total foreign population. The second main destination is Italy, where migrants from the region account for 30% of the foreign population. Switzerland is also an important host country for citizens from the former Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Croatia), which accounted for one quarter of its total foreign population in 2002.

Despite the decrease of immigration from Serbia and Montenegro over the last decade, immigration from the region as a whole, but more particularly from Russia and Ukraine, has increased in several OECD countries. This is true for instance in the United States, which became the third most important destination country of migration from the region. In 2002, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ukraine and Russia accounted for almost 40% of European migration flows towards the United States. Such an increase is also sizable in Australia and Canada.

EU accession of CEEC

A landmark event for the region was the accession of eight CEE countries – the OECD member countries the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Hungary and Poland; as well as Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia – to the European Union on 1 May 2004. The enlargement of the European Union has a profound impact on the environment for migration between these and the (other) European OECD countries.

Table I.6. **Top five nationalities of citizens from Central and Eastern Europe residing in selected OECD countries and in Romania, 1994 and 2002**

Thousands

Foreign citizens from Central and Eastern Europe in selected European OECD countries

Austria (foreign workers)			**Czech Republic**			**France (foreigners by country of birth)**	
	1994	2002		1994	2002		1999
Serbia and Montenegro	118.6	63.8	Slovak Republic	16.7	61.1	Serbia and Montenegro	33.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	14.4	42.4	Ukraine	14.2	59.1	Poland	30.1
Croatia	11.7	25.9	Poland	20.0	16.0	Romania	10.7
Poland	11.1	11.7	Russian Federation	3.6	12.8	Russian Federation	8.2
Hungary	9.9	10.9	Bulgaria	3.8	4.2	Bosnia-Herzegovina	5.2
Total foreigners	**268.8**	**228.9**	**Total foreigners**	**103.7**	**231.6**	**Total foreigners**	**3 263.2**
Above countries			*Above countries*			*Above countries*	
(% of total foreigners)	*61.6*	*67.5*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*56.3*	*66.2*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*2.7*

Germany			**Hungary**			**Italy**		
	1993	2002		1994	2002		1994	2002
Serbia and Montenegro	929.6	591.5	Romania	68.3	47.3	Albania	31.9	169.0
Poland	260.5	317.6	Serbia and Montenegro	. .	7.9	Romania	20.2	95.8
Croatia	153.1	231.0	Ukraine	11.1	9.9	Serbia and Montenegro	53.4	39.8
Bosnia-Herzegovina	139.1	163.8	Poland	4.6	1.9	Poland	18.9	35.1
Russian Federation	. .	155.6	Russian Federation	3.7	1.8	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	10.3	26.1
Total foreigners	**6 878.1**	**7 335.6**	**Total foreigners**	**137.9**	**115.9**	**Total foreigners**	**922.7**	**1 512.3**
Above countries			*Above countries*			*Above countries*		
(% of total foreigners)	*21.6*	*19.9*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*63.6*	*59.4*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*14.6*	*24.2*

Netherlands			**Poland**		**Romania**	
	1995	2002		2002		2002
Serbia and Montenegro	16.9	6.4	Ukraine	9.9	Republic of Moldova	8.1
Poland	5.9	6.9	Russian Federation	4.3		
Russian Federation	1.9	4.1	Belarus	2.9		
Bosnia-Herzegovina	14.4	2.8	Bulgaria	1.1		
Ukraine	0.7	2.2	Czech Republic	0.8		
Total foreigners	**725.4**	**700.0**	**Total foreigners**	**49.2**	**Total foreigners**	**66.5**
Above countries			*Above countries*		*Above countries*	
(% of total foreigners)	*5.5*	*3.2*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*38.5*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*12.2*

Slovak Republic			**Sweden**			**Switzerland**		
	1994	2002		1993	2002		1994	2002
Czech Republic	2.5	5.4	Serbia and Montenegro	32.4	20.1	Serbia and Montenegro	. .	198.1
Ukraine	2.1	4.7	Bosnia-Herzegovina	21.3	17.0	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	59.8
Poland	2.1	2.4	Poland	16.1	13.9	Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	46.0
Former Yugoslavia	1.6	1.6	Croatia	1.6	5.5	Croatia	. .	43.4
			Russian Federation	3.0	6.2	Poland	5.1	4.5
Total foreigners	**16.9**	**29.5**	**Total foreigners**	**531.8**	**474.1**	**Total foreigners**	**1 300.1**	**1 447.3**
Above countries			*Above countries*			*Above countries*		
(% of total foreigners)	*49.4*	*47.6*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*14.0*	*13.2*	*(% of total foreigners)*	*. .*	*24.3*

Immigrants born in Central and Eastern Europe in selected OECD countries

Australia (ABS estimates)			**Canada (Censuses)**			**United States (Censuses)**		
	1994	2002		1991	2001		1990	2000
Hungary	27.3	24.8	Poland	184.7	180.4	Poland	388.3	466.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	27.4	Former Yugoslavia	88.8	145.4	Russian Federation	. .	340.2
Croatia	. .	58.3	Former USSR	99.4	133.2	Ukraine	. .	275.2
FYROM	. .	48.1	Hungary	57.0	48.7	Hungary	110.3	92.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	66.5	Former CSFR	42.6	39.8			
Total foreign-born	**4 084.6**	**4 565.8**	**Total foreign-born**	**4 342.9**	**5 448.5**	**Total foreign-born**	**19 767.3**	**31 107.9**
Above countries			*Above countries*			*Above countries*		
(% of total foreign-born)	*. .*	*4.9*	*(% of total foreign-born)*	*10.9*	*10.0*	*(% of total foreign-born)*	*2.5*	*3.8*

Sources: Austria: work permits; Censuses for Canada, France and United States; Estimates from the Australian Bureau of Statistics for Australia; residence permits for Italy and population registers for the other countries.

The free movement of persons is an essential element of the internal EU market and guaranteed by Community law. In principle, nationals of the European Economic Area (EEA) therefore enjoy freedom of movement between all member states.

Free movement of persons is one of the fundamental rights guaranteed to EU citizens and includes the right to work and live in another member state. Since 1 May 2004, nationals from the new member countries of the European Union are not only free to travel, but also to reside – *e.g.* as students or pensioners – in another member state. In general, self-employed individuals are also free to establish themselves in another member country. Exceptions apply only for the provision of certain services, *e.g.* in the construction sector, in Austria and Germany. However, under the 2004 accession arrangements, there is a transition period of up to seven years for workers from the Eastern European countries, although there are no such restrictions for Cyprus or Malta. The rationale for the transition is to ensure that labour migration from one country does not have a sudden and adverse impact on another country's economy. Similar arrangements operated in the past, following the respective accessions of Greece (1981), Spain and Portugal (1986).

For the first two years after accession, national rules may restrict freedom of movement of workers, though member states must give workers from the new member countries priority over third country nationals. These restrictions can be prolonged for another three years. If a member state identifies serious disturbances in its labour market, restrictions may be extended for a further two years, *i.e.* for a total of seven years since accession. By 2011, at the latest, there will be complete freedom of movement for workers from the new member states.

Ireland, the United Kingdom and Sweden have decided not to impose any restrictions on the access of workers from the new member states to their labour market during the initial phase of the transition period, even though the former two countries limit access to welfare benefits. Netherlands and Italy on their side apply special quotas for nationals from the new member countries, set respectively at 22 000 and 20 000. This route is also taken by Switzerland, which is linked to the labour market of the EEA through a series of bilateral agreements, which envisage freedom of movement after a transitional period. In Denmark, citizens from the eight new EU members countries are eligible to receive Danish work permits if they hold fulltime employment in the country on collective bargaining contract conditions, or under standard wage and work conditions. In all other EU15 member states, including the two countries to which the majority of immigration flows from the accession countries are expected – Germany and Austria, have chosen to impose restrictions for at least two years. New member countries generally allow for free mobility although they were entitled to impose equivalent restrictions on the nationals of those countries that have themselves imposed restrictions.

The EU accession has also affected the immigration regimes in the new member countries with respect to third country nationals. Since several borders of the accession countries, *e.g.* the eastern border of Poland, became borders to non-EEA countries, accession countries have adopted measures to reinforce border control and to combat illegal immigration. This also applies to the CEE countries which are expected to join the European Union in 2007, *i.e.* Bulgaria and Romania.

b) Recent trends in international migration in Asia[6]

Migration flows from Asia towards the OECD have been steadily rising since the 1960s and comprise now a major part of both stocks and inflows (see Table I.7). In 2002, 34% of immigration to the United States and about 50% of immigration to Australia and Canada originated in Asia. The relative importance of the region for immigration into Europe is generally smaller. Strong migration linkages, however, exist with the United Kingdom, where about 40% of permanent settlers in 2002 come from Asia, mainly from the Indian subcontinent.

Asians figure prominently among non-permanent migration, particularly with respect to highly-skilled and student migration to the United States. For example, over 40% of

Table I.7. **Stocks of Asian nationals and of immigrants born in an Asian country residing in an OECD country, 2002**

A. Stock of Asian nationals[1] in selected OECD countries in 2002

Thousands and percentages

	Japan[2]		France (1999[3])		Germany		Italy	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total	**1 851.8**	***100.0***	**3 258.5**	***100.0***	**7 335.6**	***100.0***	**1 512.3**	***100.0***
of which:								
Bangladesh	8.7	*0.5*	. .	. .	. .	. .	22.1	*1.5*
China	424.3	*22.9*	28.3	*0.9*	72.1	*1.0*	62.3	*4.1*
India	13.3	*0.7*	4.6	*0.1*	41.2	*0.6*	34.1	*2.3*
Indonesia	21.7	*1.2*	1.3	*0.0*	. .	. .	. .	. .
Malaysia	9.5	*0.5*	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Korea	625.4	*33.8*	4.3	*0.1*	23.3	. .	. .	. .
Pakistan	8.2	*0.4*	9.8	*0.3*	34.9	*0.5*	21.0	*1.4*
Philippines	169.4	*9.1*	1.9	*0.1*	. .	. .	65.3	*4.3*
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	10.3	*0.3*	43.6	*0.6*	35.8	*2.4*
Thailand	33.7	*1.8*	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Vietnam	21.1	*1.1*	20.9	*0.6*	87.2	*1.2*	. .	. .
Total for the above 11 countries	**1 335.3**	***72.1***	**81.4**	***2.5***	**302.4**	***3.8***	**240.5**	***15.9***

	Korea		Spain		Switzerland[4]		United Kingdom	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total	**252.5**	***100.0***	**1 324.0**	***100.0***	**1 368.7**	***100.0***	**2 865**	***100.0***
of which:								
Bangladesh	9.0	*3.6*	. .	. .	0.5	–	49	*1.7*
China	84.6	*33.5*	45.8	*3.5*	5.9	*0.4*	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	9.6	*0.7*	5.4	*0.4*	159	*5.5*
Indonesia	17.1	*6.8*	. .	. .	1.1	*0.1*	. .	. .
Malaysia	. .	. .	. .		0.9	*0.1*	33	*1.2*
Korea	. .	–	. .	. .	1.1	*0.1*	. .	. .
Pakistan	3.7	*1.5*	15.6	*1.2*	1.7	*0.1*	86	*3.0*
Philippines	17.3	*6.9*	15.3	*1.2*	5.0	*0.4*	58	*2.0*
Sri Lanka	2.7	*1.1*	. .	. .	18.0	*1.3*	35	*1.2*
Thailand	4.8	*1.9*	. .	. .	5.1	*0.4*	. .	. .
Vietnam	16.9	*6.7*	. .	. .	4.6	*0.3*	. .	. .
Total for the above 11 countries	**156.1**	***61.8***	**86.3**	***6.5***	**49.3**	***3.6***	**420**	***14.7***

Table I.7. **Stocks of Asian nationals and of immigrants born in an Asian country residing in an OECD country, 2002** *(cont.)*

B. Stock of immigrants born in an Asian country in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States

Thousands and percentages

	Australia (2002)[5]		Canada (2001)[6]		New Zealand (2001)[6]		United States (2000)[6]	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total	**4 565.8**	***100.0***	**5 448.5**	***100.0***	**698.6**	***100.0***	**31 107.9**	***100.0***
of which:								
China	164.9	*3.6*	332.8	*6.1*	38.9	*5.6*	988.9	*3.2*
Hong Kong (China)	75.6	*1.7*	235.6	*4.3*	11.3	*1.6*	203.6	*0.7*
India	110.6	*2.4*	314.7	*5.8*	20.9	*3.0*	1 022.6	*3.3*
Indonesia	57.7	*1.3*	9.4	*0.2*	3.8	*0.5*	72.6	*0.2*
Japan	. .	. .	17.6	*0.3*	8.6	*1.2*	347.5	*1.1*
Korea	42.7	*0.9*	70.5	*1.3*	17.9	*2.6*	864.1	*2.8*
Malaysia	89.6	*2.0*	20.4	*0.4*	11.5	*1.6*	49.5	*0.2*
Pakistan	. .	. .	79.3	*1.5*	1.3	*0.2*	223.5	*0.7*
Philippines	115.8	*2.5*	232.7	*4.3*	10.1	*1.5*	1 369.1	*4.4*
Sri Lanka	61.4	*1.3*	87.3	*1.6*	6.2	*0.9*	. .	. .
Chinese Taipei	. .	. .	67.1	*1.2*	12.5	*1.8*	326.2	*1.0*
Vietnam	171.6	*3.8*	148.4	*2.7*	3.9	*0.6*	988.2	*3.2*
Total for the above								
12 countries	**889.9**	***19.5***	**1 615.9**	***29.7***	**147.0**	***21.0***	**6 455.6**	***20.8***

1. Data are from population registers (or registers of foreigners) except for France (census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).
2. Data for China include Chinese Taipei.
3. 1990 for India, Indonesia, Korea, Pakistan, Philippines and Sri Lanka.
4. Data by nationality relate to 1999 except for Vietnam (2000).
5. Estimates by the Australian Bureau of Statistics.
6. Census data.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes and New Cronos database (Eurostat).

beneficiaries of the highly-skilled H-1B visa come from two Asian economies – India (33% in 2002) and China (10%). Despite greater scrutiny since the Terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, migration of Asian students towards the United States has continued to rise. However, this rise is mainly attributable to students from India, whereas most East Asian countries registered declines. In the United Kingdom, four of the top five countries of origin of foreign students in 2002-2003 were Asian countries.

The outbreak of SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) in 2003 has reduced short-term skilled and tourist movements with respect to the region. Its impact on permanent migration, in contrast, has been mainly indirect, via reduced demand for immigrant labour due to the associated reduction in growth.

Though there is no evidence for any recent slowdown in the migration dynamics towards OECD countries, there is some evidence that migration in the region has stabilized over the last two years. This was mainly due to SARS and the economic slowdown in several Asian economies. Though some countries (*e.g.* Japan, Korea, Chinese Taipei, Singapore and Hong Kong China) have positive net migration, while others (*e.g.* the Philippines) show negative net migration, economies in the region cannot be generally classified into sending and receiving economies. Intra-Asian migration is largely seen as being of a temporary nature and is generally under tight control. The wide-spread presence of irregular migration has resulted in more aggressive measures to combat this type of

migration, which may have contributed to the stabilisation of migration flows. This includes measures to regularise the situation of undocumented migrants, *e.g.* in Thailand and Malaysia. The vast majority of documented migrants in the region enter under temporary work permit programmes, of which there are two main ones. The first aims at attracting rather low-skilled migrants and allows them to stay for a definite period of time. The second, mainly associated with skilled migration, enables migrants to stay for the duration of their respective work contracts.

As a consequence of the perceived temporary nature of migration flows, few Asian economies explicitly envisage permanent residence of foreign nationals. Japan allows family members of ethnic Japanese workers to join them in Japan and to stay on a long-term residence basis. Singapore has a programme that grants permanent residence status to qualified foreigners. Hong Kong China is the only Asian economy having a special settlement programme for foreigners. About 150 individuals per day are allowed to enter the administrative region, the majority of which are family members of Hong Kong China residents.

Despite the ongoing integration efforts in the region, no steps have been undertaken towards the integration of labour markets. A notable exception is the introduction of the APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation) Business Travel Card. It allows for visa-free business-related travel among countries which are signatories of the agreement. Asian countries have also signed bilateral agreements with respect to labour migration. An example is the extensive bilateral network of Malaysia, which has aimed at diversifying and regularising migration flows with more than a dozen other Asian countries.

c) Recent trends in international migration from Latin America[7]

An analysis of international migration in Latin America reveals three broad migration patterns in recent years: *i)* a decline of immigration into the region; *ii)* an increase in mobility within the region; and *iii)* an increase in emigration towards OECD countries.

According to figures from the censuses in the region, the stock of people from overseas has considerably declined during the 1990s, a trend that has already been observed since the 1970s. In contrast, intraregional migration has increased, even though emigrants towards Latin American countries rarely account for more than three per cent of the population of the origin countries.

Migration from Latin American countries towards OECD countries has gained further momentum in recent years. This can be partly attributed to the economic deterioration and political turmoil in several economies in the region. The main destination country of these migration flows is the United States, which hosts several times the number of migrants to all other OECD countries combined. Immigration from the region to the United States increased by more than 70% between 1990 and 2000. In total, more than 16 million foreign-born were born in Latin America according to the 2000 census. The Mexican community accounts for more than 50% of these with more than 9.3 million persons. Puerto Rico, the second most important Latino American community in the United States, numbers almost 1.5 million persons. Migration from the region towards Europe and Japan is also showing increasing dynamism (see Table I.8).

Emigration flows from the region towards Europe are influenced by migration networks, colonial and cultural ties. Spain is the number one destination country for immigrants from Latin America, accounting for more than half of total immigration.

Table I.8. **Persons born in Latin America and the Caribbean resident in selected OECD countries, latest available year**

Thousands

	Total
Australia	106.9
Austria	6.1
Belgium	24.4
Canada	621.9
Czech Republic	1.5
Denmark	10.0
Finland	2.1
France	104.8
Greece	6.6
Hungary	1.1
Ireland	3.5
Japan	232.7
Luxembourg	1.8
Mexico	81.6
Netherlands	315.0
New Zealand	20.8
Norway	16.4
Poland	1.1
Portugal	75.9
Slovak Republic	0.2
Spain	840.2
Sweden	62.8
Switzerland	57.2
Turkey	1.2
United Kingdom	328.3
United States	17 946.1
Total EU-14 (excl. Italy)	**1 781.4**
Total above countries	**20 870.0**

Source: OECD, censuses and registers, latest year available.

In 2001, Spain hosts about 840 000 Latin American-born residents, which represents a large increase compared to previous years. This is partly due to a 2000 amendment in the Spanish naturalisation law which allowed second-generation descendants of Spanish nationals easy access to Spanish nationality. The United Kingdom is the second most important destination country in Europe (hosting about 328 000 individuals from the region in 2001). Italy also received an important number of Latin Americans and Portugal has particularly strong migration linkages with Brazil – about 60 000 Latin American residents in Portugal come from Brazil, making Portugal the most important destination country of Brazilian emigration to Europe.

Latin American immigration into Europe stands out from other inter-regional flows in that it is characterised by a high proportion of women. For 2001, data from Eurostat indicate that women accounted for more than 60% of migrant stocks from the region in Europe. In particular, immigration by Latin American women into Spain has sharply risen. According to data from the municipal census of residents, their number has increased from about 57 000 in 1996 to 570 000 in 2003, *i.e.* tenfold in just seven years. This is partly due to the expansion of domestic services and elderly care, sectors in which women from the region are increasingly working.

In Japan, immigration from Brazil and Peru in particular has increased during the 1990s, as provisions made entry easier for ethnic Japanese from these countries. In 2001, more than 230 000 foreign-born residents in Japan were from Latin America, of whom 80% came from Brazil.

d) Recent trends in migration flows from Sub-Saharan Africa[8]

Migration movements involving Sub-Saharan Africa are primarily intra-regional movements. They mainly concern workers, refugees and displaced persons, notably in Tanzania (refugees from Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo), the Democratic Republic of Congo (Angolans, Sudanese and Rwandans), Zambia (Angolans) and Kenya (Somalis).

African migration flows to OECD member countries, which have developed since the 1960s, remain strongly marked by cultural links and the colonial past. This explains, despite recent diversification, the relatively high concentration of flows (including those of refugees) to a small number of host countries. Migrants originating from Sub-Saharan Africa nonetheless make up a relatively small share of the overall immigrant population of OECD member countries (see Table I.9). The exceptions to this are Portugal, where Cape Verdians and Angolans account for almost 20% of the foreign population, and France, where the share of all nationals of Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for 6.5% of all foreign residents. In all, African nationals account for no more than 5% of all foreigners in other OECD member countries. South Africans (405 000), Nigerians (278 000), Kenyans (213 000) and Senegalese (112 000) are some of the nationalities that are most present in OECD member countries, even though their stocks remain low compared to those of the population of Maghreb origin. The total number of Sub-Saharan nationals residing in the OECD area is slightly below 4 million.

In Europe, France and the United Kingdom and, to a lesser extent, Belgium and Portugal remain the main destination countries of migrants originating from Sub-Saharan Africa. Around 76 200 Africans entered France in 2002, 18 500 of whom came from Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2001, the United Kingdom reported approximately 16 000 admissions of migrants originating mainly from Ghana, Botswana, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Kenya and South Africa.

African migration flows are tending to diversify. Spain, for example, has recently started to attract migrants from Senegal and Nigeria (a total of 4 500 in 2002). More generally, the new immigration countries of Southern Europe are tending to play an increasingly important role in African migration as a result of their geographical location. Furthermore, English-speaking migrants from Nigeria, Ghana and Kenya, and to a lesser extent French-speaking migrants, are moving in increasing numbers to North America, particularly the United States where almost a million residents born in Sub-Saharan Africa were reported in 2000.

In 2002, OECD member countries admitted around 70 000 asylum seekers from seven Sub-Saharan countries (Nigeria, Democratic Republic of Congo, Zimbabwe, Angola, Sierra Leone, Cameroon and Mauritania). Besides the United Kingdom, which admitted over 90% of Zimbabwean nationals, and France, which received over two thirds of applications from Mauritania and 40% of those from the Democratic Republic of Congo, the main host countries were the Netherlands, Ireland, Germany, the United States and Switzerland.

Migration from Africa can be expected to grow given that population growth in the continent still remains very high, as do differences in wage levels with OECD member

Table I.9. **Stock of Sub-saharan Africa nationals in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

Foreign population from a Sub-saharan African country			
Belgium	2001	**Spain**	2002
Dem. Rep. of Congo	13.0	Senegal	14.8
Total (foreigners)	**846.7**	**Total (foreigners)**	**1 324.0**
% of foreign population	*1.5*	*% of foreign population*	*1.1*
France	1999	**Italy**	2002
Sub-saharan Africa	211.1	Senegal	36.3
Of which:		Nigeria	19.5
Senegal	39.0	**Total (foreigners)**	**1 512.3**
Dem. Rep. of Congo	36.5	*% of foreign population*	*3.7*
Mali	35.0		
Côte d'Ivoire	20.4		
Cameroon	20.3		
Total (foreigners)	**3 258.5**		
% of foreign population	*6.5*		
Netherlands	2002	**Portugal**	2002
Ghana	3.6	Cape Verde	60.4
Dem. Rep. of Congo	1.3	Angola	32.2
Cape Verde	1.3	Guinea-Bissau	23.4
Sudan	1.1	Sao Tome and Principe	9.2
Angola	1.0	Mozambique	5.3
Total (foreigners)	**700.0**	**Total (foreigners)**	**413.3**
% of foreign population	*1.2*	*% of foreign population*	*22.4*
United Kingdom	2003		
Africa *of which:*	481.0		
Zimbabwe	52.0		
Nigeria	34.0		
Total (foreigners)	**2 865.0**		
% of foreign population	*3.0*		
Foreign-born population from a Sub-saharan African country			
Australia	2001	**Canada**	2001
Sub-saharan Africa	141.7	Africa *of which*:	282.6
Total (foreign-born)	**4 087.8**	Kenya	19.8
% of foreign population	*3.5*	Tanzania	19.3
		Somalia	18.6
		Ghana	16.1
		Total (foreign-born)	**5 448.5**
		% of foreign population	*1.4*
United States	2003	**New Zealand**	2001
Nigeria	106.3	Zimbabwe	2.9
Ghana	69.0	Somalia	1.8
Kenya	66.9	Kenya	1.2
Total (foreign-born)	**34 552.7**	Zambia	0.9
% of foreign population	*0.7*	**Total (foreign-born)**	**698.6**
		% of foreign population	*1.0*

Sources: Belgium, Netherlands: population register; Spain, Italy and Portugal: residence permits; Australia, Canada, France and New Zealand: Censuses; United States and United Kingdom: Labour Force Survey.

countries. An increasing number of migrants from sub-Saharan countries attempt, often at risk to their lives, to cross the Strait of Gibraltar from Morocco, from Libya or Tunisia to the Italian coast or more recently from the West African coast to the (Spanish) Canary Islands.

B. Immigration and the labour market

This section begins with a description of the situation of foreigners and immigrants in the labour market of OECD countries over the period 2002-2003 and of how it is evolving. It then goes on to a more detailed analysis of the conditions under which foreigners participate in the labour market.

1. The situation of foreigners and immigrants in the labour market in OECD countries in 2003

Employment growth remained weak in 2003 in the OECD zone as a whole, even in those countries that saw significant economic growth. In fact, employment declined in nearly half of OECD countries in 2003. This was the case, for example, in Poland (–1.2%), in Germany (–1.1%) and in Denmark (–1%). By contrast, total employment grew by more than 2% in Australia, Canada, Spain, Greece and New Zealand. Forecasts for 2004 and 2005 point to gradual but moderate employment recovery in all member countries (see OECD, 2004, *OECD Employment Outlook*).

a) The foreign and immigrant labour force is growing in most OECD countries…

In 2003, foreigners and immigrants accounted for a significant portion of the labour force in several OECD countries (see Table I.10). This is particularly true in "settlement countries" (Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand), where foreign-born workers represent between 15% and 25% of the labour force. It is also the case in several European countries where foreigners account for an important percentage of the labour force: Luxembourg (45%), Switzerland (21.9%), and to a lesser degree Greece (9.5%), Austria (9.2%) and Germany (9%).

Between 1998 and 2003, the foreign or immigrant labour force grew in most OECD countries. This growth was sharpest in the countries of southern Europe (Spain, Italy, Greece and Portugal) and in Ireland and Finland, where labour migration constitutes the bulk of migration flows (see above, Part IA). There was also a significant increase in the number of foreign workers in Japan and Korea, although they still account for a very low portion of the total labour force in those countries. In the United States and the United Kingdom, the numbers of foreign workers have been rising steadily for some years. Between 1998 and 2003, those numbers were up by 27% and 32% respectively, illustrating the importance of international migration for employment purposes into these countries.

In several OECD European countries, the numbers of foreign workers have stagnated or declined. This is true, for example, of Belgium, France, Austria and Denmark. These countries also allow fairly significant numbers of foreigners into their labour market each year, directly or indirectly,[9] but those inflows are more than offset by foreigners leaving the labour market, either by leaving the country or ceasing to work, or by becoming naturalised and thus being dropped from the statistics on foreign workers.

Table I.10. **Foreign or foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1998 and 2003**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign labour force				
	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source data
	1998	2003	1998	2003	
Austria	380	354	10.0	9.2	LFS
Belgium	344	334	8.1	7.7	LFS
Czech Republic	23	82	0.5	1.6	LFS
Denmark[1]	98	104	3.4	3.5	R
Finland	26	41	1.0	1.6	LFS
France	1 582	1 361	6.2	5.2	LFS
Germany	3 384	3 562	8.7	9.0	LFS
Greece (2001)[2]	. .	413	. .	9.5	C
Hungary[1]	22	43	0.6	1.0	WP
Ireland	53	118	3.4	6.5	LFS
Italy[1]	615	841	2.7	3.8	WP
Japan (2002)[3]	119	180	0.2	0.3	WP
Korea (2002)[4]	77	137	0.4	0.6	WP
Luxembourg[5]	71	87	40.7	45.0	LFS
Netherlands	270	317	3.5	3.8	LFS
Norway	61	83	2.7	3.6	LFS
Portugal	67	140	1.4	2.7	LFS
Spain	161	687	1.0	3.7	LFS
Sweden	189	210	4.4	4.6	LFS
Switzerland	834	877	21.6	21.9	LFS
United Kingdom	1 145	1 513	4.1	5.1	LFS

	Foreign-born labour force				
	Thousands		% of total labour force		Source data
	1998	2003	1998	2003	
Australia	2 281	2 447	24.8	24.6	LFS
Canada (1996-2001)	2 839	3 151	19.2	19.9	C
New Zealand (2001)	. .	372	. .	19.9	C
United States	17 373	21 564	12.7	14.8	LFS

Note: Data based on Labour Force Surveys cover labour force aged 15 to 64 with the exception of the United States (labour force aged 15 and over). Data from other sources cover the labour force aged 15 and over.

1. Data refer to 2002.
2. Data refer to foreigners who entered Greece for employment purposes.
3. Foreign residents with permission of employment. Excluding permanent and long-term residents whose activity is not restricted. Overstayers (most of whom are believed to work illegally) are not included either.
4. Overstayers are included.
5. Resident workers (excluding cross-border workers).

Sources: C: Census;
LFS: Labour force survey;
R: Population register or register of foreigners;
WP: Work permits.

b)… although the participation rate for foreigners is still usually below that of nationals

In 2003, the participation rate among foreigners and immigrants was generally lower than for nationals (see Tables from Annex II.A1 and Annex II.A2). This was particularly evident in Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden and, to a lesser extent, in Belgium. On

the other hand, for the recent immigration countries of southern Europe and for Luxembourg and Austria, where employment-related migration is important, the participation rate for foreign men and women is equal to or higher than that for nationals.

In other OECD countries, including "settlement" countries, foreign or foreign-born women participate proportionally less in the labour market than do female nationals. The gap in the participation rate is 10% or more in Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Norway, the Netherlands and Sweden. These gaps reflect a number of factors, relating in particular to differences in socio-demographic structure (level of education, age, marital status, or number of young children) (see the following section for a more detailed analysis of foreigners' participation rate).

Employment survey data show that the foreigner participation rate declined between 2002 and 2003, sometimes significantly, in several European countries of the OECD. This trend reflects the emergence of new tensions in the labour market. This is the case, for example, in Belgium and Norway, where the participation rate of foreigners dropped by 3.6 and 2.9 percentage points, respectively, compared to the previous year. It is also the case in Greece, Ireland, Finland and Switzerland.

c) The employment of foreigners moves in phase with economic recovery and recessions

During the 1990s, and particularly (for European countries) in the second half of that decade, most OECD countries saw major growth in the employment of nationals and of foreigners (see Figure I.9). In the former immigration countries of Europe, the employment of foreigners rose less quickly than that of nationals at the beginning of the economic recovery, but outpaced it towards the end of the decade. This was particularly noticeable in the United Kingdom. In southern Europe, and in Ireland and the United States as well, the economic expansion phase of the 1990s was accompanied by a sharp increase in the employment of foreigners, which jumped by a factor of 7.5 in Spain between 1993 and 2003, and by a factor of 3.5 in Ireland over that same period.

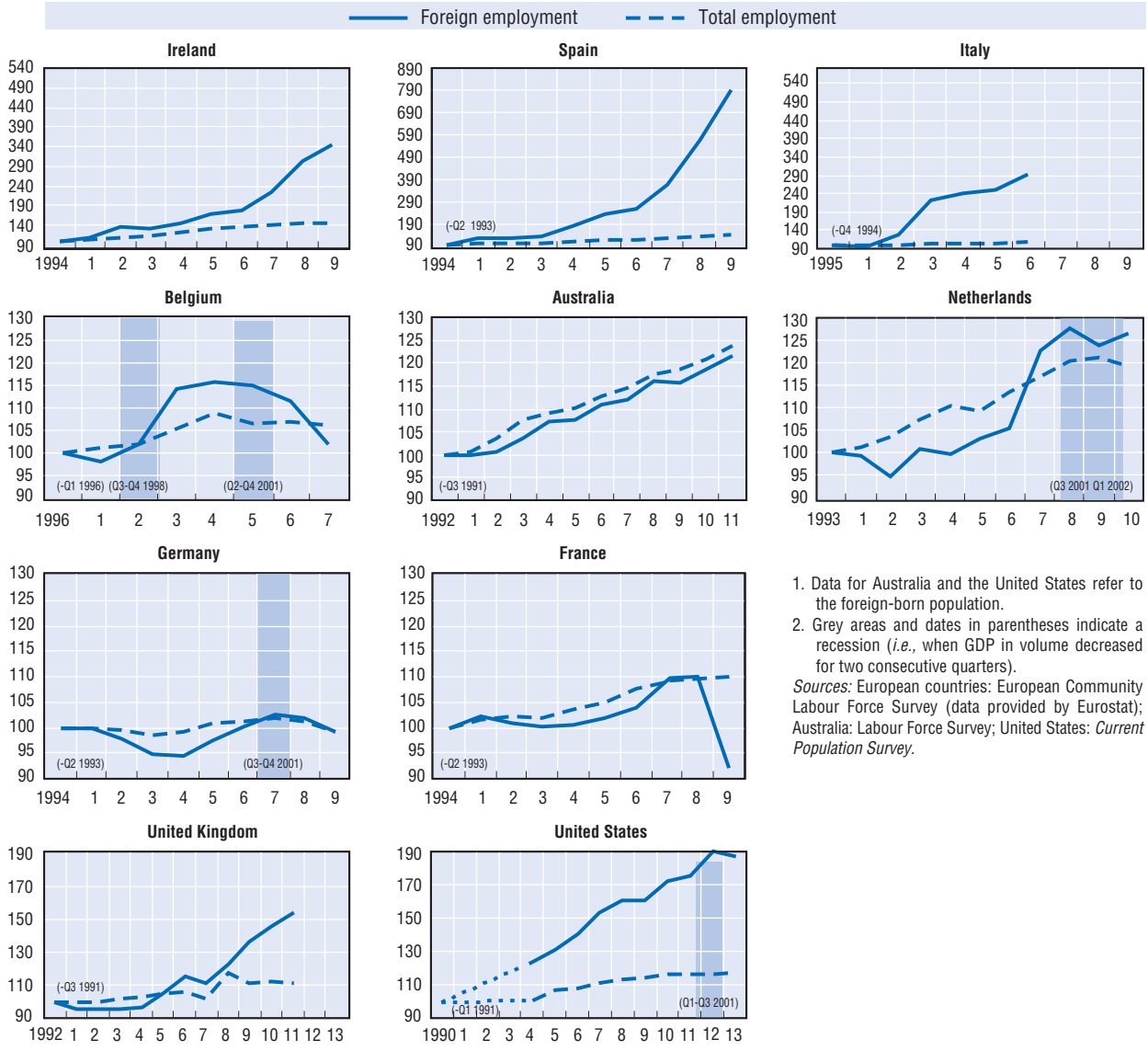
The economic downturn of 2000 did not affect total employment to the same extent as did the previous recession at the end of the 1980s (see OECD, 2003, *OECD Employment Outlook*), but it did apply the brakes, sometimes abruptly, to the foreign employment growth that had been evident for some years in several OECD countries. This was particularly true in France, where foreign employment fell by more than 16% between 2001 and 2003, in Belgium and, to a lesser degree, in Germany and the Netherlands. A similar phenomenon can be seen in the United States as of 2003.

The anticipated employment effect is not yet apparent from available statistics on the most recent economic recovery, in 2003 and 2004 (see OECD, 2004, *OECD Employment Outlook*). This situation is however consistent with what generally occurs during periods of growth, where there is a slight time lag before economic recovery boosts employment, and in particular the employment of foreigners.

A more detailed analysis of the foreign employment trend shows that the employment rate for female foreigners remains well below that of female nationals and of their male counterparts in several member countries (see Tables from Annex I.A1). This suggests that the improvement in the employment situation noted over the course of the 1990s was not sufficient to integrate foreign women more fully into the labour force, despite the significant progress that was made in some countries.[10] Over the last decade, progress in

Figure I.9. **Changes in foreign and total employment during economic recoveries in selected OECD countries**

Index: trough = 100[1, 2]



1. Data for Australia and the United States refer to the foreign-born population.
2. Grey areas and dates in parentheses indicate a recession (*i.e.*, when GDP in volume decreased for two consecutive quarters).

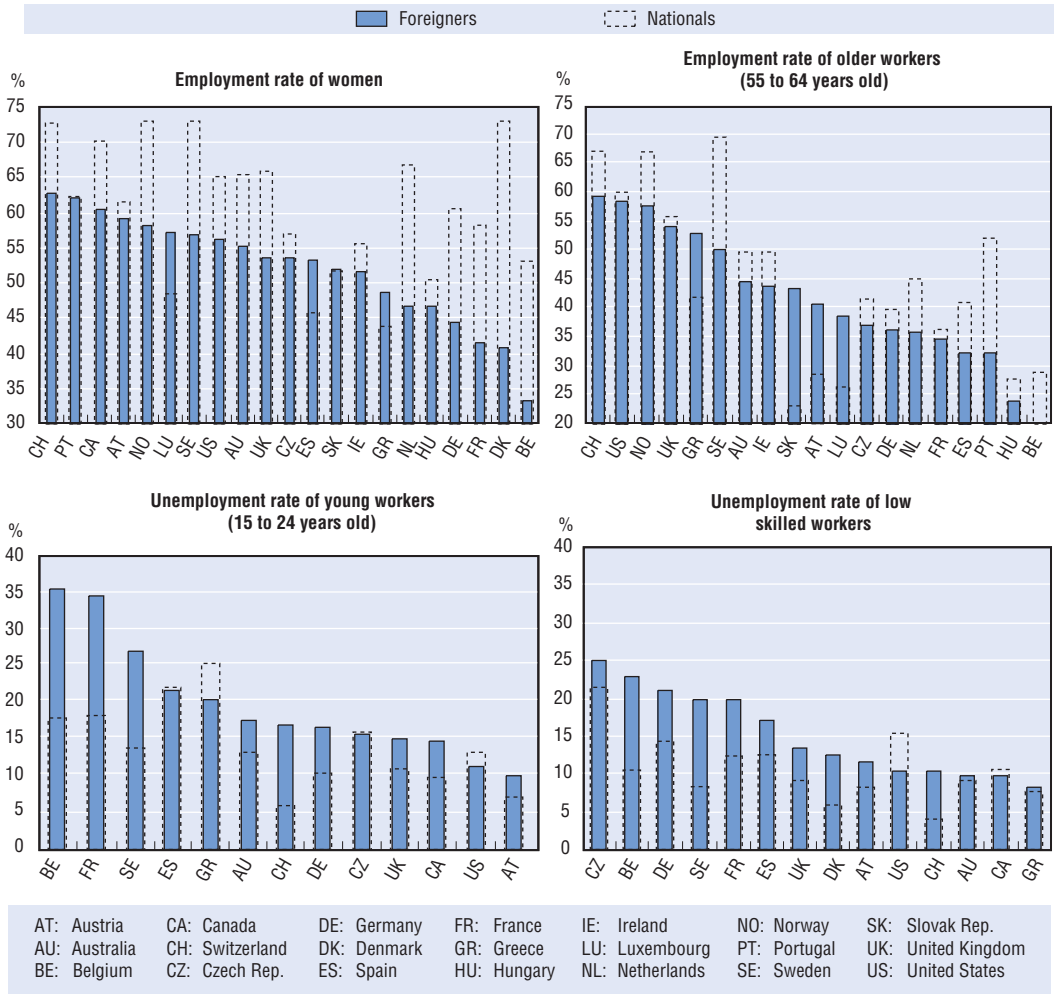
Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: Labour Force Survey; United States: *Current Population Survey*.

integrating foreign women into the labour market has been impressive in the Netherlands, in France and to a lesser degree in Belgium,[11] countries that had lagged behind significantly at the beginning of the period. In other member countries, trends were much more varied.

Among foreigners and immigrants there are groups, such as young people, older workers and people with lower skills levels, that face major and persistent obstacles to their integration into the labour market (see Figure I.10). This finding also applies to national workers, but foreigners would seem to be over-represented in several of these groups, and to be at a disadvantage generally *vis-à-vis* nationals.

Figure I.10. **Employment and unemployment rates for selected categories of workers according to nationality, 2002-2003 average**

Percentage



Note: For Australia, Canada and the United States, data refer to foreign-born population. Low skilled level refers to less than upper secondary level. Data refer to 2002 for Canada and Denmark and to 2001 for Australia except for the employment rate of women (2002-2003).

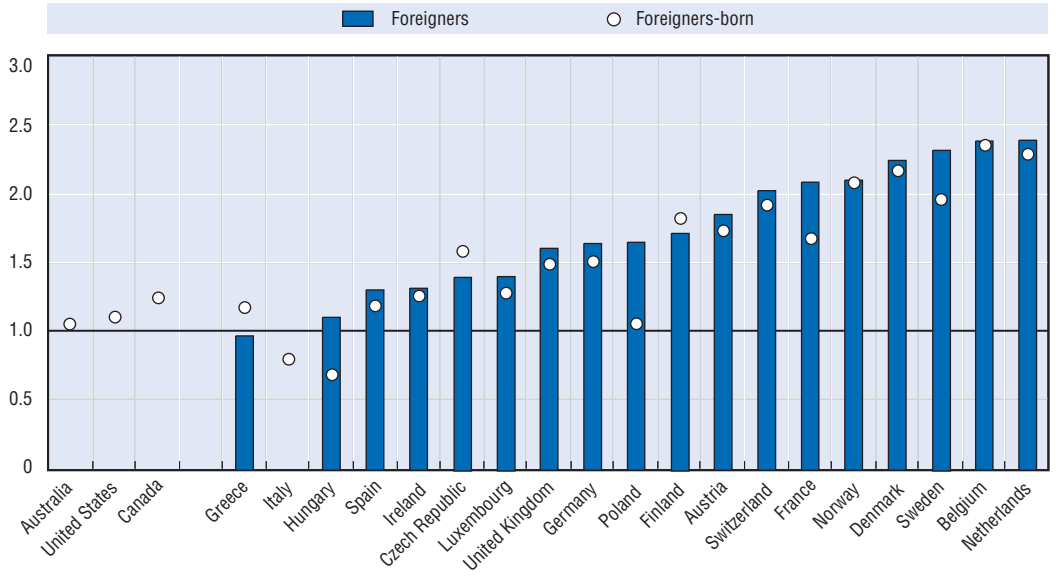
Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark: Population register; United States: Current Population Survey; Australia: Census and Labour Force Survey; Canada: Labour Force Survey.

d) Foreigners are often at greater risk of unemployment than nationals…

In 2003, foreigners and immigrants were more likely than nationals or natives to be unemployed in all OECD countries with the exception of Greece and Italy (see Box I.5 for more details). This applies to both men and women. Figure I.11 summarises the situation. In 2002-2003, the proportion of unemployed foreigners relative to their share of the labour force was highest in the Netherlands. It was also high in Belgium, Sweden, Denmark, Norway and France. In each of these countries, foreigners in the labour force are proportionately more than twice as likely to be unemployed (in other words, their unemployment rate is at least double that of nationals). These discrepancies are even more significant when it comes to foreigners from non-member countries of the European Union or the OECD. In the Netherlands, for

Figure I.11. **Proportion of foreign or foreign-born in total unemployment, relative to their share in the labour force**

2002-2003 average



Note: Calculations are based on the labour force aged 15 to 64. Data for Canada and Denmark refer to 2002. For Switzerland figures for the foreign-born population refer to 2003 only.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (Data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003) except for Denmark: Population register; Australia and Canada: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey (March 2002 and 2003).

example, unemployment among non-OECD foreigners in 2003 was twice that for other foreigners (14% *versus* 7%, while the unemployment rate for nationals was 4%).

By contrast, in some OECD countries, particularly the major settlement countries (Australia, Canada, the United States) as well as in recent immigration countries (Ireland, Italy, Spain, Greece, Hungary) and in Luxembourg, the gap between foreigners and nationals or natives is modest.

A gender analysis shows that foreign or immigrant women are proportionately more likely to be looking for work than their male counterparts (see Tables from Annex I.A1). The unemployment rate among foreign women is 19.8% in Belgium, for example, and 19.3% in France, *i.e.* 2.7 and 2 times the rate, respectively, for female nationals. The unemployment rate among foreign women is also high in Spain (18.2%) and in Finland (17.5%).

One way of assessing the efforts that would be needed to reduce unemployment among foreigners is to calculate the number of additional jobs that would theoretically be required to equalise unemployment rates for foreigners and for nationals, assuming no change in the rate for nationals. The effect of this would be to bring the ratio shown in Figure I.11 to a value of one for each country considered. The results for 2003 are shown in Table I.11. Specifically, even in countries where foreigners face high unemployment, such as Belgium, France, Denmark or Sweden, the theoretical number of jobs that would have to be created is relatively low. In the Netherlands, where there is a significant discrepancy in unemployment rates for foreigners and nationals, it would take only 19 300 new jobs for foreigners (around 0.2% of the total labour force) to bring their unemployment rate down to that of nationals.

Box I.5. **Comparison of unemployment rates for foreigners and nationals: a clear gap, with some qualifications**

An analysis of the unemployment gap between foreigners and nationals, such as shown in Figure I.11, must be treated with caution, because the gap may be due at least in part to structural socio-demographic differences (age, gender, level of education, host-country language proficiency) between the two population groups.

Whether one calculates the unemployment rate for foreign or for foreign-born workers in OECD European countries, the finding that immigrants are relatively more exposed to unemployment is the same. Moreover, the unemployment rate for foreign-born foreigners does not differ greatly from that for the overall foreign labour force.* This means one of two things: either the two subgroups are roughly identical (for example, if the naturalisation rate is low), or naturalisation has relatively little impact on labour force status.

Inter-country differences in unemployment among foreigners could have to do with specific features related to the age structure of the population. Thus, foreigners are generally under-represented among older workers and young workers (but over-represented among those in the 25-to-40-year age bracket). In order to test for this structural effect, the unemployment rates for foreigners in each age interval are applied to the age distribution of the labour force. One then finds that the unadjusted unemployment rate tends to understate unemployment for foreigners. In Portugal, for example, unemployment for foreigners would be 2.5 percentage points higher if they had the same age structure as the national labour force (one percentage point in France, 0.6 in Spain). The reverse is true in Denmark, Greece and in Finland. In most cases, however, the gaps are very small.

The educational background of national and foreign workers also differs greatly. Foreigners are generally over-represented at both the highest and the lowest levels of education (see Table I.12) and the structure of the foreign population by skill level varies depending on the host country. In several OECD countries, more than 40% of foreigners between the ages of 25 and 64 years have not completed secondary school. In France, this proportion reaches 64%, while it is 52% in Belgium. On the other hand, in the settlement countries, which select a portion of new immigrants on the basis of their education level, and in the United Kingdom, Norway, Luxembourg and to a lesser extent Sweden and Ireland, the proportion of university graduates among foreigners is relatively high.

If the education distribution of foreign workers were the same as that of the population as a whole, the unemployment rate for foreign workers would be 1.9 percentage points lower in Germany, 1.1 percentage points lower in Austria and Belgium, and 0.7 percentage points lower in France. In other words, the fact that foreigners in Germany have less education than their national counterparts explains just under one-third of the gap between the unemployment rate for nationals (8.6% in 2002-2003) and that for foreigners (15.1% over the same period). In other countries, this figure is quite a bit lower, and differences, while significant, are still modest.

Regardless of the control variable selected, foreigners remain significantly more vulnerable to unemployment that nationals. Multivariate analyses tend to confirm this finding (see OECD 2001, *Employment Outlook*). Nevertheless, the residual effect associated with the nationality variable in these estimations is still hard to interpret, since not all the relevant determinants for explaining the probability of unemployment are taken into consideration (language ability, social capital, quality of training or vocational experience, etc.).

* For several countries, including France, Denmark, the Netherlands and some recent immigration countries (*e.g.* Spain, Portugal and the Czech Republic), the unemployment rate for people of foreign stock born in the host country is greater than that for foreigners born abroad. The reverse situation applies, however, in Sweden, Norway and Finland.

Table I.11. **Additional employment of foreigners required to equalise unemployment rates of nationals and foreigners in selected OECD countries, 2003**

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of the total labour force
Austria	13.9	0.4
Belgium	37.9	0.9
Denmark	5.2	0.2
Germany	267.0	0.7
France	141.4	0.5
Netherlands	19.3	0.2
Sweden	16.7	0.4
Switzerland	51.6	1.3
United Kingdom	49.0	0.2
United States[1]	253.6	0.2

Note: Secretariat calculations.

1. Calculation on foreign- and US-born populations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark: Population register 2002; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

Table I.12. **Distribution of foreign and national adult (25-64) populations by level of education in selected OECD countries**

2002-2003 average, percentages

	Less than upper secondary		Upper secondary		Tertiary level	
	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals
Austria	42.9	19.3	43.4	63.7	13.7	17.0
Belgium	52.3	37.8	25.7	33.5	22.0	28.7
Czech Republic	25.9	11.7	52.5	76.6	21.5	11.7
Denmark (2002)	30.7	27.6	41.7	46.7	27.5	25.7
Finland	29.1	24.8	46.0	42.4	24.9	32.8
France	63.9	33.5	20.6	42.5	15.5	23.9
Germany[1]	47.1	13.6	38.2	62.4	14.7	24.0
Greece	42.1	46.8	40.9	35.3	17.0	17.9
Hungary	20.2	27.4	52.6	58.0	27.2	14.5
Iceland	34.9	34.9	34.7	39.7	30.3	25.4
Ireland[1]	21.3	40.1	28.6	35.4	50.1	24.5
Luxembourg	43.8	27.5	38.0	56.7	18.2	15.8
Netherlands (2002)	43.7	31.9	31.5	43.3	24.8	24.9
Norway	18.4	13.7	42.3	53.8	39.2	32.5
Portugal	55.4	79.1	28.1	11.1	16.6	9.8
Slovak Republic	13.2	13.8	67.8	75.0	19.0	11.2
Spain	43.3	58.3	28.5	17.2	28.2	24.6
Sweden[1]	23.7	18.0	45.4	55.5	30.9	26.5
Switzerland	31.4	8.1	44.6	65.2	24.0	26.7
United Kingdom[1]	30.9	17.4	25.5	53.1	43.6	26.2
Australia (2001)[2]	43.3	56.0	29.1	23.6	27.5	20.4
Canada (2001-2002)[3]	16.7	16.6	56.3	62.9	27.0	20.5
United States	30.5	9.0	35.7	51.9	33.8	39.1

Note: Data for Australia, Canada and the United States refer to foreign-born and native populations.

1. About 7.4%, 13%, 6% and 43.4% of the foreign population did not respond to the question on education attainment in Germany, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom respectively. This is also the case for 10.7% of UK-citizens living in the United Kingdom.
2. Upper secondary refers to completed year 12.
3. Lower secondary refers to below 11-13 years of elementary and secondary schooling, upper secondary refers to a high school diploma or a non-University postsecondary certificate, and tertiary level refers to some post-secondary education plus university degrees.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat) except for Denmark: Population register; Canada: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey; Australia: Census.

e) … and are still relatively concentrated in a few sectors

Table I.13 shows the sectoral distribution of foreign employment in 2002-2003 in OECD countries. Foreigners are generally over-represented in the construction, hotel and restaurant sectors and in services to households, *i.e.* their share of employment in these sectors exceeds the proportion of foreigners in employment as a whole.

The sectoral distribution varies significantly across countries. More than 8% of foreigners in Spain are engaged in agriculture, nearly 32% in "mines and manufacturing industries" in Germany, 28% in "construction" in Greece, 20% in "wholesale and retail trade" in the United States, 16% in "hotels and catering" in Ireland, nearly 10% in "education" in Finland, 20% in "health and social services" in Sweden, and around 16.5% in "services to households" in Spain.

Traditionally, activities of the secondary sector account for a large portion of foreign employment in most OECD countries. This is the case, for example, in Germany, Greece, the Czech Republic and Japan, where some 40% of foreign workers are in industry or construction. It is also the case in Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands and Switzerland, where more than 20% of foreign workers are in mining and manufacturing.

Table I.13. **Employment of foreigners by sectors, 2002-2003 average**

Percentage of total foreign employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, manu-facturing and energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.1	**24.9**	**12.3**	15.2	**12.2**	2.8	6.5	**0.5**	0.9	**23.6**
Belgium	0.8	**21.7**	**8.0**	**15.8**	**7.7**	4.8	8.0	**0.6**	6.5	**26.1**
Czech Republic	3.4	30.2	**9.1**	**18.4**	**6.5**	4.9	5.5	. .	3.4	18.6
Finland	–	16.8	**7.2**	**13.7**	**10.2**	**9.5**	12.7	**–**	–	27.2
France	3.1	16.1	**16.4**	11.2	**7.4**	3.4	5.2	**7.9**	2.9	**26.2**
Germany	1.1	**31.6**	7.3	13.1	**11.1**	3.1	7.3	**0.6**	2.3	22.5
Greece	5.1	**17.1**	**27.9**	10.8	**9.4**	2.1	1.9	**16.3**	–	9.1
Ireland	2.7	**17.7**	6.9	10.1	**15.9**	4.9	**11.9**	**1.3**	1.5	**27.0**
Japan[1]	0.5	**58.7**	1.8	13.1	[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	**25.9**
Luxembourg	0.8	10.3	**16.0**	**13.1**	**6.8**	2.0	5.7	**3.7**	10.0	**31.6**
Netherlands (2002)	1.5	**20.4**	4.5	15.0	**8.2**	5.4	12.2	. .	4.6	**28.2**
Norway	1.8	**16.5**	5.9	12.4	**7.7**	8.2	**19.3**	–	2.3	**25.7**
Spain	**8.2**	12.2	**17.7**	10.6	**14.9**	2.4	2.1	**16.4**	0.7	14.7
Sweden	–	17.1	3.6	11.5	**6.0**	9.1	**20.3**	**. .**	–	**29.2**
Switzerland	0.7	**22.0**	**9.7**	**17.5**	**7.3**	4.3	11.4	**1.4**	2.6	23.2
United Kingdom	0.4	11.3	4.5	11.9	**11.5**	7.8	**14.9**	**1.3**	3.8	**32.6**
Australia[2]	1.9	**17.1**	7.4	17.5	**5.7**	6.3	**10.6**	3.1	3.7	**26.8**
Canada (2001)[2]	1.8	**19.1**	4.7	14.2	**7.4**	5.7	9.4	**0.6**	3.9	33.2
United States[3]	**4.0**	**16.2**	**9.0**	20.3	**10.5**	5.3	10.5	**1.5**	2.0	20.8

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreigners are over-represented (*i.e.*, the share of foreign employment in the sector is larger than the share of foreign employment in total employment).
The sign "–" indicates that the estimate is not reliable enough for publication.

1. Data refer to June 2002. The "Hotels and restaurants" sector is included in the "Wholesale and retail trade" sector.
2. Data refer to the foreign-born population aged 15 and over.
3. Data refer to March 2002.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey, data provided by Eurostat; Australia, Japan: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Canada: 2001 Census.

However, recent years have seen a gradual spread of foreign employment into the tertiary sector. In 2002-2003, that sector accounted for more than three-quarters of foreign jobs in the United Kingdom (83.3%), in Sweden (76.1%) and in Finland (75.6%). More than 70% of foreigners also work in services in Australia, Canada, the United States, Ireland, Luxembourg, Norway and the Netherlands.

The education sector, and to an even greater extent the health sector, have seen a sharp increase in the employment of foreigners, in response to recent trends in the demand for labour in these fields.[12] Between 10% and 15% of foreigners are employed in the health sector in Australia, the United States, Ireland, Finland, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Switzerland, and more than 15% in Norway and Sweden. In most of these countries, the proportion of foreign workers in the health sector is rising steadily.

The movement of foreign workers into the services sector mirrors a trend among national workers that has been in evidence for several decades, and illustrates a certain convergence between the sectoral distributions of employment of foreigners and nationals. This trend reflects as well the persistence of job offers that are not taken up by nationals in the services sector, including jobs that require few or no qualifications. A significant portion of these jobs is to be found for example in childcare and care for the elderly, or in cleaning and restaurant work.

f) Self-employment is spreading among foreign workers…

In most member countries, with the exceptions of France and Belgium, foreigner self-employment has grown over the last five years, both in absolute numbers and as a percentage of self-employment as a whole (see Table I.14). Moreover, foreign women are developing their own businesses in ever greater numbers.

Table I.14. **Foreigners in self-employment in selected OECD countries, 1998-2003**

Percentages

	Share of foreigners in total self-employment		Share of self-employment in total foreign employment
	1998	2003	2003
Austria	4.3	4.9	6.9
Belgium	7.2	6.2	13.5
Czech republic	0.5	2.5	27.4
France	5.2	4.3	10.5
Germany	7.5	8.1	10.5
Greece	1.0	1.3	8.7
Ireland	3.7	4.2	10.8
Luxembourg	25.9	29.7	4.9
Netherlands	2.4	2.5	7.6
Norway	2.8	3.8	8.1
Portugal	1.4	1.4	12.7
Spain	1.2	2.1	11.0
Sweden	4.2	4.8	10.8
Switzerland	11.6	12.6	9.8
United Kingdom	4.7	4.9	11.7
United States[1]	. .	13.9	9.8

1. Data refer to foreign-born population.

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

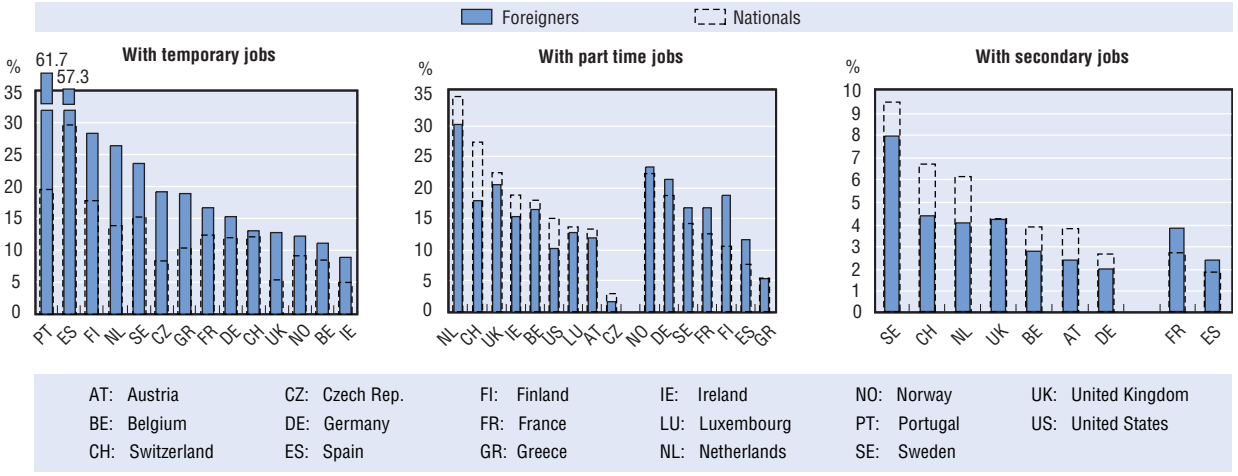
This trend may reflect the fact that these foreigners are putting down local roots in the host community, but it could also indicate that, faced with growing obstacles to their labour market access (lack of social capital, language problems, non-recognition of academic and vocational credentials), some categories of foreign workers are forced to fall back on self-employment.

g) … as are "atypical jobs"

Figure I.12 illustrates the share of "atypical" employment by nationality in several OECD countries. It shows that in nearly all these countries, the likelihood of holding a temporary job is much higher for foreigners than for nationals. The gap is even wider for countries where temporary work is widespread. It is greatest in Portugal, Spain and Finland. In some countries, this finding is affected by the predominance of temporary training periods for young people entering the labour market. This is true particularly in Germany, Switzerland, and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom.

Conversely, part-time work is not systematically more common among foreign than national workers, but foreign workers are generally more likely to have two jobs.

Figure I.12. **"Atypical" employment by nationality in selected OECD countries, 2003**
Percentage of total employment



Note: Data for the United States refer to foreign-born population. Part-time employment refers to persons who work less than 30 hours per week in their main job. Data include only persons declaring usual hours worked.

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

2. Integrating foreigners and immigrants into the labour market: a major challenge

With an ageing demographic structure that is likely to cause the labour force to stagnate or even decline in some OECD countries over the next three decades, the need to mobilise all available human resources represents a major economic challenge. For this reason, and also for reasons relating to social cohesion, improving the conditions for foreigners and immigrants to enter the labour market is becoming an imperative for many countries.

This section describes the current status of participation by foreigners and immigrants in the labour market in OECD countries, and attempts to identify its main determinants, in

an effort to help policy-makers make better use of currently under-utilised human resources in the working-age immigrant population.

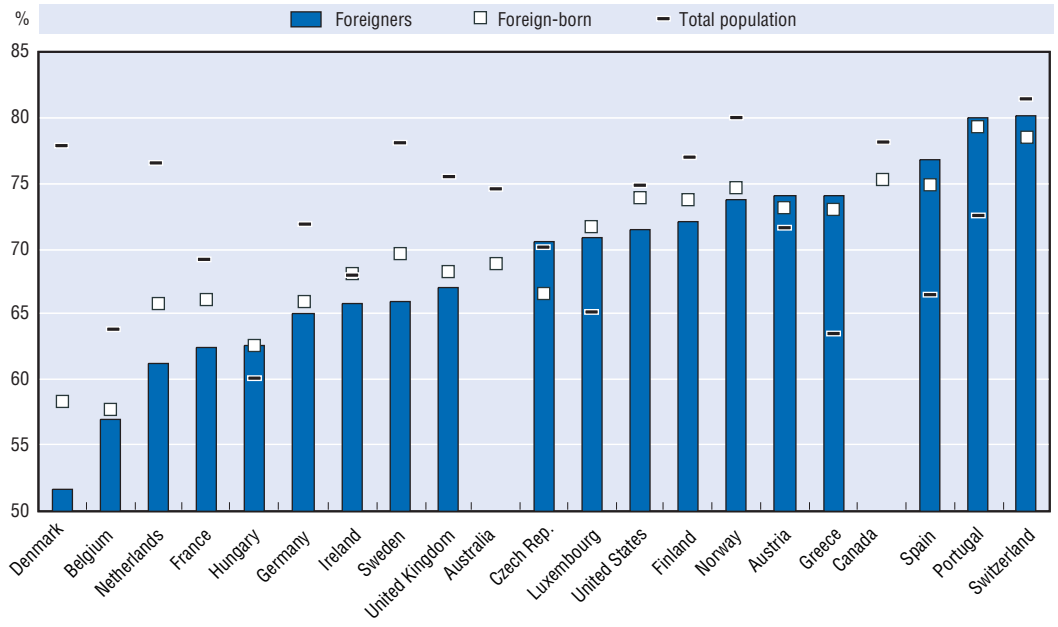
a) Foreigners' labour market participation is improving, but foreign women are still marginalised

Foreigners and immigrants are generally less well integrated into the labour market than are nationals (Figure I.13). The differences in employment rates by nationality or place of birth are particularly striking in Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden, where the participation rate is among the highest in the world, but in fact this finding is valid for most other OECD countries. Some exceptions to this rule, however, may be found among recent immigration countries, primarily in southern, Central and Eastern Europe, as well as in Austria and Luxembourg, given the importance of job-seekers in migration flows and/or the portion of migration from the OECD zone.

In European countries for which there is accurate information on the reasons for remaining outside the labour force,[13] it would seem that foreigners are more likely than nationals to cite family responsibilities (32% as against just under 20%). Around 1.3% of inactive foreigners moreover claim "there is no work available" (0.9% for nationals). In countries of the European Union as a whole, nearly 54% of inactive foreigners have never held a job, while the figure is 41% for nationals.

Figure I.14 shows that foreign women are systematically less likely to be in the labour force than their male counterparts, and that the gap between these two groups is generally

Figure I.13. **Foreign and foreign-born participation rates in selected OECD countries, 2002-2003 average**

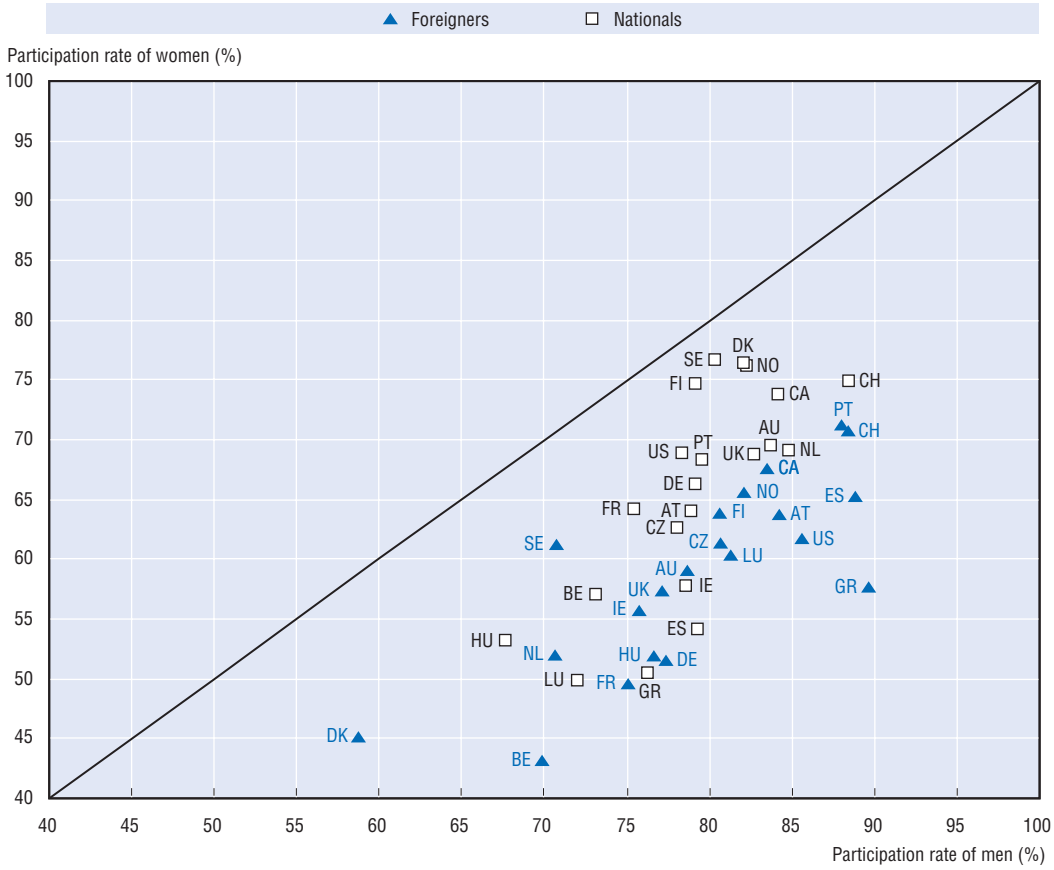


Note: Data refer to 2003 for foreign-born population in Switzerland; to 2001-2002 average for Canada and to 2002 for Denmark. In Germany, 6.8% of the population did not respond to the question related to their place of birth.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003) except for Denmark (Population Register); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Australia and Canada: Labour Force Survey.

Figure I.14. **Participation rate of foreigners and nationals by gender in selected OECD countries**

2002-2003 average



Note: Data for Australia, Canada and the United States refer to foreign- and native-born populations. Data refer to the 2001-2002 average for Canada and to 2002 for Denmark.

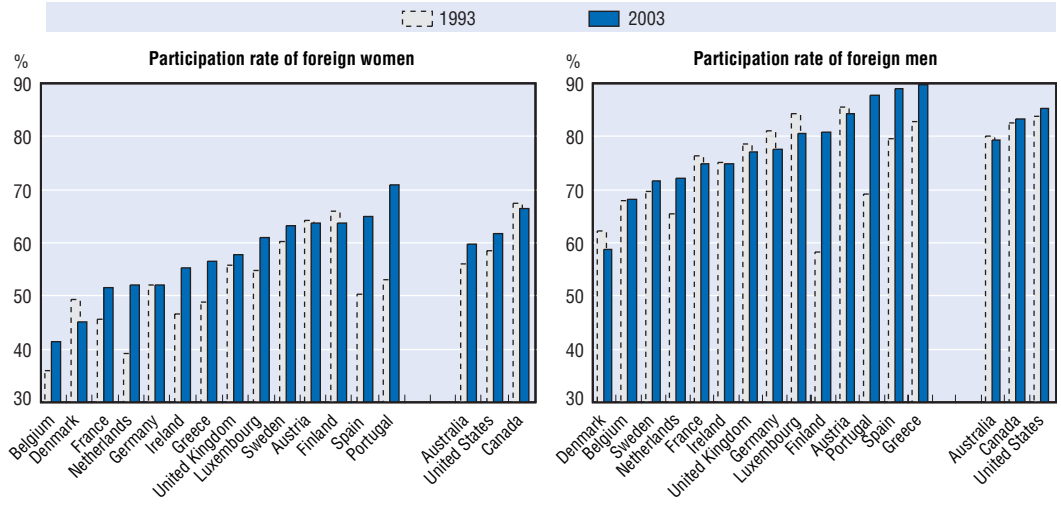
Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003) except for Denmark where data are issued from population register; United States: Current population Survey March Supplement; Australia and Canada: Labour Force Survey.

greater than that between the two gender groups of nationals.[14] Denmark, Belgium and France nevertheless stand out for their extremely low employment rates for foreign women (below 50%).

We find also that the higher the employment rate among foreign men, the higher will be the rate among foreign women. This suggests a relationship of complementarity, at least at the macro level, between labour market participation by male and female foreigners, a finding that also applies to the labour market as a whole.

Between 1993 and 2003, the labour force participation rate for foreign males rose sharply in some countries (see the right-hand portion of Figure I.15), in response to the general improvement in labour markets over that period (see OECD, 2003a). This trend was quite strong in the Netherlands and in Finland, and was even more pronounced in Spain, Portugal and Greece. It was apparent in some traditional settlement countries (Canada and the United States) as well, but not in Germany, France, the United Kingdom or Denmark.

Figure I.15. **Change in the foreign participation rate by gender between 1993 and 2003 in selected OECD countries**



Note: For Austria, the United States, Finland and Sweden, 2003 participation rates of foreigners are compared with figures for 1995. For Canada and Denmark data refer to 2002 instead of 2003. For Australia, Canada and the United States data refer to foreign-born and native populations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003) except for Denmark where data are issued from population register; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Australia and Canada: Labour Force Surveys.

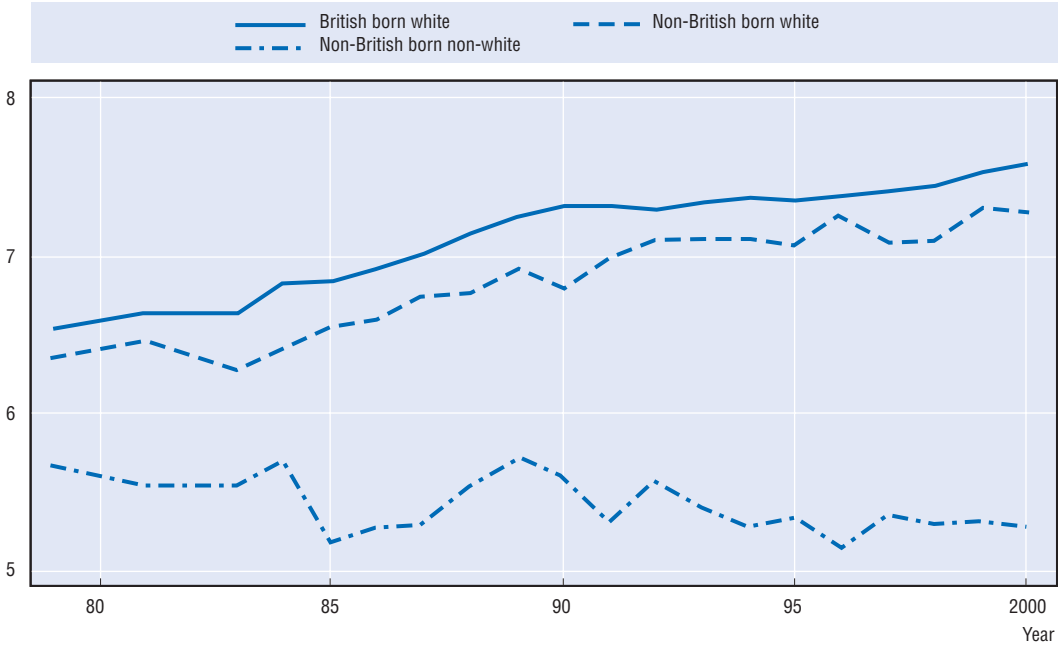
The participation rate for foreign women follows the same pattern but, as with the overall female population (see the left-hand portion of Figure I.15), the trend is even sharper. Between 1993 and 2003, foreign women increased their participation rate by some 15 percentage points in the Netherlands, Spain and Portugal, marking the beginning of a catch-up process in those countries. All the OECD countries considered, except for Austria and Finland, showed increases in the participation of foreign women into the labour market over this period. In some countries, however, for example the United Kingdom, Germany and Canada, this progress was limited, and sometimes varied greatly depending on the origin of the immigrants (see Figure I.16).

The increasing participation of foreign women in the labour market generally follows the employment trend for native-born women. In effect, it is in those countries (*e.g.* Spain and Ireland) where female employment has increased the most that the participation rate of foreign women has risen most strongly.

At least two kinds of explanation, based on assumptions of substitutability or complementarity, can be suggested to explain this finding: *i)* foreign women benefit from new employment opportunities, as do female nationals, for example in the services sector; *ii)* by taking household services jobs, foreign women free up other women to join the workforce.

In several European countries of the OECD, the employment survey data tend to confirm the second hypothesis, while not necessarily invalidating the first. Thus, the employment of female foreigners in household services rose by nearly 75% between 1993 and 2003 in Germany (from 9 600 to 16 700), while employment of female nationals in this sector declined (–1%) at the same time as their participation in the labour market as a whole rose (+6%). This trend is particularly noticeable in Spain and Greece where, over the period considered, employment of foreign women in services to households was

Figure I.16. **Change in participation rate of women according to country of birth and ethnic origin, United Kingdom, 1979-2000**



Source: Dustman and al. (2003), "Labour market performance of immigrants in the UK labour market", Home office Report No. 05/03.

multiplied by factors of 11 and 6, respectively (some 96 400 jobs were held by foreign women in this sector in Spain, and 33 900 in Greece, in 2003).

Given the size of the shortfall and the expected ripple effects, improving the participation of foreign women in the labour force should be a priority not only in terms of social equity but also in terms of short-and long-term economic efficiency.

b) The main determinants of labour market access

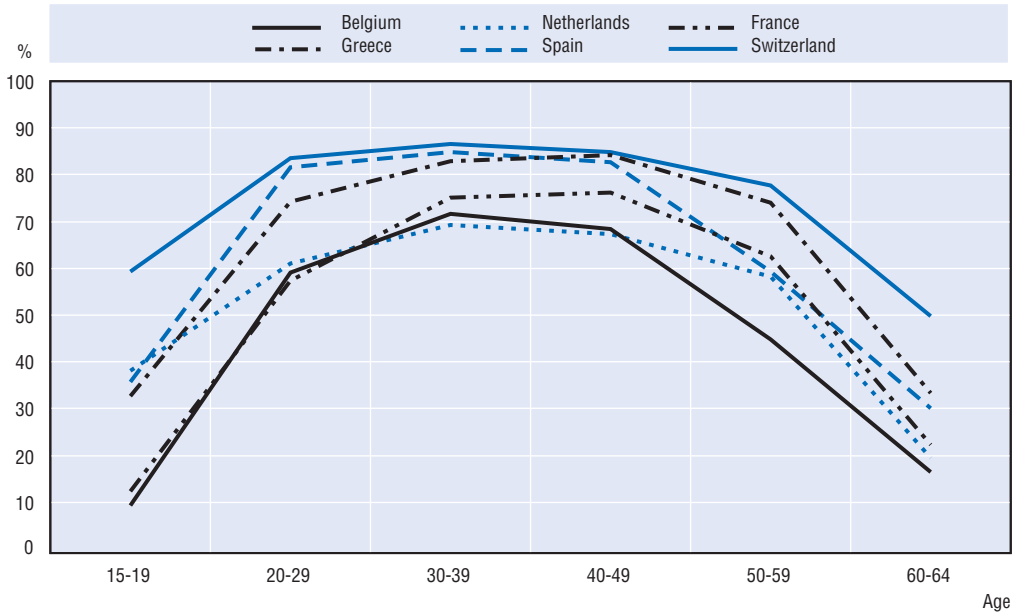
To identify the levers that can be used to facilitate the entry of foreign workers, and particularly foreign women, into the labour market, a better understanding of the main determinants and obstacles would be useful. Among the socio-economic variables generally cited and identifiable are: *i)* demographic variables, *ii)* education, *iii)* length of residency, and iv) country of origin.

The role of demographic variables: structural differences between foreign and national populations do not tell the whole story

Like other categories of workers, the participation rate of foreigners varies widely over the course of their lives, reaching a maximum between the ages of 30 and 50 years (see Figure I.17). Regardless of the host country, the activity curve for foreigners as a function of age is essentially the same. The age structure of foreigners in fact explains only a limited portion of the gap *vis-à-vis* nationals. Given their over-representation in the economically most active age brackets, foreigners would in most cases have a participation rate 2 to 4 percentage points lower if their age structure were the same as that of the population as a whole.

Figure I.17. **Participation rate of foreigners by age for the three European countries where it is the highest and in the three where it is the lowest**

2002-2003 average



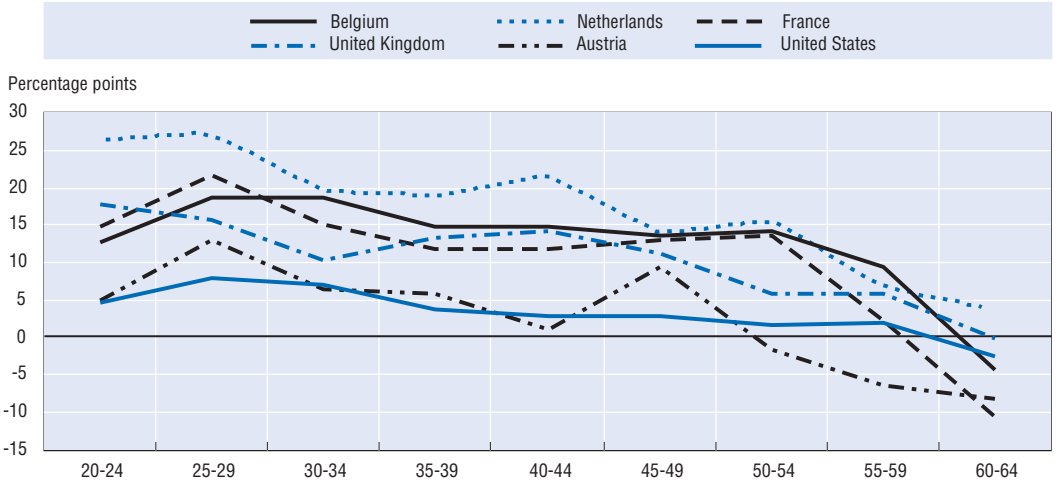
Note: Portugal is the second country after Switzerland where participation rate of foreigners is the highest but the number of foreign population in the labour force aged 15-19 and 60-65 was insufficient to be significative. So Greece (4th country where the participation rate of foreigners is the highest) has been selected.

Sources: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003).

It should be noted that the gap between foreigners and nationals tends to diminish with age (see Figure I.18), and may even be reversed for older workers, thereby showing that foreigners leave the labour market at a later age. This finding also holds for men and

Figure I.18. **Difference between national and foreign participation rates by age in selected OECD countries**

2002-2003 average



Note: For the United States, the reference populations are the foreign- and native-born populations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

women considered separately: this is true not only in various European countries where foreigners participate relatively little in the labour market, but also in other OECD countries, notably the United States.

A number of explanations can be offered for this finding: *i)* the fact that they start their working lives in the host country at a later age means that foreigners have to work longer to build up pension rights; *ii)* with savings that are often limited, replacement rates may make it impossible for older foreign workers to assume their family responsibilities either in the host country (*e.g.* because of family size) or in their country of origin (*e.g.* through remittances); *iii)* the fact that if migrants came for a specific objective (*e.g.* to finance their children's studies abroad, or purchase a house in their home or host country), they cannot stop working until they have achieved this objective; *iv)* the fact that those who are persistently frustrated in their efforts to join the labour market will return to their home country. The reasons will in reality differ, depending on the host country and the nationality and characteristics of migration waves.

On the other hand, the previous finding highlights the fact that young foreigners are less well integrated into the labour market than are nationals. Young foreign males between the ages of 25 and 29 years[15] have a participation rate that is more than 12 percentage points below that of nationals in France and in the Netherlands (14 points), the United Kingdom (13.6 points), Denmark (12.8 points) and Ireland (12.6 points). There is also a significant gap in Belgium and in Sweden (more than eight percentage points). The gaps for women are even greater, and can be as high as 34 percentage points, for example, in the Netherlands.

This is all the more worrying given that the transition from school to work can be a determining factor for a person's future career and long-term integration into the labour market, particularly for the less skilled (Burgess *et al.*, 2003). Young foreign men and women who are excluded from the labour force may in fact never accumulate sufficient work experience, which in itself increases their employability handicap, and may even be permanently shut out from the labour market, with all the consequences this can have for them as individuals and for the host country society as a whole.[16] In countries where this situation prevails, it is all the more essential to implement specific policies for integrating young foreigners into the labour market.

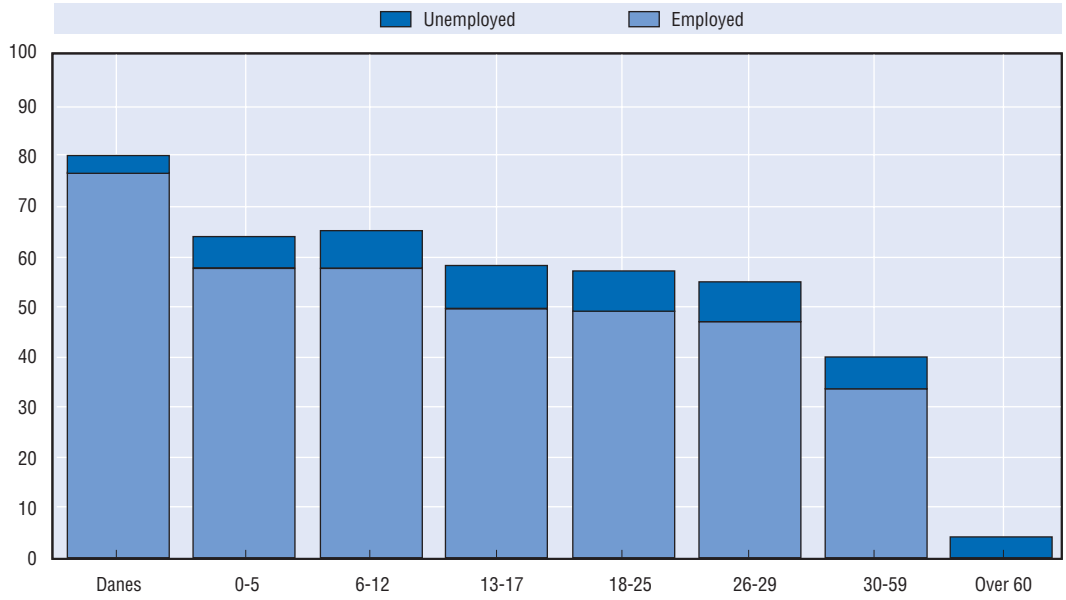
Age at time of immigration is also an important factor in success in entering the labour market (see Figure I.19). The younger immigrants are on arrival, the easier it will be to learn the host country language quickly, obtain qualifications, and build up local work experience, all of which are assets for entering the labour market.

While labour immigrants can be selected in light of their socio-demographic characteristics, it must be remembered that such people constitute only a portion of the immigration flow, and that there is no way to be selective regarding the age structure of family-reunification applicants or refugees.

The ambiguous role of education level in the labour market participation of foreigners

Table I.15 reveals an important initial finding, namely that while the participation rate of skilled foreigners is relatively high (exceeding 88% in Portugal and in Switzerland, for example), it is still always lower than that of nationals. In Denmark, for example, only 67.7% of foreigners with a post-secondary degree are working or looking for work, while the equivalent rate for nationals is 23 percentage points higher. This gap is also significant in

Figure I.19. **Participation rate of immigrants from developing countries residing in Denmark by age at entry in the country**



Note: Immigrants aged 16 to 66.

Source: OECD, 2003b.

Table I.15. **Participation rate by education level (25-64 years old)**

2002-2003 average

	Less than upper secondary		Upper secondary		Tertiary level	
	Foreigner	National	Foreigner	National	Foreigner	National
Belgium	48.3	**54.6**	73.1	**79.1**	79.2	**86.8**
Netherlands (2002)	50.6	**63.4**	67.6	**81.8**	79.8	**88.6**
France	61.6	**65.3**	76.0	**81.6**	75.8	**88.1**
Hungary	**43.2**	41.5	71.7	**75.0**	76.6	**83.8**
Denmark (2002)	48.1	**64.9**	61.7	**85.3**	67.7	**90.7**
Germany	**62.3**	59.7	**77.5**	77.4	78.4	**87.7**
Ireland	56.9	**60.5**	68.2	**79.2**	77.9	**89.6**
Sweden	60.4	**72.9**	73.1	**86.2**	78.6	**90.8**
United Kingdom	46.1	**59.9**	81.8	**84.0**	84.3	**90.5**
Czech Republic	**61.1**	55.3	75.4	**80.6**	84.5	**88.6**
Luxembourg	**72.3**	51.2	**78.4**	71.9	84.3	**88.2**
Finland	64.9	**65.9**	**83.8**	82.3	76.7	**89.0**
Norway	62.7	**65.9**	74.9	**83.2**	84.3	**90.9**
Austria	**68.8**	56.1	58.9	**77.1**	85.1	**87.2**
Greece	**83.5**	59.8	**78.5**	72.8	78.0	**87.1**
Spain	**78.9**	62.8	**81.4**	79.5	80.6	**88.0**
Portugal	**85.6**	76.5	**88.5**	85.7	88.4	**92.8**
Switzerland	**74.6**	67.1	**83.6**	82.6	88.3	**93.6**
United States[1]	**71.2**	59.1	77.9	**78.7**	82.0	**86.5**
Canada[1] (2001-2002)	63.1	**66.4**	80.6	**84.1**	84.6	**88.7**

Notes: Data in bold refer to the higher of the foreign and national participation rates. About 7.4%, 13%, 6% and 43.4% of the foreign population did not respond to the question on education attainment in Germany, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom respectively. This is also the case for 10.7% of UK-citizens living in the United Kingdom.

1. Data refer to foreign- and native-born populations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003) except for Denmark (population register, 15-64 population); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Canada: Labour Force Survey.

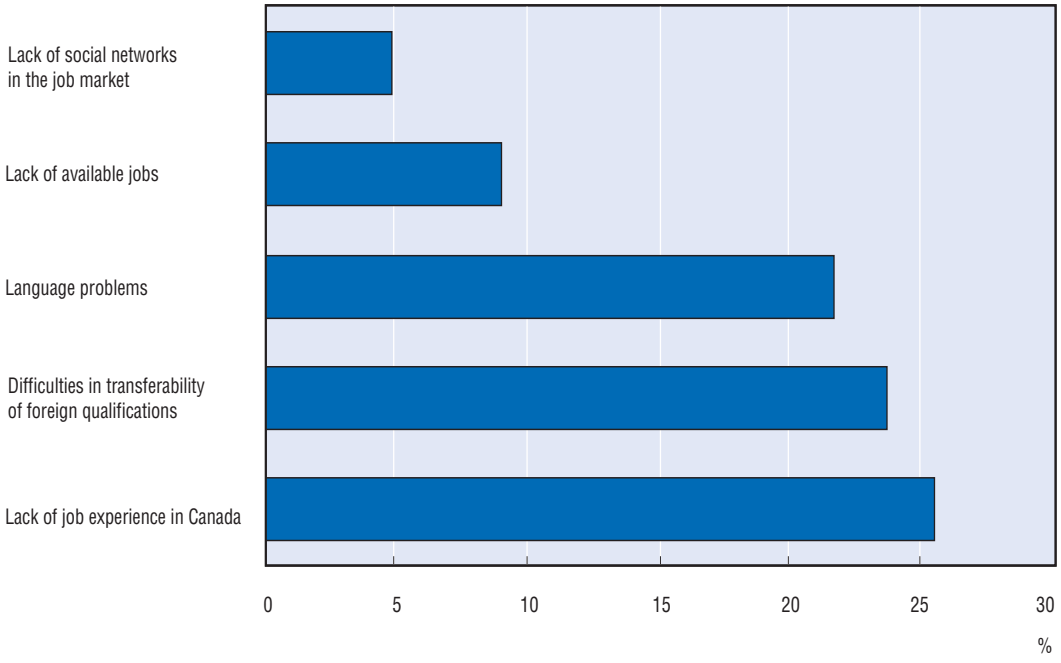
France, Sweden, Ireland and Finland. It is narrower, but still negative, in settlement countries that select skilled workers (for example Canada).

What makes this finding even more striking is that for the period under consideration (2002-2003), most OECD countries were actively recruiting skilled foreign workers to meet labour shortages. This underlines the urgent need for policies to grant greater recognition, institutionally and in the labour market, to foreign academic and vocational qualifications: otherwise, skilled foreign workers will continue to face problems in the host labour market.

The issue of qualifications recognition also affects those who are already in the labour force. In Canada, for example, some 60% of new immigrants who have found employment within six months of their arrival are not working in the same field as they did before emigrating, and 40% are looking for another job (Statistics Canada, 2003). More than two-thirds of them cited their lack of Canadian working experience, and 25% mentioned transferability of their qualifications as problems they faced in joining the labour force (see Figure I.20).

When it comes to foreign workers with few or no qualifications, it is in the United Kingdom that their participation rate is lowest (46%). The gap with nationals is also high in the Netherlands, Denmark, and to a lesser degree Belgium. In the other OECD countries, by contrast, the participation rate for foreigners with only a secondary education is in fact roughly the same as that for nationals, or higher. In Austria and in the United States, this category of immigrants is in fact the only one to exhibit a relatively favourable participation rate: 68.8% and 71.2%, respectively. This finding must be viewed against the general situation on the labour market, and more particularly the strength of demand for unskilled labour that is not filled by the national labour force, in fields such as agriculture and in services (*e.g.* cleaning and restaurant work).

Figure I.20. **Most serious difficulty experienced by immigrants when entering the labour force, 2001, Canada**



Source: Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada, 2001, Statistics Canada.

Despite these findings, which tend to downplay its role, education remains one of the most important assets when entering the labour market: in all countries, statistics show that the participation rate rises with the level of education,[17] even if its significance is less pronounced for foreigners than for nationals.

Does length of residency assure labour market integration?

In Australia, where longitudinal data are available for tracking cohorts of new immigrants,[18] the period of residence is clearly an important factor in short-and long-term integration into the labour market. The participation rate of immigrants rises from an average of 54% six months after their arrival to 65% after three and a half years.[19] The trend is even more pronounced for certain categories of immigrants, such as refugees (Table I.16).

Table I.16. **Participation rate of new immigrants in Australia according to duration of stay and inflow category, 1993-1995 (*LSIA1*) and 1999-2000 (*LSIA2*) cohorts**

Primary Applicants and Migrating Unit (MU) Spouses	LSIA 1 (Cohort 1)			LSIA 2 (Cohort 2)	
	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3	Wave 1	Wave 2
	(6 months)	(18 months)	(42 months)	(6 months)	(18 months)
	Labour force participation rate (%)				
Preferential Family/Family	47	53	56	52	60
Concessional Family/Skilled Australian Linked	68	76	81	81	85
Business Skills and Employer Nomination Scheme	62	75	79	50	68
Independent	73	78	84	77	80
Humanitarian	41	50	59	15	28
Total	**54**	**61**	**65**	**60**	**66**

Source: *Report of the Review of Settlement Services for Migrants and Humanitarian Entrants*, Chapter 4, DIMIA (2003).

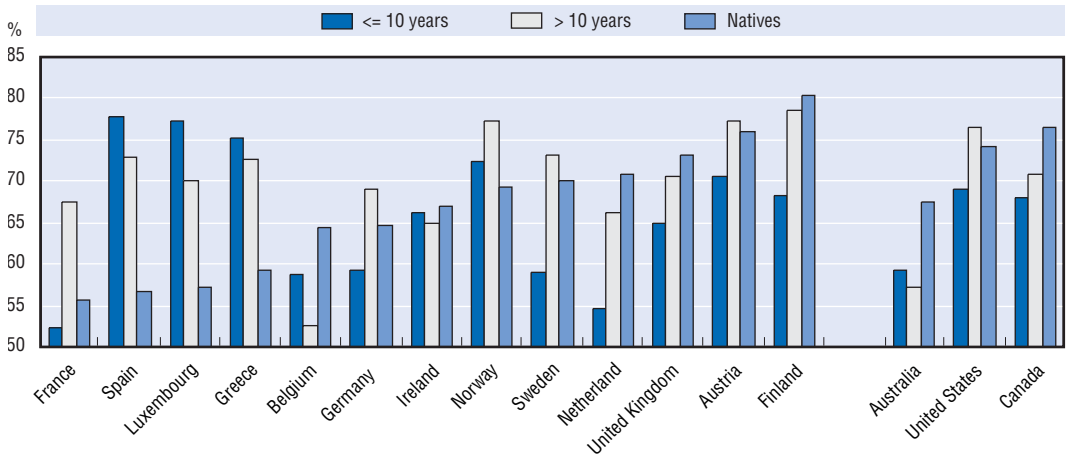
For countries where no such data are available, it is difficult to isolate the impact of residency duration on immigrants' labour market integration, because different lengths of stay are likely to correspond to different waves of migration, different nationalities, and different economic cycles. Moreover, over the longer term, the length of stay appears to have a more ambiguous effect. Figure I.21 compares labour force participation rates for foreigners who arrived within the last 10 years, more than 10 years ago, or were born in the host country.

This chart identifies two distinct groups of countries. For the first, which includes the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Finland, the probability of employment improves noticeably with length of stay, and foreigners born in the country have an even higher participation rate. The United States, Canada and Austria could also be placed in this group.

For a second and much more heterogeneous group of countries, which includes France, Belgium and Germany, length of stay is not a sufficient condition to guarantee participation in the labour force. In Belgium, for example, immigrants who have been in the country for more than 10 years have a much lower participation rate than those who arrived more recently. In France, it is foreigners born in the country who seem to be least

Figure I.21. **Participation rate of foreigners according to duration of stay and place of birth**

2002-2003 average



Note: The category "< = 10 years" refers to foreigners born abroad and residing in the host country 10 years or less. The category "> 10 years" refers to foreigners born abroad and residing in the host country more than 10 years and the category "Natives" refers to foreigners born in the country. For Australia, Canada, and the United States data are only available by country of birth (no reference is made to nationality in the breakdown). In Germany 13.3% of foreigners did not respond to the question on duration of stay. Data for Australia refer to the population aged 15 and over in 2003; data for Canada refer to 2002.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003); Australia and Canada: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

well integrated into the labour market. In recent immigration countries, it is the preponderance of recently arrived immigrant workers that explains the high participation rate among foreigners who have been there for less than 10 years.

In all cases, the short-term policy thrust should be to speed up the integration process by encouraging the acquisition of skills specific to the host country (language, vocational experience and social capital). Over the medium and longer terms, overcoming discrimination in the labour market should be a key goal.

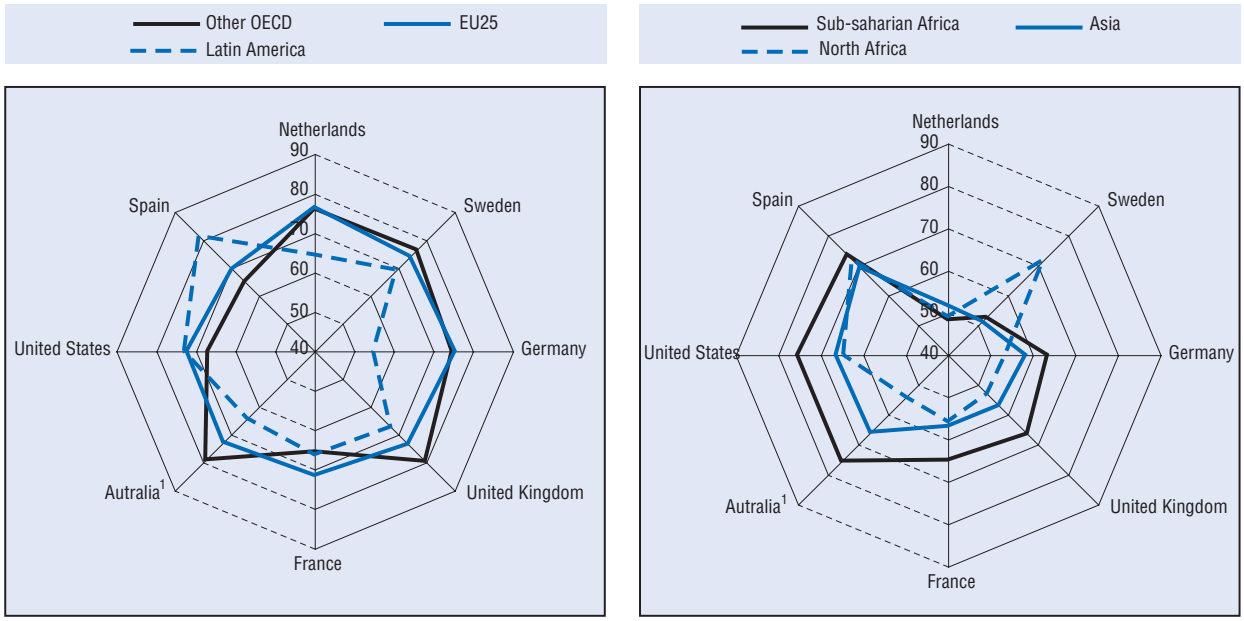
To what extent does country of origin explain foreigners' participation rate?

Another argument used to explain differences in participation rates between nationals and foreigners has to do with differences of a cultural sort. For example, participation rates will normally be lower for women from countries where female employment is traditionally limited, as in the Maghreb, the Middle East and some countries of central Asia. In Denmark, for example, participation rates vary from 10% for women from Somalia or 15% for those from Iraq, to 70% for Swedish women. In the United States, Antecol (2000) shows that more than half of the gender gap in the participation rates of immigrants can be attributed to the situation in the country of origin.

Figure I.22 confirms this finding by comparing foreigners' participation rates in several countries by region of birth. The key point here is that in all these countries, immigrants from some regions systematically have a lower participation rate (see Figure I.22).[20] This is

Figure I.22. **Participation rate of foreigners born abroad in selected OECD countries by region of origin**

2002-2003 average



Note: Mexico is included in Latin America and Turkey in Asia.

1. For Australia, EU 25 participation rate includes European continent (including Former USSR) and participation rate in Asia includes Japan and Korea (therefore excluded from "other OECD countries").

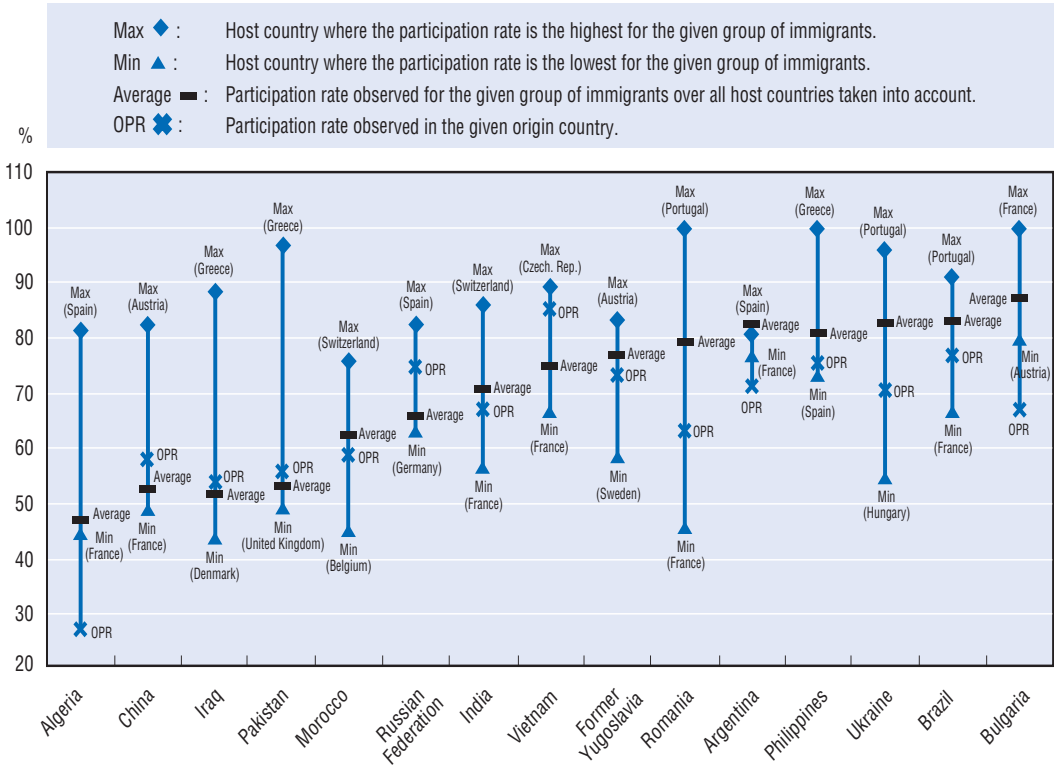
Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Australia: Labour Force Survey.

the case, for example, with people from Asia or North Africa. Immigrants from OECD countries generally have a participation rate similar to that of the country in which they are residing (with the exception of Turks in Europe and Mexicans in North America). However, the Chart also highlights some important differences for the same nationality depending on the host country, suggesting that the country-of-origin factor must be treated with caution. These differences are related in part to the immigrant selection process and to labour market dynamics in the host country, but they are also influenced by the degree to which foreign workers' characteristics match market needs in the host country.

Figure I.23 provides a further illustration of the link between the labour market status of foreigners in OECD European countries and the employment situation in their home country. For most nationalities selected, the participation rate in the country of origin falls between the maximum and minimum values recorded in the host country, and is often close to the mean for the host country, assuming no labour shortage there. Comparing the participation rate of immigrants not with the situation prevailing in the host country but with that in the country of origin, then, casts a different light on the capacity of immigrants to join the labour force.[21]

Figure I.23. **Participation rate of foreigners born abroad according to country of origin in OECD European countries (20-64 years old)**

2002-2003 average



Note: Selected origin countries are non-OECD countries for which labour force population is significative in at least three host countries except Algeria and Argentina where calculations are based on figures for only two host countries. Morocco: participation rate for population aged 25-60; Algeria and China: population aged 15 and more; Brazil, India and Iraq: population aged 20-60; former Yugoslavia: population aged 25-64. Reference years for participation rate observed in the origin countries are: 1987 for Iraq and Vietnam, 1991 for India, 2000 for Argentina and Philippines, 2000-2001 for Algeria, 2001 for China and Brazil, 2001-2002 for Pakistan and Morocco, and 2000-2003 for Bulgaria, Romania and Ukraine.

Sources: Participation rate in OECD European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2002 and 2003); Participation rate observed in origin countries: International Labour Office (ILO).

c) A multivariate analysis of foreigners' labour market participation in selected OECD countries

Theoretical and empirical studies of the labour supply show the importance of the socio-economic factors described above, as well as the impact of policy reforms, particularly of a fiscal kind (Killingsworth, 1983; Blundell and Macurdy, 1999). These determinants are, however, highly correlated and only a multivariate estimation can, all other things being equal, isolate the foreigner-specific features of labour supply.

Using data from the Eurostat Labour Force Survey for a selected number of OECD European countries for which detailed information on working-age persons and their families is available,[22] we estimate the probability of participation as a function of the main socio-economic variables (age, sex, education, work experience, marital status, nationality) and of family demographic structure (number of young children, number of

working adults). To take proper account of the impact of family structure, we produce three types of estimations: *i)* single adults with no children; *ii)* single women with children; *iii)* households with at least two adults (treating men and women separately).

The outcomes shown in Table I.17 qualify slightly the finding that foreigners have greater difficulty entering the labour market, in the sense that, when the main socio-demographic variables and family structure are taken into account, the effect associated with the foreign-born variable disappears in several countries. This is the case, for example, in Ireland for cohabiting men, and in the United Kingdom, despite the fact that previous analyses found that foreigners were under-represented in the labour force there. In some countries, foreigners in fact appear to be more active than nationals, all other things being equal. In Belgium, France, and the Netherlands, on the other hand, regardless of the model used, foreign men are consistently less likely to participate in the labour force, reflecting effects associated with being a foreigner that are not included in the model.

For foreign women, living alone or cohabiting, the estimation confirms that, all other things being equal, they often have greater difficulty in participating in the work force. This is the case in Germany, Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, for single women with children, and in Austria and in France for women who are cohabiting. The model is not sufficiently refined to allow the conclusion that there is discrimination against foreign women in the labour market, but it does not rule out this interpretation.

Table I.18 presents detailed estimation results of the probability of labour force participation for cohabiting foreigners, confirming the ambiguous effect of period of

Table I.17. **Effect of nationality on the probability of participating in the labour market in selected European OECD countries (Probit Model)**

		Single men and women without children (1)	Single women with children (2)	Men in families (3)	Women in families (4)
	List of explanatory variables considered in the estimation	• Age; • Education; • Sex; • Nationality.	• Age; Education; • Children aged 0 to 3 and 4 to 6; • Nationality.	• Age; • Education; • Employed adults in the labour force residing in the household; • Children aged 0 to 3 and 4 to 6; • Married; • Nationality.	• Age; • Education; • Employed adults in the labour force residing in the household; • Children aged 0 to 3 and 4 to 6; • Married; • Nationality.
Effect of the variable nationality on the probability of participating in the labour market	**Positive and significant effect**	AT; EL; LU; UK		AT; DE; EL; LU; ES; PT	LU; ES
	Negative and significant effect	BE; DE; FR; IE; NL	BE; DE; IE; NL	BE; FR; NL	AT; BE; DE; FR; NL
	Non-significant effect	ES; PT	AT; ES; FR; UK	IE; UK	EL; IE; PT; UK

Note: A positive (resp. negative) significant effect (*i.e.* at 5% threshold) means that the fact of being a foreigner increases (resp. decreases) the probability of participating in the labour market, all things being equal. The sample weights have been normalised.

Abbreviation: AT: Austria; BE: Belgium; DE: Germany; EL: Greece; ES: Spain; FR: France; IE: Ireland; LU: Luxembourg; NL: Netherlands; PT: Portugal; UK: United Kingdom.

Source: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat, 2003 except for the Netherlands and Ireland, 2002); Secretariat calculations.

Table I.18. **Probability to participate in labour market for foreigners not living alone aged 15 to 64 in selected European OECD countries (Probit model)**

	Constant	Age 15-24	Age 25-49	Education (Upper secondary)	Education (Tertiary level)	European nationality	Duration of stay (1 to 10 years)	Duration of stay (more than 10 years)	Married	Children 0-3 years	Children 4-6 years	Other employed adults in the labour force
Germany												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	0.62	0.19	0.92	0.31	0.42	0.33	–0.18	0.10	0.42	0.06	–0.03	–0.53
Error	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.04	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.03
Pr>ChiSq	< .0001	0.01	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	0.00	0.05	< .0001	0.29	0.58	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.65	–0.04	0.39	0.50	0.37	0.28	–0.22	0.10	–0.17	–0.54	–0.28	–0.56
Error	0.07	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.03
Pr>ChiSq	< .0001	0.47	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	0.01	0.00	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001
Austria												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	1.07	0.12	0.46	0.60	0.63	–0.47	–0.05	–0.17	0.55	0.18	0.03	–0.47
Error	0.26	0.19	0.13	0.11	0.22	0.14	0.19	0.18	0.15	0.13	0.15	0.07
Pr>ChiSq	< .0001	0.52	0.00	< .0001	0.00	0.00	0.78	0.33	0.00	0.17	0.87	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.85	0.10	0.38	0.50	0.65	–0.23	–0.36	0.03	–0.19	–0.33	–0.29	–0.41
Error	0.20	0.15	0.11	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.07	0.08	0.06
Pr>ChiSq	< .0001	0.50	0.00	< .0001	< .0001	0.04	0.01	0.82	0.06	< .0001	0.00	< .0001
Belgium												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	0.73	–0.64	0.98	1.20	0.98	0.21	–0.50	–0.30	0.49	–0.08	0.41	–0.99
Error	0.38	0.30	0.21	0.22	0.26	0.19	0.26	0.24	0.22	0.20	0.25	0.15
Pr>ChiSq	0.05	0.03	< .0001	< .0001	0.00	0.28	0.06	0.21	0.03	0.70	0.10	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.06	0.12	0.71	0.28	0.96	0.66	–0.07	0.05	–0.30	–0.29	–0.21	–0.82
Error	0.37	0.27	0.19	0.15	0.20	0.16	0.21	0.19	0.17	0.14	0.15	0.16
Pr>ChiSq	0.88	0.67	0.00	0.07	< .0001	< .0001	0.74	0.78	0.08	0.03	0.15	< .0001
Spain												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	1.51	–0.34	0.82	0.55	–0.27	–0.50	–0.26	–0.15	0.64	0.09	–0.23	–0.31
Error	0.59	0.20	0.19	0.16	0.15	0.15	0.54	0.56	0.14	0.11	0.16	0.08
Pr>ChiSq	0.01	0.09	< .0001	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.63	0.79	< .0001	0.41	0.13	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	–0.29	0.26	0.84	0.19	0.27	–0.22	0.67	0.41	–0.44	–0.30	0.03	–0.18
Error	0.39	0.14	0.12	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.36	0.37	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.05
Pr>ChiSq	0.46	0.06	< .0001	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.27	< .0001	< .0001	0.73	0.00
France												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	0.70	–0.17	0.77	0.53	0.31	0.21	–0.19	0.24	0.48	0.29	0.05	–0.76
Error	0.27	0.15	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.08	0.24	0.24	0.10	0.11	0.12	0.07
Pr>ChiSq	0.01	0.26	< .0001	< .0001	0.01	0.01	0.42	0.30	< .0001	0.01	0.65	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.16	–0.22	0.64	0.27	0.32	0.72	–0.03	0.50	–0.16	–0.40	–0.22	–0.74
Error	0.22	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.21	0.20	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.06
Pr>ChiSq	0.47	0.08	< .0001	0.00	0.00	< .0001	0.89	0.01	0.05	< .0001	0.00	< .0001
Greece												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	1.72	–0.77	0.79	0.04	0.06	–0.66	0.51	0.26	0.12	1.41	–0.20	–0.60
Error	0.50	0.29	0.24	0.16	0.28	0.38	0.39	0.40	0.23	0.59	0.24	0.10
Pr>ChiSq	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.82	0.84	0.09	0.19	0.51	0.60	0.02	0.41	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.72	–0.55	0.21	0.11	0.20	–0.70	0.07	0.03	–0.20	–0.47	–0.39	–0.28
Error	0.30	0.16	0.14	0.09	0.13	0.20	0.24	0.25	0.11	0.09	0.10	0.07
Pr>ChiSq	0.02	0.00	0.13	0.19	0.11	0.00	0.79	0.90	0.07	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001

Table I.18. **Probability to participate in labour market for foreigners not living alone aged 15 to 64 in selected European OECD countries (Probit model)** *(cont.)*

	Constant	Age 15-24	Age 25-49	Education (Upper secondary)	Education (Tertiary level)	European nationality	Duration of stay (1 to 10 years)	Duration of stay (more than 10 years)	Married	Children 0-3 years	Children 4-6 years	Other employed adults in the labour force
Ireland												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	1.08	–0.53	0.33	0.19	0.29	0.05	0.08	–0.03	0.08	–0.03	–0.01	–0.12
Error	0.27	0.19	0.16	0.11	0.11	0.10	0.17	0.20	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.07
Pr>ChiSq	< .0001	0.01	0.04	0.08	0.01	0.62	0.65	0.89	0.49	0.83	0.96	0.10
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.42	0.08	0.49	0.25	0.61	0.06	0.00	–0.19	–0.66	–0.36	–0.42	–0.05
Error	0.23	0.16	0.13	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.14	0.15	0.09	0.07	0.09	0.06
Pr>ChiSq	0.07	0.62	0.00	0.01	< .0001	0.47	0.98	0.22	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	0.41
Luxembourg												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	0.73	–0.83	0.78	0.38	0.41	0.43	–0.08	–0.13	0.41	0.58	–0.02	–0.59
Error	0.30	0.18	0.13	0.10	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.16	0.14	0.08
Pr>ChiSq	0.01	< .0001	< .0001	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.59	0.37	0.00	0.00	0.90	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.55	–0.37	0.65	0.00	0.21	0.33	–0.19	–0.01	–0.26	–0.17	–0.32	–0.44
Error	0.21	0.14	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.06
Pr>ChiSq	0.01	0.01	< .0001	0.98	0.05	0.00	0.08	0.95	0.01	0.01	< .0001	< .0001
Netherlands												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	0.68	–0.06	1.17	0.32	0.52	0.59	–0.66	0.13	–0.14	0.11	–0.07	–0.31
Error	0.32	0.24	0.19	0.14	0.18	0.14	0.20	0.20	0.18	0.14	0.16	0.09
Pr>ChiSq	0.03	0.82	< .0001	0.02	0.00	< .0001	0.00	0.51	0.43	0.46	0.66	0.00
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.08	0.76	0.73	0.32	0.54	0.45	–0.63	–0.18	–0.05	–0.35	–0.16	–0.24
Error	0.27	0.19	0.15	0.10	0.12	0.10	0.17	0.18	0.11	0.08	0.10	0.09
Pr>ChiSq	0.76	< .0001	< .0001	0.00	< .0001	< .0001	0.00	0.32	0.63	< .0001	0.11	0.01
Portugal												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	–0.30	1.66	2.35	0.12	–0.48	0.39	0.72	0.01	2.26	–0.50	–0.06	–0.83
Error	1.16	1.04	1.02	0.33	0.64	0.45	0.71	0.65	1.00	0.40	0.36	0.20
Pr>ChiSq	0.80	0.11	0.02	0.73	0.46	0.38	0.31	0.99	0.02	0.21	0.86	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.55	–0.11	1.04	0.58	0.06	–0.70	–0.01	0.11	–0.01	–0.15	–0.31	–0.34
Error	0.88	0.36	0.33	0.23	0.27	0.25	0.81	0.81	0.22	0.17	0.22	0.15
Pr>ChiSq	0.54	0.75	0.00	0.01	0.82	0.01	0.99	0.90	0.95	0.37	0.16	0.03
United Kingdom												
Foreign men												
Coefficient	1.17	–0.24	0.65	–0.05	0.11	0.33	–0.07	0.13	0.31	0.11	–0.21	–0.40
Error	0.32	0.20	0.16	0.12	0.13	0.11	0.26	0.27	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.07
Pr>ChiSq	0.00	0.22	< .0001	0.67	0.39	0.00	0.80	0.64	0.02	0.35	0.10	< .0001
Foreign women												
Coefficient	0.55	–0.08	0.21	0.20	0.52	0.44	0.16	0.24	–0.31	–0.66	–0.09	–0.20
Error	0.27	0.14	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.08	0.24	0.24	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.06
Pr>ChiSq	0.04	0.59	0.05	0.03	< .0001	< .0001	0.49	0.32	0.00	< .0001	0.26	0.00

Note: The model explains the probability to participate in the labour market. A negative (resp. positive) sign indicates a negative relation (resp. positive) between the probability to participate in labour market and the considered explanatory variable.

Observations are weighted using normalised weights.

Source: European Community Labour Force Survey, 2003 (data provided by Eurostat).

residence mentioned earlier, but also highlighting the absence of any significant impact from education, particularly in southern Europe and the United Kingdom, for men, and in Luxembourg, for women.

In the case of foreign women, we find moreover that the effect of having young children is systematically negative and highly significant. Married status is also important (generally positive for men and negative for women). These results reflect the preponderance of demographic factors in determining the labour market status of foreign women.

d) What lessons for integration policies?

While the integration issue goes well beyond employment considerations, the labour market nevertheless represents an essential step in the process of integrating immigrants into the host-country society. Labour market entry begins with emergence from inactivity, which seems to be more difficult for foreigners and immigrants in many OECD countries, with the exception of the recent immigration countries in southern, Central and Eastern Europe.

This finding raises questions about the specific characteristics of foreign workers that determine their labour supply. This is an increasingly important consideration in most OECD countries, where the ageing of the population could lead over the medium term to a decline in the labour force and the emergence of shortages in the labour market, and where foreigners constitute a significant portion of the non-working population, a proportion that often exceeds their share of the total labour force (see OECD, 2003a).

The results described above suggest that, other things being equal, the determinants of foreigners' supply of labour are not necessarily different from those for the population as a whole. Foreigners tend to have multiple handicaps (lower education levels, more extended family structure, less working experience) that explain their disadvantage in the labour market in some OECD countries.

Consequently, it may be sufficient to adopt general measures that will assist all non-workers through training, vocational guidance, and policies to promote entrepreneurship and employment.

Yet in some countries or for some groups (*e.g.* foreign women, young immigrants and recent immigrants), equal treatment could in fact be discriminatory, given their particular needs and problems. It would be useful, then, to accompany these general measures with specific measures, relating in particular to learning the language of the host country and to recognition of qualifications.

Discrimination also remains a major issue at all stages of the integration process. Here, governments could move things forward by admitting that such discrimination exists, and by establishing a proper legal framework for combating it (see OECD, 2002).

Annex Table I.A1.1. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003**

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Men																								
Austria	. .	80.3	79.5	78.9	. .	85.6	85.2	84.2	. .	3.7	4.4	4.7	. .	6.2	8.6	9.3	. .	77.3	76.0	75.2	. .	80.3	77.9	76.4
Belgium	71.8	72.6	73.7	73.0	68.0	68.7	73.9	68.3	5.1	6.1	4.3	6.5	16.0	19.8	15.1	17.4	68.1	68.2	70.6	68.2	57.1	55.0	62.7	56.4
Czech Republic	. .	. .	78.9	77.8	. .	. .	90.1	79.4	. .	. .	7.4	5.8	. .	. .	7.7	7.1	. .	. .	73.1	73.2	. .	. .	83.2	73.8
Denmark	84.6	84.1	83.5	82.2	62.3	58.1	59.8	58.7	10.0	6.6	3.6	3.9	31.3	23.2	10.1	8.9	76.1	78.6	80.5	79.0	42.8	44.6	53.8	53.5
Finland	. .	75.0	79.3	79.1	. .	58.2	82.0	80.8	. .	17.9	10.2	10.9	. .	–	28.6	–	. .	61.6	71.3	70.4	. .	45.4	58.6	65.5
France	75.1	74.7	75.1	75.4	76.5	76.0	76.5	74.8	8.9	9.3	7.9	7.6	19.2	20.2	18.0	18.6	68.4	67.8	69.2	69.7	61.8	60.7	62.7	60.9
Germany	80.2	79.7	79.0	79.2	81.0	79.0	77.2	77.6	5.7	6.2	7.1	9.4	12.2	15.1	13.6	17.9	75.6	74.8	73.4	71.7	71.1	67.0	66.7	63.7
Greece	76.1	77.1	76.6	76.3	82.8	86.7	89.4	89.7	5.8	6.3	7.5	5.9	–	–	7.4	5.8	71.7	72.2	70.9	71.8	74.9	77.7	82.8	84.5
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	67.7	. .	. .	. .	77.3	. .	. .	. .	6.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	63.5	. .	. .	. .	75.8
Iceland	. .	. .	91.5	. .	. .	. .	95.5	. .	. .	. .	1.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	90.3	. .	. .	. .	95.5	. .
Ireland	76.3	76.2	79.3	78.6	75.0	73.4	74.5	74.9	15.8	12.1	4.4	4.8	20.1	–	–	6.7	64.3	66.9	75.8	74.8	59.9	60.6	70.1	69.9
Italy	. .	72.4	. .	. .	. .	84.6	. .	. .	. .	9.3	. .	. .	. .	–	. .		. .	65.6	. .	. .	. .	78.7	. .	. .
Luxembourg	75.0	73.6	75.8	71.9	84.3	80.1	77.4	80.7	–	–	–	1.9	–	–	–	4.4	73.6	72.2	75.0	70.5	82.5	78.0	75.0	77.2
Netherlands	80.1	80.8	84.6	84.8	65.4	63.9	70.1	72.1	4.6	5.4	2.0	3.2	21.2	23.2	–	9.2	76.4	76.5	82.9	82.0	51.5	49.0	66.3	65.5
Norway	. .	. .	84.9	82.3	. .	. .	82.5	81.3	. .	. .	3.6	4.2	. .	. .	. .	12.3	. .	. .	81.9	78.9	. .	. .	78.1	71.2
Portugal	78.4	76.4	78.9	79.2	69.2	64.3	80.1	87.7	4.7	6.8	3.2	5.4	. .	. .	. .	–	74.7	71.3	76.4	75.0	–	59.3	74.1	78.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	76.4	76.6	. .	. .	81.1	–	. .	. .	19.5	17.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	61.6	63.5	. .	. .	. .	. .
Spain	76.7	74.2	78.4	79.1	79.6	84.0	84.4	89.1	18.5	18.1	9.6	7.8	12.8	20.3	13.8	12.3	62.5	60.8	70.9	73.0	69.4	66.9	72.7	78.1
Sweden		82.6	78.0	80.3	. .	69.7	63.1	71.6	. .	8.3	5.5	5.7	. .	23.5	16.1	15.8	. .	75.8	73.7	75.7	. .	53.3	52.9	60.3
Switzerland	. .	. .	89.6	88.5	. .	. .	88.5	88.0	. .	. .	1.4	2.7	. .	. .	5.0	7.7	. .	. .	88.3	86.1	. .	. .	84.0	81.3
United Kingdom	84.5	83.6	83.4	82.7	78.6	75.8	75.9	77.2	12.3	10.0	6.0	5.3	19.0	16.6	11.7	8.5	74.1	75.3	78.5	78.3	63.7	63.2	67.0	70.6

Annex Table I.A1.1. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Women																								
Austria	. .	62.1	62.4	64.0	. .	64.2	64.4	63.6	. .	4.7	4.1	4.0	. .	7.8	9.1	7.1	. .	59.2	59.8	61.4	. .	59.1	58.5	76.4
Belgium	51.6	53.0	58.1	57.2	36.0	38.0	41.3	41.3	9.8	11.0	7.8	7.3	27.3	31.5	16.4	19.8	46.6	47.1	53.6	53.0	26.2	26.0	34.5	33.2
Czech Republic	. .	. .	63.6	62.7	. .	. .	52.8	60.8	. .	. .	10.6	9.6	. .	. .	. .	13.9	. .	. .	56.9	56.6	. .	. .	49.3	52.3
Denmark	77.7	75.7	77.0	76.3	49.3	44.3	45.5	45.2	11.9	8.5	4.4	4.3	30.4	25.5	11.3	9.6	68.4	69.2	73.6	73.0	34.3	33.0	40.4	40.8
Finland	. .	69.4	74.2	74.7	. .	65.9	61.9	63.7	. .	16.2	11.8	9.9	. .	30.4	–	–	. .	58.2	65.4	67.3	. .	45.9	43.4	52.5
France	60.7	61.5	63.4	64.3	45.6	46.8	48.6	51.5	13.0	13.6	11.5	9.5	23.5	24.4	25.6	19.3	52.8	53.1	56.1	58.2	34.9	35.4	36.2	41.5
Germany	61.5	62.3	64.4	66.4	52.0	50.6	49.7	52.0	9.1	9.3	8.1	8.9	13.1	14.9	11.6	14.7	55.9	56.5	59.2	60.5	45.2	43.1	43.9	44.3
Greece	42.2	44.1	49.5	50.7	48.9	56.3	55.8	56.6	13.7	14.0	16.9	13.8	25.8	18.2	17.6	13.8	36.4	37.9	41.1	43.7	36.3	46.1	46.0	48.8
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	53.8	. .	. .	. .	49.7	. .	. .	. .	5.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	50.9	. .	. .	. .	44.5
Iceland	. .	. .	86.0	. .	. .	. .	84.1	. .	. .	. .	2.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	83.9	. .	. .	. .	81.7	. .
Ireland	45.4	47.1	55.8	57.9	46.6	44.6	53.5	55.2	15.7	11.9	4.2	3.9	24.7	–	. .	–	38.3	41.5	53.4	55.6	35.1	36.1	49.7	51.8
Italy	. .	42.5	. .	. .	. .	49.3	. .	. .	. .	16.3	. .	. .	. .	22.8	. .	. .	. .	35.6	. .	. .	. .	38.1	. .	. .
Luxembourg	41.6	40.2	47.8	49.9	54.8	51.2	56.8	61.1	–	–	–	3.2	–	–	. .	6.4	40.6	38.7	46.7	48.3	52.5	48.5	54.6	57.2
Netherlands	56.8	59.2	66.7	69.2	39.1	39.8	46.1	52.0	7.4	8.2	3.3	3.6	16.7	24.3	9.7	9.9	52.6	54.3	64.5	66.7	32.6	30.1	41.6	46.8
Norway	. .	. .	76.7	76.1	. .	. .	68.3	62.8	. .	. .	3.3	3.9	. .	. .	. .	–	. .	. .	74.2	73.1	. .	. .	65.3	58.3
Portugal	58.7	59.2	63.7	66.5	53.1	35.1	68.8	71.0	6.3	8.0	4.8	7.5	. .	. .	. .	–	55.0	54.4	60.6	61.5	–	28.0	61.9	62.1
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	62.9	63.2	. .	. .	43.6	. .	. .	. .	18.6	17.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	51.2	52.3	. .	. .	. .	. .
Spain	43.3	44.9	51.7	54.2	50.4	48.6	58.2	65.0	29.0	30.6	20.6	15.8	20.0	27.0	17.6	18.2	30.7	31.2	41.0	45.6	40.4	35.5	48.0	53.2
Sweden	. .	79.2	74.2	76.8	. .	60.2	60.3	63.3	. .	7.1	4.6	4.8	. .	15.6	13.0	10.3		73.6	70.8	73.1	. .	50.8	52.4	56.8
Switzerland	. .	. .	72.8	74.9	. .	. .	66.4	70.1	. .	. .	2.4	3.1	. .	. .	6.5	10.3	. .	. .	71.1	72.6	. .	. .	62.1	62.9
United Kingdom	66.5	66.5	68.5	68.8	55.9	55.5	56.2	57.8	7.6	6.8	4.8	3.9	12.0	11.8	8.0	7.2	61.5	62.0	65.2	66.1	49.2	49.0	51.7	53.7

Annex Table I.A1.1. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Together																								
Austria	. .	71.1	70.9	71.4	. .	75.5	74.7	74.0	. .	4.1	4.3	4.4	. .	6.8	8.8	8.3	. .	68.2	67.9	68.2	. .	70.4	68.2	67.8
Belgium	61.6	62.8	66.0	65.1	53.8	54.8	58.3	55.6	7.1	8.2	5.8	6.9	19.4	23.5	15.6	18.2	57.3	57.7	62.1	60.6	43.3	42.0	49.2	45.5
Czech Republic	. .	. .	71.2	70.2	. .	. .	73.0	69.6	. .	. .	8.8	7.5	. .	. .	7.3	10.2	. .	. .	64.9	64.9	. .	. .	67.6	62.5
Denmark	81.2	79.9	80.3	79.3	56.0	51.4	52.6	51.7	10.9	7.5	4.0	4.1	30.9	24.2	10.6	9.2	72.3	74.0	77.1	76.0	38.7	39.0	47.0	47.0
Finland	. .	72.2	76.8	76.9	. .	61.9	72.9	71.5	. .	17.1	11.0	10.4	. .	26.3	29.0	18.3	. .	59.9	68.4	68.9	. .	45.6	51.8	58.4
France	67.7	68.0	69.2	69.8	62.1	62.3	63.0	63.3	10.8	11.3	9.6	8.5	20.7	21.7	20.9	18.8	60.4	60.3	62.6	63.9	49.2	48.8	49.8	51.4
Germany	70.8	71.0	71.7	72.8	68.4	66.2	64.3	65.2	7.2	7.5	7.5	9.2	12.5	15.1	12.9	16.7	65.7	65.6	66.3	66.1	59.8	56.3	56.0	54.4
Greece	58.6	60.0	62.7	63.3	64.5	70.2	71.8	73.4	8.7	9.2	11.3	9.1	16.2	13.8	11.6	8.8	53.5	54.4	55.6	57.5	54.1	60.5	63.5	66.9
Hungary	. .	. .	. .	60.6	. .	. .	. .	61.6	. .	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	57.0	. .	. .	. .	58.1
Iceland	. .	. .	88.8	. .	. .	. .	89.7	. .	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	87.1	. .	. .	. .	88.5	. .
Ireland	61.0	61.7	67.6	68.3	60.3	58.2	64.4	65.3	15.7	12.0	4.3	4.4	21.9	18.1	6.4	6.5	51.4	54.3	64.6	65.3	47.1	47.7	60.2	61.0
Italy	. .	57.3	. .	. .	. .	66.7	. .	. .	. .	11.9	. .	. .	. .	12.9	. .	. .	. .	50.4	. .	. .	. .	58.1	. .	. .
Luxembourg	58.5	57.2	62.6	61.0	69.9	65.9	66.7	70.9	2.0	2.5	1.6	2.4	2.9	3.6	3.4	5.2	57.3	55.7	61.6	59.6	67.9	63.5	64.4	67.2
Netherlands	68.6	70.1	75.8	77.1	53.5	53.1	58.1	62.2	5.8	6.5	2.6	3.4	19.7	23.6	7.2	9.5	64.6	65.5	73.8	74.5	43.0	40.6	53.9	56.3
Norway	. .	. .	80.8	79.2	. .	. .	75.5	71.9	. .	. .	3.4	4.1	. .	. .	. .	10.1	. .	. .	78.1	76.0	. .	. .	71.8	64.7
Portugal	68.1	67.5	71.1	72.7	60.7	49.9	74.7	79.6	5.4	7.3	3.9	6.4	10.6	. .	–	11.2	64.4	62.6	68.3	68.1	54.2	43.8	68.3	70.7
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	69.6	69.8	. .	. .	. .	82.4	. .	. .	19.1	17.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	56.3	57.8	. .	. .	. .	–
Spain	59.9	59.4	65.0	66.7	63.8	65.9	70.7	76.9	22.4	22.9	13.9	11.0	15.8	22.8	15.5	14.8	46.5	45.8	56.0	59.4	53.7	50.8	59.8	65.5
Sweden	. .	81.0	76.2	78.5	. .	64.7	61.7	67.4	. .	7.7	5.1	5.3	. .	19.7	14.6	13.2	. .	74.7	72.3	74.4	. .	52.0	52.7	58.5
Switzerland	. .	. .	81.1	81.6	. .	. .	78.3	79.7	. .	. .	1.9	2.9	. .	. .	5.6	8.8	. .	. .	79.6	79.2	. .	. .	74.0	72.7
United Kingdom	75.6	75.1	76.1	75.9	66.1	65.0	65.4	67.1	10.2	8.6	5.4	4.7	15.7	14.4	10.0	7.9	67.8	68.7	71.9	72.3	55.7	55.6	58.9	61.8

Note: The sign ". ." means not available and "–" means non-significant at B threshold.

Source: European Community Labour Force Survey, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (2002 Population register).

Annex Table I.A1.2. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003**

Annex Table I.A1.2

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Men																								
Austria	. .	80.4	79.6	78.8	. .	84.0	83.3	83.8	. .	3.6	4.3	4.4	. .	6.6	8.7	9.7	. .	77.5	76.2	75.3	. .	78.5	76.1	75.6
Belgium	71.5	72.4	73.9	72.9	70.7	70.9	72.9	70.0	5.3	6.3	4.2	6.0	13.4	16.9	14.7	18.3	67.7	67.8	70.8	68.5	61.3	58.9	62.2	57.2
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	77.9	. .	. .	. .	74.7	. .	. .	. .	5.8	. .	. .	. .	9.0	. .	. .	. .	73.4	. .	. .	. .	68.0
Denmark	. .	84.2	83.8	82.5	. .	64.4	65.2	63.8	. .	6.4	3.4	3.8	. .	20.5	9.5	8.8	. .	78.9	80.9	79.4	. .	51.2	59.0	58.2
Finland	. .	75.1	79.4	79.0	. .	. .	78.9	80.6	. .	17.7	10.3	10.9	. .	. .	–	18.4	. .	61.8	71.2	70.4	. .	. .	50.4	65.8
France	75.4	75.0	75.6	75.3	79.3	78.8	78.0	75.8	8.9	9.1	7.7	7.3	15.0	16.6	14.5	15.4	68.6	68.2	69.8	69.8	67.4	65.7	66.7	64.4
Germany	. .	. .	79.3	79.3	. .	. .	76.2	77.1	. .	. .	6.9	9.3	. .	. .	12.9	16.9	. .	. .	73.8	71.3	. .	. .	66.3	64.1
Greece	76.1	77.0	76.6	76.1	78.8	81.9	86.3	89.8	5.6	6.1	7.4	5.8	13.2	14.0	9.5	6.5	71.8	72.3	70.9	71.7	68.4	70.4	78.1	84.0
Hungary	. .	. .	67.5	67.6	. .	. .	71.8	76.5	. .	. .	7.3	6.2	. .	. .	–	. .	. .	. .	62.6	63.4	. .	. .	69.4	74.8
Iceland	. .	. .	91.6	. .	. .	. .	90.3	. .	. .	. .	1.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	90.4	. .	. .	. .	90.3	. .
Ireland	76.3	76.0	79.1	78.5	74.5	76.7	79.2	77.7	15.6	12.0	4.4	4.8	20.4	16.8	–	6.6	64.4	66.9	75.6	74.7	59.3	63.9	74.9	72.6
Italy	74.0	72.4	73.6	74.5	78.6	84.8	88.2	89.8	7.8	9.3	8.4	7.0	6.9	–	6.5	3.8	68.2	65.6	67.4	69.2	73.2	78.9	82.4	86.4
Luxembourg	73.8	72.2	74.2	70.9	86.5	83.0	80.2	82.6	–	–	–	2.3	–	–	–	3.9	72.5	70.7	73.2	69.3	84.8	81.3	78.1	79.4
Netherlands	80.5	81.0	85.5	85.5	68.4	69.9	74.0	75.3	4.3	4.9	1.8	2.8	17.3	19.5	5.4	9.1	77.1	77.0	84.0	83.1	56.6	56.2	69.9	68.4
Norway	. .	. .	85.2	82.3	. .	. .	80.0	82.2	. .	. .	3.4	4.0	. .	. .	6.8	11.1	. .	. .	82.3	79.0	. .	. .	74.6	73.1
Portugal	78.6	76.5	78.0	79.0	70.9	73.0	83.7	85.5	4.7	6.6	3.1	5.3	. .	–	3.9	7.9	74.9	71.5	75.5	74.8	66.8	65.4	80.5	78.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	76.5	. .	. .	. .	82.3	. .	. .	. .	17.0	. .	. .	. .	–	. .	. .	. .	63.5	. .	. .	. .	63.0
Spain	76.8	74.2	78.3	79.0	77.0	78.9	85.9	87.8	18.5	18.0	9.5	7.9	20.0	24.4	12.4	10.4	62.6	60.8	70.8	72.8	61.6	59.7	75.2	78.7
Sweden	. .	82.7	79.9	80.7		73.3	69.9	74.4	. .	7.9	5.1	5.2	. .	24.8	12.3	12.7	. .	76.2	75.9	76.5	. .	55.1	61.3	64.6
Switzerland	. .	. .	. .	88.5	. .	. .	. .	87.8	. .	. .	. .	2.8	. .	. .	. .	7.2	. .	. .	. .	86.1	. .	. .	. .	81.6
United Kingdom	84.5	83.7	83.5	82.8	80.9	78.5	78.7	78.5	12.2	9.9	5.9	5.2	16.7	14.2	9.6	8.1	74.2	75.4	78.6	78.5	67.4	67.4	71.1	72.2
Australia	84.8	85.3	84.3	83.7	80.2	80.1	77.8	79.3	11.0	8.4	6.6	6.0	13.3	10.6	6.5	6.5	75.4	78.2	78.7	78.7	69.5	71.6	72.7	74.1
Canada[1]	84.4	83.7	83.2	84.3	82.5	85.3	83.6	83.3	9.5	7.9	5.4	6.2	9.2	9.8	5.7	7.3	76.4	77.1	78.7	79.1	74.9	77.0	78.9	77.2
United States	. .	81.6	80.8	79.0	. .	83.8	85.9	85.4	. .	6.2	4.5	7.0	. .	7.9	4.5	7.2	. .	76.5	77.2	73.5	. .	77.2	82.0	79.2

Annex Table I.A1.2. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Women																								
Austria	. .	62.3	62.5	63.8	. .	62.0	62.8	64.8	. .	4.6	4.2	4.0	. .	7.3	7.2	6.6	. .	59.4	59.9	61.3	. .	57.5	58.3	60.5
Belgium	51.5	52.9	58.1	57.4	40.2	41.8	45.2	45.5	10.0	11.2	7.4	6.9	20.9	23.8	17.5	17.3	46.3	46.9	53.8	53.5	31.8	31.9	37.3	37.7
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	62.7	. .	. .	. .	59.8	. .	. .	. .	9.6	. .	. .	. .	15.7	. .	. .	. .	56.7	. .	. .	. .	50.4
Denmark	. .	75.9	77.3	76.6	. .	52.4	53.4	53.0	. .	8.4	4.3	4.2	. .	20.7	9.6	8.7	. .	69.5	73.9	73.4	. .	41.5	48.3	48.4
Finland	. .	69.6	74.2	74.8	. .	. .	–	65.5	. .	16.1	12.0	9.7	. .	. .	. .	20.0	. .	58.4	65.3	67.5	. .	–	–	52.5
France	61.1	62.0	63.8	64.4	53.4	54.4	56.8	57.3	12.9	13.6	11.3	9.2	18.6	19.0	19.7	16.4	53.2	53.6	56.6	58.5	43.5	44.1	45.6	48.0
Germany	. .	. .	64.8	66.7	. .	. .	53.0	55.4	. .	. .	8.0	8.8	. .	. .	12.1	14.0	. .	. .	59.6	60.2	. .	. .	46.6	43.4
Greece	42.0	43.8	49.2	50.6	49.7	53.7	56.9	57.3	13.5	13.7	16.6	13.7	23.0	20.8	21.1	15.7	36.4	37.8	41.1	43.7	38.3	42.5	44.9	48.3
Hungary	. .	. .	52.5	53.7	. .	. .	52.3	56.1	. .	. .	5.8	5.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.4	50.8	. .	. .	49.8	53.7
Iceland	. .	. .	86.0	. .	. .	. .	85.1	. .	. .	. .	2.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	83.8	. .	. .	. .	83.7	. .
Ireland	45.2	46.9	55.5	57.8	48.4	49.5	58.8	57.3	15.6	11.9	4.2	3.8	21.4	15.4	–	6.0	38.2	41.3	53.1	55.6	38.0	41.9	55.2	53.9
Italy	41.9	42.5	46.2	48.6	46.3	49.1	51.4	55.0	14.9	16.3	14.9	12.0	15.7	23.5	21.2	10.5	35.7	35.6	39.3	42.7	39.0	37.5	40.5	49.2
Luxembourg	42.2	40.3	48.0	50.4	53.9	51.7	57.2	60.8	–	–	–	3.6	–	–	–	5.9	41.2	38.8	46.5	48.6	51.5	48.8	55.3	57.2
Netherlands	57.2	59.5	67.6	70.3	44.9	47.8	52.8	56.5	7.2	7.7	3.0	3.2	14.4	19.8	7.6	8.6	53.1	54.9	65.6	68.0	38.4	38.4	48.8	51.6
Norway	. .	. .	77.1	76.3	. .	. .	67.1	66.0	. .	. .	3.2	3.8	. .	. .	. .	–	. .	. .	74.6	73.4	. .	. .	63.5	61.8
Portugal	58.8	59.1	63.3	66.0	57.9	58.0	66.5	74.8	6.2	7.8	4.9	7.4	–	–	5.4	10.4	55.1	54.5	60.3	61.1	50.1	49.9	62.9	67.1
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	63.3	. .	. .	. .	61.9	. .	. .	. .	17.2	. .	. .	. .	–	. .	. .	. .	52.3	. .	. .	. .	48.6
Spain	43.2	44.8	51.6	54.0	51.3	51.5	57.9	64.2	29.0	30.5	20.5	15.8	26.4	30.5	20.7	17.2	30.6	31.1	41.0	45.5	37.8	35.8	45.9	53.2
Sweden	. .	79.5	76.6	77.7	. .	64.0	63.4	66.4	. .	6.6	4.2	4.4	. .	18.5	10.8	9.5	. .	74.2	73.4	74.4	. .	52.2	56.6	60.1
Switzerland	. .	. .	. .	75.5	. .	. .	. .	69.5	. .	. .	. .	3.0	. .	. .	. .	9.1	. .	. .	. .	73.3	. .	. .	. .	63.2
United Kingdom	66.8	66.8	68.9	69.3	58.0	57.7	57.5	58.3	7.5	6.7	4.6	3.9	11.3	10.9	7.8	6.3	61.8	62.3	65.7	66.6	51.5	51.4	53.0	54.6
Australia	63.8	66.7	68.1	70.0	56.1	57.1	58.2	59.7	9.5	7.7	5.8	6.1	12.1	9.6	7.0	6.5	66.6	69.8	71.4	72.3	59.6	61.8	63.5	64.9
Canada[1]	70.1	70.8	72.3	74.4	67.4	65.7	71.6	66.5	8.9	9.0	5.8	5.8	8.5	11.6	8.1	8.8	63.8	64.4	68.0	70.1	61.7	58.1	65.8	60.7
United States	. .	69.5	71.4	69.9	. .	58.4	61.1	61.7	. .	5.3	4.2	5.7	. .	8.2	5.5	8.0	. .	65.8	68.4	65.9	. .	53.6	57.7	56.8

Annex Table I.A1.2. **Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1993, 1995, 2000 and 2003** *(cont.)*

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003	1993	1995	2000	2003
Together																								
Austria	. .	71.4	71.1	71.3	. .	72.8	72.7	73.9	. .	4.1	4.3	4.2	. .	6.9	8.0	8.3	. .	68.5	68.0	68.3	. .	67.8	66.8	67.7
Belgium	61.5	62.7	66.0	65.3	55.9	56.3	59.0	57.3	7.3	8.4	5.6	6.4	16.0	19.5	15.8	17.8	57.0	57.5	62.4	61.1	47.0	45.3	49.7	47.1
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	70.3	. .	. .	. .	66.9	. .	. .	. .	7.5	. .	. .	. .	12.1	. .	. .	. .	65.0	. .	. .	. .	58.8
Denmark	. .	80.1	80.6	79.6	. .	58.5	59.3	58.3	. .	7.3	3.9	4.0	. .	20.6	9.5	8.7	. .	74.2	77.5	76.5	. .	46.4	53.6	53.3
Finland	. .	72.4	76.8	76.9	. .	. .	65.8	72.5	. .	17.0	11.1	10.3	. .	. .	–	19.2	. .	60.1	68.3	69.0	. .	. .	45.1	58.6
France	68.1	68.4	69.6	69.8	66.5	66.7	67.4	66.4	10.8	11.2	9.4	8.2	16.4	17.6	16.7	15.8	60.8	60.7	63.1	64.1	55.6	55.0	56.2	55.9
Germany[2]	. .	. .	72.1	73.0	. .	. .	64.8	66.3	. .	. .	7.4	9.1	. .	. .	12.6	15.7	. .	. .	66.7	66.4	. .	. .	56.7	55.9
Greece	58.6	59.9	62.6	63.1	62.6	66.0	70.3	73.1	8.5	9.0	11.1	9.0	17.5	17.1	14.6	10.2	53.6	54.5	55.6	57.4	51.7	54.7	60.0	65.7
Hungary	. .	. .	59.9	60.5	. .	. .	61.0	64.6	. .	. .	6.6	5.9	. .	. .	–	–	. .	. .	55.9	57.0	. .	. .	58.5	62.4
Iceland	. .	. .	88.9	. .	. .	. .	87.5	. .	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	87.2	. .	. .	. .	86.8	. .
Ireland	60.9	61.6	67.3	68.2	61.1	62.6	68.9	67.5	15.6	12.0	4.3	4.4	20.8	16.2	5.7	6.3	51.4	54.2	64.4	65.2	48.4	52.4	64.9	63.2
Italy	57.8	57.3	59.8	61.5	62.6	66.7	69.3	72.5	10.4	11.9	10.9	9.0	10.1	13.1	12.1	6.3	51.7	50.4	53.3	56.0	56.3	58.0	60.9	68.0
Luxembourg	58.1	56.4	61.6	60.8	70.7	67.7	68.4	71.8	2.0	2.6	2.0	2.9	2.9	3.4	2.9	4.8	57.0	54.9	60.4	59.0	68.7	65.4	66.4	68.4
Netherland	69.0	70.4	76.7	78.0	56.9	59.0	63.4	65.8	5.5	6.0	2.3	2.9	16.2	19.6	6.3	8.9	65.2	66.1	74.9	75.7	47.7	47.4	59.4	59.9
Norway	. .	. .	81.2	79.3	. .	. .	73.5	74.1	. .	. .	3.3	3.9	. .	. .	6.1	9.0	. .	. .	78.5	76.2	. .	. .	69.0	67.5
Portugal	68.3	67.5	70.4	72.4	64.2	65.2	75.8	79.9	5.4	7.2	3.9	6.3	9.4	12.1	4.5	9.1	64.6	62.7	67.6	67.9	58.2	57.3	72.4	72.7
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	69.8	. .	. .	. .	70.2	. .	. .	. .	17.1	. .	. .	. .	22.4	. .	. .	. .	57.9	. .	. .	. .	54.5
Spain	59.9	59.4	64.9	66.6	63.7	64.2	71.4	75.7	22.3	22.8	13.9	11.0	22.7	27.0	15.9	13.3	46.5	45.8	55.9	59.2	49.3	46.8	60.0	65.6
Sweden	. .	81.1	78.3	79.3	. .	68.3	66.6	70.7	. .	7.3	4.7	4.8	. .	21.7	11.6	11.1	. .	75.2	74.6	75.5	. .	53.5	58.9	62.3
Switzerland	. .	. .	. .	82.1	. .	. .	. .	78.5	. .	. .	. .	2.9	. .	. .	. .	8.0	. .	. .	. .	79.7				72.2
United Kingdom	75.7	75.3	76.3	76.2	69.0	67.7	67.7	68.1	10.1	8.5	5.3	4.6	14.4	12.8	8.8	7.3	68.0	68.9	72.2	72.7	59.1	59.0	61.8	63.1
Australia	74.3	76.0	76.2	76.9	68.4	68.8	68.1	69.4	10.4	8.1	6.2	6.0	12.9	10.2	6.7	6.5	66.6	69.8	71.4	72.3	59.6	61.8	63.5	64.9
Canada[1]	77.2	77.3	77.7	79.3	74.9	75.3	77.5	74.4	9.2	8.4	5.6	6.0	8.9	10.6	6.8	8.0	70.1	70.8	73.4	74.6	68.2	67.3	72.3	68.5
United States	. .	75.4	76.0	74.3	. .	71.1	73.6	73.7	. .	5.8	4.4	6.4	. .	8.0	4.9	7.5	. .	71.1	72.7	69.6	. .	65.4	70.0	68.2

Note: The sign ". ." means not available and "–" means non-significative at B threshold.

1. Data for Canada refer to 2002.
2. The place of birth of 6.4% of the population was unknown.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population register 2002); United States: *Current Population Survey*; Australia and Canada: Labour Force Survey.

C. An overview of migration policies

In 2003 and early 2004, OECD member countries confirmed their determination to tighten controls over immigration flows (1). At the same time, migration for employment – especially in the case of highly skilled workers – remained one of their core concerns (2). In addition, many countries adopted new measures to enhance immigrants' integration into society. The underlying view was that better control over immigration flows would improve the living standards and security of legal immigrants (3).

1. Determination to tighten controls over immigration flows in an uncertain international context

A number of OECD member countries are recording increases in migration flows. A part of those flows continues to be shaped by the consequences of population ageing, persistent labour shortages and the extent of family reunification. But there has been a slight decline in the number of asylum seekers. Policies for managing migration flows show a trend towards stricter legislation governing the entry and stay of foreigners, a determination to accelerate procedures for processing asylum applications and a concern with bolstering international co-operation to combat illegal immigration.

a) Toughening policies to control immigration flows

In a number of OECD countries, there has been a toughening of legislation on the entry and stay of foreigners. Measures have been adopted to tighten controls on movements of persons who might pose a threat to national security. In addition, some European OECD countries are trying to scale back family reunification, which still accounts for the bulk of migration flows.

Security measures continue to be strengthened in America, and new provisions are being adopted in Europe. In the United States, for example, applicants for temporary immigration visas have been required to undergo individual interviews since August 2003. Moreover, since the attacks of 11 September 2001, border controls have been tightened continuously. Canada, for instance, has instituted a "Multiple Borders Strategy" for sharing information with the United States, *inter alia* with regard to the identity of passengers on flights to Canada and to the co-ordination of visa-issuing policies. In Europe, the Madrid bombings of 11 March 2004 accelerated the reaching of a consensus on security. In Germany, for example, a new immigration law adopted on 9 July 2004 eases the conditions for expelling persons suspected of terrorism or deemed dangerous for national security. If deportation is not an option (*e.g.* because of a risk of torture or capital punishment in the country of origin), such persons will be subject to tighter controls, including an obligation to check in regularly with the authorities, restrictions on their freedom of movement and, in some cases, a ban on telephone contacts. In addition, before a foreigner can obtain a permanent residence permit, an investigation will be carried out by the internal security services (see Box below). The United Kingdom announced on 15 June 2004 that five airports would be equipped with iris-scanning devices for ascertaining passengers' identity. Frequent travellers will be able to have their iris scans stored and have access to fast-track airport security. More generally, the Netherlands adopted a measure (in June 2004) allowing the police to check the identity of any person over the age of 14 in public places. In advance of their accession to the European Union (EU) on 1 May 2004, several Central and Eastern European countries

Box I.6. **The new German immigration law**

Germany's new immigration law, which was adopted definitively on 9 July 2004, is the result of more than four years of negotiations between the federal government and the Christian Democratic opposition. It will enter into force on 1 January 2005. The main changes introduced by the law are as follows:

First, the five existing types of residence permits are replaced by two new ones – a temporary residence permit (*befristete Aufenthaltserlaubnis*) and a permanent one (*unbefristete Niederlassungserlaubnis*). The law is no longer structured according to types of permits but reasons for entry: education, employment, family reunification, or humanitarian grounds. Second, the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (*Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge*) replaces the Federal Office for the Recognition of Foreign Refugees. This new establishment will be in charge of organising integration courses for foreigners and repatriates (*Spätaussiedler*); keeping the central registry of foreigners; applying measures to promote voluntary returns; research; and co-ordination of information about migration for employment purposes between the Offices for Foreigners of the various *Länder*, the Federal Employment Agency and German embassies and consulates abroad.

In the realm of migration for employment, the law encourages settlement by highly skilled workers, who are eligible immediately for permanent residence permits. Family members who accompany them or subsequently join them will have access to the labour market. The law also encourages the entry of self-employed persons, who will be granted temporary residence permits if they invest a minimum of EUR 1 million and create at least ten jobs. Foreign students may remain in Germany for one year after the end of their studies to seek employment. The procedure for issuing work permits and residence permits – consisting in obtaining a work permit from the Labour Administration and a residence permit from the Office for Foreigners – is streamlined and unified: the Office for Foreigners will issue both permits concurrently in a single act, which is subject to subsequent approval by the Labour Administration.

The desire to facilitate the entry of foreign workers extends only to the highly skilled. The ban on recruiting unskilled or low-skilled foreigners – which has been in force since November 1973 – is maintained. A ban also remains in effect for skilled persons, but with one exception: a work permit may be issued to a skilled foreigner if justified by the public interest. Skilled nationals of the new member states of the European Union will have access to the labour market, but the priority principle applies – *i.e.* a national of those countries will not be employed unless no one holding German nationality or the nationality of an another EU15 country is available. Citizens of the European Union will no longer require residence permits and need only register. Lastly, the point system first envisaged in the government's initial proposal was abandoned.

New provisions govern immigration on humanitarian grounds. Refugee status may be granted in cases of non-governmental persecution or persecution related to a person's gender. The status of persons enjoying subsidiary protection is improved: such persons will get temporary residence permits, except for those having committed human rights violations or crimes, or who refuse to co-operate with the authorities. The status of persons with "minor asylum" status (kleines Asyl, Article 16a of the German constitution) and that of persons having a classic right of asylum (Geneva Convention) will be unified. They will receive a temporary residence permit that can become permanent after a period of three years. Before a permanent residence permit is issued, any changes in the situation of the country of origin will be assessed. Persons with "minor asylum" status will now have

Box I.6. **The new German immigration law** *(cont.)*

unrestricted access to the labour market, just like persons with refugee status. In the event a deportation decision is taken, a temporary residence permit must be issued if the obligation to leave the country cannot be fulfilled within 18 months. However, no residence permit may be granted if a foreigner does not conduct himself properly (*e.g.* if he attempts to conceal his identity). Review committees for special cases may be created in *Länder* that did not previously have them. At a committee's request, the authorities will be able to grant residence permits on exceptional grounds.

The rules on family reunification of spouses and children have not been changed. Reunification is possible up to age 18 for children of refugees or for minor children with asylum status. Children under 18 may also enter under family reunification if they have a sufficient command of the German language, or if their potential for integration has been assessed positively. In other cases, the age limit is 16, and the child's welfare and family situation are taken into account. The only change involves family members of repatriates, who must now provide proof of a minimal command of the German language before they are authorised to reside in Germany.

In the area of integration, new rights and obligations have been instituted for immigrants entering on a permanent basis. German language courses are to be organised as well as "integration courses" dealing with the country's laws, culture and history. Sanctions will be imposed for failure to attend these compulsory courses. In particular, absences will be a factor when applications for extensions of residence permits are reviewed. The same obligation will apply to migrants living in Germany for more than three years and who are dependent on welfare benefits or have special integration difficulties. Absences can result in reduction of unemployment benefits or social welfare payments. Space permitting, citizens of the European Union may attend these classes as well. The federal government will bear the cost of integration courses – estimated at EUR 264 million per year – whereas the Länder will finance socio-pedagogical assistance and aid for children.

The new immigration law also contains numerous security-related features, in particular at the request of the Christian Democratic opposition. It introduces a deportation order (*Abschiebungsanordnung*) that can be issued by the highest Land authorities or – in the event of a special federal interest – by the federal government, on the basis of a "threat assessment based on facts". A single avenue of appeal is provided before the Federal Administrative Court. If deportation is not an option (*e.g.* because of the possibility of torture or the imposition of the death penalty in the country of origin), such persons will become subject to greater control, and *inter alia* they will be required to report to the authorities regularly, their freedom of movement will be curtailed, and they will be forbidden to make certain contacts. Inward illegal trafficking in human beings will mean mandatory expulsion of persons sentenced to prison terms once such terms have been served. Foreigners will also be ordered to be deported if established facts show that they belong or, at one time had belonged, to an organisation that supports terrorism. It will be easier for leaders of banned organisations to be sent back to their home countries. Deportation of foreigners who incite violence or racial hatred may be decided on a discretionary basis. In addition, before a foreigner can obtain a permanent residence permit, the domestic security services will conduct an investigation. Persons applying for German citizenship will have to furnish information about any convictions in a foreign country.

enacted major legislative reforms in 2003 and 2004 to strengthen controls on security (checking the identity of migrants and enhancing border controls). Countries hoping to join the EU in the future, such as Romania and Bulgaria, as well as Turkey, have done likewise. The EU has continued to implement and fine-tune the Eurodac system, which is expected to be fully operational by 2006. This is a programme to organise the collection of data on visa applicants and persons seeking refugee status in any country in the Union. In addition, the European Union has adopted a directive on the obligation of carriers to report data on passengers entering an EU country. In January 2003, visa requirements were restored for Ecuadoreans wishing to enter the EU.

In 2002 and 2003, a number of European OECD member countries sought to limit entries by family members (family reunification or family formation). One of them was Ireland, where the authorities wanted to restrict the ability of foreign parents of children born in Ireland to apply for residence permits, and to encourage them to return to their home countries. In Italy, the "Bossi-Fini" Act, adopted on 11 July 2002, limits family reunification to spouses and children under 18 years of age. Family reunification is no longer possible for parents unless they have no other children outside Italy. In the Netherlands, the 2000 law on foreigners had already limited family migration, but the government recently formulated new proposals: the age requirement for reunification of spouses would be raised from 18 to 21, the income requirement increased from 100% to 120% of the minimum wage, and classes in the Dutch language and culture would be made compulsory. Denmark has set the age of entitlement to family reunification for spouses at 24 and also imposes resource requirements. As a result, the number of family members admitted to Denmark fell from 12 000 in 2001 to fewer than 4 800 in 2003. In France, since the new Immigration Act of 26 November 2003, the foreign spouse of a French citizen is no longer issued a residence permit automatically. A temporary permit will be issued; this can be converted to a residence permit after five years if the authorities judge that the level of integration is satisfactory. The cohabitation requirement for a spouse wishing to obtain a full residence permit has been raised from one year to two years. In addition, a new offence was created concerning organising or participating in a marriage of convenience. In Switzerland, on 7 May 2004 the federal parliament confirmed the right to family reunification but stipulated that the entitlement had to be exercised by the spouse and children under 14 within five years of the main applicant's arrival in Switzerland. For children aged 14 to 18, the entitlement had to be exercised within one year. One of the reasons for this is the desire to facilitate the integration of children into Swiss society. The foreign spouse of a Swiss national will have to wait five years for entitlement to permanent residence. In Germany, under the Act of 9 July 2004, family members of repatriates (*Spätaussiedler*) must now prove that they have a minimal command of the German language before they can be authorised to reside in Germany.

b) More efficient and more rapid processing of asylum seekers

In 2003 and 2004 the trend has been towards an acceleration of procedures for processing asylum applications. New limitations on appeal options have been introduced as well. Countries have sought to discourage bogus asylum claims, bolstered assisted-return mechanisms and increased sanctions for rejected asylum seekers who refuse to leave. Conditions for refugee status were changed in many OECD member countries to achieve greater harmonisation, in pursuit of two objectives. First, asylum schemes have been brought more closely in line with the Geneva Convention. Second, harmonisation

concerns have focused on the idea of simplifying procedures. All of these measures have prompted a decline in the total number of applications for asylum in OECD countries (with 110 000 fewer applications in 2003 than in 2002).

Within the Schengen area, two principles have simplified and expedited procedures: the "safe home country" principle (under which an application is deemed unjustified if the applicant comes from a country that the host country considers safe) and the "safe third country" principle (under which it is deemed that an asylum seeker entering a country via another country that is considered safe, ought to have applied for asylum in that other country and can be deported to it). It is expected that these simplified procedures will be extended to the new member states of the EU. In Switzerland, a referendum will be held to decide whether the country will adhere to the Schengen Convention. A European regulation adopted on 18 February 2003, sets forth criteria and mechanisms for determining which member state should be responsible for processing an application for asylum presented by a third country national. Other agreements to accelerate procedures are in progress, such as the Safe Third Country Agreement signed between the United States and Canada on 5 December 2002, the application of which has been momentarily deferred.

In the Netherlands, the Dutch Aliens Act, which entered into force in April 2001, sought to introduce a more effective and a more restrictive asylum policy. To reduce the length of procedures, a mechanism was instituted to require a ruling on the admissibility of an application for asylum within 48 hours. A decision must then be made within six months. The possibilities for contesting decisions by the immigration authorities are limited, but appeals may be lodged with the Council of State. France has assigned the *Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides* (OFPRA) the objective of cutting the time needed to investigate claims to two months. A fast-track case review within 15 days has been instituted for persons being held in custody, and for people from countries considered safe. The reform carried out by the Act of 10 December 2003 introduced the concepts of "internal asylum" (when a person can get protection in a certain portion of his home country) and "safe home country" as grounds for rejecting asylum applications. In Switzerland, revision of the asylum law, announced by the Federal Council on 4 September 2002, will empower the authorities to reject asylum applications of people from "safe" countries. Certain procedures will be accelerated, such as the appeals lodged at airports by rejected asylum seekers, to facilitate their deportation. As soon as an application is rejected in the first instance, the authorities may contact the home country to organise the return. In Luxembourg, a bill was introduced on 21 April 2004 which provides, *inter alia*, for institution of a fast-track procedure for applicants from "safe third countries", repeal of certain appellate procedures, reduction of administrative and judicial deadlines and mechanisms to compel asylum seekers to participate in the procedure more actively.

Various types of measures have been taken to prevent potential asylum seekers from gaining access to the borders of several OECD member countries. Other measures concern mandatory return and even expulsion of rejected asylum seekers. Voluntary returns are also greatly encouraged. Norway, for example, has conducted numerous information campaigns to discourage unfounded applications. In the Netherlands, an active return policy was instituted by the 2001 law, which invites rejected applicants to take on the responsibility for leaving the country within four weeks. The idea is that the applicant, having succeeded in entering the country, should also be responsible for leaving it. In some cases, this return can be forced. In the autumn of 2003, the government also proposed

creating processing centres in countries of origin in order to limit the influx of asylum seekers and offer them better protection in their own countries. It is also considering the imposition of stiffer penalties on rejected asylum seekers and requesting that the authorities deny housing to such persons. As in Norway, asylum seekers whose applications are rejected may be excluded from processing centres much more quickly than in the past. The Netherlands also announced in June 2004, that rejected asylum seekers who had entered the country prior to 1 April 2001 would receive more substantial financial assistance (€2 320) in addition to a ticket home and, in some cases, moving expenses if they agreed to leave the country voluntarily.

Conditions for the granting of refugee status have been changed in many countries to achieve greater harmonisation, the primary goal of which is to align asylum schemes with the requirements of international law, and with the Geneva Convention in particular. This reflects a desire to extend opportunities for refugee status to victims of new types of persecution. On the other hand, conditions for obtaining this status are being interpreted in a restrictive manner. A second aim of harmonisation is to simplify procedures.

In Germany, the right of asylum – previously reserved for victims of state-inflicted persecution – was extended by the new Immigration Act of 9 July 2004 to other categories of victims, including victims of civil war or of gender-related persecution. The status of persons afforded subsidiary protection has been improved, since they will now receive temporary residence permits. The rules for persons with "minor asylum" are to be aligned with those for persons having a classic right of asylum (under the Geneva Convention). They will receive temporary residence permits which can become permanent after three years. In Switzerland, an authorisation to remain in the country on humanitarian grounds is to be created by the new law on asylum, although this law itself still has to be discussed by the Council of State. Refugee status can also be granted to victims of non-state persecution. In addition, a single federal office will deal with all aspects of migration and asylum in 2005. France is also unifying its asylum procedures: the Act of 10 December 2003 made OFPRA a "one-stop shop" for processing all asylum applications, as of 1 January 2004. The *Commission de recours des réfugiés* (CRR) is now the sole avenue of appeal for asylum seekers whose applications have been denied by OFPRA. Territorial asylum has been replaced by subsidiary protection – an internationally recognised protection scheme. In the Netherlands, a single status has been instituted: with effect from 1 April 2001; all applicants who are granted asylum receive a temporary three-year residence permit, and all refugees have the same rights and responsibilities arising from this single status.

Countries wishing to join the European Union (such as Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey and Croatia) are trying to bring their conditions for refugee status more closely in line with those of EU countries. A common asylum policy is emerging in Europe. A draft directive on minimum procedural standards for granting and revoking refugee status in the member states is under discussion. In addition, a political agreement on the European Refugee Fund for 2005-2010 (ERF II) was concluded in June 2004. This will replace the current Fund (ERF I), which covered 2000-2004. The funds are to be distributed amongst the member States in proportion to the costs incurred to take in asylum seekers and refugees. The Fund also co-finances certain actions for the economic integration of refugees and underwrites emergency protection measures in the event of a massive influx of refugees.

c) Greater international co-ordination for better control of irregular immigration flows

Irregular immigration flows are inherently difficult to quantify and control (see Box: How many undocumented migrants are there?). An irregular status can result from illegal immigration or from failure to leave a country after an asylum application is rejected or a visa or residence permit has expired. A variety of measures were taken in 2003 and 2004 to bolster controls and prosecution of irregular migration and to step up expulsions of migrants caught without proper authorisation. New legalisation programmes were also carried out. Prosecutions for unlawfully employing foreigners were stepped up in a number of countries, as was international co-operation in the fight against irregular migration movements.

Several OECD member countries are determined to deal more harshly with migrants who violate immigration laws. The Japanese Government, for example, has taken new steps to limit illegal entry and residence, such as increasing the number of expulsions, intensifying police controls in areas inhabited by foreigners and expanding co-operation between ministerial departments. Border controls continue to be stepped up in a number of countries (such as in Germany and Italy, and between Canada and the United States with implementation of the Smart Border Action Plan). In Spain, the "integrated external vigilance system" (SIVE) – a radar system for detecting embarkations of illegal aliens – will be extended to the entire coastline of Andalusia and to the Canary Islands. The Spanish Government has also announced its intention to stiffen criminal penalties for trafficking in human beings. The new German immigration law (see Box I.6) imposes mandatory expulsion of persons receiving (non-suspended) prison sentences for illegal trafficking in human beings brought into Germany. In France, the Act of 26 November 2003 introduces new measures to counter illegal immigration (creation of a database of fingerprints of non-EU visa applicants, control of "proof of accommodation" forms for foreigners, stiffer penalties for people smugglers, and an extension of the time limit on administrative detention from 12 to 32 days).

Penalties for undocumented migrants have been made harsher, and the number of deportations is on the rise. In 2003 in France, for example, expulsions of undocumented Romanians – essentially Romas – were up by two thirds as compared with 2002 (some 2 100 Romanian nationals were deported back to their home country, *versus* 1 254 in 2002). This wave of deportations has been accompanied by the confiscation of the offenders' passports, for periods ranging from six months to five years, by the Romanian authorities, who now impose this penalty on their nationals found to be residing abroad without authorisation. In addition, several prostitution rings were dismantled, and there has been an increase in expulsions of Romanian prostitutes. In the Netherlands, the government decided to expel 26 000 rejected asylum seekers over a three-year period. In Italy, in 2003, more than 80 000 undocumented aliens were apprehended, and 24 000 were deported in the first five months of 2004. The Spanish Government has taken steps to increase deportations of undocumented aliens and increased the 2003 budget for that purpose (to €8 million, or almost triple the amount in 2002). The number of expulsions in Portugal doubled in 2002, even if it remained relatively low (at approximately 500).

Numerous legalisation programmes for undocumented immigrants have been carried out in recent years in several OECD member countries (see Table I.19). But it is not always known what becomes of the beneficiaries: in Portugal, only half of the persons legalised in 2001 renewed their permits in 2002, and it is difficult to ascertain whether the others remained in Portugal illegally or left the country. Under the new programme introduced

Box I.7. **How many undocumented migrants are there?**

By definition, undocumented migrants fall though the cracks of statistical recording systems. Even so, a number of countries have developed methods of estimation that, while not perfect, do shed some light on the scope of the phenomenon. The following examples illustrate the most significant of these methods, along with some of the figures available on the volume of undocumented migrants.[1]

There is more than one type of undocumented migrant: those who manage to enter illegally, and those who enter legally but overstay their temporary residence authorisation or refuse to comply with an obligation to leave, such as the one imposed on rejected asylum seekers. All of these cases must theoretically be taken into account when estimating the numbers involved.

In the 1980s, the United States produced some estimates on the basis of a combination of statistical elements: persons ineligible for legalisation under IRCA; 1980 census data; estimates of the number of "non-immigrants"[2] still present after their visas expire; and estimates of departures and deaths. As this method could no longer be used in the 1990s, a residual technique has been developed since. It consists in deducing stocks of illegal migrants on the basis of census results (supposed to include most foreign residents in an irregular situation) and on the basis of the estimate of the legal immigrant population. With the residual estimate thus obtained – 7 million persons present without authorisation in January 2000, or 22% of the aggregate foreign-born population – the previous estimates were revised very significantly.

In Spain, comparison of figures from municipal registers (which cover the entire population irrespective of their legal status) and from the residence permit system gives some idea of the numbers of people involved. As of 1 January 2003, the difference appeared to show some 1 175 000 more foreigners listed in the registries than hold residence permits (representing more than 2.8% of the total population), despite two legalisation programmes in 2000 and 2001. This estimate of the undocumented population may be too high because of the registers' shortcomings in recording actual departures.[3]

Legalisation programmes are a very fruitful source of information. In Portugal, the legalisation of 180 000 persons in 2001 raised the proportion of foreigners in the total population to 4% (compared to 2.3% excluding those persons). In Spain, over 400 000 persons were legalised in the last two such programmes (in 2000 and 2001), accounting for 30% of the foreigners holding residence permits at year-end 2002. However, the total number of approved applications from the two programmes overestimates the number of illegal immigrants due to double-counting: because the processing procedures were so cumbersome in relation to the precarious status being offered to migrants, a substantial percentage of them slipped back into illegality but then submitted new applications the following year. This situation holds true for Greece as well. In Italy, nearly 650 000 persons, or more than 40% of the foreign population at year-end 2002, had been legalised at the beginning of that year.

The Netherlands has made estimates using a method borrowed from ecology (known as "capture-recapture"). Here, the number of illegal immigrants escaping control is deduced from the number of persons identified during a first apprehension period, those counted during a second period, and those counted both times. The combination of these four figures yields an estimation of the irregular foreign population (between 112 000 and 163 000 in 2001).

In the cases of Australia, New Zealand and Japan, geographic insularity makes it possible to use special methods whereby entry and exit records are cross-checked to estimate the number of persons who enter legally but overstay their temporary residence permits. Illegal entries are therefore not counted, but the proportion of such entries is assumed to be relatively small in

Box I.7. **How many undocumented migrants are there?** *(cont.)*

these countries. In Japan and Korea, workers who have overstayed are believed to account for respectively 30% and 70% of the foreign labour force. In Australia and New Zealand, the proportion of overstayers was estimated at respectively 2.5% and 5% of the aggregate active immigrant population in 2003.

The residual method used by the United States demands highly detailed information on holders of residence permits. Moreover, it is feasible only in countries in which undocumented immigrants have replied to the population census. The disadvantage of statistics from legalisation programmes is that they cover eligible persons only. It is assumed that the others, who clearly fail to meet eligibility requirements (which in most cases involve minimum length of stay or employment qualifications) choose to remain in illegality. The capture-recapture method offers the advantage of being applicable in a great many countries. Notwithstanding its utility, a large number of illegal immigrants effectively manage to avoid police controls, which skews the estimates made from it substantially. Lastly, statistics on overstayers are not relevant in countries in which a significant proportion of undocumented immigrants have entered illegally, and above all they are not relevant in countries – and they are many – where measuring exits is problematical.

1. For a more comprehensive look at estimation methods and a broader perspective on the economic significance of illegal migration, see the special chapter of the 1999 edition of *Trends in International Migration*: "Illegal immigration: economic and political issues" available online from the OECD website at: *www.oecd.org/migration*.
2. Temporary residents admitted legally for a specific purpose.
3. See the box on measuring net migration.

in Greece in 2004, undocumented immigrants had until 30 June 2004 to apply for residence permits. But because of the slow pace of administrative procedures and the fact that thousands of undocumented workers were unable to meet the deadline, the programme was extended until 14 July 2004, for persons who had applied for a work permit prior to 30 June.

With effect from 20 October 2003, Portugal decided to conduct an amnesty for Brazilian illegal aliens. About 31 000 Brazilians filed legalisation applications, but fewer than a third of them actually received residence permits. The amnesty was the result of a bilateral agreement, based on reciprocity, that was signed on 11 February 2003 between Brazil and Portugal. Portuguese living in Brazil without authorisation were also entitled to legalisation. A new legalisation programme, began on 3 May 2004 and ended on 11 June 2004. It attracted 50 000 applications and enabled certain categories of illegal aliens in Portugal to apply for residence permits. To be eligible, migrants had to have been residing in Portugal since 12 March 2003 and prove that they had worked and paid taxes and social security contributions for a period of at least 90 days. Children born in Portugal to illegal aliens before 12 March 2003 would be given residence permits, and their parents could then remain in Portugal.

In Spain, in 2002, the government had abolished the opportunity for undocumented workers to legalise their situation by closing down the general scheme (which governed immigration applications from non-EU foreigners). However, it was re-opened partially in 2003, enabling certain immigrants living in Spain to legalise their situations. In August 2004, the new Spanish Government announced that a legalisation programme for undocumented aliens in possession of work contracts would soon be put in place. The

Table I.19. **Main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in selected OECD countries, by nationality**

Thousands

Belgium		**France**				**Greece**			
(2000)[1]		(1981-1982)[2]		(1997-1998)		(1997-1998)[3]		(2001)[4]	
Dem. Rep. of Congo	8.8	Tunisia	17.3	Algeria	12.5	Albania	239.9		
Morocco	6.2	Morocco	16.7	Morocco	9.2	Bulgaria	24.9		
		African countries	15.0	China	7.6	Romania	16.7		
		Portugal	12.7	Dem. Rep. of Congo	6.3	Pakistan	10.8		
		Algeria	11.7	Tunisia	4.1	Ukraine	9.8		
		Turkey	8.6			Poland	8.6		
Other	36.9	Other	39.1	Other	38.1	Other	60.3		
Total	**52.0**	**Total**	**121.1**	**Total**	**77.8**	**Total**	**371.0**	**Total**	**351.0**

Italy									
(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996)[5]		(1998)[5]		(2002)[6]	
Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	34.3	Albania	39.0	Romania	132.8
Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	29.7	Romania	24.1	Ukraine	100.1
Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	21.4	Morocco	23.9	Albania	47.1
Tunisia	10.0	Former Yugoslavia	11.3	China	14.4	China	16.8	Morocco	46.9
Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	12.8	Senegal	10.7	Ecuador	34.0
Former Yugoslavia	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	11.1	Egypt	9.5	China	32.8
Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	120.8	Other	93.2	Other	241.0
Total	**118.7**	**Total**	**217.7**	**Total**	**244.5**	**Total**	**217.1**	**Total**	**634.7**

Portugal					
(1992-1993)		(1996)		(2001)[7]	
Angola	12.5	Angola	6.9	Ukraine	63.5
Guinea-Bissau	6.9	Cape Verde	5.0	Brazil	36.6
Cape Verde	6.8	Guinea-Bissau	4.0	Moldova	12.3
Brazil	5.3	Sao Tome and Principe	1.2	Romania	10.7
Sao Tome and Principe	1.4	Brazil	2.0	Cape Verde	8.3
Senegal	1.4			Angola	8.1
Other	4.8	Other	3.7	Other	39.8
Total	**39.2**	**Total**	**21.8**	**Total**	**179.2**

Spain									
(1985-1986)[8]		(1991)		(1996)		(2000)[9]		(2001)[10]	
Morocco	7.9	Morocco	49.2	Morocco	7.0	Morocco	45.2	Ecuador	52.3
Portugal	3.8	Argentina	7.5	Peru	1.9	Ecuador	20.2	Colombia	40.8
Senegal	3.6	Peru	5.7	China	1.4	Colombia	12.5	Morocco	31.7
Argentina	2.9	Dominican Rep.	5.5	Argentina	1.3	China	8.8	Romania	20.4
United Kingdom	2.6	China	4.2	Poland	1.1	Pakistan	7.3		
Philippines	1.9	Poland	3.3	Dominican Rep.	0.8	Romania	6.9		
Other	21.1	Other	34.7	Other	7.8	Other	63.1	Other	89.4
Total	**43.8**	**Total**	**110.1**	**Total**	**21.3**	**Total**	**163.9**	**Total**	**234.6**

Table I.19. **Main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in selected OECD countries, by nationality** *(cont.)*

Thousands

Switzerland		United States					
(2000)[11]		(1986)[12]		(1997-1998)[13]		(2000)[14]	
Sri Lanka	8.9	Mexico	2 008.6	El Salvador/Guatemala	300.0		
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.9	El Salvador	152.3	Haiti	50.0		
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.6	Caribbean	110.5	Nicaragua	40.0		
Turkey	0.3	Guatemala	64.0	Eastern Europe	10.0		
		Colombia	30.3	Cuba	5.0		
		Philippines	25.7				
Other	0.5	Other	293.5				
Total	**15.2**	**Total**	**2 684.9**	**Total**	**405.0**	**Total**	**400.0**

1. A regularisation programme started in January 2000. Asylum seekers who were residing in Belgium in October 1999 and who fill certain conditions could apply. Figures indicate the number of persons who applied (including dependents). A total of 35 000 dossiers have been received.
2. Excluding seasonal workers (6 681 persons) and around 1 200 small traders not broken down by nationality.
3. Persons who were granted a white card (first stage of the regularisation). Data by nationality are preliminary.
4. Number of applications of work and residence permits according to the October 2001 law. A new programme has been launched in 2004.
5. Number of permits granted based on estimates done by M. Carfagna, "I sommersi e i sanati. Le regolarizzazioni degli immigrati in Italia" in Stranieri in Italia: Assimilati ed esclusi, A. Colombo and G. Sciortino (eds), Mulino, Bologna, 2002.
6. Data refer to the number of permits issued at the beginning of 2004.
7. The new foreigners act (January 2001) allowed the regularisation of undocumented non-EU citizens in possession of registered work contracts. The figures indicate the number of one-year residence permits delivered between January 2001 and March 2003. In 2003, around 10 000 Brazilians benefited from a specific programme. A more general programme has been launched in 2004.
8. Number of applications received.
9. Regularisation programme held from 23 March to 31 July 2000.
10. "Arraigo" programme. Excluding 24 600 other applications which have not yet been examined.
11. Programme called "Action humanitaire 2000". People accepted should have been in Switzerland since 31 December 1992 and have encountered big troubles.
12. 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.
13. Includes some estimates of foreigners who are eligible for the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (November 1997) and for the Haitian Refugee Immigration Fairness Act (October 1998).
14. Estimates of applications for legalization under the Legal Immigration Family Equity (LIFE) Act.

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

United States has also announced its intention to legalise certain illegal migrants, but no definite decision has yet been taken to do this.

Prosecuting those who employ foreigners illegally is another means of combating irregular immigration, because it lessens the incentive to emigrate without proper authorisation. The Japanese Government has decided to intensify police checks in areas where the majority of undocumented foreigners work, and it has warned employers of the dangers of undocumented employment. In Switzerland, inspections of employers have been stepped up. In Germany, the legislation against illegal employment has been toughened, but there is also a determination to get the message out to would-be illegal immigrants by developing mechanisms for legal recruitment (through increased hiring of seasonal workers and contracts with neighbouring countries, *e.g.* in respect of household help). In France, by virtue of the Act of 26 November 2003, an employer who hires an undocumented foreign worker is liable for a fixed fine covering the expense of deporting

the foreigner to his country of origin. Portugal as well has toughened penalties for employers who hire illegal aliens.

In Spain, the GRECO programme (2001-2004) calls for a reinforcement of labour inspections. Until now, the resources assigned to labour inspection services have appeared modest (with about 700 inspectors for all of Spain). The government is also considering increasing the penalties for hiring undocumented workers. In addition, it has announced its intention to legalise undocumented immigrants who report employers who hire foreigners without work contracts. Part of the reason why undocumented workers are hired is the impossibility of doing so legally, given the difficulties involved in obtaining a permit. The new government would like to expand legal recruiting channels.

There has been a perceptible strengthening of international co-operation in the fight against trafficking in human beings and irregular migration. Some actions have been carried out in regional frameworks such as the EU, whilst others have involved bilateral agreements.

The European Commission, for example, has launched more extensive co-operation with the EU's neighbouring countries with regard to trafficking in human beings (through the European Neighbourhood Policy). On 29 April 2004, the Union's Council of Ministers adopted a decision to organise pooled flights to expel undocumented migrants from two or more EU member states. The Netherlands and France, for example, set up a joint operation to deport a limited number of Bulgarians and Romanians. A European Directive combating trafficking in human beings was adopted on 24 April 2004.

Numerous countries have sought to sign re-admission agreements with the home countries of illegal immigrants. Japan is one example. Italy has granted preferential immigration quotas to countries that have signed re-admission agreements and that try to co-operate more fully in controlling flows. In Switzerland, countries that do not agree to sign re-admission agreements may be denied development assistance. An agreement was also signed between France and Romania on 4 October 2002. It deals with protection for Romanian minors in difficulty in France, as well as with combating networks that traffic in and exploit human beings. The agreement entered into force on 7 March 2003.

An agreement was signed between the United Kingdom and Belgium on 15 April 2004, modelled on an existing accord between the United Kingdom and France, empowering immigration officers to check on potential immigrants and asylum seekers boarding Eurostar trains in Brussels. In July 2003, the Italian authorities signed a co-operation agreement on border surveillance with the Libyan Government. Italy dispatched civil servants to train Libyan officials, and surveillance equipment was put at their disposal. In the future, Italian and Libyan forces will make joint patrols of the entire Libyan coastline to intercept would-be illegal immigrants as they embark. Italy will also take part in the construction of three processing centres at which the Libyan authorities intend to group together illegal immigrants from central Africa. The agreement also calls for increased repatriation assistance. Italy has already provided Libya with charter flights to deport some 2 500 illegal immigrants from Egypt, Pakistan, Ghana and Nigeria.

In order to stem the tide of illegal immigration via the Strait of Gibraltar, Spain is strongly encouraging the Moroccan Government to step up controls along its borders. The European Commission's recent proposal to invest €40 million to set up joint patrols between the EU and Morocco is another step in the same direction. Apparently, policing the Strait has begun to show results, although some of the flow seemed to have been diverted

to the Canary Islands. In addition, bilateral agreements were signed in 2001 and 2002 between Spain and six other countries – Morocco, the Dominican Republic, Colombia, Ecuador, Romania and Poland – for the purpose of preventing illegal immigration and economic exploitation of undocumented foreigners. Spain has negotiated re-admission agreements with Ghana, Algeria, Guinea-Bissau, Morocco and Nigeria.

Nevertheless, along with the trend towards making conditions for the entry and stay of migrants into most OECD member countries more difficult, there has been persistent interest in developing policies for employment-related migration.

2. Growing interest in policies promoting employment-related migration

OECD member countries continue to show increasing interest in developing policies to promote employment-related migration. They are striving to make their labour markets more attractive to skilled and highly skilled workers, and to certain categories of labourers – temporary and seasonal in particular. They also wish to attract a greater number of foreign students.

a) Selective employment policies: new measures to facilitate the entry of highly skilled migrants, and of temporary and seasonal workers

A great many OECD member countries have eased their legislation to facilitate the entry of highly skilled workers. In order to overcome the labour shortages afflicting certain sectors, they are also trying to attract temporary and seasonal workers. Temporary migration for employment continued to expand in many OECD member countries, including Australia, Germany, Japan, Korea and New Zealand. Visas for seasonal workers were up sharply, especially in the United Kingdom, Norway and Germany. The number of working holidaymakers also increased in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom (*cf.* supra, Part I.A. Trends in temporary migration: measures aimed at facilitating such flows as well as alleviating labour market shortages).

Canada has put into place a points programme aimed at fulfilling its policy objectives for migration, particularly in relation to the labour market situation**.** The admission of skilled workers hinges more on human capital (language skills and diplomas, professional experience and adaptability) than on certain specific abilities. Canada has also instituted the Business Immigrant selection programme to attract investors, entrepreneurs and self-employed workers. In Portugal, a new type of work visa, involving scientific and research activities, was created by the new Immigration Act of 25 February 2003. In France, two new agreements on exchange programmes for young professionals have been signed – one with Bulgaria (on 9 September 2003), the other with Romania (on 21 November 2003). These agreements – 13 in all – enable young professionals aged between 18 and 35 to work in the other country, subject to annual quotas.

Points systems, although not widespread in OECD member countries, are nonetheless tending to develop. Canada, Australia and New Zealand use such systems to recruit highly skilled workers. Since 2002, so does the United Kingdom. The Czech Republic is setting up a pilot project ("Active Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers") that will use a points system to recruit highly skilled foreign workers wishing to settle there permanently. Roughly 1 400 visas are expected for 2004.

Some initiatives are taken collectively by regional bodies. The EU Justice and Internal Affairs Council plans to adopt a recommendation that would facilitate the admission of

researchers from non-EU countries. The recommendation would ask the member states to waive requirements for residence permits or to issue them either automatically or through a fast-track procedure, and to set no quotas that would restrict their admission. Residence permits ought to be renewable, and family reunification should be facilitated. The European Commission has also formulated a proposed directive concerning a special admission procedure for third country nationals coming to the EU to conduct research. If adopted, the directive would enter into force in 2006. For its part, the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) has instituted the Business Travel Card Scheme designed to facilitate entry for business people travelling for short periods to participating countries, of which there are currently 15 (with China expected to join in 2004). Under the scheme, business travellers can travel from one participating country to another after submitting a single application, which is filtered by the applicant's home country but at the same time forwarded electronically to all other participating countries for pre-accreditation. Cardholders are checked against police records in their own countries as well as against warning lists in the other participating countries. Approved applicants get cards that are valid for three years. APEC Business Travel Cards provide access to special fast-track lanes at the international airports of participating countries. At present, some 5 000 cards are in circulation. The scheme's objective is to liberalise trade and stimulate growth.

Some sectors suffer from a structural shortage of low-skilled labour. A number of countries have set quotas and signed bilateral agreements regulating the admission of low-skilled workers. Germany has set specific quotas reserved for workers from the new EU member states in the construction, agriculture and cleaning sectors, but certain EU member states have decided to allow the nationals from these countries free entry (*cf.* Part I.A). In Spain, the proclaimed objective is to channel immigration more towards labour market needs. The aim is that, in the future, immigration of workers will be based exclusively on a system of annual quotas for short-term residence permits to be issued to foreigners before they enter the country. Moreover, under a recent reform, foreigners born of Spanish parents will be granted residence permits automatically. However, it would appear that the results of the quota system introduced in 2002 are not very encouraging: out of 32 000 job openings approved in December 2001, only 13 600 were actually made available and filled, primarily by Polish and Romanian workers. The government changed the rules in January 2003. Now, firms wishing to hire more than five foreign workers may also publish details of job vacancies themselves whereas previously they were filled through officially approved channels. It is possible to offer a job to a worker who has returned home after having held a permit in Spain, but such workers can be rehired only by their previous employers. If a province is unable to make available vacancies for the jobs assigned to it, then the government can transfer those jobs to other provinces. In addition, trade unions are now playing a role in apportioning quotas. For 2003, a preliminary quota of 13 700 temporary job offers and 10 600 stable job offers was set.

When a labour shortage is cyclical, countries prefer to facilitate the entry of temporary or seasonal workers. This is the policy carried out by Canada, for example, which admits temporary workers when certain skills are in short supply in the labour market. The new June 2002 Immigration and Refugee Protection Act increases the opportunities for Canadian employers to hire foreign labour temporarily. Likewise, in Korea, a programme that entered into force in August 2004 allows firms in sectors suffering from labour shortages to recruit low-skilled foreign workers on a temporary basis. The United Kingdom has raised its quota of seasonal agricultural workers. As of 19 May 2004, Bulgarians and

Romanians may once again apply for visas to work in the United Kingdom. That possibility had been suspended on 30 March 2004 after numerous cases of abuse had been reported. The suspension was lifted for the Sectors Based, Seasonal Agricultural Workers, and Work Permit schemes and the Highly Skilled Migrant programme, but the number of seasonal workers accepted will be reduced. Removing that restriction is conditional upon the two countries in question agreeing to accept the return from the United Kingdom of their nationals, who are illegal immigrants there.

In the Netherlands, under the Dutch Aliens Employment Act (WAV), temporary immigration is possible in exceptional cases. The number of temporary workers rose in 2002: this temporary immigration involved skilled professions such as nurses and doctors (*e.g.* arrivals of nurses from the Philippines and South Africa) and unskilled ones (*e.g.* in the meat packing industry, horticulture, hotels and restaurants). A contract was signed between the Dutch government and agricultural and horticultural organisations with a view to recruiting Polish seasonal workers. On 24 November 2003, France signed an agreement with Australia in conjunction with the Working Holiday Makers programme. This programme allows the granting of reciprocal authorisations to work for the expected duration of employment, irrespective of labour market conditions (the quota is 500 beneficiaries aged between 18 and 30).

While some countries are trying to attract foreign workers, others are taking steps to limit arrivals of certain categories of workers. Several OECD member countries have instituted quota systems to regulate migration flows, including Switzerland, Italy, Austria and the United States. The Netherlands has instituted a restrictive immigration-for-employment policy: the government is not in favour of the greater opportunities for immigration for employment advocated by the European Commission. Ireland as well cut back sharply on the opportunities available for getting work permits, in April 2003. The British Government now imposes annual quotas to limit the number of young workers under 30 who enter the United Kingdom under the Working Holiday Makers scheme from other Commonwealth countries. For two years, these persons had access to temporary jobs enabling them to finance their stay. In 2003, the programme was extended to Nigeria, India and Pakistan and the eligibility criteria were relaxed. But the number of participants has risen more sharply than expected, prompting the introduction in 2004 of quotas for all countries. It will no longer be possible for persons entering under the scheme to change their status, and beneficiaries must be able to show that they have enough money to finance their return.

Migration issues have also entered the WTO trade negotiations. Indeed, one way in which services can be delivered by a service provider in one country to a client in another is through the movements of natural persons from the country of the supplier to the country of the client. Hitherto, most commitments by countries regarding this kind of movement have concerned intra-company transfers, but requests and offers by some WTO signatory countries during the current negotiations have been made regarding highly skilled contract service providers and in some limited cases, movements of persons to take on temporary employment in host countries. In principle, movements involving access to the labour market of the host country are excluded from the negotiations.

b) Measures to attract foreign students and offer them job opportunities

A strong trend within OECD member countries is a determination to attract a larger number of foreign students. To meet this objective, countries have developed special programmes and simplified administrative procedures affecting students. They have also

signed bilateral agreements to further this aim. Some countries, seeking to take advantage of the skills acquired by foreign students within their borders, have also decided to offer job opportunities to graduates (*cf.* Part I.A increasing the workforce of the OECD member countries).

In Canada, students no longer require study permits for stays of less than six months. In France, since 1999, it has been possible to obtain a three-to-six-month visa for short-term studies without registration. An agreement to rescind long-stay visa requirements for students was signed between France and Estonia on 2 April 2003 and entered into force on 12 June 2003. In Germany, since January 2003, foreign students have been allowed to work 180 half-days per year without a work permit. In Austria, also since 2003, students can work half-time to finance their studies. Under the new German immigration law, students who complete their studies may remain in Germany for up to one year after obtaining their degrees to seek employment. In July 2002, the United Kingdom adopted measures to facilitate the entry and stay of foreign students, in the fields of science, mathematics and engineering in particular. After completing all their studies, such persons are authorised to reside and work in the United Kingdom. Australia also encourages foreign students to settle in the country to look for a first job.

For most countries, this persistent interest in migration-for-employment policies is accompanied by a determination to encourage the integration of immigrants.

3. Measures to encourage the integration of immigrants

Awareness of the need to improve the integration of immigrants has prompted many OECD member countries to take initiatives to make it easier for migrants to become a part of society, and to improve their access to the labour market. In particular, countries have organised language teaching and set up courses to inform immigrants on the life and culture of the host country. They have also taken steps to combat all forms of discrimination and racism and have encouraged equal treatment for foreigners and citizens alike. In addition, they have carried out housing and health care policies to improve the lot of immigrants. In the area of employment, they have implemented policies to facilitate the hiring of properly documented foreign workers. They have also introduced education and training policies and advocated greater recognition of the degrees and qualifications of migrants. In some countries naturalisation is seen as the culmination of successful integration.

a) New initiatives to facilitate immigrants' integration into society

Three types of complementary initiatives which could be summed up as "information, incentives and sanctions" emerge from the measures adopted in 2003 and 2004 to facilitate the integration of migrants. First, countries conducted studies to gain greater knowledge of the extent to which their immigrants were integrated, since the first step for any country wishing to enact effective pro-integration policies is to find out what steps need to be taken in that area. To that end, on 2 July 2004, France set up an Observatory of Immigration and Integration Statistics to centralise data on migration flows; the Observatory will examine the integration of foreigners in order to create new indicators for policy evaluation. In Portugal as well, an Immigration Observatory has been created; its studies will provide input for the formulation of migration policies.

In most cases, the integration programmes set up by OECD member countries propose establishing language courses, classes in the country's culture, and civic education. The

large majority of such programmes are compulsory, especially for new arrivals. They may also be the result of a contract between the host country and the new entrant.

In the Netherlands, it was the realisation that immigrants lacked familiarity with the Dutch language that had prompted the introduction, in 1996, of compulsory classes for refugees and in 1998, the passage of the Dutch Integration of Newcomers Act. This latter Act set up courses for all new immigrants. But a shortage of courses at different levels, drop-out rates and the poor level of proficiency attained by the end of the classes prompted the government to make new proposals. The government would like immigrants to take responsibility for their integration. Accordingly, a package of administrative and financial incentives was proposed. Immigrants, who would be expected to know the Dutch language prior to their arrival, would bear the financial cost of courses provided in the host country and could be reimbursed if they passed their integration test. Municipalities, assigned to implement the programme, would be paid by the government if an immigrant's integration were successful. The government would like to introduce an "integration sliding scale": immigrants would earn points depending on their command of Dutch, whether or not they have jobs and whether their children attend schools having multicultural enrolments. Points would be taken away for unemployment, living in suburbs inhabited primarily by immigrants, and delinquency. All immigrants, including those who have been settled in the Netherlands for years, would have to take an integration test.

Other countries are setting up language courses, considering that command of the language is the prerequisite for successful integration into the labour market and into society. Examples include Denmark, Norway and Canada ("Skills and Learning Agenda"). In Germany, the new immigration law calls for language classes and an introduction to German law, culture and history. In Portugal, the Act of 22 November 2002 promotes knowledge of the country's language and its laws, but also of Portugal's cultural and moral values. In France, the "Initiation and Integration Contract" was extended to all *départements* (sub-regions) as of 1 January 2004. This is a contract between the French State and a person authorised to settle in France. It comprises reciprocal commitments between the newly arrived settler and the French State: the former must adhere to the laws and values of the Republic and attend language and civic training classes; the latter must provide such training.

In Luxembourg, whose primary objective is to preserve the cohesion of its population, integration-related measures are many and varied. Initiation and integration classes for arriving students and children of asylum seekers without a command of the languages of instruction were introduced by the Regulation of 10 July 2003. Newcomers are strongly encouraged to learn the Luxembourgish, German and French languages. A second regulation of 10 July 2003 introduced special language provisions (allowing instruction to be dispensed in a language other than German) for vocational secondary studies. Draft legislation on preschool and primary education, which was introduced on 15 October 2003, provides for hiring foreign nationals to teach classes to foreign children in their native languages, for children of refugees in particular. It also provides for recruiting intercultural mediators.

As a last resort, failure to attend compulsory language and integration classes is often punished. Along with offering classes, Denmark imposes coercive measures for failing to attend. In Germany, persons who refuse to attend integration classes are subject to sanctions: they may encounter difficulties getting their residence permits renewed, and absences may result in a decrease in unemployment and social welfare benefits. In France,

a long-term residence permit will be issued upon verification of integration after five years, as opposed to three years today.

Measures to combat discrimination and racism and to encourage equal treatment have also been adopted. In France, the Act of 3 February 2003 contains provisions that increase penalties for crimes involving racism, anti-Semitism or xenophobia. A new Act of 15 July 2004 provides for the deportation of foreigners found guilty of explicit and deliberate incitement to discriminate, to hatred or to violence against specific persons or groups of persons, including women. The same is true of Germany's new immigration law (see Box I.6). In Sweden, the Act of 1 July 2003 increases protection against discrimination in the labour market.

In Luxembourg, a new electoral law that entered into force in February 2003 allows non-Luxembourgers residing in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, whether or not they are EU citizens, to vote and/or to stand for office in communal elections in October 2005, without losing the right to vote in the commune of their country of origin. It reduces the residency requirement for non-Luxembourgers to register to vote. Such persons must be domiciled in the Grand Duchy, or they must have resided there lawfully for at least five years prior to 1 April 2004. In Spain, resident foreigners should now be able to access the same social services as Spaniards, rather than services designed specially for them. The foreign population there may now send their children to school and access health care services, whether their residence in Spain is authorised or not. Social transfers available to resident Spaniards, including housing subsidies, have been extended to properly documented foreigners.

Some countries make provision for the social welfare and health care of immigrant populations, including housing and health care policies. In France, a Guidance and Planning Act for cities and housing renewal was adopted on 1 August 2003. In Spain, housing is probably one of the main problems for the integration of immigrants. Rental housing is limited, and there is little social housing. In Andalusia, a plan to promote private and public investment in rental housing suitable for temporary workers was adopted jointly by the central and regional administrations. In Madrid, Navarre and Murcia, programmes are being prepared to eliminate discrimination against immigrants and provide guarantees for immigrants seeking to rent housing.

b) Measures facilitating the integration of immigrants into the labour market

To facilitate the participation of immigrants into the national labour market, some OECD member countries have formulated active labour policies. In 1999, the Netherlands had instituted a policy of subsidised jobs for the long-term unemployed (a majority of whom are immigrants). However, the new government decided to limit the number of jobs offered and funding for the programme. The agreement between the Minister for Social Affairs and Employment and the Dutch Organisation for Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (the April 2000 "MKB Agreement"), under which persons from ethnic minorities were given priority in filling job vacancies, was a great success: between April 2000 and December 2002, nearly 60 000 minority job-seekers found work. In Sweden as well, subsidies are given for the employment of the long-term jobless, and the policy benefits immigrants in particular. In France, a circular of 4 August 2003 has encouraged the development of sponsoring to facilitate labour market access for persons, and especially foreigners, having difficulties finding work. An Association Agreement between the European Community and its member states, on the one part, and Algeria, on the other part, was signed on 22 April 2002: it calls for measures governing equal treatment, integration and elimination of discrimination in the labour market.

Migrant worker education and training policies were also introduced with a view towards enhancing employability. Breaking into the labour market requires, first and foremost, a good command of the local language. In the United Kingdom and the United States, for example, a worker's command of English has a considerable impact on the likelihood of employment and the level of earnings. In Luxembourg, the interim report of 17 July 2002 of the special Immigration Commission stresses that the labour market is sharply segmented according to the languages used, and it calls for clearer indications of which language should be learned first. It suggests introducing leave or training time for language learning. In Norway, the employment rate of immigrant women (53% in 2002) remains lower than that of Norwegian women (67%), prompting the Norwegian government to tailor courses for women refugees and immigrant workers to help them learn the language and acquire vocational training. In some provinces of Canada, there are courses that dispense language training geared to the specific occupations of immigrant workers. Sweden subsidises classes in universities to supplement training that immigrants have acquired in their countries of origin.

Better recognition of migrants' diplomas and qualifications can also facilitate their participation in the labour market. If qualifications obtained abroad are not recognised, degrees have to be obtained again in the host country, which leads some immigrants to accept low-skilled jobs that do not enable them to use the skills acquired in their countries of origin. Within the EU, directives have been adopted to remedy the shortcomings that have been identified in the realm of mutual recognition of study and training programmes. Legislation on the validation of professional qualifications is being harmonised gradually for professionals such as nurses, doctors, dentists, midwives and pharmacists. The member states must recognise diplomas obtained in another member country and allow the people holding them to exercise their professions within their borders under the same conditions as nationals. The Canadian Government has created the Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials (CICIC), which helps to evaluate diplomas. One of the solutions Canada has explored to deal with the difficulties involved in validating foreign credentials is to encourage recruitment of foreign students that have obtained Canadian degrees. In Sweden, a foreign diploma equivalency validation and verification board was set up in 2004.

c) Naturalisation policies: between relaxing and increasing restrictions

There has been a significant rise in the number of naturalisations in a number of OECD member countries (see Box I.8 and Table I.20). For example, roughly 22 000 people acquired Spanish nationality in 2002, 5 000 more than in 2001. The naturalisation rate was 2% (compared to 1.9% in 2001). In 2002, a total of some 680 000 foreigners were naturalised in the European Economic Area, or 4% more than in 2001. The sharpest increases were in Switzerland, Spain and the United Kingdom, whilst the steepest declines were noted in Germany, Canada and Norway. Some countries amended their legislation to facilitate the acquisition of nationality, whereas others imposed new requirements, in particular with regard to the command of the language and integration.

Some countries eased naturalisation requirements, deeming that access to full citizenship was part and parcel of integration policies. In Luxembourg, the legislation on naturalisation was amended by the Act of 24 July 2001, which entered into force on 1 January 2002. That law reduced age and residency requirements for applicants for naturalisation. The number of naturalisations appears relatively slight (in all, between 1995 and 2002, only 5 444 persons acquired Luxembourg nationality) in relation to the number of foreigners eligible to apply, which is estimated at 50 000. This trend may be explained by

Box I.8. **How many foreigners acquire the nationality of their host country?**

Statistics on naturalisations are influenced by several factors, the first being the nature of the legislation relating to the acquisition of nationality, which varies widely across countries, the existence of automatic or discretionary procedures for expatriates and their descendants in a number of countries, as well as the successive waves of migration. In addition, there are also the reasons for which the migrants themselves wish to be naturalised. An understanding of the number of naturalisations is therefore rendered difficult by the interrelated effects of all these factors, which it is not always possible to differentiate.[1]

The indicators usually presented, namely naturalisation rates, relate the number of naturalisations in the preceding year to the stock of eligible applicants, in other words those of foreign nationality, at the beginning of the period. These rates make it possible to compare the relevant rates of naturalisation in different countries and to monitor the trend in naturalisations over time. On the other hand, this indicator does not provide information on the total number of persons who have acquired the nationality of a given host country as of a given date. To do so would require access to cross-sectional data on the number of immigrants[2] who have acquired the nationality of their host country.

In 2002, naturalisation rates varied from less than 1% of the foreign population in Luxembourg, Japan, Italy and Portugal to around 8% in Sweden. These differences have a major impact on the size of the foreign population. In Sweden and the Netherlands, foreigner stocks would be 70% higher if the naturalisation rate had remained at 1% over the past ten years. In contrast, if a naturalisation rate of 8% (over the same ten-year period) had occurred in Luxembourg, Switzerland and Japan, the foreign populations of those countries would be 40% lower.

With a measure based on all persons naturalised,[3] the ranking of countries would reflect the impact of the successive waves of naturalisations. Similarities in the two country rankings (that is, according to the average naturalisation rate over ten years, on the one hand, and the share of nationals among foreign-born residents in 2001, on the other) help to identify a number of countries where nationality is acquired less frequently, either due to restrictive procedures or because migrants are less inclined to apply for nationality: in Luxembourg and Switzerland, fewer than a third of foreign-born residents have acquired the nationality of the host country. Confirming this observation, these countries have reported low naturalisation rates over the past few years. In Spain, the fact that the immigrant population is primarily composed of migrants from recent waves of immigration explains why the two percentages are relatively low. For historical reasons, in Portugal and the Czech Republic, the proportion of nationals among foreign-born residents is very high. However, these two countries have a fairly restrictive policy with regard to naturalisation, which is reflected in the low naturalisation rates reported over the past ten years. In contrast, Sweden and the Netherlands can both be considered to be fairly liberal countries with regard to the granting of nationality. The average rate of naturalisation over the past ten years has been more than 8% of the foreign population, and over two thirds of foreign-born residents have the nationality of the host country. Austria, Belgium, Denmark and Norway occupy an intermediate position; the share of nationals among the foreign-born population is comparable in all of these countries (between 40% and 48%), whereas recent naturalisation rates are rather different. While naturalisation rates are low in Austria, they are fairly high in the other three countries.

1. The figures published in the Statistical Annex to this publication generally include all procedures under which nationality is acquired. For further details, refer to the introductory notes for Table A.1.6 of the Statistical Annex.
2. See Box I.3 on measurement of the immigrant population.
3. The measure in question would be the percentage of foreign-born residents with the nationality of the host country, which would be an approximation of the overall naturalisation rate, estimated as the number of persons naturalised as a percentage of the foreign-born population.

Table I.20. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	2002		1997-2001 annual average	1992-1996 annual average
	Thousands	Naturalisation rate (% of foreign population)	Thousands	Thousands
Australia	86.3	. .	88.0	117.2
Austria	36.4	5.1	23.3	14.8
Belgium	46.4	5.5	43.0	27.8
Canada	141.6	. .	166.0	173.5
Czech Republic	3.3	1.5	6.1	. .
Denmark	17.3	6.5	11.8	5.7
Finland	3.0	3.1	3.2	0.8
France	128.1	4.5	132.3	103.9
Germany	154.5	2.1	224.2	251.0
Hungary	3.2	2.7	7.5	13.2
Italy	10.6	0.8	11.6	6.8
Japan	14.3	0.8	15.4	11.9
Luxembourg	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.7
Netherlands	45.3	6.6	55.5	56.6
New Zealand	19.5	. .	24.7	. .
Norway	9.0	4.9	9.9	8.7
Portugal	1.4	0.5	0.9	1.3
Spain	21.8	2.0	13.7	7.3
Sweden	37.8	7.9	38.6	32.9
Switzerland	36.5	2.6	23.4	14.8
United Kingdom	120.1	4.6	63.6	43.1
United States	573.7	. .	679.6	504.4

Source: Refer to metadata related to Table A.1.6 of the Statistical Annex.

the fact that Luxembourg does not allow dual citizenship, and in addition, over 90% of the foreigners living in Luxembourg are EU nationals and see few benefits in obtaining Luxembourg citizenship.

Other countries, including Austria, the Netherlands and Hungary, have imposed new requirements concerning language fluency and integration. Moreover, in Germany, persons applying for citizenship will have to provide information about any convictions in a foreign country. In the Netherlands, the government would like to terminate dual citizenship for third generation immigrants, as it considers it a hindrance to integration. In Ireland, in order to stem the rising tide of women entering the country as tourists to give birth, a referendum was held on 11 June 2004 to end unconditional entitlement to Irish citizenship by virtue of birth in Ireland. Roughly 80% of voters approved the proposal. Now, Irish-born children of foreigners will possess Irish citizenship only if one of their parents had resided in Ireland for three out of the four years preceding their birth.

Notes

1. In Germany, Italy and Japan, some of the entries reported in the population register relate to short-term stays. In Spain, immigration flows are calculated on the basis of data derived from municipal registers (see the Statistical Annex for further details regarding sources).
2. In Canada, however, family reunification per se accounted for only about 28% of entries in 2002.
3. Since August 2003, most applicants for a temporary immigration visa must undergo a personal interview. There is much anecdotal evidence that these measures have discouraged tourists, students, businessmen and other categories of potential migrant from travelling to the United States.
4. Partial data for 2004 indicate that the quota might again be reached this year by as early as October.
5. This region includes the four OECD member countries, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Hungary and Poland, as well as Romania, Bulgaria, Albania; the successor States of the former Yugoslavia; and the European successor States of the former Soviet Union.
6. The overview of current trends of migration in and from Asia presented in this section is drawn upon a document written by Ronald Skeldon, Consultant to the OECD, which presents the principal conclusion of the annual OECD Workshop on migration and the labour market in Asia, held in Tokyo on 5 and 6 February 2004.
7. This section synthesizes the current trends in Latin American migration based on two papers prepared for the Secretariat. The first one, by Miguel Villa (IMILA project, UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean), concerns international migration in Latin America and the Caribbean. The second one focuses on the immigration from Latin America in European OECD countries. It as been prepared by Diego Lopez and Laura Oso (University la Coruna).
8. Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cap-Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tomé e Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
9. In France, for example, while employment-based migration is still limited, it is estimated that more than 102 000 foreigners entered the labour market in 2001 (30% through deferred entry, 41% through indirect entry, and 29% through direct entry, including beneficiaries of the 1997 "regularisation programme"), or about 10% of all entrants to the French labour market (see JF Léger, 2003, *Les entrées d'étrangers sur le marché de l'emploi français de 1999 à 2001*, Migrations Études n° 118).
10. See for example E. Kofman, 2003, "Women migrants and refugees in the European Union", presented at the OECD-EU Seminar on "Economic and social aspects of migration", Brussels, 21-22 January 2003 (*www.oecd.org/migration*). See also OECD, *Trends in International Migration*, 2003 Edition.
11. In Belgium, the employment rate for foreign women remains extremely low: it stood at only 33.2% in 2003, down slightly from 2000 (34.3%) but up significantly from 1993 (26.2%)
12. According to the OECD report, *Education at a Glance* (2003), in the 14 OECD countries studied an average of 12% of secondary school teaching positions were unfilled at the beginning of the school year. The greatest recruitment difficulties were encountered in science, technology and computer sciences, mathematics, and foreign languages.
13. The data used are taken from the Eurostat Labour Force Survey (LFS). They cover 10 countries of the European Union (*i.e.* the EU 15 less Belgium, France, Italy, Ireland and Finland) and refer to people between the ages of 15 and 64 years who are not in employment.
14. This is reflected in Figure I.14 by the fact that the points corresponding to foreigners are on average further removed from the 45-degree line than those corresponding to nationals.
15. This age bracket is selected because it is less likely than that of the 20-25 year group to be affected by "late leavers" from the school system.
16. In France, around one-third of welfare-supported transients are foreigners, and of these the majority are between the ages of 18 and 24 (see Brousse *et al*., 2002).
17. Foreigners' education level has the greatest impact on their participation rate in Germany (-6 percentage points), and to a lesser extent in France and in Austria (–3 percentage points).
18. The Australian survey (LSIA – Longitudinal study on immigrants in Australia) sampled two cohorts arriving between 1993 and 1995 (LSIA1) and between 1999 and 2000 (LSIA2). Such surveys or data files, specifically constructed to track immigrants in the labour market, also exist in Sweden (LINDA – Longitudinal Individual Data), in New Zealand (LisNZ – Longitudinal Immigration Survey: New

Zealand), in Canada (LSIC – Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada, and for Quebec, ENI Enquête sur l'établissement des nouveaux immigrants) and in the United States (NIS – New Immigrant Survey). For these purposes, Germany has the GSOEP (German Socio-Economic Panel Survey).

19. A study focusing on the Canadian province of Quebec estimated that 50% of immigrants who arrived in 1989 without a job waiting for them found one within the first 15 months. After 10 years, around 14% of them had yet to find employment (Renaud *et al.*, 2001).

20. A simple econometric estimation confirms the significance of the link between the participation rate in the country of origin and that of each nationality in the host country. It also points, however, to the lack of any systematic relationship with the participation rate for the population as a whole in the country of residence.

21. France, with the lowest participation rates for seven of the 15 nationalities selected, shows here the limitations of its labour market in integrating foreigners regardless of their origin.

22. Austria, Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

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PART II

Counting Immigrants and Expatriates in OECD Countries: A New Perspective[1]

Introduction

Since the end of the 1990s, issues related to international migration, and more particularly to the international mobility of highly-qualified workers, are receiving increasing attention from policy-makers. This reflects among others the increasing international movements that have been taking place following the fall of the Iron Curtain and in conjunction with the growing globalisation of economic activity. In addition, demographic imbalances between developed and developing countries and large differences in wages have tended to encourage the movements of workers from economies where they are in surplus to those where they are most in need. Moreover, many OECD countries have been attempting to attract qualified human resources from abroad, which their increasingly knowledge-intensive economies need in order to sustain economic growth. Despite these increased movements and the heightened policy interest in this area, however, the quality and comparability of international data on migration have scarcely kept pace.

In particular, data that are generally available on migration movements do not provide a clear idea of the relative scale of movements across countries. In some countries, the so-called settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States), only "permanent" migrants are counted as immigrants, that is, persons who are admitted to the country and granted the right of permanent residence upon entry. Persons who are granted temporary permits may not even figure in the official migration statistics. In other countries, immigrants consist of persons who are enrolled onto a population register, which is a file of persons residing in the country that is generally maintained at the municipal level. To be registered, a person entering from outside the country must intend to stay in the country for more than a specified minimum period and have a residence permit (if required) of at least the minimum duration. In some countries (*e.g.* Belgium, Japan), the minimum period is three months, in others one year (Sweden, Finland). In practice, this means that international students, for example, will often be counted as immigrants in these countries. In the settlement countries, they would not figure in the official migration statistics. Although the solution would normally be to harmonise the statistics across countries, for a number of technical reasons, progress in this area is exceedingly slow.

As with international data on annual movements, those on the total immigrant population have suffered from differing national views concerning who is an "immigrant". In the settlement countries, immigrants are considered to be persons who are foreign-born, that is, who at same stage have immigrated into the country of residence.[2] For these countries, the acquisition of nationality is relatively easy and it is rare to see statistics on persons of foreign nationality.[3]

In other countries immigrants are considered precisely to be persons of foreign nationality. However, because persons born abroad can acquire the nationality of the country of residence and because persons born in a country do not necessarily acquire

thereby the citizenship of the country of birth, statistics on the foreign population may not yield the same result as those on the foreign-born population. This would not be problematical if it were possible to produce data on both bases. But this was not the case for many countries until fairly recently, with the result that it was customary to see international statistics for two sets of generally non-overlapping countries, those applying the concept of a foreign country of birth to define the immigrant population and those for whom foreign nationality was the determining criterion.

As immigrant populations have grown in many countries and naturalisations have become more common, estimates based on these different concepts have become less and less comparable across countries. While new arrivals of foreign citizens tend to increase the size of the foreign population, those already there may acquire the citizenship of the host country and become nationals. As a result, the magnitude of the population of foreign citizenship may tend to remain more or less stable or to grow slowly, while the number of foreign-born persons continues to increase.

In addition to the lack of comparability on immigrant populations, most OECD member countries have little information at their disposal on their expatriates.[4] And those which have some information do not necessarily have a clear picture of the countries of destination or of the exact magnitudes of persons who have left the country. Finally, rare are the countries which have a precise picture of their expatriates by duration of stay abroad, level of qualification, occupation or branch of industry.

In developing countries, the question of the international mobility of highly-qualified workers is generally manifested through a concern about brain drain and the loss of economic potential which could result from this. In OECD countries the retention of qualified persons and the return of expatriates constitute important challenges to which several countries have tried to respond.[5] Several recent studies undertaken at the OECD have demonstrated that the question is more complex than is often depicted (OECD, 2002; Dumont and Meyer, 2003). These studies also highlight the deficiencies and the gaps in the statistical data available, making it difficult to grasp the complex international mobility patterns of highly skilled workers. To date, only one study has attempted to estimate rates of emigration by country of origin and by level of qualification (Carrington and Detragiache, 1998).[6] This study is widely cited but is now somewhat dated (it uses data from the 1990s), and is subject to a number of biases which limit its usefulness.

As a result, current statistics tend to show a rather imperfect image of the actual extent of migration in general and of the movements of the highly skilled in particular, both with respect to movements from developing to developed countries but also within the OECD area as well.

With the 2000 round of censuses, however, virtually all OECD countries have incorporated in their census a question on the country of birth of persons enumerated, as well as on their nationality. With this information, it is possible to provide, for the first time, a detailed, comparable and reliable picture of immigrant populations within OECD countries, reflecting the cumulative effect of movements within and to the OECD zone over the past decades. Not only can immigrant populations be compared on a common basis across countries, but the extent of migration from a single source country to each OECD country as well as to OECD countries as a whole can be determined. And with additional information on the educational attainment of migrants, flows of human capital can be

depicted and, in particular, the conventional wisdom on the brain drain confronted with actual data.

This paper is divided into four sections. The first section describes the new database that is the source of the information in this chapter. The second section presents the basic results derived from the new database on immigrants and expatriates in OECD. The third and fourth sections will discuss in detail the results on expatriates from OECD and non-member countries. The fifth section provides an overview of recent policy measures related to movements of the highly skilled in OECD countries. A summary and conclusions follow.

1. A new database on international migrants

The information presented in this chapter is based on a data collection launched in July 2003, addressed to OECD National Statistical Offices (NSOs)[7] and aimed at obtaining census data on the stock of the foreign-born population in OECD countries. The core objective of the project was to better measure and characterise foreign-born populations and especially, to obtain, by aggregating across OECD receiving countries, data on expatriates by country of origin.

The new database on immigrants and expatriates in OECD countries (see Box II.1) is the first internationally comparable data set with detailed information on the *foreign-born population* for almost all member countries of the OECD. In addition, using the data base, it is possible to calculate "emigration rates"[8] to OECD countries by level of qualification and country of origin for approximately 100 countries. This provides a broad view of the significance of highly skilled emigration, for both OECD and less developed countries.

2. Immigrants and expatriates in OECD countries: first results

Table II.1 shown below compares the incidence of the foreign and foreign-born populations for almost all OECD countries. As is evident, it is in the settlement countries (*i.e.* Australia, Canada and New Zealand), as well as in Luxembourg and Switzerland, that the percentage of the foreign-born is highest, close to or exceeding 20% in all of these. In addition, certain European countries (*e.g.* Austria, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden) have a percentage of immigrants at least as high as that recorded in the United States (approximately 12%).[9] Likewise the percentage of the foreign-born population exceeds 10% of the total population in Belgium, France, Greece and Ireland. These figures are appreciably higher than those generally presented for the immigrant population, measured on the basis of foreign nationality and which never exceed 10%, except for Luxembourg and Switzerland. It is clear that many European countries have managed to admit and absorb immigrants in considerable numbers over the past decades, significantly more than is evident from looking at statistics of the resident foreign population.

Caution, however, needs to be exercised in interpreting the data for some countries. In France, but also in Portugal, for example, the foreign-born population includes a significant proportion of persons born abroad as citizens and repatriated from former colonies. Thus, about 1.6 million people born with French nationality outside of France (mainly in Algeria) are counted in the population census of 1999. A similar situation occurs for other countries and in particular the United States, because of persons born overseas of American parents (for instance, children born to military personnel stationed abroad). Unfortunately, few countries[10] collect information on nationality at birth, which is what is needed to

Box II.1. **Development of a database on international migrants in OECD countries**

Most censuses in member countries were conducted around the year 2000 and the results are currently available for almost all of them. Due to their comprehensive coverage, censuses are particularly well-adapted to identifying and studying small population groups. In several countries, however, there is no population census and it has been necessary to turn to data from population registers or from large-sample surveys. Census data were actually used for 23 of the 29 participating countries and other sources for the remainder (see Annex II.A1 for more detailed information). The data base currently includes data on the foreign-born in OECD countries by detailed place of birth, nationality and educational attainment (three levels). The data are incomplete for two countries and will be available in a revised version of the database in the near future.

The database covers 227 countries of origin and 29 receiving countries within the OECD zone. Only 0.46% of the total population of all OECD countries did not report its place of birth and 0.24% did not report a specific country for the place of birth (either a region was specified or no answer was given). The level of education was reported for more than 98% of the population 15 years of age or older. Finally, complete information (*i.e.* detailed education and detailed place of birth) is available for 97.8% of the OECD population aged 15+. "Emigration rates" by level of qualification have been calculated for more than 100 countries.

Data adjustments have been necessary for only two situations. Firstly, data for Japan and Korea were not available by country of birth. For these two countries, it has been assumed that the country of nationality is the country of birth. This seems a reasonable assumption for the foreign-born, given the very low rate and number of naturalisations in these two countries. However, it will tend to overestimate the number of foreign-born relative to other countries, because persons born in Japan or Korea to foreigners will tend also to be recorded as foreign and thus be classified as foreign-born.

The same assumption could not be made for Germany, where the available source was the Microcensus, a large-scale household sample survey.* This source identifies whether or not a person was born abroad, but not the country of birth. Equating country of birth and country of nationality for Germany would have attributed "Germany" as the country of birth to naturalised foreign-born persons, whose numbers are not negligible, and to the numerous "ethnic" German immigrants who obtained German nationality upon entry into Germany. Another data source (the German Socio-Economic Panel) was used to adjust the data for Germany where this was possible (see Annex II.A1 for more details).

* The last German census was conducted in 1987.

distinguish the immigration of non-citizens from the entries of persons born as citizens abroad. Estimates for the share of the foreign-born taking into account this phenomenon are presented in Table II.A2.1 in Annex II.A2.

For certain countries, in particular the United States, Australia or Canada, statistics on non-citizens are seldom published. Such statistics provide another perspective on migration. For example, 6.6% of the population of the United States does not have United States citizenship. The figure for Australia is 7.4%, that for Canada 5.3%, levels comparable to those recorded in some European countries such as France, Sweden, Denmark and the Netherlands. It is clear that for these settlement countries as well, data on persons of foreign citizenship would not give an accurate picture of the magnitude of their immigrant populations.

Table II.1. **Percentage of foreign-born and non-citizens in the total population in OECD countries**

	Percentage of foreign-born	Percentage of non-citizens
Mexico	0.5	. .
Turkey	1.9	. .
Poland	2.1	0.1
Slovak Republic	2.5	0.5
Finland	2.5	1.7
Hungary	2.9	0.9
Czech Republic	4.5	1.2
Spain	5.3	3.8
Portugal	6.3	2.2
Denmark	6.8	5.0
Norway	7.3	4.3
United Kingdom	8.3	. .
France	10.0	5.6
Netherlands	10.1	4.2
Greece	10.3	7.0
Ireland	10.4	5.9
Belgium	10.7	8.2
Sweden	12.0	5.3
United States	12.3	6.6
Germany	12.5	. .
Austria	12.5	8.8
Canada	19.3	5.3
New Zealand	19.5	. .
Switzerland	22.4	20.5
Australia	23.0	7.4
Luxembourg	32.6	36.9
Japan[1]	. .	1.0
Korea[1]	. .	0.3
Weighted average for above countries	**7.8**	**4.5**

1. In the absence of place-of-birth data for Japan and Korea, it has been assumed that all non-citizens are foreign-born and that nationals are native-born (see Annex II.A1 for further details).

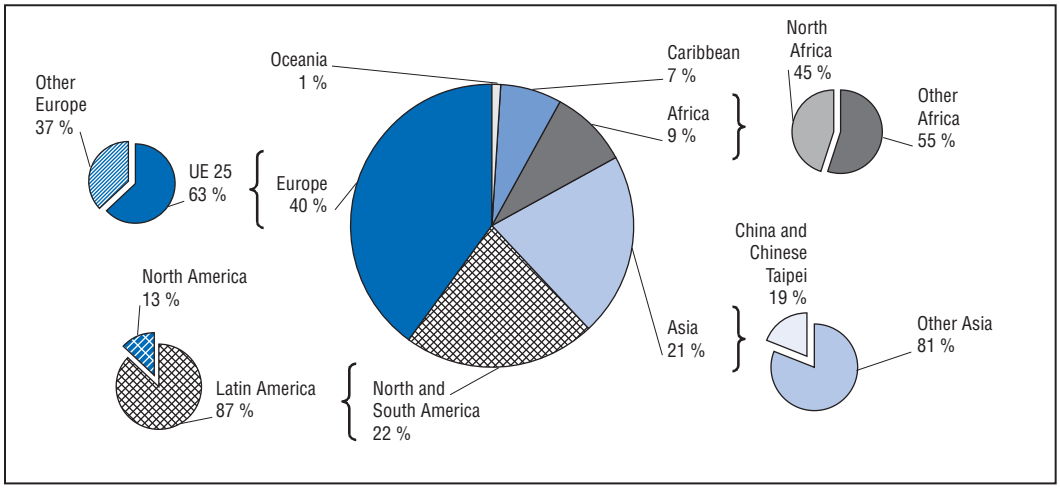
Source: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations and OECD 2003 for the percentage of foreigners in the United Kingdom and Germany.

The differences between the statistics on non-citizens and on the foreign-born are partly attributable to the varying requirements across countries for obtaining the citizenship of the country of residence, and to the fact that in many countries, persons born in the country of parents of foreign nationality do not automatically acquire the citizenship of the host country. Table II.A2.2 in Annex II.A2 confirms that in Australia and in Canada, but also in Sweden and the Netherlands[11] a large share of the foreign-born acquires the citizenship of the host country. On the other hand, the acquisition of citizenship is more difficult and less common in Luxembourg and Switzerland.[12]

The distribution of foreign-born residents in OECD countries by area of origin (see Figure II.1 and Table II.A2.3 in Annex II.A2) is equally informative. In the OECD zone, people born in North Africa (Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco) are at least as numerous as persons born in China. Migrants originating from North Africa are concentrated in three European countries (*i.e.* France, Spain and the Netherlands). On the whole, Asians and Latin Americans (excluding Caribbean countries) account for more than 15 million immigrants each. Spain, a recent immigration country, alone has received more than 740 000 people

Figure II.1. **Foreign-born by region of origin in OECD countries**

Percentages



Note: "Other Europe", "Other Asia" and "Other Africa" include data for not stated European countries, not stated Asian countries and not stated African countries, respectively.

Source: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

from Latin America, and the United States, approximately 13.5 million. However, it is continental Europe (including Turkey and central Eastern Europe), which accounts for the largest number of expatriates to OECD countries. There are, for example, nearly 2 million immigrants from the enlarged European Union (EU25) in each of Canada Australia, France and Germany.

The countries which practice a selective immigration policy based on human capital criteria stand out in Table II.A2.4 in Annex II.A2 as the countries with the highest percentages of highly qualified immigrants.[13] This is the case for example in Australia, Canada and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom, Ireland, Korea, Norway and New Zealand, where 30 to 42% of immigrants have a higher degree. In addition, in a number of countries, foreign-born persons with a doctoral degree account for a high proportion of all persons holding such degrees in the host country. In the United States, even if a significant part of the immigrants are not highly qualified, more than 440 000 foreign-born persons hold a PhD.[14] This accounts for approximately 25% of the total stock of PhDs in the country. The proportion of foreign-born doctorates in Sweden is comparable and in Australia and Canada it stands even higher, at 45% and 54%, respectively.

The situation in Austria, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain or Turkey, differs significantly. In these countries, at least 50% of the foreign-born have less than upper-secondary education. In Austria, the difference between the percentage of low-qualified among the foreign and native-born populations is particularly large (approximately 16 percentage points). This is also the case in Poland and the Czech Republic.

3. Expatriates of OECD member countries residing in another member country

Much attention has been directed in recent years within OECD countries at the emigration of highly qualified persons, attracted to countries where job opportunities are

more prevalent and research funding more generous. Solid evidence regarding the extent of this phenomenon has been notably absent form the public debate. Although the database described here does allow one to remedy this as yet with respect to recent departures, it does provide a broad overall picture of expatriation over the past decades.

Table II.A2.5 in Annex II.A2 presents the complete data on expatriates from OECD countries. It gives the stock of persons born in one OECD country and residing in another (see Box II.2 for more information on alternative methods for obtaining data on expatriates). In the 29 OECD countries currently under review, 36.3 million persons, *i.e.* 46% of the total foreign-born population, come from another OECD country. In certain host countries, such

Box II.2. **Counting expatriates: Methods and limits**

Identifying and counting expatriates abroad is not without difficulties and different methods may produce different estimates. There are three main types of estimates, each of them with its advantages and shortcomings: *i)* statistics of people registered in embassies and consulates overseas, *ii)* emigration surveys in origin countries and *iii)* compilation of statistics from receiving countries.

Administrative data from embassies and consulates provide an interesting source for estimating the stock of nationals abroad. Indeed in most cases expatriates need to register to receive social benefits or pension payments, to pay taxes, to vote overseas, to renew identity papers, or simply to report their presence in the country. Unfortunately, because registration is not always compulsory or enforced, the data coverage is not perfect and may vary a lot from one country to another. For instance, the estimate of French citizens living in other OECD countries by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (1.4 million in 1999) is more than double the number of official registrations at consulates. Furthermore, because people do not necessarily deregister and because some people may register even for short stays abroad (especially in countries where there is some risk), overestimation is also a problem.

Several countries have included specific questions on residents temporarily overseas in Censuses or have implemented specific surveys to identify their nationals abroad. It is possible to ask an interviewed household member how many usual members of the household are currently abroad. This type of estimate, however, covers only short stays abroad (including those for reasons of tourism) and excludes many long-term emigrants, because the situations in which the entire household has settled overseas are not covered.

In this chapter, the expatriate community is identified by compiling the data on the foreign born by place of birth in all OECD countries. The estimate is thus based on the place of birth and is not directly comparable to the other sources mentioned previously (see Table II.2). One of the major problems with this approach is that it is not always possible to identify foreign-born persons who were citizens of their current country of residence at birth (*e.g.* children born overseas of national parents). This situation can be particularly problematic for countries which have had important communities abroad. Another problem arises from the fact that some people do not report their place of birth in censuses. Persons not specifying a place of birth represent 10% of the total population in the Slovak Republic, about 5.7% in Australia, and 4% in New-Zealand and Switzerland (see Table II.A2.1 in Annex II.A2). Furthermore, some censuses do not identify systematically all countries of origin (*e.g.* Korea only records 17 foreign nationalities in its Census). Consequently, the estimates presented in this chapter on expatriates by country of origin should be considered a lower bound.

Table II.2. **OECD expatriates in other OECD countries**

	Nationals registered abroad at embassies or consultates[1]	Native-born living abroad (OECD Censuses)
United States	3 071 167	1 227 249
France	1 392 764	1 119 130
Switzerland	828 036	319 176
Australia	562 668	328 405
Japan	556 561	656 690

1. 1999 for France and the United States; 2000 for Switzerland; 2001 for Australia and Japan.

Sources: Nationals registered abroad at embassies or consulates: Australia: ABS Australian Demographic Statistics Quarterlies and Australian Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade; France: Ministère des Affaires étrangères, Direction des Français à l'étranger et des étrangers en France; Japan: Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Consular and Migration Affairs Department; Switzerland: DFAE, Service des Suisses de l'étranger; United States: US Census Bureau and Bureau of Consular Affairs; *Native-born living abroad*: OECD censuses (excluding Italy) and Secretariat calculations.

as Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic, Ireland, Mexico, the Czech Republic and to a lesser extent Switzerland and Belgium, the share of the foreign-born from other OECD countries is very high (between 65% and 85%). At the other extreme, it is close to 24% in Hungary, Poland and Korea and only 11% in Japan.

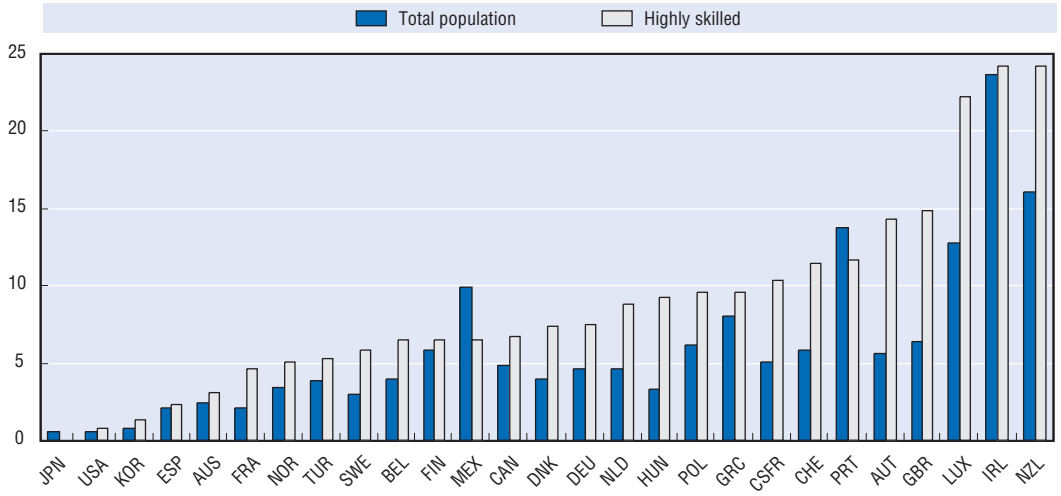
The largest expatriate group consists of persons born in Mexico, with nearly 9.5 million people, of whom the vast majority are resident in the United States. The number of persons born in Germany and in the United Kingdom residing in other OECD member countries is also large, more than 3 million people for each of them. The number of persons born in Turkey, Italy and Poland and residing in other OECD countries amounts to over 2 million persons each.

Expressed as a percentage of the total population of the given country, almost 24% of people born in Ireland are currently living in another OECD member country (see Figure II.2). Other significant expatriate communities include persons born in New Zealand (16%), Portugal (13.7%), Luxembourg (12.8%) and Mexico (9.9%).

A closer look at these first results reveals a number of other interesting findings. The Korean community in France for example, is larger than those of all the other European countries.[15] the Dutch are more numerous in Canada than in the United States; there are nearly 110 000 British-born persons in Spain.[16] there are approximately 450 000 people persons born in the United States living in Europe but 4.6 million persons born in Europe and living in the United States (of which 70 600 persons were born in Austria). Other examples include the high mobility among the Scandinavian countries, the high geographical dispersion of persons of German origin or the large numbers of persons born in France and living in Portugal or born in the United States and living in Mexico or Ireland. There are almost as many British – born persons in France (84 500) as there are French-born persons in the United Kingdom (96 300).

Even when information on the size of expatriate communities in member countries is available, there is not often information on the characteristics of this population. Speculation on the "brain drain" regularly feeds the media in certain countries, generally without credible statistical evidence. Some national studies exist (*e.g.* Hugo and *alii*, 2003 ; Barre and *alii*, 2003 ; Ferrand, 2001; Saint-Paul, 2004), but they do not always make it possible to cover the topic extensively.

Figure II.2. **Expatriates as a percentage of all native-born, OECD countries**
Total population and highly skilled



Note: CSFR stands for "Former Czechoslovakia". Data for Korea are partial as several OECD countries do not systematically distinguish between people born in the Democratic Republic of Korea and in the People's Republic of Korea.

Table II.3 shows the distribution of educational attainment for expatriates from each OECD country living in other OECD countries. It reveals the relative importance of the migration of highly qualified persons (*i.e.* persons with tertiary education). It is for the United States and Japan that the proportion of expatriates with tertiary education is highest (almost 50%). The selectivity of emigration with respect to qualifications, measured by the difference between the proportion of expatriates and that of the native-born with tertiary-level attainment, highlights several European countries, notably France, Austria and Switzerland (at least 20 percentage point difference). Hungary and Denmark also have a relatively significant proportion of their expatriates who are graduates of higher education institutions compared to the native-born. On the other hand, emigration originating from Portugal, Turkey, Mexico or the Slovak Republic is essentially not highly qualified.

With the notable exceptions of some Central and Eastern European Countries as well as Mexico, Ireland, Korea and Finland, highly skilled immigration towards OECD countries from the rest of the world systematically exceeds highly skilled emigration from OECD countries to other OECD countries (see Figure II.3).[17] On this measure (and provided that expatriation of the highly skilled to non-OECD countries can be assumed to be relatively uncommon), most OECD countries would seem to benefit from the international mobility of the highly skilled.

Within the OECD area, only the United States, Australia, Canada, Switzerland, Spain, Sweden, Luxembourg and Norway (in this order) are net beneficiaries of highly skilled migration from other OECD countries. The United Kingdom has 700 000 more highly skilled expatriates in OECD countries than it has highly skilled immigrants from other OECD countries. Comparable figures exceed 500 000 for Germany, 400 000 for Mexico, 300 000 for Poland. France and Belgium have almost as many highly skilled immigrants from, as expatriates to OECD countries. This of course gives only a partial picture of brain

Table II.3. **Number and distribution of OECD expatriates by level of education**

	Tertiary	Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	Less than upper secondary	unspecified	Total
Australia	116 513	84 091	53 308	13 402	**267 314**
	45.9	*33.1*	*21.0*		
Austria	105 149	164 504	80 401	15 970	**366 024**
	30.0	*47.0*	*23.0*		
Belgium	108 797	104 109	101 295	7 343	**321 544**
	34.6	*33.1*	*32.2*		
Canada	417 750	411 595	200 175	15 458	**1 044 978**
	40.6	*40.0*	*19.4*		
Former CSFR	32 796	46 232	29 781	1 175	**109 984**
	30.1	*42.5*	*27.4*		
Czech Republic	53 084	106 613	51 239	4 943	**215 879**
	25.2	*50.5*	*24.3*		
Denmark	59 905	61 958	38 317	12 829	**173 009**
	37.4	*38.7*	*23.9*		
Finland	67 358	108 708	80 378	8 801	**265 245**
	26.3	*42.4*	*31.3*		
France	348 432	313 538	294 700	56 911	**1 013 581**
	36.4	*32.8*	*30.8*		
Germany	865 255	1 201 040	783 364	84 098	**2 933 757**
	30.4	*42.1*	*27.5*		
Greece	118 318	190 647	405 698	20 767	**735 430**
	16.6	*26.7*	*56.8*		
Hungary	90 246	129 452	85 451	9 773	**314 922**
	29.6	*42.4*	*28.0*		
Iceland	7 792	8 552	5 223	1 503	**23 070**
	36.1	*39.7*	*24.2*		
Ireland	186 554	143 679	347 073	115 010	**792 316**
	27.5	*21.2*	*51.2*		
Italy	300 631	619 946	1 395 714	114 048	**2 430 339**
	13.0	*26.8*	*60.3*		
Japan	281 664	220 158	64 529	9 641	**575 992**
	49.7	*38.9*	*11.4*		
Korea	134 926	116 535	53 568	7 509	**312 538**
	44.2	*38.2*	*17.6*		
Luxembourg	7 115	8 252	10 179	1 618	**27 164**
	27.9	*32.3*	*39.8*		
Mexico	472 784	2 057 184	5 900 254	1 159	**8 431 381**
	5.6	*24.4*	*70.0*		
Netherlands	209 988	203 897	168 284	34 740	**616 909**
	36.1	*35.0*	*28.9*		
New Zealand	166 854	84 113	122 942	36 754	**410 663**
	44.6	*22.5*	*32.9*		
Norway	39 152	45 054	31 263	6 610	**122 079**
	33.9	*39.0*	*27.1*		
Poland	328 058	518 868	387 023	42 533	**1 276 482**
	26.6	*42.0*	*31.4*		
Portugal	82 938	295 053	850 758	39 977	**1 268 726**
	6.7	*24.0*	*69.2*		
Slovak Republic	51 798	168 803	150 445	3 524	**374 570**
	14.0	*45.5*	*40.5*		
Spain	137 708	204 284	392 793	28 228	**763 013**
	18.7	*27.8*	*53.5*		

Table II.3. **Number and distribution of OECD expatriates by level of education** *(cont.)*

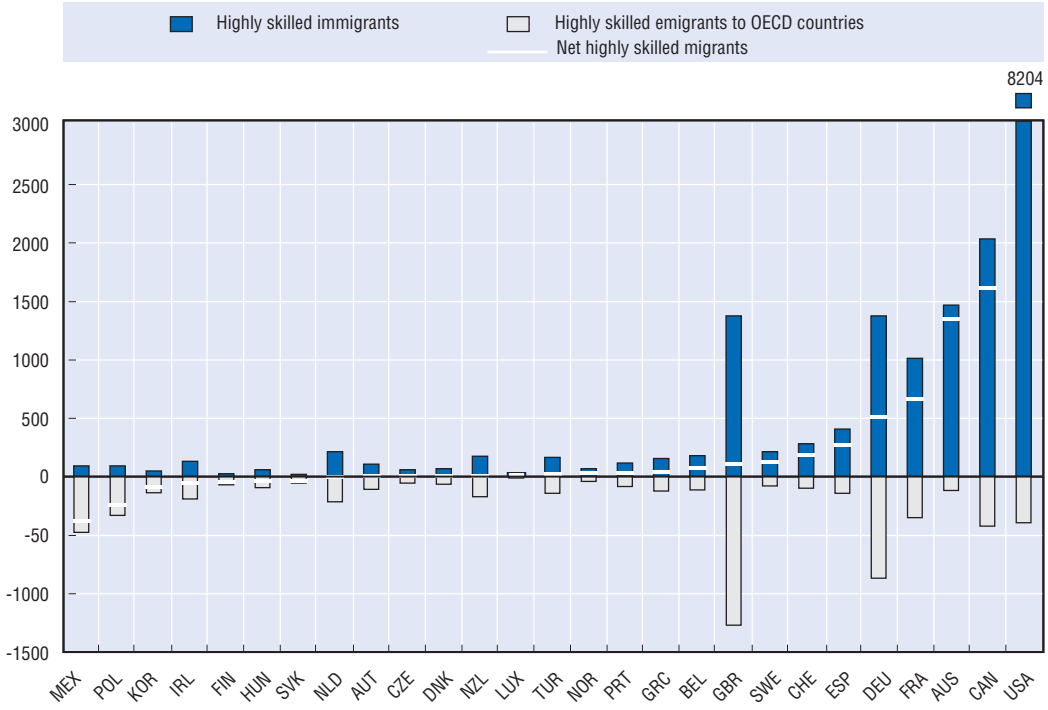
	Tertiary	Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	Less than upper secondary	unspecified	Total
Sweden	78 054	74 559	42 167	11 824	**206 604**
	40.1	*38.3*	*21.6*		
Switzerland	93 859	94 918	68 182	5 497	**262 456**
	36.5	*36.9*	*26.5*		
Turkey	138 323	467 630	1 547 933	41 759	**2 195 645**
	6.4	*21.7*	*71.9*		
United Kingdom	1 265 863	1 006 180	798 421	159 212	**3 229 676**
	41.2	*32.8*	*26.0*		
United States	390 244	220 869	170 665	27 762	**809 540**
	49.9	*28.3*	*21.8*		

Note: Population aged 15 and over. Percentage calculations do not take account of unspecified cases. Former CSFR stands for "former Czechoslovakia".

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Figure II.3. **Immigrant and emigrant population 15+ with tertiary education in OECD countries**

Thousands



Note: Data for Korean emigrants are partial as several OECD countries do not systematically distinguish between the Democratic Republic of Korea and the People's Republic of Korea.

Source: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

drain/brain exchange, because it does not include movements of the highly skilled between non-OECD and OECD countries. When movements from all countries to the OECD are included, the picture changes significantly.

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Table II.4. **Persons with tertiary education by place of birth, selected OECD countries**

Percentages

	Native-Born	Foreign-Born	Expatriates
Canada	31.5	38.0	40.6
France	16.9	18.1	36.4
Germany	19.5	15.5	30.4
Hungary	10.7	19.8	29.6
Korea	26.7	32.2	44.2
New Zealand	27.2	31.0	44.6
Sweden	22.8	24.2	40.1
Switzerland	18.1	23.7	36.5
United States	26.9	24.8	49.9

Source: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

The difference between the number of highly skilled emigrants to OECD countries and highly skilled immigrants from all countries is largely positive in the United States (+8.2 million), Canada and Australia, but also in France and Germany, even though these countries have a significant number of highly skilled expatriates in other OECD countries. Highly skilled immigration expressed as a percentage of the total highly skilled workforce is particularly significant (over 20%) in Australia, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Canada and New Zealand. The percentage of the highly skilled who are expatriates is below 10% for most OECD countries (see Figure II.2) and particularly low in Japan, the United States, Spain and Australia. Conversely, more than 10% of the highly skilled born in Switzerland, Portugal, Austria, or the United Kingdom are living in other OECD countries. This percentage is over 20% for three countries: Luxembourg (22.2%), Ireland (24.2%) and New Zealand (24.2%). Table II.4 clearly confirms the selective character of migration (in favour of the highly skilled) in OECD countries. This phenomenon is the result of pull factors attributable to selective migration policies in receiving countries, but also to other factors such as the fact that highly qualified persons are more tuned into the international labour market (because of social capital, language skills, access to information…) and have more resources to finance a move.

4. Highly skilled migration from non-member countries towards OECD countries: new evidence on the "brain drain"

Among non-member countries the biggest expatriate community is that originating in the former USSR with 4.2 million people, followed by the former Yugoslavia (2.2 million), India (1.9 million), the Philippines (1.8 million), China (1.7 million), Vietnam (1.5 million), Morocco (1.4 million) and Puerto Rico (1.3 million). Among persons with tertiary education, the former USSR still ranks first (1.3 million) with India having the second largest expatriate community (1 million) (see Table II.A2.6 in Annex II.A2).

To estimate "emigration rates" by level of qualification for non-member countries, information on the level of education of the relevant population in the country of origin is required. Two sets of estimates have been compiled for such countries, based on two data sources (see Box II.3). The results are presented in Table II.5 for the 15 countries with the lowest "emigration rates" for the highly qualified aged 15 and over as well as for the 15 countries with the highest rates. Most OECD countries, which are not included in Table II.5, would tend to fall among countries having lower rates.

Box II.3. **Estimation of "emigration rates" by educational attainment and country of origin**

Until the constitution of the data set described in this paper, there was limited data on the extent of international mobility of the highly skilled. One study by Carrington and Detragiache (1998), which has recently been updated by Adams (2003), relies on United States census data on the foreign-born and OECD immigrant stock data from the *Trends in International Migration* data base to construct a data base for emigration by level of education and by country of origin. The authors use the United States 1990 Census data to determine the educational profile of immigrants by country of birth and apply it to immigrants (in many cases, foreigners) living in other OECD countries to estimate the total stocks of migrants by level of education and country of origin. The Barro and Lee (1993) database on educational attainment levels is the source for the stock of the population by level of education in countries of origin. This then becomes the denominator of reference to estimate the emigration rates.

The estimates based on this methodology are subject to a number of limitations. One significant problem concerns the assumptions made because of data availability limitations. In particular, the foreign-born population in EU countries is assumed to be the foreign population and foreigners of a particular nationality are considered to have the same educational profile as the foreign-born of the United States. As a result the estimates tend to be problematical for small source countries and countries whose citizens tend to migrate to countries other than the United States. In addition, Cohen and Soto (2001) have shown that the Barro and Lee (1993) database on educational attainment is of uneven quality.

The database on immigrants and expatriates in OECD countries, which is the basis of this paper, has direct measures of the educational attainment of immigrants for all OECD receiving countries, and thus can avoid making the assumptions of previous studies. "Emigration rates" can be produced by level of qualification and country of origin. The "emigration rate" for country i and education level l ("emigration rate$_{i,\,l}$") is calculated by dividing the expatriate population from the country of origin i and level of education l (*Expatriates*$_{i,\,l}$) by the total native-born population of the same country and level of education (*Native Born*$_{i,\,l}$ = *Expatriates*$_{i,\,l}$ + *Resident Native born*$_{i,\,l}$) (see also note 4). Three levels of qualification are considered (see Annex II.A1 for more details). Highly skilled persons correspond to those with a tertiary level of education.

Two sets of estimates of the *Resident Native born*$_{i,l}$ using two reference data bases for the structure of education of the population 15+ in origin countries have been produced. The first makes use of an updated version of Barro and Lee (1993) for the year 2000 which covers 113 countries (Barro and Lee, 2000). The second database covers 95 countries (Cohen and Soto, 2001). The authors of the latter have used the OECD education database plus some other sources for non-member countries to construct a new database on human capital stock in 2000. Data for the total population come from the World Development Indicators. A spearman rank correlation test confirms that the two calculations produce a similar classification ($\rho = 0.94$), despite significant differences for some countries (*e.g.* Argentina, Chile, Zimbabwe, Singapore and Uruguay).

Because of differences in the population stocks between the World Bank figures and those obtained directly from OECD censuses (partly attributable to differences in reference years) and differences in the specification of levels of education, some differences appear when comparing the "emigration rates" calculated for OECD countries from these two data sets with those discussed and presented earlier for OECD countries alone, based on census data.

Source: The OECD database is available at *www.oecd.org/migration*.

Table II.5. **Highly skilled expatriates from selected non-OECD countries**[1]

Percentages of total expatriates

	Cohen and Soto (2001)	*Highly skilled aged 15+*	Barro and Lee (2000)	*Highly skilled aged 15+*
15 non-OECD countries with the *lowest* percentage of highly skilled 15+ expatriates in OECD countries	Brazil	*1.7*	Brazil	*1.2*
	Myanmar	*1.7*	Thailand	*1.4*
	Indonesia	*1.9*	Indonesia	*1.5*
	Thailand	*1.9*	Paraguay	*1.8*
	Bangladesh	*2.0*	Argentina	*1.8*
	Paraguay	*2.0*	China	*2.4*
	Nepal	*2.1*	Myanmar	*2.4*
	India	*3.1*	Peru	*2.7*
	Bolivia	*3.1*	Nepal	*2.9*
	China	*3.2*	Bangladesh	*3.0*
	Jordan	*3.2*	Bolivia	*3.1*
	Venezuela	*3.3*	India	*3.4*
	Costa Rica	*4.0*	Egypt	*3.4*
	Syria	*4.3*	Venezuela	*3.5*
	Egypt	*4.4*	Swaziland	*3.5*
15 non-OECD countries with the *highest* percentage of highly skilled 15+ expatriates in OECD countries	Guyana	*83.0*	Guyana	*76.9*
	Jamaica	*81.9*	Jamaica	*72.6*
	Haiti	*78.5*	Guinea-Bissau	*70.3*
	Trinidad and Tobago	*76.0*	Haiti	*68.0*
	Fiji	*61.9*	Trinidad and Tobago	*66.1*
	Angola	*53.7*	Mozambique	*52.3*
	Cyprus	*53.3*	Mauritius	*50.1*
	Mauritius	*53.2*	Barbados	*47.1*
	Mozambique	*47.1*	Fiji	*42.9*
	Ghana	*45.1*	Gambia	*42.3*
	United Rep. of Tanzania	*41.7*	Congo	*33.7*
	Uganda	*36.4*	Sierra Leone	*32.4*
	Kenya	*35.9*	Ghana	*31.2*
	Burundi	*34.3*	Kenya	*27.8*
	Sierra Leone	*33.3*	Cyprus	*26.0*

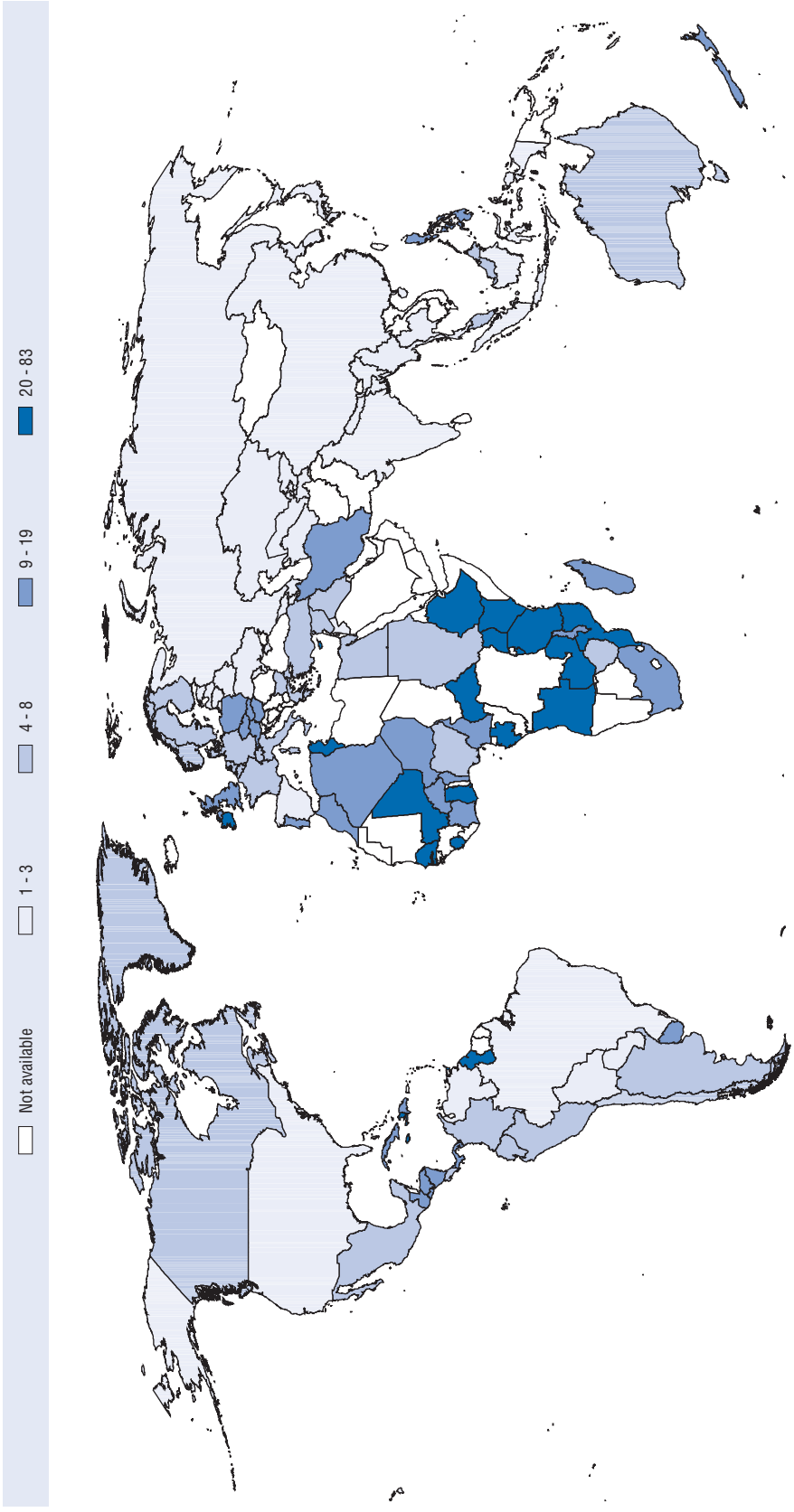
1. Two different sources for the educational attainment of non-OECD countries have been used. They are identified at the top of each column. See Box II.3 and bibliography for the detailed references.

Among countries with low "emigration rates" of highly qualified persons (*i.e.* inferior to 5%), we find most of the large countries included in the database (*i.e.* Brazil, Indonesia, Bangladesh, India and China). At the other end of the spectrum, smaller countries, a number of which are islands such as Jamaica, Haiti, Trinidad and Tobago, Mauritius or Fiji, have more than 40% of their highly skilled populations abroad and sometimes as much as 80%. The importance of the *size* of the origin country is confirmed by simple correlation analysis (see Figure II.4a).

This first result stresses the heterogeneity of situations among non-member countries and the possibility that emigration of highly skilled workers may adversely affect small countries, preventing them from reaching a critical mass of human resources, which would be necessary to foster long-term economic development.[18]

The world map (see Map II.1) presents "emigration rates" of the highly skilled for all countries, with African countries standing out as those having particularly high "emigration rates". Anglophone African countries as well as Portuguese-speaking countries (*e.g.* Mozambique and Angola, but also Cape Verde) record the highest brain drain

Map II.1. **Percentage of highly skilled expatriates to OECD countries among all highly skilled born in the country**



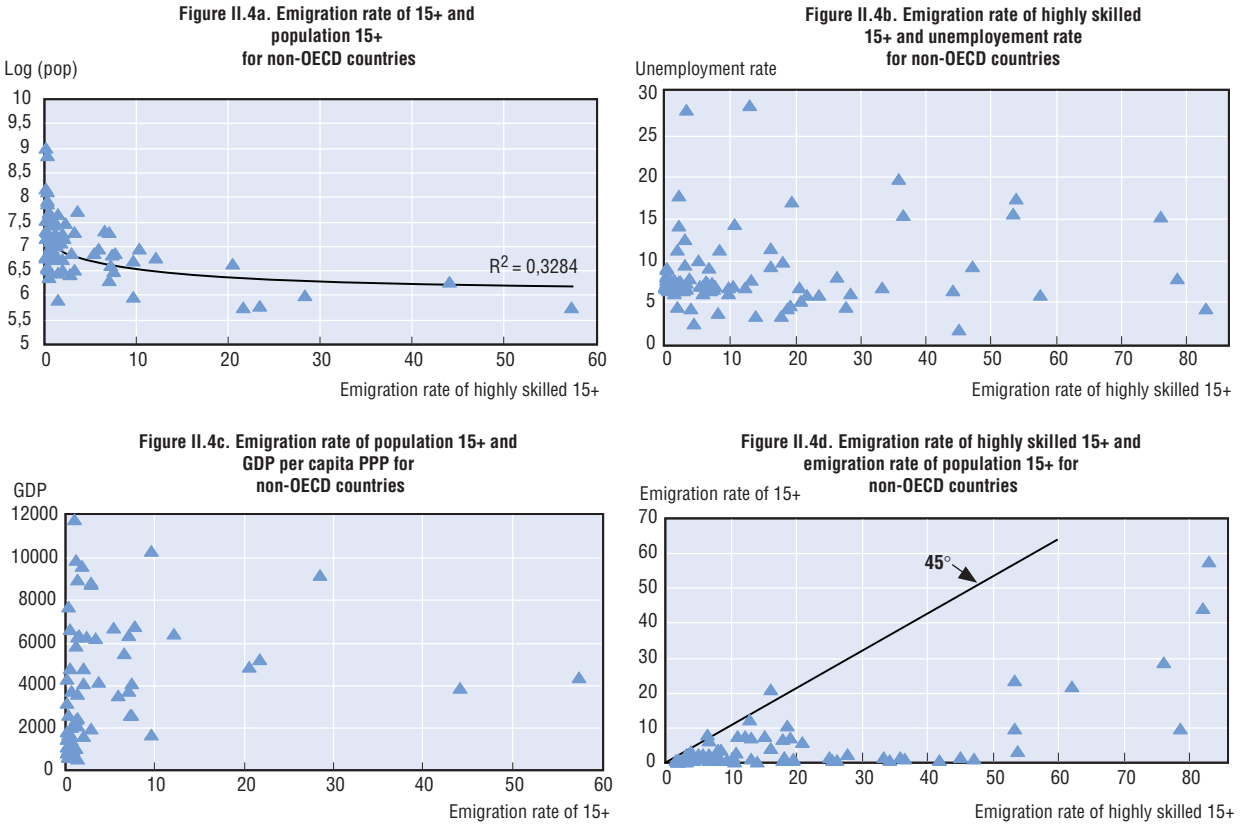
Source: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations based on Cohen and Soto (2001) for highly skilled stocks in countries of origin.

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rates. Emigration of the highly skilled is also quite significant in Central America but more moderate in Asia, with the relative exceptions of Hong Kong and Singapore. The former USSR faces intensive migration from former soviet republics towards Russia, which unfortunately it is not possible to illustrate here.[19] However, emigration of the highly skilled from countries of the former USSR, considered as a whole, towards OECD countries remains moderate relative to the total stock of qualified persons in these countries.

Determinants of emigration of the highly skilled are not self-evident. Economic theory would predict that differences in wage levels and in returns to education between sending and receiving countries are significant elements. Figures II.4b and c show that the correlation between the "emigration rate" of people aged 15+ or of the highly skilled is not strongly correlated to the unemployment rate in origin countries or to GDP per capita at PPP.[20] On the other hand, Figure II.4d clearly illustrates the strong selectivity of migration in favour of the highly skilled. For almost all countries reviewed, the "emigration rate" of the highly skilled exceeds that of persons 15 and over as a whole.

Figure II.4. **"Emigration rates" for 15+ and highly skilled 15+ and demo-economic situation for non-OECD countries**



Note: Calculations are made on population 15 and over. The regression curves represent a power regression in Figure II.4a.

Sources: Emigration rates are calculated with Cohen and Soto (2001) data. Data on unemployment come from the ILO (Laborsta) and data on GDP per capita at PPP (2001) from World Bank (WDI).

5. Recent policy measures in OECD countries for facilitating the international recruitment of the highly skilled

The above paragraphs have provided a descriptive overview of, among others, movements of the highly skilled from and to OECD countries. The development of information technology and the growing role of human capital in economic growth have contributed to increasing the demand for skilled labour significantly in most OECD countries during the 1990s (OECD, 2002). IT competencies and skills, however, are not the only ones in demand. Population ageing in most OECD countries and the related increase in health care requirements are increasing the demand for medical personnel. Doctors, nurses, nursing auxiliaries and care assistants are particularly sought after in several member countries. The same applies to teachers, translators, human resources in science and technology (HRST) or in the biomedical or agro-food sectors, for example.

In the medium term in several OECD countries, retiring baby-boomers will generate relatively high demand for replacement labour in these and other specific occupations. While some and perhaps many of these vacancies will be filled by native-born new entrants and re-entrants to the workforce, some will also be filled by immigrants.

Competition is keen among OECD member countries to attract human resources they lack and to retain those who might emigrate. Many countries amended their legislation in the late 1990s to facilitate the entry of skilled foreign workers and to allow foreign students to access their labour markets (under certain conditions and for specific occupations) upon graduation (see Tremblay, 2001 and OECD, 2004). Most countries introduced more flexibility into their existing labour migration policies, while others also launched more specific recruitment programmes to meet labour shortages (Doudeijns and Dumont, 2002). The recent economic downturn did not significantly affect this trend although some countries have reintroduced restrictions in some sectors.

In Denmark, France, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, the application of labour- market testing criteria has been relaxed for those occupations reflecting current labour market needs. These occupations include IT specialists, highly skilled workers and, in some cases, biotechnology, medicine, healthcare and education professionals, as specified, for example, in the United Kingdom's *Shortage Occupation List*.[21]

Although family preference is the cornerstone of permanent immigration policy in the United States, the country nonetheless admits a large number of permanent highly skilled foreign professionals (almost 180 000 in 2002), as well as highly skilled workers on renewable three-year visas (H-1B visas). This temporary immigration is subject to an annual quota which was set at 195 000 until the end of 2003 (it has been reduced to 65 000 since then). In 2001 in Switzerland, the quota for highly skilled workers was increased by almost 30% even though it had remained unchanged for more than 10 years prior to this. Japan and Korea share a determination to confine immigration to highly skilled workers. In the past ten years, high-skilled immigration has increased by 40% in Japan and more than ten-fold in Korea.

Some OECD countries have also created new programmes to facilitate the international recruitment of highly skilled workers. Norway and the United Kingdom, for instance, have introduced programmes to allow highly skilled foreign workers to come to seek work for a limited period of time. Although these programmes are still limited (approximately 5 000 persons for each country), they represent a significant change with regard to the usual migration policies of European countries, which generally require a job offer as a

prerequisite for labour migration. Germany on its side has developed a special programme to recruit IT specialists, which has been extended until January 2005. Approximately 15 800 permits have been granted between August 2000 and January 2004. In addition, the German authorities have recently reformed their immigration law to facilitate the entry of highly skilled workers, such as engineers, computer technicians, researchers and business leaders.

In settlement countries, such as Australia, Canada and New Zealand[22] permanent immigration is subject to a points system with an increasing emphasis on the potential immigrant's profile (age, education, skills, work experience). Permanent skilled immigration to these countries has significantly increased in the last four years (by almost 25%) and temporary immigration of highly skilled workers is facilitated more and more. More or less in the same vein, the Czech Republic has recently implemented a programme aiming at recruiting highly skilled workers through a point system.

In addition to immigration policy measures, some OECD countries have introduced specific fiscal incentives to attract highly skilled migrants (see Table II.6). Some of these offer virtual income-tax-free status for up to 5 years for certain categories of highly qualified personnel most in need, or large tax deductions (*e.g.* 25% in Sweden, 30% in the Netherlands, 35% in Austria or 40% in Korea). New legislation along the same lines has been recently adopted in France and is under consideration in New Zealand.

Conclusions

If receiving countries and migrants are generally believed to profit from the opening up of borders to international migration of highly skilled human capital, the impact on sending countries is not so clear. For instance, some observers have claimed that the increase in the expected return on human capital as a result of expatriation increases incentives to invest in human capital in sending countries and that this increase is sufficient to off-set the depletion effect of emigration on human resources in these countries. This argument seems problematical, both theoretically and empirically.[23] On the other hand, the potential negative impact of emigration on the supply of human capital needs to be seen in the context of the employment situation in the origin country (the extent of participation and unemployment, the productivity of human capital). In many cases, expatriated professionals would have had few opportunities to work at home in their field.

Results presented in this paper based on the new database on immigrants and expatriates in OECD countries, show that:

- The percentage of the foreign-born in European OECD countries is generally higher than the percentage of foreigners. Migration to a number of European countries (*e.g.* Sweden, Germany, Austria, Greece or France) is significantly higher than is generally reported and approaches levels that are as high in relative terms as observed, for example, in the United States.
- The stock figures shown here reflect migration waves over a long period. Although recent migration to OECD countries tends to come largely from non-OECD countries, migration between OECD countries continues to have a significant impact. This migration is quite selective towards highly skilled migrants, underlining the effects of the current competition between member countries to attract "the best and the brightest" from other countries, both inside and outside the OECD area.

Table II.6. **Fiscal incentives for highly skilled immigrants**

Australia	In order to encourage businesses requiring a skilled labour force to locate in Australia, since July 1, 2002, foreign source income of eligible temporary residents is exempt from tax for 4 years.
Austria	An individual who has not had a residence in Austria during the past 10 years, who maintains his primary residence abroad and has an assignment with an Austrian employer for less than 5 years benefits from tax deductions for up to 35% of the taxable salary income for expenses incurred in maintaining a household in Austria, educational expenses and leave allowances.
Belgium	Certain foreign executives, specialists and researchers residing temporarily in Belgium are eligible for a special tax regime that treats them as non-residents. Taxable income is calculated by adjusting the remuneration according to the number of days spent outside Belgium. Reimbursements of expenses incurred by an employee as a result of his temporary stay in Belgium are not subject to personal income tax.
Denmark	A special expatriate tax regime applies to foreigners employed by Danish-resident employers. Under qualifying contracts, salary income is taxed at a flat rate of 25% instead of the usual rates of 39% to 59%. To qualify, expatriates must reside in Denmark and earn more than 50 900 DKK a month in 2001. This tax regime is valid for up to 36 months.
Finland	A foreigner working in Finland may qualify for a special tax at a flat rate of 35% during a period of 24 months if he receives any Finnish-source income for duties requiring special expertise and earns a cash salary of € 5 800 or more per month. This law provides that the expert has not been resident in Finland any time during the five preceding years.
France	Recent legislation changes which aim at encouraging foreign professionals to work in France include a 5-year tax exemption for bonuses paid to foreign expatriates where these are directly related to their assignment in France, and tax deductions for social security payments made by the expatriates in their home countries. A deduction will also be available for pension and health care payments made outside France. It applies to foreign professionals (including French nationals with a foreign labour contract who have been residing out of France for a least 10 years) coming to France from 1 January 2004.
Japan	For expatriates living in Japan, relocation allowances and once-a-year home-leave allowances are generally tax-free
Korea	Since January 2003, tax-free allowances of up 40 per cent of salary to cover cost of living, housing, home leave and education. Tax-exempt salary for certain sectors for up to 5 years if the individual is *i)* employed under a tax-exempt technology-inducement contract or *ii)* a foreign technician with experience in certain industries.
Netherlands	Expatriates may qualify for a special facility called the "30 per cent" (previously the "35 per cent"). This enables an employer to pay, for up to 10 years, employees seconded in the Netherlands a tax-free allowance of up to 30% of regularly received employment income and a tax-free reimbursement of school fees for children attending international schools.
New Zealand	A government discussion document, released in November 2003, outlines proposals to exempt the foreign-sourced income of certain migrants and returning New Zealanders from New Zealand's international tax regime. It is aimed at ensuring that New Zealand's tax system does not discourage the recruitment of overseas employees. The Government has proposed two possible approaches: • a narrow exemption that would apply for seven years and focus on those tax rules that are more comprehensive than the international norm; and • a second option that would apply for three years and provide eligible taxpayers with a broad exemption from paying New Zealand tax on all foreign-sourced income.
Norway	Expatriates expected to reside in Norway for 4 years or less may be allowed a 15 per cent standard deduction from their gross income instead of itemised personal deductions.
Canada	Researchers can benefit from 5-year tax relief in the province of Québec on 75% of their personal income if they settle in Quebec to work in R&D in a firm.
Sweden	Since 1st January 2001 foreign key personnel who are experts and scientists with knowledge and skills that are scarce in Sweden may benefit from a new expatriate regime. No taxes are paid for the first 25% of their income. This is valid for a maximum period of 10 years.
United Kingdom	Persons who are seconded to the UK and declare their intention to remain in the UK on a temporary basis, can claim tax relief on their housing costs and traveling costs. Non-ordinary residents can also claim tax relief for days worked outside the UK.

Sources: UK Home Treasury (2003), Ernst and Young (2001) and national ministries.

- In most OECD countries, the number of immigrants with tertiary education exceeds the number of highly qualified expatriates to other OECD countries. On this measure, most OECD countries would appear to benefit from the international mobility of the highly skilled. This conclusion, however, must be considered as tentative, because the database described here does not cover expatriates to OECD non-member countries.
- Among non-member countries the impact of the international mobility of the highly skilled is diverse. The largest developing countries seem not be significantly affected and indeed may benefit from indirect effects associated with this mobility (return migration, technology transfers, remittances…). At the other end of the spectrum, some of the

smallest countries, especially in the Caribbean and in Africa, face significant "emigration rates" of their elites. Further analysis is needed to better understand the determinants, the dynamics and the impact of the international mobility of the highly skilled on these countries.

Notes

1. This document has been prepared by J.C. Dumont (OECD) and G. Lemaître (OECD). The authors would like to acknowledge the contribution of national participants in the data collection effort and of John Martin, Martine Durand and Jean-Pierre Garson, who have provided comments and advice on a preliminary version of this paper.
2. Some foreign-born persons were born abroad with the citizenship of the current country of residence; these persons would not normally be considered as immigrants. This phenomenon is common only in a certain number of countries; it can generally be ignored in most countries without risk of providing a distorted picture of the immigrant population.
3. There are connotational differences between the terms "nationality" and "citizenship". They refer to more or less the same notion, but the former tends to be used in countries where citizenship at birth is based on that of the parents (*jus sanguinis*), whereas the latter is common in countries where citizenshipis granted to persons born in the country (*jus soli*). Hereafter, we will use the two terms interchangeably.
4. The term "expatriates" is used in this paper to refer to all foreign-born persons living abroad, regardless of the current or eventual duration of their stay abroad. Obviously, many and perhaps most will never return to their country of birth to live.
5. Some of the measures adopted include reinforcing tax incentives to promote return migration, seeking to enhance the environment for scientific and technical research or improving the status of certain professions.
6. See also Adams (2003), who applied the methodology developed by Carrington and Detragiache (1998) to more recent data.
7. The network created associates statisticians from NSOs in 29 member countries, as well as observers from several multilateral organisations (the ILO, Eurostat, the European Commission, the UN statistics division, the UN Economic Commission for Europe).
8. "Emigration rates" are calculated by dividing the number of foreign-born residing in OECD countries and originating in a particular country by the total number of natives from that country, including those no longer living in the country. It does not correspond to the usual definition of an emigration rate, which relates flows of migrants over a certain period of time to the initial stock of persons in the origin country.
9. The 2000 United States Census enumerated close to 8 million more persons than had been anticipated of the basis of the post-decenial population projections. Most of these were believe to be undocumented aliens.
10. Six countries have provided detailed information on nationality at birth (Belgium, Canada, France, Norway, Switzerland and the United States).
11. Portugal could have been added to this list, but in this case the result would be largely attributable to persons repatriated from Angola in the mid-1970s.
12. In a recent referendum in Switzerland, a proposal to facilitate the acquisition of nationality for "third-generation" immigrants was rejected.
13. There is, to a certain extent, an implicit assumption here, which is that persons born abroad were educated abroad. This is obviously not always the case.
14. The figure is approximately 422 000 if one excludes the foreign-born offspring of American parents.
15. There are also a significant number of Japanese born-persons in France (14 300), *i.e.* more than Korean-born persons born in France (13 400), but fewer than Japanese-born persons living in the United Kingdom (37 500).
16. These are likely to be mostly retired.

17. Stocks of persons, both emigrants and immigrants, are being considered here. In the case of Ireland, for instance an analysis of net flows of migrants would produce a rather different picture, including for the highly skilled.

18. Dumont (1999) shows that "convergence groups" can be identified based on the human capital stock (education and health) available at the beginning of the period considered.

19. As the database only covers OECD countries, it is not possible to evaluate migration from former soviet Republics to Russia. For more information and estimates on this issue, see Eisenbaum (2005 forthcoming).

20. Since current migrant stocks reflect the cumulative impact of different historical migration waves, it is not entirely surprising to find no strong correlation with recent GDP per capita at PPPs or unemployment rates in origin countries. Ideally this analysis would be carried out using the difference in receiving and host-country unemployment rates together with the wage gap minus the expected cost of migration. Further analysis is needed to better understand the main determinants of international migration in general and of highly skilled migration in particular.

21. IT occupations were withdrawn from the list in the UK in 2002 because of the economic downturn in this sector. A special regulation for IT specialists was also rescinded in 2004 in France.

22. Following a comprehensive review of its skilled immigration policy, New Zealand has recently introduced a new Skilled Migrant Category to replace the General Skills Category. This change is a deliberate policy shift to promote the active recruitment of the skilled migrants that New Zealand needs (see Little 2004 for details).

23. Commander, Kangasniemi and Winters (2004) show that the conditions to be met to reach such a result are indeed very restrictive and depend on the size of migration flows, the type of selection process in receiving countries as well as the functioning of the education system in source countries.

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ANNEX II.A1

Data Sources and Data Availability

Of the 29 countries taking part in the project, 23 have population censuses and seven have population registers. Other sources were identified by some countries but the census or the population register is generally the most suitable source (see attached table on data sources).

For the great majority of the countries involved, data by country of birth are available. For some countries the situation is, however, more problematic. In the cases of Japan, for example, the data by country of origin and level of education were not published or processed at the time of the drafting of this note even if they appear in the census. In the case of the Netherlands, the data on education are not available from the population register and it was thus necessary to use the labour force survey averaged over several years (2000-2002), in order to estimate the foreign-born by level of education and country of birth (for those countries of birth for which there were samples large enough to support reliable estimates).

Korea and Japan do not identify the foreign-born in their censuses. For these countries, because naturalisations are rare, nationality can serve as a reasonable proxy for country of birth. This approximation was not possible, however, in the case of Germany where the only data available, from the annual Microcensus (1999-2002), does not record the place of birth, although it does record the nationality and whether or not a person was born in Germany. In this case to compile data on expatriates the following assumptions and adjustments were made: *i)* for non-German citizens born abroad, it was assumed that their place of birth was the same as their nationality, *ii)* for "unknown" place of birth or nationality in the Microcensus, a response was attributed according to the distribution observed when a response was available, *iii)* for German citizens born abroad, the German Socioeconomic Panel, which does identify the place of birth, was used for those countries for which the sample was large enough to produce reliable estimates. The data included in the publicly available file, however, does not include the adjustments which were made through the GSOEP.

With regard to the structure of the levels of qualification retained, it was decided to take into consideration five levels compatible with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED): ISCED 0/1/2: Less than upper secondary; ISCED 3/4: Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary; ISCED 5A: "Academic" tertiary; ISCED 5B: "Vocational" tertiary; ISCED 6: Advanced research programmes. The detail at the higher levels, however, was available only for a subset of countries. For France, Switzerland, Luxembourg and Austria 5A and 6 are not distinguishable; for the United States, Turkey,

Mexico and Spain 5A and 5B are not distinguishable; for the Slovak Republic, Korea, Netherlands and Hungary 5A, 5B and 6 are not distinguishable.

The objective was to minimize residual (*i.e.*"other") categories, with regard to the coding of countries of birth. An attempt was made to preserve the maximum information available while distinguishing between continental/regional residual categories whenever this was possible (*i.e.* "other Africa", "other Europe", "other Asia", "other South and Central America and Caribbean", "other Oceania", "other North America").

With regard to split, recomposed or newly constituted countries, there was little choice but to respect the coding in the national data collection, which varies from one country to another. In the United States, for example, people born in Korea have the choice of three ways to indicate their country of birth: Korea, North Korea or South Korea. More than 80% of them (80% of the nationals and 85% of foreigners) indicated having been born in Korea,* without further specification. In the censuses of many member countries the Czech Republic and Slovak Republic are aggregated under the name of the former Czechoslovakia. The same applies to the former USSR and the former Yugoslavia and Yemen.

To produce a consistent list of countries of birth across receiving countries, some minor adjustments had to be made, especially with respect to small islands and overseas territories. This recoding explains the small differences that might exist with national estimates for foreign born and native born populations. The following recodings were carried out.

AUS	DNK	FRA	GBR	PRT	USA[1]
• Heard and McDonald Islands	• Faeroe Islands	• French southern territories	• Channel Islands	• Madeira Islands	• US minor island
	• Greenland	• Tromelin Island	• Isle of Sark	• Azores Islands	• Christmas isle
		• Guadeloupe	• Isle of Man		• Wake Island
		• Martinique			• Palmyra Atoll
		• Reunion			• Navassa Island
		• Juan De Nova Island			• Midway Islands
		• Guyane			• Johnston Atoll
		• Mayotte			• Howland Island
		• Saint-Pierre-et-Miquelon			• Baker Island

1. People born in Puerto Rico are considered as foreign born in the United States.

* It is not possible to distinguish between Koreans who emigrated to the United States before and after 1953.

Data sources

	Data year(s)	ISO code	Type of source	Source description
Australia	2001	AUS	CEN	Australian Census of Population and Housing
Austria	2001	AUT	CEN	Census of Population
Belgium	2001	BEL	GSS	General Socio-Economic Survey
Canada	2001	CAN	CEN	Census of Population
Czech Rep	2001	CZE	CEN	Census of population
Denmark	Yearly since 1981	DNK	REG	Register-based population and labour force statistics
Finland	Yearly	FIN	REG	Population statististics
France	1999	FRA	CEN	Census of Population
Germany	Yearly	DEU	LFS	Microcensus
Greece	2001	GRC	CEN	Census of population
Hungary	2001	HUN	CEN	Census of Population
Ireland	2002	IRL	CEN	Census of Population
Italy	2001	ITA	CEN	Census of Population
Japan	2000	JPN	CEN	Census of Population
Korea	2000	KOR	CEN	Census of population
Luxembourg	2001	LUX	CEN	Census of Population
Mexico	2000	MEX	CEN	Census of population
Netherlands	1995-2000	NDL	REG	Matched data from the Population Registers, the Tax Department and the Ministry of Justice
Netherlands	Yearly	NDL	LFS	Labour Force Survey
New Zealand	2001	NZL	CEN	Census of Population and Dwellings
Norway	Varies	NOR	REG	Various administrative and statistical registers
Poland	2001	POL	CEN	Census of population
Portugal	2001	PRT	CEN	Census of population
Slovak Rep	2001	SVK	CEN	Census of population
Spain	2001	ESP	CEN	Census of Population
Sweden	Yearly	SWE	REG	Total Population Register TPR
Sweden	Yearly	SWE	EDU	Education register
Switzerland	2000	CHE	CEN	Census of Population
Turkey	2000	TUR	CEN	Census of Population
United Kingdom	2001	GBR	CEN	Census of Population
United States	2000	USA	CEN	Census 5% Public Use Microdata Sample

ANNEX II.A2

Table II.A2.1. **Stocks and percentages of non-citizens and foreign-born in OECD countries**

Total population

	Native-born			Total	Foreign-born			Total	Unspecified place of birth	Grand total	Percentage of foreign-born[1]	Percentage of non-citizens		
	Citizens	Non-citizens	Unspecified		Citizens	Non-citizens	Unspecified							
AUS	13 411 351	34 173	183 963	13 629 487	2 739 559	1 263 728	69 926	4 073 213	1 066 542	**18 769 242**	*23.0*	*7.4*	AUS	2001
AUT	6 913 512	115 840	175	7 029 527	408 093	593 420	1 019	1 002 532	867	**8 032 926**	*12.5*	*8.8*	AUT	2001
BEL	9 001 480	194 443	514	9 196 437	447 555	650 705	935	1 099 195	718	**10 296 350**	*10.7 (9.3)*	*8.2*	BEL	2002
CAN	23 920 315	1 725		23 922 040	4 150 095	1 566 920		5 717 015		**29 639 055**	*19.3 (19.0)*	*5.3*	CAN	2001
CHE	5 109 295	338 107		5 447 402	459 569	1 111 187		1 570 756	269 852	**7 288 010**	*22.4 (20.2)*	*20.5*	CHE	2000
CZE	9 556 459	20 018	607	9 577 084	357 355	90 411	711	448 477	204 499	**10 230 060**	*4.5*	*1.2*	CZE	2001
DEU			71 973 166	71 973 166			10 256 083	10 256 084		**82 229 250**	*12.5*		DEU	1999-2002
DNK	4 939 264	42 973		4 982 237	145 508	215 545		361 053	25 064	**5 368 354**	*6.8*	*5.0*	DNK	2002
ESP	38 603 844	71 326		38 675 170	671 514	1 500 687		2 172 201		**40 847 371**	*5.3*	*3.8*	ESP	2001
FIN	5 031 826	12 928	158	5 044 912	54 131	75 867	1 450	131 448	4 755	**5 181 115**	*2.5*	*1.7*	FIN	2000
FRA	52 142 848	509 598		52 652 446	3 114 654	2 753 588		5 868 242		**58 520 688**	*10.0 (7.4)*	*5.6*	FRA	1999
GBR			53 923 642	53 923 642			4 865 563	4 865 563		**58 789 205**	*8.3*		GBR	2001
GRC	9 705 670	105 248	285	9 811 203	466 165	656 382	93	1 122 640	254	**10 934 097**	*10.3*	*7.0*	GRC	2001
HUN	9 896 815	8 520	49	9 905 384	208 259	84 485	187	292 931		**10 198 315**	*2.9*	*0.9*	HUN	2001
IRL	3 405 941	7 290	45 248	3 458 479	179 034	216 971	4 011	400 016		**3 858 495**	*10.4*	*5.9*	IRL	2002
JPN[2]	125 625 759			1.26E+08		1 294 341		1 294 341		**126 920 100**		*1.0*	JPN[2]	2001
KOR[2]	45 985 289			45 985 289		135 105	15 707	150 812		**46 136 101**		*0.3*	KOR[2]	2000
LUX	257 446	37 249		294 695	18 590	124 062		142 652	2 192	**439 539**	*32.6*	*36.9*	LUX	2001
MEX			94 925 622	94 925 622			492 617	492 617	2 065 173	**97 483 412**	*0.5*		MEX	2000
NLD	14 268 673	103 025		14 371 698	1 050 600	564 777		1 615 377		**15 987 075**	*10.1*	*4.2*	NLD	2001
NOR	4 195 719	22 752	12	4 218 483	158 865	174 875	29	333 769		**4 552 252**	*7.3 (6.7)*	*4.3*	NOR	2003
NZL	2 890 869			2 890 869	22 212		676 335	698 547	147 813	**3 737 229**	*19.5*		NZL	2001
POL	36 765 038	10 135	96 108	36 871 281	741 880	29 748	3 654	775 282	583 517	**38 230 080**	*2.1*	*0.1*	POL	2002
PRT	9 692 065	11 987	593	9 704 645	431 357	219 633	482	651 472		**10 356 117**	*6.3*	*2.2*	PRT	2001
SVK	4 673 150	5 888	41 592	4 720 630	98 392	18 403	2 277	119 072	539 753	**5 379 455**	*2.5*	*0.5*	SVK	2001
SWE	7 826 472	71 123		7 897 595	672 990	404 606		1 077 596	479	**8 975 670**	*12.0*	*5.3*	SWE	2003
TUR			66 525 256	66 525 256	997 314	262 061		1 259 375	1 155	**67 785 786**	*1.9*		TUR	2000
USA	246 787 150			2.47E+08	16 069 523	18 565 268		34 634 791		**281 421 941**	*12.3 (11.1)*	*6.6*	USA	2000
Total	**690 606 250**	**1 724 348**	**287 716 990**	**9.8E+08**	**33 663 214**	**32 572 775**	**16 391 079**	**82 627 069**	**4 912 633**	**1 067 587 290**	***7.8***	***4.5***	**Total**	

1. Figures in parentheses indicate the percentage of foreign-born in total population after excluding foreign-born citizens at birth.
2. In the absence of place of birth for Japan and Korea, it has been assumed that all non-citizens are foreign-born and that nationals are native-born (see Annex II.A1 for further details).

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Table II.A2.2. **Acquisition of citizenship in receiving countries**

	Total number of foreign-born	Foreign-born with the citizenship of the country of residence	Percentage of foreign-born with the citizenship of the country of residence
AUS	4 003 287	2 739 559	*68.4*
AUT	1 001 513	408 093	*40.7*
BEL	1 098 260	447 555	*40.8*
CAN	5 717 015	4 150 095	*72.6*
CHE	1 570 756	459 569	*29.3*
CZE	447 766	357 355	*79.8*
DNK	361 053	145 508	*40.3*
ESP	2 172 201	671 514	*30.9*
FIN	129 998	54 131	*41.6*
FRA	5 868 242	3 114 654	*53.1*
GRC	1 122 547	466 165	*41.5*
HUN	292 744	208 259	*71.1*
IRL	396 005	179 034	*45.2*
LUX	142 652	18 590	*13.0*
NLD	1 615 377	1 050 600	*65.0*
NOR	333 740	158 865	*47.6*
POL	771 628	741 880	*96.1*
PRT	650 990	431 357	*66.3*
SVK	116 795	98 392	*84.2*
SWE	1 077 596	672 990	*62.5*
USA	34 634 791	16 069 523	*46.4*

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Table II.A2.3. **Stocks of total foreign-born by region of origin, OECD countries**

	Africa	*Of which*: North African countries	%	Asia	*Of which*: China and Chinese Taipei	%	Latin America	North America	Caribbean	Oceania	EU25	Other Europe	Unspecified	
AUS	191 501	2 573	*1.3*	1 115 655	232 320	*20.8*	74 893	81 018	32 000	423 428	1 889 893	264 819	6	AUS
AUT	19 934	3 560	*17.9*	57 236	8 254	*14.4*	6 054	9 029		1 931	364 624	527 007	16 717	AUT
BEL	247 515	139 799	*56.5*	68 494	9 410	*13.7*	20 387	18 071	3 976	1 468	621 471	117 787	12	BEL
CAN	323 580	52 485	*16.2*	2 040 590	657 930	*32.2*	336 570	287 465	285 295	53 215	2 014 255	375 710	335	CAN
CHE	68 801	21 153	*30.7*	101 599	8 318	*8.2*	48 327	29 319	8 834	4 787	854 305	352 962	101 822	CHE
CZE	2 374	588	*24.8*	21 365	1 251	*5.9*	870	2 687	595	341	344 256	75 989		CZE
DEU	175 665	51 230	*29.2*	567 021			47 578	81 308			2 552 578	5 244 548	1 587 387	DEU
DNK	31 875	6 520	*20.5*	110 454	4 590	*4.2*	9 208	11 123	785	2 249	118 004	77 355		DNK
ESP	423 082	343 819	*81.3*	86 669	28 848	*33.3*	744 221	25 141	95 979	4 443	597 948	194 676	42	ESP
FIN	9 713	1 783	*18.4*	18 375	2 120	*11.5*	1 817	4 086	261	750	51 681	44 764	1	FIN
FRA	2 862 569	2 296 979	*80.2*	444 774	36 831	*8.3*	79 987	58 398	24 836	6 211	1 978 923	412 539	5	FRA
GBR	838 459	26 088	*3.1*	1 579 133	154 111	*9.8*	95 357	238 043	232 940	170 278	1 493 235	175 577	42 541	GBR
GRC	58 275	1 416	*2.4*	75 854	671	*0.9*	5 486	35 683	1 128	21 111	191 038	733 183	882	GRC
HUN	2 687	517	*19.2*	10 730	4 002	*37.3*	773	3 199	367	298	65 057	209 815	5	HUN
IRL	26 650	1 238	*4.6*	27 768	7 449	*26.8*	2 793	25 624	688	8 406	291 340	16 408	339	IRL
JPN	5 742	421	*7.3*	969 799	253 096	*26.1*	232 248	45 871	482	8 801	25 299	6 098	1	JPN
KOR				116 732	56 272	*48.2*		14 408		719	3 246		15 707	KOR
LUX	5 692	1 134	*19.9*	4 382	1 202	*27.4*	1 562	1 399	274	133	116 309	11 855	1 046	LUX
MEX	1 214	262	*21.6*	10 765	2 001	*18.6*	71 644	349 366	9 922	811	44 396	4 096	403	MEX
NLD	280 007	163 658	*58.4*	367 987	34 754	*9.4*	221 626	29 826	93 326	13 226	340 220	269 158	1	NLD
NOR	31 278	5 665	*18.1*	100 274	5 869	*5.9*	15 133	17 017	1 268	1 489	116 637	49 868	805	NOR
NZL	39 351	273	*0.7*	175 302	62 736	*35.8*	3 651	21 126	17 100	156 078	271 008	14 724	207	NZL
POL	2 962	741	*25.0*	9 479	667	*7.0*	920	10 566	202	671	248 868	483 223	18 391	POL
PRT	349 859	1 596	*0.5*	16 859	2 397	*14.2*	74 949	14 627	914	1 256	159 008	34 000		PRT
SVK	404	50	*12.4*	1 400	142	*10.1*	154	945	77	64	99 931	16 097		SVK
SWE	78 039	9 962	*12.8*	244 246	12 106	*5.0*	59 965	17 627	2 840	3 376	456 262	215 241		SWE
TUR	12 686	1 627	*12.8*	83 657	1 802	*2.2*	1 010	15 006	216	3 265	447 739	695 795	1	TUR
USA	988 253	58 530	*5.9*	8 402 240	1 550 070	*18.4*	13 476 759	965 485	4 469 340	288 391	4 594 095	1 442 654	7 574	USA
Total	**7 078 167**	**3 193 667**	***45.1***	**16 828 839**	**3 139 219**	***18.7***	**15 633 942**	**2 413 463**	**5 283 645**	**1 177 196**	**20 351 626**	**12 065 948**	**1 794 230**	**Total**

Note: Data for EU25 are limited to three countries (DEU, FRA and GBR) in statistics provided by Korea and to 16 countries (BEL, DNK, FIN, FRA, GRC, IRL, ITA, LUX, NLD, AUT, PRT, SWE, POL, ESP, HUN and GBR) in data provided by Germany.

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Table II.A2.4. **Stocks and percentages of persons by education level and place of birth in OECD countries (people 15+)**

	Native-born								Foreign-born								Unspecified place of birth	
	Less than upper secondary (ISCED 0/1/2)		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 3/4)		Tertiary (ISCED 5/6)		*of which:* PhD (ISCED 6)		Unspecified	Less than upper secondary (ISCED 0/1/2)		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 3/4)		Tertiary (ISCED 5/6)		*of which :* PhD (ISCED 6)		Unspecified		
AUS	4 282 959	*45.8*	1 467 214	*15.7*	3 610 692	*38.6*	145 112	*1.6*	890 502	1 310 051	*38.3*	643 732	*18.8*	1 465 733	*42.9*	120 729	*3.5*	442 044	743 848	AUS
AUT	1 924 574	*33.4*	3 203 774	*55.7*	626 609	*10.9*				456 032	*49.4*	362 918	*39.3*	104 742	*11.3*				795	AUT
BEL	3 209 646	*46.8*	2 078 319	*30.3*	1 570 363	*22.9*	30 180	*0.4*	613 374	443 045	*54.2*	197 573	*24.2*	176 917	*21.6*	9 099	*1.1*	201 779	513	BEL
CAN	5 864 360	*31.6*	6 847 165	*36.9*	5 834 055	*31.5*	59 365	*0.3*		1 612 380	*30.1*	1 709 705	*31.9*	2 033 490	*38.0*	69 300	*1.3*			CAN
CHE	1 024 780	*25.6*	2 252 546	*56.3*	723 364	*18.1*			337 712	485 466	*41.6*	405 183	*34.7*	276 791	*23.7*			286 745	250 763	CHE
CZE	1 809 625	*22.8*	5 310 328	*67.0*	806 551	*10.2*	29 446	*0.4*	38 276	164 538	*38.4*	208 718	*48.8*	54 766	*12.8*	3 037	*0.7*	4 212	178 184	CZE
DEU	13 011 570	*23.7*	31 154 820	*56.8*	10 675 988	*19.5*				3 870 908	*43.7*	3 612 460	*40.8*	1 372 254	*15.5*					DEU
DNK	1 648 305	*41.0*	1 613 993	*40.2*	753 930	*18.8*	7 895	*0.2*		155 216	*48.6*	101 842	*31.9*	62 243	*19.5*	637	*0.2*		23 089	DNK
ESP	19 127 995	*63.9*	4 993 877	*16.7*	5 789 438	*19.4*	153 138	*0.5*		1 029 435	*55.4*	423 225	*22.8*	404 387	*21.8*	18 407	*1.0*			ESP
FIN	1 662 854	*40.3*	1 497 548	*36.3*	967 291	*23.4*	22 117	*0.5*		59 374	*52.7*	31 940	*28.4*	21 322	*18.9*	1 097	*1.0*		4 453	FIN
FRA	19 433 046	*45.8*	15 874 617	*37.4*	7 160 516	*16.9*				3 066 864	*54.8*	1 521 910	*27.2*	1 011 424	*18.1*					FRA
GBR	18 424 701	*51.2*	10 314 951	*28.7*	7 232 100	*20.1*			7 209 262	1 602 168	*40.6*	968 116	*24.5*	1 374 370	*34.8*			558 667		GBR
GRC	4 498 041	*54.4*	2 662 076	*32.2*	1 112 057	*13.4*	73 774	*0.9*		448 046	*44.8*	399 653	*39.9*	153 083	*15.3*	9 112	*0.9*		242	GRC
HUN	3 711 782	*45.1*	3 636 532	*44.2*	879 571	*10.7*				113 250	*41.1*	107 779	*39.1*	54 465	*19.8*					HUN
IRL	1 228 075	*47.8*	758 006	*29.5*	584 325	*22.7*	6 739	*0.3*	131 206	92 939	*29.6*	92 011	*29.3*	128 762	*41.0*	3 655	*1.2*	19 292		IRL
KOR	13 132 782	*36.1*	13 498 737	*37.2*	9 703 531	*26.7*	568 042	*1.6*	11 483	33 433	*23.8*	61 950	*44.0*	45 355	*32.2*			78		KOR
LUX	55 971	*28.7*	114 240	*58.6*	24 890	*12.8*			29 853	40 499	*36.7*	45 807	*41.6*	23 916	*21.7*			19 539	1 627	LUX
MEX	44 760 651	*72.3*	10 380 897	*16.8*	6 757 285	*10.9*	373 353	*0.6*	528 077	86 732	*36.5*	60 946	*25.7*	89 689	*37.8*	14 139	*6.0*	4 095	174 266	MEX
NLD	4 534 737	*40.7*	4 426 572	*39.8*	2 169 015	*19.5*				629 462	*53.0*	349 889	*29.4*	208 863	*17.6*				148 818	NLD
NOR	677 175	*21.2*	1 776 416	*55.6*	739 122	*23.2*	10 074	*0.3*	210 377	38 466	*18.3*	106 590	*50.6*	65 535	*31.1*	3 049	*1.4*	80 830		NOR
NZL	578 331	*30.1*	819 588	*42.7*	521 349	*27.2*			226 410	102 603	*18.7*	276 585	*50.4*	170 082	*31.0*			74 688	119 859	NZL
POL	9 321 483	*31.2*	17 427 397	*58.4*	3 111 488	*10.4*	101 047	*0.3*	173 876	348 750	*47.9*	293 537	*40.3*	86 385	*11.9*	6 248	*0.9*	9 067	516 445	POL
PRT	6 494 230	*80.0*	991 642	*12.2*	627 711	*7.7*	10 223	*0.1*		320 778	*54.7*	151 806	*25.9*	113 348	*19.3*	3 039	*0.5*			PRT
SVK	1 057 596	*28.0*	2 342 010	*62.0*	378 694	*10.0*			19 483	32 933	*29.3*	63 013	*56.1*	16 424	*14.6*			805	405 480	SVK
SWE	1 375 361	*25.0*	2 868 919	*52.2*	1 252 919	*22.8*	38 438	*0.7*	32 452	253 195	*29.6*	395 962	*46.2*	207 558	*24.2*	13 107	*1.5*	75 394	359	SWE
TUR	36 721 637	*79.4*	7 030 720	*15.2*	2 497 755	*5.4*				479 520	*49.3*	331 728	*34.1*	161 557	*16.6*	10 988	*1.1*		456	TUR
USA	41 438 103	*21.9*	97 004 014	*51.2*	50 983 357	*26.9*	1 317 999	*0.7*		12 632 924	*39.8*	10 885 700	*34.3*	8 204 473	*25.9*	443 152	*1.4*			USA

Note: For Finland, "less than upper secondary" includes "unspecified" educational attainment.
Educational levels for the United Kingdom are for people aged 16-74; other age groups are coded "unspecified".

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Table II.A2.5. **Stocks of persons originating in OECD countries and residing in another member country (total population)**

Country of residence:	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA
Origin country:																
AUS		1 686	1136	20155	34 20	230		1 663	3 913	656	4 216	10 7871	20 449	258	6 107	
AUT	19 313		3 166	22 585	54 616	7 358	13 3341	1 464	4 100	312	12 171	19 503	2 252	3 716	533	
BEL	4 900	1 523		20 990	10 738	755	22 702	1 249	28 200	206	124 709	21 668	4 671	520	1 141	
CAN	27 289	1 658	4 145		7 519	490		2 752	3 810	1 181	18 913	72 518	12 477	632	4 081	
CHE	10 753	11 713	4 274	21 595		385	28 945	1 910	53 484	615	75 598	16 010	3 567	616	882	
CZE	6 973	54 627	77	16 500	11 021			292	1 891	39	3 438	12 220	3 725	2 494	1 189	
DEU	108 220	140 099	83 386	191 140	181984	9 647		26 559	135 638	3 582	21 5167	26 6136	101 425	10 173	8 770	
DNK	9 089	1 090	2 973	18 400	4 122	136	17 594		5 749	708	5 482	18 695	830	100	697	
ESP	12 662	2 072	36 840	10 785	61 679	170	8 6160	2851		779	342 071	54 482	972	139	4 632	
FIN	8 258	1 300	2 761	14 395	3 842	332	11 067	3575	5 378		3 525	11 322	849	343	687	
FRA	18 827	5 903	15 1976	80 965	98 352	3 633	74 131	4038	156 681	1089		96 281	6723	1 738	6 815	
GBR	1 036 245	6 786	26 176	624 305	25 378	1 436	85 058	13615	107 794	2731	84 493		13303	1 186	248 515	
GRC	116 431	3 060	15 089	76 900	6 295	1 806	261 329	1066	1 132	468	11 872	35 169		1 228	345	
HUN	22 752	30 953	5 486	50 830	12 403	6 200	38 309	1604	1 460	873	10 543	13 159	1 586		456	
IRL	50 235	546	2 999	26 430	1 542	67	7 946	1091	4 342	200	5 316	537 108	498	48		
ISL	463	135	164	500	151	20		5855	306	120	333	1 552	32	5	55	
ITA	218 718	26 099	132 466	319 230	234 634	1 035	429 313	3364	26 578	958	409 190	107 244	5 929	935	3 705	
JPN	25 471	1 957	3 850	27 245	4 388	193		1364	3 154	640	14 261	37 535	560	324	716	
KOR	38 900	1 446	4 049	82 890	1 613	76		8056	2 158	132	15 852	12 310	204	144	166	
LUX	141	514	10 459	560	1 436	15	4 540	245	1 029	32	9 895	1 222	99	17	85	
MEX	1 154	721	1 150	44 190	2 863			524	20 949	153	6 360	5 049	363	45	314	
NLD	83 324	5 248	97 165	119 310	16 771	549	68 459	4833	23 153	731	27 618	40 438	3 083	513	3 512	
NOR	4 324	742	1 295	6 505	1 818	107		16386	59 22	954	2 838	13 798	459	288	441	
NZL	355 765	245	301	9 920	1 148	35		538	331	86	1 071	58 286	506	35	2 256	
POL	58 110	41 671	19 894	182 155	10 679	24 707	117 0711	10723	16 423	1 173	106 650	60 711	15 468	2 685	2 167	
PRT	15 441	950	21 371	155 980	100 975	39	94 258	686	56 359	141	579 465	36 555	292	28	590	
SVK	29 84	15 981	30	10 740	3 736	285 372		135	1 217	17	2 149	5 273	411	37 439	332	
SWE	6 818	3 214	3 991	7 725	6 878	210	10 783	18706	9 424	2 8040	8 658	22 525	5 428	394	1 315	
TUR	29 821	125 026	70 793	17 810	58 546	222	161 0735	30175	986	2 150	179 392	54 079	76 561	696	545	
USA	53 694	7 371	13 925	278 570	21 775	2 197	81 308	8367	21 320	2 903	39 464	158 434	23 091	2 567	2 1541	
CSFR			3 152	13 415			36 877	2320		298	6 262					
OECD foreign-born	**2 347 075**	**494 336**	**724 539**	**2 472 720**	**950 322**	**347 422**	**4 273 566**	**176 006**	**702 881**	**51 967**	**2 326 972**	**1 897 153**	**305 813**	**69 306**	**322 590**	
Percentage of total foreign-born from OECD countries	*57.6*	*50.1*	*65.9*	*53.3*	*64.7*	*77.5*	51.8	*48.8*	*32.4*	*39.5*	*39.7*	39.4	*27.3*	*23.7*	80.7	

Table II.A2.5. **Stocks of persons originating in OECD countries and residing in another member country (total population)** *(cont.)*

Country of residence:	JPN	KOR	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SWE	TUR	USA	Total
Origin country:														
AUS	6 148	719	96	281	9 529	1 101	56 142	608	1 192	52	2 525	2 938	75 314	**328 405**
AUT	293		624	500	6 746	1 040	1 200	4 312	391	808	5 967	14 335	70 560	**391 206**
BEL	324		14 770	735	46 003	907	513	2 797	2 879	179	1 356	8 751	41 705	**364 891**
CAN	7 067	2 468	305	5 768	8 427	2 290	7 770	1 555	7 326	115	2 471	1 427	945 060	**1 149 514**
CHE	677		787	1 478	5 792	1 507	2 763	506	12 897	51	2 557	10 369	49 445	**319 176**
CZE	113		253	225	121	567	663	6 200	130	75 585	522	1 026	24 865	**224 756**
DEU	3 407	920	12 847	5 595	123 110	12 880	8 382	101 633	24 283	735	40 217	273 535	1 241 450	**3 330 920**
DNK	311		1 522	245	3 242	23 326	1 446	704	387	17	40 921	3 372	34 064	**195 222**
ESP	1 183		2 120	21 114	18 279	1 782	339	1 111	13 966	30	5 470	1 209	114 190	**797 087**
FIN	512		701	126	2 379	7 027	372	192	312	11	189 341	1 672	22 865	**293 144**
FRA	3 768	1 142	18 864	5 751	19 338	3 069	2 283	34 647	95 282	1 393	6 155	16 048	204 238	**1 119 130**
GBR	10 411	1 184	3 167	2 688	45 691	14 332	218 394	2 630	10 068	87	16 428	18 939	823 279	**3 444 319**
GRC	165		865	298	7 375	636	942	2 793	125	26	10 853	59 217	178 155	**793 640**
HUN	266		293	239	5 333	1 507	987	1 344	217	17 293	13 794	520	94 095	**332 502**
IRL	618		641	192	4 425	499	6 726	71	533	2	1 349	538	164 435	**818 397**
ISL	31		309	16	385	3 941	84	41	34	1	3 811	43	9 805	**28 192**
ITA	1 127		12 254	3 904	17 207	1 506	1 440	4 292	1 958	117	6 584	2 843	536 370	**2 509 000**
JPN		13 398	289	2 936	5 879	932	8 622	230	280	16	2 502	2 003	497 945	**656 690**
KOR			513	2 100	5 305	6 347	17 934	37	74	1	9 574	513	156 085	**366 479**
LUX	8			15	827	93	30	125	3 313		139	46	2 690	**37 575**
MEX	1 222		61		1 454	471	243	116	214	9	1 328	154	9 336 530	**9 425 637**
NLD	604		3 284	773		4 389	22 239	964	3 250	32	5 150	21 823	105 920	**663 135**
NOR	280		152	134	2 499		465	315	283	9	45 087	3 554	36 340	**144 995**
NZL	2 401		33	77	3 582	345		50	48	3	763	290	26 350	**464 465**
POL	468		1 006	971	17 351	6 702	1 938		358	3 473	41 608	3 415	477 450	**2 278 667**
PRT	368		41 690	288	10 218	760	141	60		4	2 533	225	212 115	**1 331 532**
SVK	107		93	23	67	306	138	1 514	30		374	315	15 945	**384 728**
SWE	798		984	425	3 642	32 939	960	703	741	23		5 335	54 435	**235 094**
TUR	915		290	246	181 865	8 410	396	452	106	30	34 083		90 595	**2 574 925**
USA	38 804	11 940	1 094	343 597	21 356	14 725	13 344	9 010	7 301	829	15 143	13 579		**1 227 249**
CSFR					4 984	317					7 330		45 245	**120 200**
OECD foreign-born	**82 396**	**31 771**	**119 907**	**400 740**	**582 411**	**154 653**	**376 896**	**179 012**	**187 978**	**100 931**	**515 935**	**468 034**	**15 687 540**	**36 350 872**
Percentage of total foreign-born from OECD countries	10.8	*23.5*	*84.7*	*81.4*	*36.1*	*46.5*	*54.0*	23.7	*28.9*	*84.8*	*47.9*	*37.2*	*47.5*	*46.5*

Note: CSFR stands for "Former Czechoslovakia not included elsewhere". Data for Korea are partial as several OECD countries do not systematically distinguish the Democratic Republic of Korea and the People's Republic of Korea (*e.g.* 529 408 people in Japan and 743 260 in the United States).
Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations.

Table II.A2.6. **Total number of highly skilled expatriates and percentage of highly skilled expatriates by country of birth**

	Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)
Afghanistan	129 211	*25.2*	Congo	100 052	*36.6*	Hong Kong, China	587 400	*42.8*	Myanmar	57 962	*42.9*	Slovenia	52 271	*17.5*
Albania	389 264	*9.1*	Cook Islands	18 002	*8.6*	Hungary	314 923	*28.7*	Namibia	3 390	*45.3*	Solomon Islands	1 982	*45.0*
Algeria	1 301 076	*16.4*	Costa Rica	76 112	*24.2*	Iceland	23 070	*33.8*	Nauru	646	*30.7*	Somalia	131 342	*11.9*
American Samoa	30 539	*10.4*	Côte d'Ivoire	58 843	*27.5*	India	1 928 199	*51.9*	Nepal	23 229	*39.9*	South Africa	342 947	*47.9*
Andorra	3 687	*23.1*	Croatia	422 277	*14.0*	Indonesia	289 167	*34.3*	Netherlands	616 910	*34.0*	Spain	763 014	*18.0*
Angola	195 674	*19.6*	Cuba	914 501	*24.2*	Iran	632 980	*45.6*	Netherlands Antilles	68 949	*15.5*	Sri Lanka	292 247	*29.7*
Anguilla	1 677	*30.9*	Cyprus	138 711	*25.2*	Iraq	294 967	*28.2*	New Zealand	410 663	*40.6*	Sudan	42 086	*40.5*
Antigua and Barbuda	24 400	*26.5*	Czech Republic	215 879	*24.6*	Ireland	792 316	*23.5*	Nicaragua	224 531	*17.9*	Suriname	186 532	*14.6*
Argentina	266 070	*37.8*	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	1 919	*33.2*	Israel	162 567	*42.9*	Niger	4 948	*38.0*	Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	23	*17.4*
Armenia	80 442	*30.1*	Democratic Rep. of Congo	66 488	*32.5*	Italy	2 430 339	*12.4*	Nigeria	247 497	*55.1*	Swaziland	2 103	*41.7*
Aruba	5 744	*47.1*	Denmark	173 009	*34.6*	Jamaica	796 046	*24.0*	Niue	5 633	*10.0*	Sweden	206 604	*37.8*
Australia	267 314	*43.6*	Djibouti	5 359	*29.7*	Japan	575 992	*48.9*	Norfolk Islands	269	*28.6*	Switzerland	262 456	*35.8*
Austria	366 023	*28.7*	Dominica	25 738	*21.7*	Jordan	62 796	*41.0*	Northern Mariana Islands	3 647	*25.2*	Syria	126 372	*34.1*
Azerbaijan	29 263	*41.2*	Dominican Republic	691 884	*12.3*	Kazakhstan	43 226	*28.4*	Norway	122 079	*32.1*	Taiwan Province of China	431 462	*61.1*
Bahamas	30 750	*29.2*	East Timor	8 994	*17.5*	Kenya	197 445	*37.4*	Occupied Palestinian Territory	14 798	*43.8*	Tajikistan	3 094	*42.4*
Bahrain	7 424	*40.6*	Ecuador	490 267	*15.4*	Kiribati	1 964	*22.4*	Oman	2 753	*36.9*	Thailand	249 951	*29.3*
Bangladesh	275 770	*27.9*	Egypt	274 833	*51.2*	KOR+PRK	672 755	*43.3*	Pakistan	655 162	*30.8*	Timor-Leste	2 190	*20.8*
Barbados	88 895	*26.3*	El Salvador	839 511	*7.8*	Kuwait	37 591	*44.1*	Palau	2 187	*28.5*	Togo	18 024	*36.3*
Belarus	149 935	*25.0*	Equatorial Guinea	12 149	*22.7*	Kyrgyzstan	4 640	*39.0*	Panama	140 631	*32.6*	Tokelau	1 815	*11.3*
Belgium	321 544	*33.8*	Eritrea	35 127	*24.0*	Lao People's Democratic Republic	264 864	*14.4*	Papua New Guinea	26 074	*43.9*	Tonga	41 116	*11.2*
Belize	43 023	*20.2*	Estonia	35 077	*32.0*	Latvia	54 153	*37.4*	Paraguay	18 504	*25.0*	Trinidad and Tobago	276 934	*29.5*
Benin	13 669	*43.8*	Ethiopia	113 838	*31.2*	Lebanon	332 270	*32.9*	Peru	361 506	*30.2*	Tunisia	371 274	*17.7*
Bermuda	19 572	*34.8*	Falkland Islands	1 316	*22.5*	Lesotho	995	*45.7*	Philippines	1 816 418	*48.1*	Turkey	2 195 645	*6.3*
Bhutan	809	*25.5*	Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	1 064 580	*11.9*	Liberia	41 756	*33.0*	Pitcairn	173	*42.2*	Turkmenistan	3 269	*32.8*
Bolivia	72 400	*30.4*	Fiji	119 400	*26.4*	Libya	27 481	*43.4*	Poland	1 276 482	*25.7*	Turks and Caicos Islands	1 429	*18.2*
Bosnia-Herzegovina	536 327	*11.5*	Finland	265 245	*25.4*	Liechtenstein	3 532	*19.3*	Portugal	1 268 726	*6.5*	Tuvalu	1 065	*8.0*

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Table II.A2.6. **Total number of highly skilled expatriates and percentage of highly skilled expatriates by country of birth** *(cont.)*

	Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)		Total number of expatriates	*of which:* Highly skilled (%)
Botswana	4 298	*37.4*	Former Czechoslovakia	109 984	*29.8*	Lithuania	132 843	*22.1*	Puerto Rico	1 312 753	*14.7*	U. Rep. of Tanzania	70 006	*41.0*
Brazil	351 878	*31.7*	Former USSR (Others)[1]	2 222 270	*29.0*	Luxembourg	27 164	*26.2*	Qatar	3 384	*43.3*	Uganda	82 232	*39.2*
British Indian Ocean Territory	36	*13.9*	Former Yugoslavia (Others)[1]	54 776	*11.8*	Macao, China	18 881	*36.0*	Republic of Korea	312 538	*43.2*	Ukraine	753 080	*27.2*
British Virgin Islands	2 252	*32.9*	France	1 013 581	*34.4*	Macedonia	149 014	*11.8*	Republic of Moldova	35 365	*36.7*	United Arab Emirates	14 589	*23.9*
Brunei Darussalam	9 059	*39.3*	Gabon	10 951	*35.8*	Madagascar	75 954	*32.0*	Romania	613 168	*26.3*	United Kingdom	3 229 676	*39.2*
Bulgaria	527 819	*14.5*	Gambia	20 923	*16.9*	Malawi	15 024	*35.2*	Russia	580 570	*43.0*	United States of America	809 540	*48.2*
Burkina Faso	6 237	*38.4*	Georgia	83 419	*25.0*	Malaysia	209 910	*50.8*	Rwanda	14 832	*34.4*	Uruguay	70 093	*29.9*
Burundi	10 095	*38.6*	Germany	2 933 757	*29.5*	Maldives	519	*34.5*	Saint Helena	2 460	*10.4*	US virgin Island	48 770	*25.0*
Cambodia	238 539	*15.7*	Ghana	150 665	*34.0*	Mali	45 034	*12.6*	Saint Kitts and Nevis	20 078	*26.6*	Uzbekistan	34 123	*40.3*
Cameroon	57 050	*42.3*	Gibraltar	11 886	*23.3*	Malta	96 837	*19.5*	Saint Lucia	24 722	*20.3*	Vanuatu	2 002	*32.1*
Canada	1 044 978	*40.0*	Greece	735 430	*16.1*	Marshall Islands	5 446	*10.7*	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	34 969	*24.5*	Venezuela	200 461	*40.2*
Cape Verde	83 291	*6.2*	Grenada	46 825	*23.2*	Mauritania	14 813	*18.5*	Samoa	71 801	*10.3*	Vietnam	1 507 164	*23.6*
Cayman Islands	2 389	*19.5*	Guam	57 742	*26.1*	Mauritius	86 410	*28.0*	San Marino	775	*17.9*	Western Sahara	158	*33.5*
Central African Republic	9 855	*32.7*	Guatemala	489 772	*8.2*	Mexico	8 431 381	*5.6*	Sao Tome and Principe	11 732	*10.7*	Yemen	32 428	*19.3*
Chad	5 836	*42.1*	Guinea	19 684	*24.5*	Micronesia (Federated States of)	6 697	*13.3*	Saudi Arabia	34 646	*35.4*	Zambia	34 825	*49.3*
Chile	200 366	*33.0*	Guinea-Bissau	29 449	*12.7*	Monaco	11 208	*24.6*	Senegal	104 715	*23.1*	Zimbabwe	77 345	*43.3*
China	1 649 711	*39.6*	Guyana	305 544	*24.9*	Mongolia	4 709	*43.8*	Seychelles	7 602	*22.5*			
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	2	*0.0*	Haiti	466 897	*19.8*	Montserrat	11 397	*16.7*	Sierra Leone	40 556	*33.6*			
Columbia	682 156	*25.1*	Holy See	93	*35.5*	Morocco	1 364 754	*14.8*	Singapore	105 805	*45.9*			
Comoros	17 723	*10.7*	Honduras	278 593	*10.5*	Mozambique	85 337	*26.5*	Slovak Republic	374 570	*13.8*			

Note: KOR + PRK stands for the Democratic Republic of Korea and the People's Republic of Korea. OECD countries are identified with shaded areas. Percentages take into account data with unspecified country of birth.

1. Some host countries are not able to provide with figures for each Republics of Former Yugoslavia or of former USSR. In that case, data are specified in these categories.

Sources: See Annex II.A1, Secretariat calculations (not including Japan and Italy as receiving countries).

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PART III

Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Australia

Introduction

The Australian economy grew by 2.7% in 2002/03, after increasing by 3.8% in 2001/02. The unemployment rate declined slightly to just over 6% and has since continued to decrease (5.8% as of September 2003). The Australian economy is forecast to grow by over 3% in 2003/04. Unemployment and inflation are expected to remain around current levels.

State-specific and regional migration continues to be a priority for Australia, with particular emphasis on skilled migration. The 2002/03 Migration Programme was not only the largest in over a decade, with the largest family migration since 1995/96, but also the most highly skilled ever, allowing approximately 108 000 migrants to enter Australia. In addition, approximately 12 500 migrants arrived in Australia on humanitarian grounds in 2002/03.

1. Trends in migration flows and changes in the foreign-born population

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net overseas migration for 2002/03 was estimated at around 125 300 (up 13% on 2001/02), with 93 900 permanent arrivals (of which 52.3% were women) and 279 900 long-term arrivals (see Table III.1).

The 2002/03 Migration Programme (comprising three categories: the Skill Stream, the Family Stream and the Special Eligibility Stream), which is designed to help people wanting to come to Australia permanently, was the largest in over a decade and the most highly-skilled ever. It granted a total of 108 070 entry visas (up 16% on 2001/02), with most visas granted under the family (the largest stream in the last six years) and skill-based categories (see Table III.1). The top five nationalities were the United Kingdom (21%), China (9%), India (9%), South Africa (7%) and Malaysia (5%).

Under Australia's Temporary Resident Programme (which excludes students), the total number of visas granted reached about 170 400 in 2002/03, an increase of 7% over the previous year. Australia's Working Holiday Maker Programme continued to increase: 88 758 visas were granted in 2002/03 (4% up on 2001/02) (see Table III.1). The major source countries were the United Kingdom (45%), followed by Ireland (13%), Japan (11%), Germany (9%) and Canada (7%). Ninety per cent of Working Holiday Maker visa applications were lodged over the Internet in 2002/03 (the opportunity to do this became available in July 2002). In addition, the total number of student visas granted offshore was 109 610 (up 12% on 2001/02), an increase of 27% since the introduction of significant changes in Australia's student visa programme (on 1 July 2001). In 2002/03, the major countries in this category included China (13%), the United States (10%), Malaysia (7%), Korea (7%) and Hong Kong (China) (6%), Japan (6%).

Table III.1. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, Australia**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Net overseas migration				
(including Australian-born residents)[1]				
Permanent arrivals	92.3	107.4	88.9	93.9
Permanent net migration	51.2	60.9	40.7	43.4
Long-term arrivals	212.8	241.2	264.5	279.9
Long-term net migration	56.0	74.8	93.0	110.8
Net overseas migration (NOM)[2]	107.3	135.7	110.6	125.3
Migration programme outcome[3]				
Family	32.0	33.5	38.1	40.8
Skill[4]	35.3	44.7	53.5	66.1
Employer nomination/labour agreements[5]	5.4	7.5	9.6	10.5
Business skills	6.3	7.4	7.6	6.7
Special talents	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Independents	15.6	22.4	29.9	38.1
Skilled Australian linked[6]	7.9	7.2	6.3	10.5
Other	0.1	0.1	–	–
Special eligibility	2.9	2.4	1.5	1.2
Humanitarian Programme[3]	10.0	13.8	12.3	12.5
Refugees and special humanitarian	6.9	7.1	8.4	11.7
Special assistance	0.6	0.9	–	. .
Other	2.5	5.7	3.9	0.9
Temporary Resident Programme[7]	**148.6**	**161.1**	**163.7**	**174.9**
Economic programme	39.2	45.7	43.3	48.8
Social/cultural programme	23.5	23.0	20.8	26.2
International relations programme	86.0	92.4	99.6	99.9
of which:				
Working Holiday Maker (WHM)[8]	71.5	76.6	85.2	88.8
Student Programme[7]	**74.4**	**86.3**	**97.7**	**109.6**
New applications of asylum seekers				
by country of citizenship (units)				
China	1 215	1 176	1 087	813
India	770	650	548	601
Indonesia	831	897	615	230
Korea	172	256	338	215
Malaysia	264	261	232	184
Other countries	9 813	9 126	2 955	2 217
Total	**13 065**	**12 366**	**5 775**	**4 260**

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Stock of foreign-born population				
by region of birth				
Europe	2 355.4	2 337.2	2 330.6	. .
Asia	1 035.5	1 073.6	1 117.1	. .
Oceania	474.9	503.3	526.8	. .
Middle East and North Africa	232.0	237.6	244.9	. .
America	173.6	176.1	178.7	. .
Africa (excl. North Africa)	146.0	154.3	167.8	. .
Total	**4 417.5**	**4 482.0**	**4 565.8**	**. .**
Acquisition of nationality				
by former nationality				
United Kingdom	14.6	12.5	16.4	14.9
New Zealand	6.7	11.0	17.3	14.0
China	7.7	6.9	6.4	7.1
South Africa	2.3	3.0	3.9	4.0
India	2.4	2.3	2.5	3.1
Other countries	37.3	36.4	39.7	36.2
Total	**70.8**	**72.1**	**86.3**	**79.2**
Labour force by birthplace (August of the given year)				
Australian-born				
Unemployment rate	6.7	6.5	5.8	5.5
Participation rate	67.0	66.9	66.8	66.9
Main English-speaking countries				
Unemployment rate	5.3	5.8	4.9	4.0
Participation rate	64.4	64.0	63.1	89.3
Non-English speaking countries				
Unemployment rate	7.4	7.7	7.7	7.3
Participation rate	53.7	53.4	53.8	52.2

Note: Flow data relate to fiscal years (ended 30 June).

1. Data on permanent movements include travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle. Long term movements include migrants who declared their intention to stay/leave for more than 12 months.
2. Net effect of persons whose travel intentions change from short-term to permanent or long-term, or *vice versa*.
3. Figures include persons who change status (temporary to permanent).
4. Includes places from the Skill Stream contingency reserve made up from demand generated by business, State/Territory governments and regional qualifications certifying bodies and ICT professionals with Australian. Includes also places for successful overseas students who gain an Australian qualification in an occupation in national shortage Migration Occupations in Demand List (MODL).
5. Includes Employer Nomination Scheme, Labour Agreement, Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme and State/Territory Nominated Independent Scheme.
6. 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 age, professional qualifications and linguistic aptitudes.
7. Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
8. Comprises only those applications made outside Australia.

Sources: Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs; ABS Labour Force Australia; UNHCR.

Illegal migration

As of 30 June 2003, the estimated number of overstayers in Australia was 59 800, similar to the previous year. Approximately 21 500 migrants who had either remained in the country beyond the expiration of their visas, or were in breach of their visa conditions, were intercepted by the authorities in 2002/03, an increase over the previous year of 24% (17 300 in 2001/02). In addition, about 13 900 migrants were deported from Australia for breaching visa conditions or for failing to have a visa (up 27% on 2001/02). Overstayers comprised over 60% of this group.

It is estimated that around 50% of all overstayers work illegally in Australia. The main nationalities involved in illegal work comprise nationals of China, Indonesia, Thailand, Korea, Malaysia, India and the Philippines. Some 3 200 illegal workers were located by the Australian authorities and about 1 690 warning notices were sent to employers employing undocumented workers in 2002/03.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002/03, around 12 520 visas were granted under the Humanitarian Programme (12 300 in 2001/02), of which approximately 11 660 were issued offshore (8 500 in 2001/02), which represents the highest number in five years (see Table III.1). The offshore component of the programme consists of two permanent visas (for refugees and under the special humanitarian programme) and two temporary visas. In 2002/03, over 90% of offshore grants went to the permanent categories, of which 38% were granted to refugees. In line with the UNHCR recommendations, priority was given to the resettlement of people from Africa (48% of total offshore grants), and the Middle East and South West Asia (37%). The major source countries included Sudan (37%), Iraq (22%), and Afghanistan (9%). The share from Europe declined by 57% (from 2 700 in 2001/02 to 1 160 in 2002/03). In 2002/03, approximately one out of ten refugee visas were issued in the Woman at Risk subcategory, representing the highest number in the last five years.

According to the UNHCR figures, Australia received about 4 300 asylum applications in 2003, a large decrease on the previous year (by 25%). China, India and Indonesia were the major source countries (see Table III.1).

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

According to the 2001 population census in Australia, about 23% of the estimated population of 18.8 million were born overseas, of which approximately 33% were born in North West Europe (mainly the United Kingdom and Ireland), approximately 19% in Southern and Eastern Europe and approximately 12% in South East Asia.

In August 2003, Australia's total labour force consisted of 10 million persons. The overseas born comprised 32% of the total, of which 58% originated in non-English speaking countries and 42% in the main English-speaking countries. In addition, the labour force participation rates of the overseas-born varied according to their place of birth, with 89.3% in the case of the main English speaking countries (72% for men and 56.7% for women) and 52.2% in the case of non-English speaking countries (61.2% for men and 43.5% for women). In August 2003, the national unemployment rate was 5.8% while persons from non-English-speaking countries and from the main English speaking countries had unemployment rates of 7.3% and 4% respectively. The unemployment rate for migrants

from non-English speaking countries was around 1.8 percentage points higher than the same figure for the Australian-born.

Naturalisations

Although the Government has continued to promote Australian nationality in 2003, the number of naturalisations fell by 8% in 2002/03 (up to 30 June 2003), from 86 300 in 2001/02 to 79 160 in 2002/03. The United Kingdom and New Zealand predominated among countries of previous nationality, followed by China, South Africa, India and the Philippines (see Table III.1).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Attracting a higher number of skilled and business migrants to regional Australia continues to be a priority for the Government and a number of state-specific and regional migration initiatives were implemented in 2002 and 2003. They were designed to provide regional certifying bodies with a greater role in supporting sponsorship of migrants and to encourage a greater proportion of students to consider studying and eventually settling in regional Australia. Approximately 27 000 visas have been issued in these categories since 1996/97. In 2002/03, approximately 8 000 were granted, an increase of over 90% over 2001/02. Further growth is expected in the 2003/04 programme.

Australia has also negotiated reciprocal Working Holiday Maker Programme agreements with Italy and Belgium, which are due to come into effect in 2004. The Government is also negotiating such agreements with a range of other countries, including Spain, France, Greece, Chinese Taipei, Iceland, Austria, Switzerland and the United States. Canada, Ireland, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Malta, the United Kingdom, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Hong Kong (China), Finland and Cyprus are already participating in the Programme.

During 2002/03, the Government examined the effectiveness and accessibility of settlement services for new settlers and in May 2003, released the *Report of the Review of Settlement Services for Migrants and Humanitarian Entrants*. The report stated that Australia has one of the most comprehensive settlement programmes in the world which, however, due to the growing diversity of the migrant population, requires some modifications. The report contains 61 recommendations, including the need for earlier, more focused intervention to improve settlement outcomes, particularly for humanitarian entrants and family stream migrants with low English proficiency, and for newly arrived children and youth in particular.

The 2003/04 Migration Programme is going to remain in the range of 100 000 to 110 000 places and will continue to put an emphasis on skilled migration, with over 68 000 places provided in the Skill Stream. The Family Stream was also increased to 47 100 places to meet the demand for the migration of spouses, dependant children and other family members. This will be the largest number of admissions under the Family Stream since 1995/96. In addition, the new parent visa will be implemented in 2003/04, with a total of 7 000 places for parents available in the 2003/04 Migration Programme.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In 2002/03 the Australian Governments' approach to illegal migration continued to comprise three main elements: prevention, disruption and reception. Prevention efforts focused on providing aid to countries of origin and of first asylum to address the humanitarian needs of displaced persons. Disruption efforts were mainly focused on expanding Australia's resources overseas to deter people smugglers at source. Australia also participated in a range of multilateral regional fora on refugees, migration and people smugglers and has undertaken significant initiatives to support a number of countries in combating irregular migration and people smuggling, through the exchange of intelligence and information. In 2003, Australia provided specialist training and equipment to key countries, including Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran, Syria and South Africa, for detecting and combating document fraud. With regard to reception, Australia successfully negotiated agreements for the return of nationals with Afghanistan and Iran.

The overall size of the 2003/04 Humanitarian Programme will remain at approximately 12 000 new places, the same number as in 2002/03. The priority will continue to be given to Africa, the Middle East and South West Asia. As the number of persons caught while attempting to enter Australia by boat has decreased sharply since the end of 2001, only 700 places have been allocated to the onshore component of the Humanitarian Programme in 2003/04.

Austria

Introduction

Austrian economic growth was 0.8% in 2001 and improved slightly in 2002 to 1.4%. In 2003, it fell again to 0.7% but is expected to pick up in 2004. In consequence, employment declined by 0.3% in 2002, although in contrast, the employment situation of foreign workers has been relatively positive, rising by 1.6% in that year. The standardised unemployment rate rose to 4.4% in 2003, from 3.6% in 2001.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net migration of Austrians has been negative for some time. Net outflows increased in the late 1980s, slowed down in the early 1990s and picked up again in the second half of the decade. However, they declined in 2002 to –5 300 compared to –6 500 in 2001. Net migration of foreigners stood at 14 400 in 1998 and has increased since then in a fluctuating trend to 31 400 in 2002. The increase in that year over 2001 amounted to 32%. Total net migration which had remained stable in 2000 and 2001 at 17 300, rose to 26 100, the highest level in several years (see Table III.2). Family reunification and humanitarian entries are the largest category of foreign inflows, with workers and students being the other main categories.

In 2002, the total number of initial work permits issued was 49 500, slightly down on 2001, but well above the level of 2000. This figure includes both first entries and re-entries over the year; during the year as a whole 24 900 first entry permits on the labour market were issued to foreign nationals. First entry permits are only a weak indicator of foreign inflow as family members of existing foreign workers may enter the labour market by this route. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that the 2002 figure amounted to an 8% decline over permit issues for 2001. Of the 2002 grants, 58% were to men, mainly seasonal workers from abroad.

Illegal migration

In 2002, the number of actions taken against foreigners was 51 800, up by 11.4% on the year before. These actions were taken for a range of reasons, including lack of papers or financial means, and the expectation or the actual undertaking of illegal work. Due to the Schengen Agreement, refusal of entry at the border remains relatively low in a historical perspective, but at 23 300 in 2002, represents an increase of about 30% over the previous year. There were approximately 16 700 refusals of residence, broadly similar to 2001. Removals to the home country fell to 4 700 whilst expulsions from Austria increased somewhat to 7 100. The number of persons apprehended for human trafficking has fallen over the last couple of years and was only about 100 in the first half of 2003.

Table III.2. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Austria**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Components of population change[1]				
Total population				
Population (annual average)	7 992.3	8 011.6	8 031.6	8 053.1
Population increase	19.7	18.8	18.0	28.4
of which:				
Natural increase	–0.1	1.5	0.7	2.3
Net migration	19.8	17.3	17.3	26.1
Austrians				
Population (annual average)	7 298.4	7 309.8	7 323.8	7 345.2
Population increase	10.3	12.5	17.7	24.8
of which:				
Natural increase	–9.0	–7.5	–7.5	–5.9
Net migration	–5.3	–4.3	–6.5	–5.3
Naturalisations	24.7	24.3	31.7	36.0
Foreigners				
Population (annual average)	694.0	701.8	707.8	707.9
Population increase	9.4	6.2	0.2	3.6
of which:				
Natural increase	9.0	9.0	8.2	8.2
Net migration	25.1	21.6	23.8	31.4
Naturalisations	–24.7	–24.3	–31.7	–36.0
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Asylum seekers	20.1	18.3	30.1	39.4
Outflows of refugees	5.0	5.9	4.1	1.1

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Work permits issued to foreigners by category	**98.5**	**101.9**	**110.8**	**105.2**
Initial permits issued	45.7	44.3	50.1	49.5
Extensions issued	22.6	34.1	40.4	40.2
Permanent permits issued	30.2	23.5	20.3	15.5
Stock of the holders of a work permit				
(excluding EEA)[2]	**239.1**	**242.2**	**240.1**	**228.9**
Short-term work permits	23.3	25.9	31.1	30.0
Work entitlements	29.5	20.4	17.7	19.0
Permanent permits	186.3	195.9	191.3	180.0
Stock of foreign workers by nationality[3]	**306.4**	**319.9**	**329.3**	**334.4**
Former Yugoslavia (%)	49.5	49.1	48.7	47.8
Turkey (%)	18.2	17.9	17.3	16.8
EU (%)	9.7	10.1	10.8	11.8
Other (%)	22.6	22.9	23.2	23.5
Share of foreign employment in total employment (%)	9.9	10.2	10.5	10.6
Unemployment rate, total population[4]	**6.7**	**5.8**	**6.1**	**6.9**
Unemployment rate, foreigners	8.2	7.5	8.5	9.8
Employment of Austrians abroad[5]				
Austrian employees in Federal Republic of Germany	70.2	62.6	62.6	61.6
Austrian employees in Switzerland	11.2	11.7	12.8	. .
Legal measures taken against foreigners				
Total rejections at border	24.7	19.1	17.6	23.3
Removals to home country	10.0	8.4	6.3	4.7
Refusals of residence	12.6	12.7	16.4	16.7
Expulsions from Austria	9.5	9.6	6.2	7.1
Total	**56.8**	**49.8**	**46.5**	**51.8**

1. Estimates on the basis of census results. The naturalisations refer to persons residing in Austria.
2. 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 permits: granted after five years of work and valid for five years (renewable).
3. Annual average. Employment of foreigners based on social security data records. Excluding unemployed.
4. Data are based on the unemployment register.
5. Data as of June for Germany, August for Switzerland.

Sources: Statistics Austria; Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs; Social Security database on labour force; UNHCR.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since the mid-1980s the number of asylum seekers has fluctuated upwards, peaking in 1991 (27 300) then falling in the mid-1990s before rising sharply from 1998 on, to reach a high of 39 400 in 2002. The recent rise was because of events in the Balkans, the Middle East and Afghanistan. In 2002, almost half of asylum seekers originated from Europe (mainly

Turkey and the former Yugoslavia) and about 43% from Asia, mainly Iraq and Afghanistan. In the first part of 2003 the average acceptance rate for asylum claims was 24%. Such outflow data as is available for refugees, indicates a further fall in the numbers leaving Austria, from 4 100 in 2001 to 1 100 in 2002.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The population of Austria in 2002 was approximately 8 053 100, a small increase compared with the previous year. The foreign population was 707 900, that is 8.8% of the total population, very similar to the 2001 share (see Table III.2). The proportion of foreign-born in the Austrian population was higher, however, at 11.2% in 2001. As reported in the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*, a rising share of the foreign population is born in Austria (currently 21.6%) and the ongoing increase in the proportion of marriages between an Austrian spouse and a foreign partner reported then has continued and accounted for almost 24% of marriages in 2002.

By mid-2003, the stock of valid residence permits (not required by EU citizens) totalled 569 300. Of these, 72 500 were temporary, of which about 40 000 (55%) were held for work purposes. There were 334 000 foreign workers in Austria in 2002 accounting for 10.6% of total employment in that year, continuing the very gradual increase of recent years. At 11.8% of the foreign labour force in 2002, the share of foreign employment taken by EU nationals increased by a full one per cent over the previous year. The largest share was taken by citizens of Serbia and Montenegro although at 35.8% their proportion has been declining (it was nearly 50% in 1992). The proportions of Croatians and Bosnians remain small but are gradually increasing and accounted for 3.2% and 7.6% respectively in 2002, the latter figure being similar to the proportion of Germans in the labour market (7.9%). The share taken by Turkish nationals continues to decline and was 16.8% in 2002.

The share of women in foreign employment has increased gradually to 38.9% in 2002 from a low in 1992 of 33.5%. The Austrian average is however, 45.1%. The total unemployment rate in 2002 was 6.9%, that for men 7.2% and for women 6.4%. For foreigners, male unemployment was 10.5% and female 8.5%.

Naturalisations

The significant boost to naturalisations since 1999 is a result of the eligibility for citizenship of the large wave of immigrants who arrived during the late 1980s and the early 1990s. In 2002, there were 36 000 naturalisations, 13% more than the year before, of which 49.2% went to women. The largest national group was Turkish, accounting for 35% of naturalisations, an increase in their share from 31% the year before. The next largest groups were those from the former Yugoslavia (31%) and from Central and Eastern Europe (11%).

The naturalisation rate (naturalisations as a per cent of the foreign population) increased again to 5.1%. The decline in the stock of permanent work permit holders (see Table III.2) after 2000 is attributed to the increasing number of foreigners who entered Austria in the early 1990s and who have subsequently become eligible for, and acquired, Austrian citizenship.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

It is anticipated that modest economic growth in the next few years, combined with ageing of the Austrian population, will facilitate the integration of migrants. An amendment in mid 2002 to the Alien Law should help alleviate the labour shortages expected in some sectors, including those for low-skilled work. It allows temporary employment for six months of non-EU citizens in non-seasonal industries with labour shortages. This is renewable for another six months but no more unless the worker leaves Austria for two months.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Amended legislation on migration came into effect in 2003. It gives long term settlers (those from outside the EU, who have legally resided in Austria for five years) more rights by granting them a settlement certificate (*Niederlassungsnachweis*). This has all the attributes of the American Green Card and grants permanent residence to foreign settlers and their families and gives them the right to work without having to apply for a work permit. In the first half of 2003 alone, 25 200 such certificates were issued.

Belgium

Introduction

Growth in the Belgian economy accelerated in the second half of 2003 and, in response to the recovery in international economic activity and stronger investment by the business sector, the rate of growth should rise to 2.5% by 2005. However, there has been no significant improvement in employment in 2004 and the unemployment rate is rising and now stands at around 8.3% (compared to 8.1% in 2003).

2002 saw an increase in net migration (31 000) and a significant fall in the number of naturalisations, which had risen sharply from 2000 following changes to the nationality code. The number of asylum seekers declined to around 16 900 in 2003 (compared to 18 800 the previous year).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

Net migration of foreigners remained positive in 2002 (39 200) and entries by foreign nationals rose slightly to 70 200 (see Table III.3). Nationals of EU member states remain in the majority and account for over 40% of immigration to Belgium. In 2002, the main countries of origin were Morocco, with around 8 500 entries, followed by the Netherlands (8 400) and France (8 100). There was a large increase in immigrant flows from Turkey and Morocco, due to family reunification and the amnesty granted to illegal immigrants in 2000-2001.

Net migration of nationals remained negative and the number of Belgians leaving the country has been steadily rising since 1992 (20 500 in 2002). Total net migration for both the foreign and national populations combined amounted to 31 100, an increase of almost 25% on the previous year's total.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The decline in the number of asylum applications observed in 2001 continued in 2002, with a further 23% decrease from the previous year (see Table III.3). In 2002, Belgium received 18 800 asylum applications, mainly from nationals of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Serbia and Montenegro and Russia. Compared with 2001, a reduction of almost 50% was reported in applications from Russia and Algeria.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

As of 31 December 2002, Belgium had a population of 10.3 million inhabitants, of which 850 000 were foreigners, *i.e.* almost 8% of the total population. After declining steadily for several years, the foreign population increased slightly in 2002. The natural

Table III.3. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Belgium**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Components of population change				
Total population				
Population (on 31 December)	10 239.1	10 263.4	10 309.7	10 355.8
Population increase from beginning to end of year	25.3	24.3	46.3	46.1
of which:				
Natural increase	8.6	10.0	10.6	5.6
Net migration	12.3	12.1	24.9	31.1
Statistical adjustment	4.5	2.2	10.9	9.4
Nationals				
Population (on 31 December)	9 342.0	9 401.7	9 463.0	9 505.8
Population increase from beginning to end of year	20.3	59.8	61.3	42.8
of which:				
Natural increase	5.4	7.3	8.3	4.2
Net migration	–9.1	–9.6	–9.9	–8.1
Acquisitions of nationality	24.3	62.1	63.0	46.3
Statistical adjustment	–0.2	0.1	–0.1	0.3
Foreigners				
Population (on 31 December)	897.0	861.7	846.7	850.1
Population increase from beginning to end of year	5.0	–35.3	–15.0	3.3
of which:				
Natural increase	3.1	2.7	2.3	1.4
Net migration	21.3	21.7	34.8	39.2
Acquisitions of nationality	–24.3	–62.1	–63.0	–46.3
Statistical adjustment	4.7	2.2	11.0	9.1
Inflows of foreigners by nationality	**68.5**	**68.6**	**66.0**	**70.2**
Morocco	4.9	5.7	7.1	8.5
Netherlands	6.2	7.2	8.2	8.4
France	7.9	8.1	8.0	8.1
Turkey	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.9
Germany	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0
Others	44.1	41.8	36.8	38.4
Asylum seekers	**35.8**	**42.7**	**24.5**	**18.8**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Acquisitions of nationality				
Morocco	9.1	21.9	24.0	. .
Turkey	4.4	17.3	14.4	. .
Italy	1.2	3.7	3.5	. .
Dem. Rep. of Congo	1.9	3.0	2.4	. .
Former Yugoslavia	0.8	2.2	1.8	. .
Others	6.9	14.1	16.9	. .
Total	**24.3**	**62.1**	**63.0**	**46.3**
Mixed marriages	**6.8**	**7.1**	**7.1**	**7.4**
% of total marriages	15.4	15.7	16.8	18.2
of which: Marriages with an EU citizen	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.5
Total work permits issued (Initial and renewed) by nationality[1]				
United States	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.3
Japan	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1
Morocco	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Former Yugoslavia	0.9	0.7	0.5	. .
Dem. Rep. Of Congo	1.1	0.7	0.4	0.3
Other	7.6	7.5	7.7	8.9
Total	**13.2**	**12.1**	**12.1**	**12.6**
of which: Initial work permits	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7
Migration flows of cross-border workers by country of origin/destination[2]				
Inflows by country of origin	**22.9**	**25.0**	**28.7**	**30.5**
of which:				
France	16.4	18.2	21.2	22.9
Netherlands	5.6	5.7	6.4	6.6
Outflows by country of destination	**46.4**	**49.5**	**52.6**	**55.3**
of which:				
Luxembourg	20.0	22.8	25.0	26.6
Netherlands	15.8	16.4	17.2	18.2
France	5.8	5.4	5.4	5.3

Note: Figures on European Union include the 15 members of the Union.

1. Work permits are issued either for unlimited periods (A permits) or for limited periods (B permits). EU citizens do not need a work permit.
2. Data refer to the 30th June of the year indicated.

Sources: Institut national de la statistique and Registre national de la population; ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail; Office national de l'emploi; UNHCR.

increase in the population of both nationals and foreigners fell sharply (1 400 in 2002 compared with 2 300 in 2001 in the case of foreigners), which is attributable for the former group to the drop in the fertility rate and, for the second one, to the automatic acquisition of Belgium nationality by the children of third-generation migrants.

Nationals of EU member states account for around 70% of Belgium's foreign population. Italians remain the largest group in the foreign population (187 000), followed by nationals of neighbouring countries such as France (113 000) and the Netherlands (97 000). Moroccans and Turks are the main non-European communities with around 83 600 and 46 000 nationals respectively in 2002, although there has been a sharp decline in the size of these populations since 2000 as a result of the entry into force of the new legislation on naturalisation. 2001 had been a record year in that respect with a total of 63 000 naturalisations, of which 24 000 were Moroccans and 14 400, Turks. In 2002, the number of naturalisations fell by around a third.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Right to work

The federal government reformed Belgian work permit regulations in July 2002, with effect from 1 April 2003, with a view to simplifying administrative procedures, facilitating access to the labour market for foreigners with a valid residence permit and, lastly, offering eligible asylum seekers a proper working status. This reform led firstly to the creation of a third type of permit, the Type C permit, and secondly, gave those entitled to a permanent residence permit the right to obtain paid employment without needing to have a work permit.

There were two types of work permit prior to the reform. The Type A permit is valid for any salaried employment, any employer and for an unlimited period of time. The Type B permit, valid for one year and renewable, is for a given employer in a given sector and requires approval of an application made by the employer. The Order of 2 April 2003 provides for a new Type C work permit. This permit is valid for a maximum of one year and is valid for all employers and all salaried employment in Belgium. It is issued to persons temporarily resident in Belgium such as:

- A refugee whose asylum application is valid and who is authorised to remain in the country while his application is being processed.
- A person with a declaration of arrival or a certificate of registration in the foreigners register issued as part of measures to combat human trafficking.
- A foreign national holding a residence permit whose extension requires that the national to be in gainful employment.
- A foreign national seeking to exercise the right to family reunification during the period in which the application is processed.
- A student residing legally in Belgium and pursuing a full-time course of study, for the supply of services of no more than 20 hours a week outside the vacation period.

In the Brussels region, the Ordinance of 11 July 2002 relaxed the nationality requirement to allow non-Belgian nationals and non-EU and non-EEA nationals access to civil service posts in the Brussels regional government.

Anti-discrimination policy

Two Acts have been enacted to combat discrimination. The Act of 20 January 2003 amended the Act of 30 July 1981 and provided for more severe punishment of certain racially motivated or xenophobic acts. The second Act, that of 25 February 2003, amended

the Act of 15 February 1993 to broaden the jurisdiction of the Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism. The purpose of these Acts was to bring Belgian domestic legislation into line with Article 13 of the Amsterdam Treaty as well as two European Directives aimed at combating discrimination. A report by the Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism reviewing the first ten years of its operations highlighted the important role played by the new legislation in combating ethnically motivated discrimination in the workplace.

Integration

In 2001, the Walloon government set up a Mediation Centre for Nomads with responsibility for liaising between these populations and local and regional associations. Furthermore, in July 2001, the Walloon government set up *Le Carrefour interculturel* as a support structure for the policy of integrating foreigners or people of foreign origin. The aim of this project is to promote collaboration between public and private actors and operators in order to enhance intercultural exchanges.

Citizenship law

The Belgian government has declared its intention to facilitate the integration of foreigners though naturalisation. The Act of 1 March 2000 streamlined the naturalisation procedure, made the procedure free of charge, shortened application processing times and removed the concept of "desire to be integrated" from the Nationality Code.

Asylum and rights of refugees

A federal agency for the assistance of asylum seekers (Fedasil) was set up under the authority of the Ministry of Social Integration in May 2002. This agency primarily has responsibility for implementing Belgian refugee assistance policy: provision of services and advice for asylum seekers, support for specific categories of asylum seekers such as unaccompanied foreign minors, assistance for the victims of human trafficking and for persons suffering from psychiatric pathologies or major trauma.

The Acts of 11 March 2003 and 10 April 2003 transposed the European directive on temporary protection into Belgian law. They provide for the introduction of a protection mechanism in the event of a massive influx of displaced persons whose human rights have been violated. This status of protected person gives beneficiaries access to social aid, employment, education and family reunification. It is granted for a maximum of three years, after which the beneficiary can ask to be given the status of refugee.

Efforts to combat the employment of illegal foreign workers

The Act of 3 May 2003 provided an institutional framework to co-ordinate the efforts to combat illegal employment and tax fraud undertaken by the Federal Council, the Federal Co-ordinating Committee and the district Committees responsible for fighting against illegal employment and tax fraud. A protocol on collaborating to combat human trafficking was agreed by the two federal public services responsible for social security and for employment, labour and social dialogue, respectively. The purpose of this protocol is to enhance collaboration between the police, victim support services and the judiciary, and it has made it possible to put in place structured control measures. An interim assessment report on the protocol, published in March 2002, revealed that the sectors worst affected by illegal employment were the construction sector, as well as the agricultural and market-gardening sectors.

Bulgaria

Introduction

In 2003, economic growth remained high at 4.3% (4.8% in 2002). The unemployment rate, which was 16.3% in 2002, fell below the 15% mark in 2003 and remained there during the first two quarters of 2004.

In 2002, the population of Bulgaria continued to fall as a result of high emigration flows, while the number of immigrants remained low. With regard to migration policy, Bulgaria continued to make progress towards joining the European Union (EU) by transposing the chapter on the "free movement of persons" into national law, and it has simplified access to its labour market for EU citizens. New bilateral agreements encouraging steady migration flows for employment purposes have been negotiated. A new Act on asylum has been enacted, but has not made any major changes to existing law.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

Emigration of Bulgarian citizens

While there are no annual statistics available on migration outflows of Bulgarian citizens, emigration would seem to have increased in 2002. Outflows of travellers increased by 15% between 2001 and 2002. The destination countries are mainly EU member States (Germany, Greece, Austria and Italy). Regional migration remains predominant and flows increased in 2002, mainly towards Turkey, Macedonia, the former Yugoslavia and Romania. Business trips accounted for 60.6% of flows, compared with 27.1% for tourism. The breakdown of emigrant flows changed in 2002 with an increased share accounted for by young people, students and professionals. The growing number of applications for the certification of Bulgarian diplomas in a foreign language (32 420 diplomas in 2002 compared with 30 209 in 2001) is a sign of this trend.

Greece and Cyprus attracted the greatest number of seasonal migrants in 2002. Italy and Spain were also hosts to a large number of migrants, who were mainly employed in agriculture, domestic work, medical services and tourism. Between 5 000 and 6 000 Bulgarians emigrate to the United States every year. In 2002, 3 482 Bulgarians were granted a green card (600 in 2001), making Bulgaria the second highest-ranking European country in terms of the number of green cards issued per inhabitant.

The authorities expect emigration to remain high over the next few years. According to a forecast made by the National Statistics Institute in 2002, between 48 600 and 64 100 Bulgarians are likely to emigrate over the next seven years.

Table III.4. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Bulgaria**

Thousands

		1999	2000	2001	2002
Stock of foreign citizens					
A.	**Permanent residents**				
	CIS	26.4	26.2	25.9	26.7
	EU	2.2	3.3	3.8	3.9
	Central Europe	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4
	Other European countries	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3
	Middle East	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
	Asia	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.9
	Africa	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3
	America	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
	Stateless	1.7	1.8	1.3	1.4
	Other	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
	Total	**38.7**	**40.2**	**40.2**	**41.5**
B.	**Long-term residents**				
	EU	16.2	15.2	15.4	15.7
	Central Europe	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2
	Other European countries	8.6	7.9	7.4	8.3
	CIS	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.9
	Middle East	8.5	8.3	8.2	8.0
	Asia	5.7	5.6	5.5	6.6
	Africa	5.5	5.4	4.8	3.9
	America	3.0	1.5	3.0	2.2
	Other	6.9	8.3	6.2	5.3
	Total	**63.5**	**61.1**	**59.0**	**59.0**
Asylum seekers[1]		**1.3**	**1.8**	**2.4**	**2.9**
Naturalisations		**1.5**	**1.3**	**1.9**	**3.0**

1. Number of applications. Some dependents accompanying the applicant are not counted.

Sources: National Employment Service; National Statistical Institut; UNHCR.

Immigration of foreign citizens

In 2002, 7 671 people immigrated to Bulgaria (including refugees and asylum-seekers) and the total number of foreigners resident for over a year fell. These inflows consisted of 4 758 persons granted a long-term residence permit (one-year renewable) either to create and pursue an activity or work on a self-employed basis, 516 people granted a long-term residence permit on the basis of their work permit and 2 397 persons with a permanent residence permit, primarily through marriage with a Bulgarian citizen. Between 1994 and 2002, only 2 234 work permits have been issued.

Illegal emigration

In 2001 and 2002, the number of Bulgarians residing illegally abroad rose substantially. This may be attributable to the liberalisation of entry requirements into the Schengen area for Bulgarian nationals. From April 2001, the date on which visa requirements for Bulgarians were lifted, until October 2002, approximately 6 561 Bulgarians were expelled not only from European countries, but also from the United States and Canada. Most of these migrants were of the Rom minority and had been arrested in the EU without work or residence permits.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Bulgarian refugees and asylum seekers abroad

Approximately 4 577 asylum applications were filed by Bulgarian citizens abroad in 2002. This number, which was higher than the previous year's (1 755 applications in 2000 compared with 2 427 in 2001), is partly the result of certain emigrants attempting to use asylum as a means of emigration. In 2002, only 226 applications were approved, whereas 2 523 were rejected, and 1 479 applications had not yet been processed.

Foreign refugees and asylum seekers in Bulgaria

The number of asylum applications continued to rise in 2002; approximately 2 900 applications were filed, compared with 2 400 in the previous year. The asylum seekers were primarily from Iraq (946 applications in 2002), Afghanistan (864 applications), Armenia (364 applications) and Iran (142 applications). The number of applicants granted refugee status, on the other hand, fell significantly between 2001 (385 applicants) and 2002 (75 applicants). A further 646 applicants were granted humanitarian status.

Evolution of stocks of foreign residents in Bulgarian and Bulgarians abroad

Over the past ten years there have been only 70 000 immigrants to Bulgaria, whereas the country has lost a million citizens to emigration. Most foreigners remain in the country for a short period of time and then migrate to another destination. In all, there were 41 522 foreigners residing permanently in Bulgaria in 2002 (1 311 more than in 2001) and 59 049 long-term foreign residents (as in 2001) (see Table III.4).These migrants were primarily from EU member States and the Commonwealth of Independent States. Between 1995 and 2001, 177 000 Bulgarians emigrated, of whom only 19 000 have returned to Bulgaria.

Naturalisations

The number of applications for citizenship doubled between 2001 and 2002, reaching the record level of 6 000 applications in 2002, of which 3 046 were successful (compared with approximately 1 900 in 2001). Approximately 95% of the applicants granted citizenship were of Bulgarian ethnic origin, and were mainly from Macedonia, Moldova and the Russian Federation. However, the number of Bulgarian citizens who renounced their nationality amounted to a third of the number of those granted citizenship (approximately 1 000 persons in 2002).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

To combat illegal migration by its citizens, the government has increased from one year to two the period during which Bulgarians expelled from an EU member State are not allowed to leave the country. In October 2002, new measures to combat illegal emigration were announced. Illegal migrants may be ordered to surrender their passports, although this measure is only applied on a case-by-case basis. Information campaigns against illegal emigration and human trafficking have been organised and programmes implemented among groups likely to emigrate outside the proper legal channels (primarily the Rom population).

The legislation on the entry of foreign workers was amended in 2002 to restrict access to the labour market for immigrants and to strengthen controls. The principle on which this reform is based is to link the issuing of work permits to the situation in the domestic labour market. A foreigner is only allowed to work if he has a work permit issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. The total number of foreigners (including refugees) that a Bulgarian employer is allowed to hire cannot exceed 10% of his total workforce.

The new legislation introduced in 2002, also facilitates access to the labour market for highly- skilled workers and managers of major foreign companies, by providing for a fast-track work permit application procedure for foreigners whose employment is covered by a bilateral recruitment agreement; scientists; managers of investment firms established in Bulgaria (50% of the permits issued in 2002); highly-skilled workers employed by firms constructing infrastructure in Bulgaria; and quality control specialists sent by foreign firms. Lastly, migrants with a permanent residence permit and refugees do not need a work permit, although the requirements for obtaining a permanent residence permit have been tightened.

The new legislation introduces measures designed to promote the integration of the foreign population legally resident in Bulgaria. Provisions relating to fairness of treatment make foreigners subject to the same contributions and eligible for the same social benefits as Bulgarian nationals.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Policy introduced new regulations in 2002 setting out the conditions under which foreigners can create a small enterprise and establish themselves as self-employed workers in Bulgaria. Under these regulations, foreigners must submit a business plan to the Ministry and, provided that this plan is approved by the latter, may be granted a renewable one-year work permit.

Bulgaria has recently completed the transposition of EU legislation on the free movement of persons into Bulgarian law. It has accepted the principle whereby the free movement of Bulgarian citizens will only be allowed once Bulgaria has completed a transitional period following EU accession. Bulgaria is introducing more liberal provisions for access to its labour market for EU nationals: family members of the nationals of an EU member State working in Bulgaria will now be allowed to enter the labour market on arrival (or after a period of 24 months, in the case of nationals from other countries). Once Bulgaria joins the EU, the nationals of the 25 EU member States will have unrestricted access to the Bulgarian labour market and will also be granted equality of treatment.

Citizenship law

The Act on Bulgarian citizenship has introduced new restrictions on eligibility for citizenship, although there are a number of derogations for foreign investors. Furthermore, since 2002, refugees can now acquire Bulgarian nationality after a period of three years provided that they have a job and sufficient income, speak Bulgarian and have never been convicted of a criminal offence.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Asylum Act was revised in December 2002, although it implemented no major changes. The EU PHARE programme is funding the construction of two additional asylum centres in Bulgaria, which will be used as transit facilities. Applications will be studied under a fast-track procedure and applicants meeting the conditions for the grant of the

right to asylum will be transferred to other centres, while those who fail to meet the requisite criteria will be encouraged to leave the country.

Measures against the employment of illegal foreign workers

Legislation on the employment of foreigners introduced in 2002, provides for wide-ranging controls. The authorities can carry out random inspections of work premises, ask to check the papers of foreign workers and interrogate those concerned.

International agreements

Bulgaria has signed bilateral labour agreements with all EU member States, apart from the United Kingdom with which negotiations are still in progress. Similar agreements have also been signed with Norway, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Lithuania, Romania, Serbia and Montenegro, the Ukraine, Georgia, Albania and Croatia. Agreements are also pending with Russia, Tunisia, Lebanon, Estonia and Turkey. New bilateral agreements on recruitment were also drafted in 2002. An agreement has been signed with Portugal. Negotiations are also in progress with Belgium, Lebanon and France.

Canada

Introduction

During the last few years the Canadian economy has been relatively strong, and grew by 3.3% in 2002 compared with 1.9% in 2001. In 2003 the growth rate slowed slightly to 1.7%, but it is expected to rise to 2.8% in 2004. Unemployment grew from 7.2% in 2001 to 7.7% in 2002 (7.6% in 2003). The 2001 census showed that the foreign-born accounted for 18.4% of the population and 20% of the labour force.

1. Trends in migration flows and changes in the foreign-born population

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002, Canada admitted 229 100 permanent residents, a decrease of 8.5% on the year before (see Table III.5) with a notable decline in the economic category. Of these, 60% were economic immigrants, 28% were in the family class and 11% were accepted refugees. The primary source areas remained the Asia and Pacific region (52%), followed by Africa and the Middle East (20%), as in 2001. China remains the top ranking source country with 14.5% of immigrant landings, followed by India (12.5%), Pakistan (6%), the Philippines (5%) and Iran (3%). In 2001, the order was the same except that the fifth source country was Korea.

Out of the 229 100 new immigrants in 2002, 58.3% settled in Ontario, 14.8% in British Columbia, and 16.4% in Quebec. About 50% of all new immigrants and refugees were 25-44 years old. The share of all immigrants with at least a university education remained at 46%.

Through the past decade, temporary resident flows into Canada have been climbing, rising more than 35% between 1992 and 2002. In 2002, Canada admitted 264 000 temporary residents, 33% of whom were foreign workers (87 900), 26% foreign students (68 800), 12% refugee claimants whose final status in Canada is not yet determined and 29% others (including visitors). The top source country for foreign workers is the United States, but for women the next three countries are the Philippines (15.1%), Japan (12%) and Australia (10%). For men, the top source countries are Mexico (17.4%), Jamaica (8.7%) and the United Kingdom (6.7%)

Illegal migration

The number of removals for 2002 was 8 434, a decrease of 8.7% over the previous year, but close to the average number of removals for the previous five calendar years. In 2002, 18% of removals were for criminal reasons and 66% involved refugees whose claims had been refused.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, 24 300 adults entered Canada and claimed refugee status, down 28% from 2001, though it should be noted that 2001 had seen an increase of 15% over 2000.

Table III.5. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, Canada**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Immigration by category[1]				
Family	55.3	60.6	66.7	65.3
Skilled workers[2]	92.5	118.5	137.2	123.4
Principal applicants	41.5	52.1	58.9	53.4
Accompanying dependents	50.9	66.4	78.3	69.9
Business	13.0	13.7	14.6	11.0
Principal applicants	3.6	3.8	4.1	3.0
Accompanying dependants	9.4	9.8	10.5	8.0
Live-in-Caregiver[3]	3.3	2.8	2.6	2.0
Principal applicants	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.5
Accompanying dependants	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.5
Provincial/Territorial Nominees	0.5	1.3	1.3	2.1
Refugees	24.4	30.1	27.9	25.1
Other immigrants[4]	1.0	0.5	0.2	0.2
Total	**189.9**	**227.3**	**250.5**	**229.1**
Immigration by region of birth[1]				
Asia and pacific	96.4	120.6	132.8	118.9
Africa and the Middle East	33.5	40.8	48.1	46.1
Europe	38.9	42.9	43.2	38.8
South and Central America	15.2	17.0	20.1	19.4
United States	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3
Not stated	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5
Total	**189.9**	**227.3**	**250.5**	**229.1**
% from OECD	18.7	16.2	16.1	15.2

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Temporary foreign workers				
by country of origin (annual flows)[5]				
United States	25.0	27.9	24.4	20.3
Mexico	8.1	10.0	11.2	11.4
United Kingdom	6.3	7.0	7.3	6.3
Australia	3.7	4.3	4.9	5.7
Jamaica	5.4	5.4	5.8	5.5
Japan	5.0	4.2	4.4	5.4
France	4.8	5.5	5.1	4.6
Philippines	2.2	2.3	4.1	4.6
Germany	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.2
India	1.5	2.4	2.1	1.9
Others	21.4	23.4	23.7	20.1
Total	**85.9**	**94.9**	**95.6**	**87.9**
of which: women	22.9	25.3	26.4	25.8
Acquisition of Canadian citizenship				
by nationality				
China	18.0	24.3	18.6	17.0
India	11.4	19.4	14.8	13.1
Philippines	11.6	14.1	9.6	7.7
Pakistan	3.2	8.5	8.9	7.7
Hong Kong (China)	15.1	17.9	11.2	6.2
Other	99.5	130.4	104.3	89.9
Total	**158.8**	**214.6**	**167.4**	**141.6**
of which: women	83.5	111.8	86.0	72.7

1. An immigrant corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad. Includes accompanying dependants.
2. Figures include the Independent class and the Assisted Relatives class. Selection criteria are only applied to the principal applicants.
3. Programme for child care workers and assistants for elderly people in private households.
4. Includes Retirees, Deferred Removal Orders Class (DROC) and Post-Determination Refugee Claimants in Canada Class (PDRCC).
5. Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (including seasonal workers and re-entries).

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Pakistan was the top source country (2 460), followed by Colombia (1 870), China (1 800), Mexico (1 540) and Sri Lanka (1 230), whereas in 2001 the top source countries were Hungary, followed by China, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The number of adult claimants from Costa Rica and Peru increased substantially. In December 2002, the stock of adult refugee claimants (authorised to live in Canada but without permanent residence) reached 96 900, 4% higher than 2001 and 22% higher than in 2000.

Between 2001 and 2002, the number of refugees receiving permanent resident status fell by 10% to 25 100, after a decrease of 7% between 2000 and 2001. Almost 30% of these were government assisted refugees, 12% were privately sponsored, 42% were refugees landed in Canada (successful asylum seekers) and 16% were dependents of refugees landed in Canada. The top source region remained Asia and the Pacific (upping its share to 41% from 35% in 2001). Of the five top source countries, three remained the same, Afghanistan (11%), Sri Lanka (9%) and Pakistan (8%) but Colombia (7%) and China (5%) replaced the former Yugoslavia and Iran as the fourth and fifth. Of accepted refugees, 47%

were women, 40% were aged between 25 and 44 and the majority had more than lower secondary education.

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

Canada's total population in 2001 was 29.6 million with immigrants accounting for the highest recorded share (5.4 million, 18.4%) since 1931. Immigrants from Europe remained the largest group in 2002 (42%) with the United Kingdom and Italy contributing 11% and 6% respectively, down slightly on the 1996 Census. Those from Asia accounted for 36.5% (increasing from 31.4% in 1996), with China (6.1%), India (5.8%) and Hong Kong, (China) (4.3%) forming the largest groups.

Immigrants are more likely than the non-immigrant population to be of working age (67% and 52% respectively), are increasingly well-educated (with over 22.5% of recent immigrants having less than high school graduation, compared to 31.2% of the total population) and are overwhelmingly likely to settle in an urban area. Their employment levels have risen since 1996, from 72.3% to 77.4% for immigrants, and from 62.2% to 69.4% for recent immigrants. A growing proportion of Canada's newest immigrants (61% in 2001, compared to 55% in 1991) reported speaking a language other than English or French at home, with Chinese spoken in a third of these households.

Naturalisations

In 2002, nearly 142 000 persons were granted Canadian citizenship, a 15% decline compared with 2001 but a decline consistent with recent immigration flows (see Table III.5). The top five countries of previous nationality were China (12%), India (9%), Philippines (5%), Pakistan (5%) and Hong Kong, (China) (4%). Slightly over 50% of persons granted citizenship in 2002 were female.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Immigration and Refugee Protection Act (the Act) was implemented in June 2002. The Act brings in new rules for dealing with applications. It has clarified the family class selection criteria and made them responsive to current social realities, including expanding the definition of family to include same-sex partners, decreasing the length of sponsorship responsibilities and improving collection mechanisms in cases of sponsorship default. The Act has also affected the selection criteria for several other categories of migrants. For skilled workers it has moved the selection focus from specific job skills to human capital more broadly (including language and educational skills).

In relation to business migrants, new selection standards have been implemented by the Act for immigrant investors, entrepreneurs and the self-employed. These new standards are more measurable and transparent and have been established in consultation with the provinces. The temporary worker programme has also been amended by the Act. Previously an employer had to show that there were no Canadians available to fill the job in question. The new regulations require only that the temporary workers have neutral or positive effects on the labour market, thus making it easier for Canadian employers to get the labour they need when they need it.

During 2002/03, pilot programmes were created to attract more foreign students to Canada. The Federal government and the provinces are considering options to encourage

foreign students to remain in Canada after their studies are completed, and in certain provinces such measures have been implemented.

The Government is committed to the implementation of an improved border control strategy and the provisions of the Act have enabled better screening of travellers arriving at borders without proper documentation. In October 2002, the government began receiving Advance Passenger Information from international flights arriving in Canada. Canada recorded a 32% decline to 2 837 in the number of improperly documented arrivals at its airports in 2002.

Citizenship law

The proposed new Citizenship of Canada Act, described in last year's Edition of Trends in International Migration, has again failed to become law as Parliament was prorogued in late 2003, before the Act was passed.

Asylum and rights of refugees

As part of a broader strategy to develop and implement integration-related activities with public sector partners, the 2003 Federal Budget allocated USD 5 million annually in ongoing funds to develop and deliver higher levels of language training and labour market oriented language training to immigrants. This initiative includes a regional component to develop partnerships to provide language training in small centres that would otherwise not have the capacity to do so.

The Canadian Government is developing strategies to facilitate the more efficient identification, selection and referral of overseas refugees to be resettled in Canada. Under the Act, all refugee applications for resettlement must normally be accompanied by a referral from one of three sources: UNHCR, a private sponsor or another organisation. Vulnerable and urgent protection cases are now processed ahead of other refugee cases.

International agreements

The Citizenship and Immigration Department has signed a Statement of Mutual Understanding on Information-Sharing with the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service and the US Department of State. The Multiple Borders Risk Management Framework was established in February 2003.

Czech Republic

Introduction

After showing a 1.9% GDP growth rate in 2002, the Czech economy registered growth of 2.9% in 2003 (3.1% in the fourth quarter of 2003) and is likely to increase further in 2004-2005. The unemployment rate was 7.3% in 2002, and increased to 7.8% in 2003 (8.3% in the first quarter of 2004).

Data on 2001 and 2002 migration flows cannot be compared with previous data due to new definitions of migrants adopted by the Czech Republic. Since 2001, immigrants include foreigners with a long-term visa for more than 90 days and asylum seekers who have had their applications accepted.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The period between 1997 and 2000, was characterised by a decrease in immigration flows, accompanied by relatively stable outflows. In 2001, mainly due to the changes in methodology, net migration was negative. In 2002, it was positive again with 44 680 immigrants and 32 390 emigrants (see Table III.6) and increased in 2003 (60 000 immigrants and 34 200 emigrants). As in previous years, in 2002, movements of nationals of the Slovak Republic represented a significant proportion of migration flows in the Czech Republic in 2002: 30% of immigrants and 45% of emigrants. Other main immigration countries included the Ukraine (24%), Vietnam (13%), the Russian Federation (6%), Poland (4%) and Germany (2%). All of them displayed substantial increases over 2001, with the greatest growth shown by the Ukraine (by 284%). In 2002, the Ukraine (18%), the Russian Federation (6%), Vietnam (4%), Poland (3%) and Germany (3%) were also the major countries of emigration.

Illegal migration

Between 1998 and 2001, the number of foreigners detained at the Czech Republic's border for attempted illegal migration has been steadily decreasing, from 44 670 in 1998 to 23 830 in 2001. In 2002, this figure fell again to 14 740 (see Table III.6). Women accounted for one-fourth of this group while minor children (under 15) for around 7%. Nationals of China (16%), India (8%), Vietnam (7%), Georgia (6%), Moldova (6%) and Armenia (6%) were the nationalities most involved in illegal migration in the Czech Republic in 2002. In addition, the share of the total made up by nationals of Asian countries grew from 39% in 2001 to 48% in 2002. This was partly due to a dramatic increase in the number of migrants from China (from approximately 500 in 2001 to 2 300 in 2002) who were intercepted. A substantial decrease in the number of detentions of Romanians was also reported (from 3 910 in 2001

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Table III.6. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Czech Republic**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Total population[1]	**10 267 |**	**10 206**	**10 203**	**10 211**
Total increase	–12	–26	–3	8
Natural increase	–18	–17	–15	–18
Net migration	7	–9	12	26
Inflows[2]	**7.8 |**	**12.9**	**44.7**	**60.0**
Arrivals (excluding those from				
Slovak Republic)	5.0	9.9	31.4	. .
Arrivals from Slovak Republic	2.8	3.1	13.3	. .
Outflows	**1.3**	**21.5**	**32.4**	**34.2**
Departures (excluding those				
to Slovak Republic)[3]	0.9	12.8	17.9	. .
Departures to Slovak Republic[4]	0.4	8.7	14.5	. .
Inflows of asylum seekers	**8.8**	**18.1**	**8.5**	**11.4**
Stocks of foreign residents by type of permits and nationality				
Holders of a permanent residence permit				
Vietnam	8.2	9.9	13.4	15.1
Poland	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.2
Slovak Republic[5]	11.1	10.8	11.0	11.2
Ukraine	8.8	9.9	10.7	10.9
Russian Federation	3.8	4.1	4.5	4.6
Germany	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.7
Bulgaria	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1
Other	18.3	18.8	19.6	19.9
Total	**66.9**	**69.8**	**75.2**	**77.8**
Holders of long-term visas over 90 days				
Slovak Republic	33.1	42.4	50.1	55.1
Ukraine	41.4	41.9	48.4	49.6
Vietnam	15.3	14.0	13.8	13.0
Russian Federation	9.2	8.3	8.4	7.8
Poland	5.3	4.9	4.7	5.1
Germany	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.5
Moldova	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5
China	3.4	3.1	2.8	2.5
Other	22.0	21.7	23.3	21.8
Total	**134.1**	**141.0**	**156.4**	**159.9**

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Registered foreign workers by nationality[6]				
Ukraine	15.8	17.5	20.0	21.1
Poland	7.7	6.7	7.3	6.8
Bulgaria	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.6
United States	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.6
Moldova	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Germany	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3
United Kingdom	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.2
Belarus	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1
Mongolia	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.1
Other	8.0	7.2	7.8	7.8
Total	**40.1**	**40.1**	**44.6**	**45.0**
Slovak workers[7]	**63.6**	**63.6**	**56.6**	**56.8**
Holders of a business authorisation by nationality				
Vietnam	19.3	20.4	20.1	21.0
Ukraine	21.4	21.6	19.0	18.8
Slovak Republic	6.7	7.1	7.2	8.1
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	1.6
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	1.3
Poland	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
Germany	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Other	12.1	12.9	12.2	9.4
Total	**61.3**	**64.0**	**60.5**	**62.3**
Total foreign workers	**165.0**	**167.7**	**161.7**	**164.2**
Czech workers employed in Germany				
Contract workers	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Seasonal workers	2.1	2.8	2.7	2.7
Illegal migrants detected at the border				
(including Czech nationals)	**32.7**	**23.8**	**14.7**	. .

1. Population on the 31 December of the given year. Figures on population for 2001 have been recalculated according to the final Census results.
2. Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders (valid for 90 days or more) whose stay exceeded a year.
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 and refer to the registrations of permanent residence in the Slovak Republic.
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 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. Numbers of Slovak workers are registered by the labour offices.

Sources: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic; State and Movements of the Population (Czech Statistical Office); Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

to around 250 in 2002). India and Vietnam as well as Armenia, Georgia and Moldova reported declines over 2001.

In addition, 19 570 foreigners without residence authorisation were registered by the police in 2002 (up 7% on 2001). The majority of these were nationals of the Ukraine (15 350; up 24% on 2001), followed by nationals of Belarus (714; down 14% on 2001), and Moldova (599; down 47% on 2001).

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, the number of asylum applications decreased by 53% compared to the previous year, returning to the level of 2000 (see Table III.6). This is partly explained by the changes in asylum legislation that came into force in February 2002, limiting access to the Czech Republic's labour market for asylum seekers. Men submitted approximately 70% of all applications in 2002. The 2003 increase in the number of applications (11 400 applications submitted) is mainly due to Russians (4 800) and Ukrainians (2 000).

The largest group of asylum seekers included nationals of the Ukraine (20%), followed by Vietnam (11%), the Slovak Republic (10%), Moldova (9%), Georgia (8%), the Russian Federation (7%), China (6%) and Armenia (5%). At the turn of the century, nationals of these countries started to replace the previously numerous nationals of Afghanistan, Sri Lanka and the former Yugoslavia in the flows of asylum seekers into the Czech Republic. The largest increase over 2001 was from the Slovak Republic, mainly due to the inflow of Slovak Romas (from 388 applications in 2001 to 843 applications in 2002). Increases were also reported in the case of China and Uzbekistan. The number of applications made by nationals of other countries declined, with the highest decrease in the case of the Ukraine (from 4 420 in 2001 to 1 680 in 2002).

Asylum migration from the Slovak Republic to the Czech Republic has been a new phenomenon since the dissolution of the former Czechoslovakia. Since the Slovak Republic is considered a safe country, its nationals have had very limited opportunities to be granted refugee status in the Czech Republic. The opportunity to make several applications at one time has been limited with the amendment to the Asylum Law that came into force in February 2002.

In 2002, refugee status was granted to some 100 foreigners, mainly from the Russian Federation, Belarus and Afghanistan, and mainly on family reunion and humanitarian grounds. At the end of 2002, 1 465 foreign nationals had formal refugee status in the Czech Republic, of which 41% were women.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

By the end of 2003, the stock of foreigners had reached 237 700 (up 2.6% on 2002), which represented 2.3% of the total population (see Table III.6). One-third of the foreign population were permanent residents whereas two-third were long-term visa holders (over 90 days). Both figures grew during 2002, by 3.4% and 2.3% respectively. The largest national groups holding permanent permits at the end of 2002, included those from Vietnam, Poland, the Slovak Republic and the Ukraine, with the number of nationals from Vietnam growing by 50% since 2001. Ninety per cent of permanent permits were granted for family reunion purposes, of which around two-thirds were for marriage with a Czech national. As in previous years, nationals of the Slovak Republic and the Ukraine predominated among long-term visa holders.

Forty-four per cent of long-term visas were granted for employment, and 39% for business purposes.

By the end of 2002, 161 710 economically active foreigners were registered in the Czech Republic, 3.5% less than in 2001 (see Table III.6). This represents 3.1% of the total labour force and does not include permanent residents and recognised refugees. There are three primary components of the foreign labour force in the Czech Republic: work permit holders, Slovak nationals working in the Czech Republic on the basis of a bilateral agreement, and foreign entrepreneurs. In 2003, they accounted respectively for 27%, 35% and 38% of the total foreign labour force. Growth was reported in all categories, with Ukrainians reporting an increase among holders of a work permit, Vietnamese and Slovaks among holders of a business authorisation.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In 2003-2004, two amendments to the 1999 Law on the stay of foreigners in the Czech Republic came into force, to meet European Union standards. The first amendment, which entered into force in January 2003, was to provide EU nationals with the right to move, reside and work freely in the Czech Republic upon accession and to add provisions in accordance with the Schengen agreements. Following the second amendment that came into effect in January 2004, a short-term visa can be granted for only up to 90 days and a long-term visa can be issued for a maximum of 12 months. A foreigner who wishes to reside in the Czech Republic for more than one year is obliged to apply for a residence permit. The second amendment also extends the list of circumstances in which a foreigner has the right to apply for a permanent residence permit on humanitarian grounds.

The pilot project of the Programme of Active Selection of a Qualified Foreign Labour Force was introduced in three selected countries (Bulgaria, Croatia and Kazakhstan) in July 2003 for 5 years. Since October 2003 Belarus and Moldova are also part of the project. Applications can be made both from these countries and by their nationals from within the Czech Republic, but only if those applying from within the Czech Republic have a legal status. This is to offer young, educated and qualified foreign workers the possibility of obtaining a permanent residence permit in the Czech Republic in two and half years (instead of 5 years). For 2003, the quota was fixed at 300 persons. Between July and April 2004, 167 applicants were selected (mostly from Bulgaria). For 2004, the quota is 1 400 persons, and the range of countries to be included in the programme is expected to increase.

With regard to integration measures, in January 2003 the Government adopted a resolution outlining the effectiveness of the integration strategy for foreigners in the Czech Republic until 2002 and its further development with regard to the upcoming EU accession. This resolution summarised the most important activities in the creation and development of the integration strategy in the period 1999-2002, and specified the tasks to be undertaken to implement and coordinate the strategy in 2003 and the following years.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In July 2003, Parliament passed a new Act on the temporary protection of foreigners, an issue that was previously dealt with in the Law on the residence of foreigners. The principles for granting temporary protection were established and the right to family reunification was extended.

Denmark

Introduction

For the past three years the growth rate of the economy has been declining continuously in Denmark, from 2.8% in 2000 to 1% in 2002 and 0.4% in 2003. Forecasts for 2004 and 2005, however, put the growth rate at above 4%. The standardised unemployment rate reached 5.6% in 2003, an increase from 4.6% in 2002, and is expected to increase further, as in the first quarter of 2004 it was 5.9%.

The integration of foreigners both into the labour market and society as a whole remains a key concern in Denmark. In 2002 and 2003 some important changes in the immigration laws came into effect. These changes are grounded on the principles that immigration to Denmark needed to be limited, that immigrants should be more capable of supporting themselves financially and that integration of refugees and immigrants already living in Denmark should be facilitated. Today there are some 430 700 immigrants and offspring of immigrants living in Denmark. This represents 8% of the total population.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Between 1995 and 1999, long-term immigration into Denmark gradually decreased (from about 46 000 in 1995 to 32 100 in 1999), but began to increase in 2000 and reached almost 37 000 in 2001. In 2002, the inflow of long-term immigrants to Denmark amounted to 33 800, which was 8% less than in the previous year (see Table III.7). Danish nationals, nationals of other Nordic countries and of other European countries comprised, as always, around 67% of the total inflow. Immigrants from Asian countries formed 20% of the total.

In the period 1995-2000, long-term emigration from Denmark had slightly increased (from 18 000 in 1995 to 24 300 in 2000), and it levelled off at around 24 800 in 2001 and 2002. Danish nationals, nationals of other Nordic countries and Europe comprised 90% of the total outflow in 2002 (see Table III.7).

Moreover, some 37 300 residence permits were granted in 2002, 3% less compared to 2001. Around one-third of permits, as in previous years, were granted for family reunion purposes (down 8% on 2001). In addition, 17% of permits were granted to EU nationals, 13% to workers, and 11% to refugees (as compared to 16% in 2001) (see Table III.7). In addition, over 5 000 permits were granted for educational reasons, accounting for 14% of the total in 2002. This number grew by 43% between 2001 and 2002 with the majority of foreigners in this category originating from China (24%) and Poland (17%). These amount to increases of over 200% in both cases between 2001 and 2002.

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Table III.7. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Denmark**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Long-term immigration by group of nationality[1]	**32.1**	**34.7**	**36.8**	**33.8**
Denmark	11.8	11.8	11.6	11.8
Other Nordic countries[2]	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.3
Other European countries	7.5	7.9	8.3	7.7
Asia	5.8	8.1	10.0	7.4
Africa	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0
Other	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.7
Long-term emigration by group of nationality[1]	**22.7**	**24.3**	**24.8**	**24.2**
Denmark	14.5	16.0	15.9	15.5
Other Nordic countries[2]	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.4
Other European countries	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7
Asia	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0
Africa	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.8
Other	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8
Grants of residence permits by category[3]	**29.2**	**32.3**	**36.3**	**33.4**
Family reunification	9.4	10.0	11.0	8.2
EU provisions	5.7	5.9	6.0	6.0
Refugee	4.4	5.2	6.3	4.1
Employment	3.1	3.6	5.1	4.8
Others	6.6	7.6	8.1	10.3
Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality	**7.1**	**13.0**	**10.3**	**6.1**
Afghanistan	0.5	3.7	3.7	1.2
Iraq	1.9	2.6	2.1	1.0
Serbia and Montenegro	1.1	1.6	0.6	1.0
Somalia	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.4
Russian Federation	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Others	3.0	4.0	3.2	2.2
Acquisition of Danish nationality	**12.4**	**18.8**	**11.9**	**17.3**
by region of origin				
Nordic countries[2]	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
Other European countries	4.7	5.5	5.1	7.0
Asia	4.8	7.8	3.6	5.1
Africa	0.9	2.4	1.8	3.4
America	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Other	1.5	2.4	0.9	1.0

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Stock of foreigners	**259.4**	**258.6**	**266.7**	**265.4**
Nordic countries[2]	31.3	31.8	32.1	32.8
Other European countries	127.6	127.7	128.6	126.0
Asia	56.1	56.5	63.0	65.5
Africa	25.4	25.5	26.0	24.5
America	10.2	10.3	10.6	10.9
Oceania	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4
Other	7.6	5.6	5.1	4.2
Immigrants by region of origin[4]	**296.9**	**308.7**	**321.8**	**331.5**
Nordic countries[2]	34.5	34.7	34.8	35.3
Other European countries	135.6	138.7	142.0	144.1
Asia	84.5	90.9	98.9	104.3
Africa	26.8	28.2	29.3	30.1
America	13.0	13.3	13.6	14.0
Oceania	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5
Other	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2
Descendants by region of origin[4]	**81.2**	**87.3**	**93.5**	**99.2**
Nordic countries[2]	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.8
Other European countries	35.3	37.4	39.5	41.4
Asia	30.2	32.9	35.6	38.3
Africa	9.1	10.3	11.4	12.3
America	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6
Participation and unemployment rates among immigrants and their descendants				
Immigrants				
Participation rate (%)	57	56	57	56
Unemployment rate (%)	14	11	11	9
Descendants				
Participation rate (%)	69	70	71	71
Unemployment rate (%)	7	5	6	6

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. 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.
4. An immigrant is defined as a person born abroad to 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.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Following the increasing trend in asylum applications (filed both in Denmark and abroad) in the period 1996-2000, the number of applications has been falling continuously since 2001, to approximately 6 100 in 2002 (down 40% on 2001) (see Table III.7). This trend is partly explained by the requirement that asylum applications must be filed in Denmark (not abroad)

that was introduced in 2002. The main nationalities among asylum seekers in Denmark included Afghanistan (20%, three time less than in 2001), Iraq (17%, down 50% on 2001), and Serbia and Montenegro (17%, up 80% on 2001). In addition, the number of asylum seekers from Bosnia-Herzegovina fell in 2002 compared to 2001 (by around 80%), and they accounted for only 3% of the total in 2002 (10% in 2001). In 2003 there were 4 500 requests

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

At the end of 2002, there were 265 424 foreigners residing in Denmark, a small decrease over 2001 (of 0.5%) (see Table III.7). Between 1992 and 2002 the stock of foreign nationals in Denmark increased by 47% (from 180 000 in 1993) and the share of foreigners in the total population reached 4.9% in 2002 (3.5% in 1992). Nationals of the Nordic countries, the EU and North America accounted on average for one-third of the total at the end of 2003. Among nationals of other countries, foreigners from Turkey (12%), Iraq (7%), Bosnia-Herzegovina (7%) and Somalia (5%) constituted the biggest shares. In this group, only Iraq reported an increase over 2002 (of 8%). The number of nationals of Afghanistan also increased (by 16%, from 7 000 in 2001 to 8 200 in 2002) and has been continuously increasing since the second half of the nineties (for example, there were approximately 2 000 Afghanis residing in Denmark in 1997). By applying the growth rate observed these ten last years, the foreign population is expected to double in approximately 14 years.

At the end of 2002, there were approximately 430 700 immigrants (including those who have been naturalised) and descendants of immigrants living in Denmark, 3.7% more than in 2001, and 70% more than in 1992. As a result, the share of immigrants and their descendants in the total population grew from 4.9% in 1992, to 8% in 2002. Women comprised 50.5% of immigrants and their descendants in 2003. One-fourth of all immigrants and their descendants came from the Nordic countries, the EU and North America, and their share has been gradually decreasing for a decade (from 34% in 1993). On the other hand, the share of nationals from other countries has been increasing and they comprised 76% of the total in 2002 (66% in 1993). In 2002, the most numerous were immigrants from Turkey (12%), Iraq (6%), Lebanon (5%), Bosnia-Herzegovina (5%), Pakistan (4%) and Somalia (4%).

While the labour force participation rates of immigrants and their descendants have been quite stable over the last few years, the unemployment rate has been decreasing recently (see Table III.7).

Naturalisations

After a significant drop in the number of naturalisations between 2000 and 2001 (37%), this figure increased again by 45% in 2002 (see Table III.7). This can be partly explained by the fact that the 2002 figure includes applications that were submitted by many young descendants of immigrants in 2001, before the entry into force of the new Act on Nationality, which set more stringent criteria for naturalisation. In 2002, of the 17 300 persons who acquired Danish nationality, 14% were from Turkey (27% in 2001), 14% from Bosnia-Herzegovina, 13% from Somalia and 7% from Iraq.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Following the Government's policy of "More people in work" and agreements made by the Government with municipalities and employers' organisations in 2002, the new Act on

Integration and the new Danish Language Act entered into force in January 2004. These acts are primarily designed to facilitate the integration of foreigners into the labour market. The changes involve improved opportunities for newly arrived immigrants to enter the labour market, and economic incentives directed at municipalities, Danish language providers and individual migrants. Counselling, job training and employment are the three stages of the new policy. Particular attention is paid to immigrants who previously were not encouraged to participate in the labour market.

An incentive contract was also introduced (replacing the subsidy paid to the municipalities for migrants who completed a three-year "initiation programme"). Around 20 000 DKK is paid to a municipality if a newly arrived foreigner passes the Danish language examination. In addition, a municipality may receive 30 000 DKK for every newly arrived foreigner who, during the initiation programme, holds a non-subsidised job for at least six months.

The Government has also introduced since July 2002 a special scheme (Job Card Scheme), which facilitates the obtaining of residence rights for immigrants employed in sectors with a shortage of skilled labour (*e.g.* engineers, scientists in the nature sciences and technology sector, doctors, nurses and IT specialists). In this case the Danish Immigration Service does not request a statement from branch organisations and immediately grants a permit for up to 3 years.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Following the basic direction of the new immigration policy, several amendments to the Asylum Law entered into force in July 2002, introducing stricter measures for granting asylum. Only applications filed in Denmark are considered and asylum seekers whose applications are refused are expected to leave the country immediately (previously they had 15 days). To obtain permanent status, it is necessary to have resided in Denmark for seven years (previously three years) and only *de jure* refugees are entitled to permanent status. Asylum seekers who previously belonged to the category of *de facto* refugees are now granted protection status (the new concept replacing *de facto* status). The conditions for obtaining this status have become stricter and as a result, most asylum seekers in this group do not obtain residence permits. Prior to this change, *de facto* status was the most common ground for granting resident status and, in fact, most of the refugees living in Denmark are *de facto* refugees. In addition, refugees may be sent back to their countries of origin if there is no longer a risk of persecution. Moreover, the cases of refugees who visit their countries of origin (*i.e.* during holidays) are re-examined.

In July 2003, a new law regarding asylum seekers and refugees came into effect, creating a contract that needs to be fulfilled by an applicant in order to receive basic cash allowances from the state. During the initial phase, an asylum seeker is required to perform the necessary duties related to the maintenance of the asylum centre. When the applicant becomes officially registered as an asylum seeker in Denmark, the contract's stipulations can be supplemented further by individual requirements concerning activation and education based upon the individual's qualifications. All applicants who have been in Denmark for more than three months must also participate in Danish language courses and education on Danish culture and society.

Estonia

Introduction

Since 2001, employment has started to increase and unemployment to decline due to the economic upturn. According to the 2003 Estonian Labour Force Survey, 594 300 people aged 15-74 were employed, 66 200 were unemployed and 387 400 were economically inactive. Compared to 2002, the number of employed people increased by 8 800, the number of unemployed people decreased by 1 000 and the number of economically inactive people decreased by 7 000. Employment increased most in the manufacturing, construction, transportation, and health and social work economic sectors. In 2003, the employment rate was 62.9% and the unemployment rate was 10%. The unemployment rate for men was slightly higher than that for women. In comparison with the European Union average (8.1%) the unemployment rate is relatively high in Estonia. However, compared to central and east European countries it is within the average level. In the medium term, unemployment is expected to stay below 10%.

The changes in GDP calculated in constant prices are in Estonia: 6.4% in 2001, 7.2% in 2002 and 5.1% in 2003. Future development depends largely on the evolution of the world economy. Structural changes in the Estonian economy are reflected in the structure of GDP, where the share of agriculture and industry has declined and that of the service sector has increased.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

By the end of the 1990s both immigration and emigration made up only about one-tenth of the average level of the 1980s. These data as well as the results of the 2000 Population and Housing Census of Estonia and several population surveys show that the quality of migration data is poor and that the data are not easy to use. Therefore, the Statistical Office of Estonia stopped publishing migration data starting from 2000.

Illegal migration

It was predicted that with the accession of Estonia to the EU illegal immigration to Estonia would increase. The construction and opening of a Repatriation Centre has been one of the most important changes in this area during recent last years. Persons who stay in Estonia in an irregular situation and who cannot be expelled from Estonia within 48 hours are detained in the Centre. By 31 October 2003 a total of 21 persons have been detained in the Centre. Most of the persons expelled were citizens of the Russian Federation or former Soviet Republics. The State Register of Prohibitions on Entry includes data on persons whose stay in Estonia is either temporarily or permanently banned. By

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October 2003 such prohibitions had been applied to 1 121 aliens. By October 2003 Estonia had concluded readmission agreements with 14 countries.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The legal status of asylum seekers and refugees in Estonia is regulated by the Refugees Act which was adopted by parliament in February 1997. At the same time Estonia joined the Geneva Convention on the Status of Refugees and the Protocol of 31 January 1967. The PHARE 1999-2000 Horizontal Programme had an important influence on the development of Estonian legislation and practices related to refugees. In 2003 only 14 persons applied for asylum

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Estonia is quite specific among other countries because of the number of inhabitants with "undetermined citizenship". They formed 12% of the total population of Estonia in 2003. In 1992 almost one-third of the Estonian population consisted of aliens with "undetermined citizenship" *i.e.* persons who had, during the past 50 years, arrived from the territory of the former Soviet Union and settled in Estonia. During the alien documentation campaign carried out from 1993 to 1998 a certain number of aliens received Estonian citizenship; others obtained the citizenship of other countries. As a result the share of persons with undetermined citizenship in Estonia decreased almost by two-third.

In 2003 the stock of persons with permanent residence permits reached 213 717 and of temporary resident permits 52 758 temporary. Through the last 4 years the number of residence permits has remained relatively stable.

Naturalisations

Between 1992 and 2003 (November) in total almost 130 000 applications for acquisition of Estonian nationality have been registered and 2 627 applications for release from Estonian citizenship. Around 124 100 persons have been granted Estonian citizenship by naturalisation most of whom are aliens who have settled in Estonia during the period of the Estonian SSR. Around 2 580 persons have been released from Estonian citizenship. By the decision of the government citizenship has been refused to 583 persons. The number of persons who have received Estonian citizenship by naturalisation is 3 090 in 2001, 4 091 in 2002 and 3 150 in 2003 (November).

The period of massive determination of Estonian citizens is over and the number of persons who apply for the acquisition of Estonian citizenship by naturalisation has stabilised. However, as the status of Estonian citizens has changed with the accession of Estonia to the EU, it is possible that the number of people who wish to acquire Estonian citizenship will increase, especially among younger aliens.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The volume of applications for Estonian citizenship has consistently increased and several changes in legislation passed by the parliament in 2003 have definitely contributed to this. Estonia has also managed to be significantly more active in disseminating information concerning application for citizenship to persons with undetermined

citizenship through the assistance of schools, local municipal councils and the cultural societies of national minorities.

Citizenship law

Since March 2004 the Estonian Citizenship Act foresees that the period of processing applications for citizenship has been reduced by half. The shorter period of processing has had a positive influence and the number of applications has increased. During the first 9 months of 2004 5 276 applications for citizenship have been registered, one-third more than in the same period the of previous year.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The amended Refugees Act which entered into force in May 2003 harmonised Estonian asylum procedures with the relevant EU legislation. Despite the small number of asylum applicants in Estonia, it has been able to build up both a fair and efficient asylum management system and fulfil effectively the international obligations related to the protection of refugees. In forthcoming years it is planned to provide premises for interviewing, with special equipment, and to construct and open an initial reception centre for asylum seekers, in order to accelerate and improve the quality of asylum procedures. In order to ascertain whether applications for asylum are justified, a language analysis system is to be developed and implemented, to determine the origin of asylum seekers, as well as DNA analysis for ascertaining family relationships, and tests for determining the age of applicants.

Measures against the illegal employment of immigrants

Estonia focuses on two main issues: first, the prevention of irregular migration by preliminary checks of applicants for visas and residence permits, with the aim of excluding the entry of undesirable aliens in Estonia. Second, the enforcement of monitoring procedures which include the identification of aliens who stay or work in Estonia illegally, the processing of misdemeanours related to irregular stay and illegal employment and arranging the departure of aliens remaining in Estonia in an irregular situation. The Citizenship and Migration Board is also planning to create a national migration monitoring system. This requires training of migration monitoring officers stationed permanently in different regions of the country. Another priority for the forthcoming years is the development and completion of the Repatriation Centre.

Finland

Introduction

In 2003, the Finnish growth rate was 1.9%, 0.4% lower than in 2002, but it is expected to increase to over 2.5% in 2004-2005. For the past three years the unemployment rate has fluctuated around 9%.

Inflows of foreigners into Finland in 2002 have slightly decreased for the first time since 1999. At the same time, the number of asylum seekers has doubled. At the end of October 2003, there were up to 106 000 foreign nationals in Finland, accounting for about 2% of the total population. Major changes in migration policy in 2003 included the introduction of the new Nationality Law in June and the amended Law on Persons of Finnish Descent (*i.e.* Ingrians) in October.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Inflows into Finland in 2002 decreased by around 5% compared to the previous year, in contrast to recent years. The decrease in immigration of foreign nationals alone was even greater, at around 10%. The Russian Federation, Estonia and Sweden remained the three top source countries (see Table III.8). A certain proportion of the Russians and Estonians were of Finnish descent (Ingrians). In 2002, they accounted for about 11% of foreign inflows into Finland (9.5% in 2001) and their number increased slightly compared to 2001, indicating a reversal of the downward trend of the previous three years (1999-2001). However, recent evidence shows that after the amendment to the Ingrian Act that came into force in October 2003, the return migration of Ingrians has slowed down in that year. On the contrary, inflows of Finnish citizens increased by about 3% compared to 2001. Those entering from Sweden constituted almost half of those inflows.

Outflows declined by 2% between 2002 and 2001, continuing the downward trend that started in 2000. In contrast to the previous year, Finnish outflows also decreased slightly in 2002, from 11 000 in 2001 to 10 130 in 2002, of whom about one-third went to Sweden and 10% to Norway. Outflows of foreign nationals increased by about 28%, from 2 160 in 2001 to 2 760 in 2002 (after a decline of 48% between 2000 and 2001). As in previous years, nationals of Sweden, the Russian Federation and Estonia comprised the most numerous groups, accounting respectively for 15%, 10% and 8% of foreign outflows.

Illegal migration

The number of irregular migrants staying in Finland without a residence permit is estimated at around 1 000 persons. In addition, it is thought that a few thousand come to Finland annually in order to work in the informal sector of the economy, mainly in

Table III.8. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Finland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows by main nationality	**14.7**	**16.9**	**19.0**	**18.1**
Nationals	6.8	7.8	7.9	8.1
Foreigners	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0
of which:				
Former USSR (except Estonia)[1]	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.1
Estonia[1]	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2
Sweden	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6
Net migration by main nationality	**2.8**	**2.6**	**5.8**	**5.2**
Nationals	–3.2	–2.4	–3.1	–2.0
Foreigners	5.9	5.0	8.9	7.2
of which:				
Former USSR (except Estonia)[1]	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.8
Estonia[1]	0.4	0.3	1.0	0.9
Sweden	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Asylum seekers	**3.1**	**3.2**	**1.7**	**3.4**
Foreign population by main nationality[2]	**87.7**	**91.1**	**98.6**	**103.7**
of which:				
Russian Federation[1]	18.6	20.6	22.7	24.3
Estonia[1]	10.7	10.8	11.7	12.4
Sweden	7.9	7.9	8.0	8.0
Somalia	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5
Acquisition of nationality by former nationality (units)	**4 730**	**2 977**	**2 720**	**3 049**
Russian Federation	800	666	533	418
Estonia	379	353	295	319
Somalia	1 208	346	222	204
Other countries	2 343	1 612	1 670	2 108
Mixed marriages	**2.9**	**2.8**	**2.8**	**2.7**

1. A large proportion of Russians and Estonians have Finnish origin.
2. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 30 September of the years indicated.

Sources: Statistics Finland; UNHCR.

seasonal construction and agriculture (mostly Russians and Estonians). Although the numbers are still quite small compared to some other OECD countries, irregular employment has become a sensitive political issue recently, as the number of illegal workers is expected to rise due to EU enlargement.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, the number of asylum seekers doubled compared to 2001 (see Table III.8). Romanians constituted the largest share (17%), followed by nationals of the Slovak Republic (12%), Bulgaria (8%), the Russian Federation (8%), Bosnia-Herzegovina (7%) and Turkey (6%). The order of importance of major source countries changed between 2001 and 2002. This was partly explained by the sharp increases in the number of asylum applications submitted by nationals of Romania (from 40 in 2001 to 600 in 2002) and the Slovak Republic (from 90 in 2001 to 420 in 2002) as well as the emergence of Bulgaria as a source country for asylum applications in 2002.

Some 1 560 refugees were accepted by Finland in 2002, 16% less than in the previous year. The number of refugees from the former Yugoslavia diminished by around 60%

whereas Iraqi nationals grew in number compared to 2001 (by 30%), comprising 16% of the total in 2002. Afghanistan, Somalia and Iran, the other major source countries of refugees in Finland, have not reported significant changes, accounting for 23%, 17% and 14% of the total respectively. In addition, 690 refugees arrived in Finland within the 2002 quota allowance. This had been set at an annual figure of 750 for 2002, 2003 and 2004. The 2002 quota was allocated mainly to Afghan, Iranian and Iraqi refugees.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The number of foreign nationals residing in Finland has been gradually increasing since 1998. At the end of September 2002, their number reached 103 700, 5% more than at the same date in 2001, accounting for approximately 2% of the total population (see Table III.8). Foreigners living in Finland were nationals of approximately 160 countries, of whom ethnic Finns from the former Soviet Union (mainly the Russian Federation and Estonia) constituted the largest groups (24 340 Russians and 12 430 Estonians in 2002), followed by Swedish nationals and refugees from Somalia and the former Yugoslavia. Recent data indicate that at the end of October 2003, there were as many as 106 000 foreign nationals in Finland.

The preponderance of women (around 60%) among newcomers from two main source countries (the Russian Federation and Estonia) has had a significant impact on the gender distribution of the foreign population in Finland recently, as at the beginning of the nineties it was male-dominated.

The unemployment rate among the foreign population was on average 30% in 2002. However, this figure was approximately twice as high among nationals of Iraq, Afghanistan, Iran, Somalia and the former Yugoslavia, the majority of whom had arrived in Finland as refugees.

Naturalisations

After a slight decline between 2000 and 2001, 3 050 foreigners received Finnish citizenship in 2002 (up 12% on 2001) (see Table III.8). These were mainly nationals of the Russian Federation (14%), Estonia (10%), the former Yugoslavia (8%), Iraq (7%), Vietnam (7%), and Somalia (7%). However, relative to the size of their populations, nationals of Vietnam and the former Yugoslavia – the relatively old immigrant communities that entered Finland as refugees or on the basis of family reunion – tend to be more interested in receiving Finnish citizenship than nationals of the Russian Federation or Sweden.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In January 2002, the Ministry of Labour established a project on future immigration policy challenges. It resulted in proposals for legislation and administrative practices relating to migrant workers and their family members and to foreign students in Finland. They were also aimed at increasing the attractiveness of Finland and the Finnish labour market, at improving the availability of necessary public services and at developing the Integration Act and international co-operation in the recruitment of foreign workers.

The first proposed amendment to the 1991 Alien Act was made in December 2002. However, it was abandoned by Parliament due to time constraints because of the elections in March 2003. The new, but practically unchanged, amendment was submitted in

September 2003. Its main focus was to facilitate the entry of foreign family members of Finnish nationals to Finland and alter the process for non-nationals seeking entry to Finland primarily to work. Moreover, a new provision was proposed in order to increase an employer's responsibility when employing foreign nationals and to promote co-operation between the authorities responsible for supervising the terms of the employment contracts of foreign workers.

In the context of EU enlargement, the Government began to prepare the Transition Period Act, which is to set limits on the entry to the labour market of workers from the new EU member states. The Finnish-Estonian working group was established to tackle the issues related to mobility of labour between these two countries.

The "Ingrian' Act, governing the immigration of persons coming from the former Soviet Union who are of Finnish descent, came into force in October 2003. It introduced, among other things, provisions on language proficiency and abode. This was a result of a public debate concerning the lack of Finnish language proficiency, as well as a weak Finnish identity, among ethnic Finns.

The use of individual integration plans for immigrants, which started in 1999, continues. Such plans help immigrants to strengthen their language, vocational and working life skills. In 2002, over 10 000 integration plans were designed (2001: 11 300), 61% of which were for women.

Citizenship law

In June 2003, the new Nationality Act came into force. The major changes included legitimising the holding of multiple nationalities. The acquisition of Finnish citizenship by stateless persons was facilitated. Persons who have lost Finnish citizenship or who are descendants of Finnish citizens or former Finnish citizens, can, until the end of May 2008, regain or acquire Finnish citizenship if they make an appropriate declaration. To promote gender equality, the nationality of both parents is taken into consideration when determining the citizenship of a child.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Irregular work has recently been a hotly debated political issue in Finland. The trade unions and the police have been advocating the introduction of stricter measures to fight irregular work, which is expected to increase due to EU enlargement and the overall growth of immigration to Finland. A political agreement has been reached that several measures will be implemented, including new registers, stricter penalties for employers employing illegal workers and new resources for the police to combat illegal employment.

France

Introduction

The return to growth in mid-2003 was confirmed by the figures for the first quarter of 2004, during which GDP grew by 0.8%. Growth should rise to around 2% in 2004 and to 2.5% in 2005. The unemployment rate amounted to 9.5% in 2003. OECD forecasts predict an average annual unemployment rate of 9.8% in 2004 and 9.6% in 2005.

With regard to migration, entries into France, particularly for permanent residence, continued to rise. In November 2003, the French Parliament adopted new legislation on immigration control and foreign residence which substantially modified the rules governing the right of entry and residence and which also introduced some innovative provisions regarding the integration of new arrivals. In addition, the Act of 10 December 2003 made far-reaching changes to asylum procedures.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Permanent immigration

Since 1999, permanent immigration has been rising at a rate of 10% a year. This annual growth rate was maintained in 2002. Approximately 156 000 foreigners entered France as permanent immigrants (see Table III.9). The great majority of these migrants were from third countries (outside the European Economic Area, EEA) (124 500) and the remainder were from the EEA (31 500).

The number of the former has grown since 1999 (by 50% over the period 1999-2002). Africa consolidated its position as the leading source of immigrants (63% of entries), followed well behind by Asia (18%); non-EU15 European and CIS countries accounted for 9% and the Americas 8.5% of the remaining entries. Most of these inflows of immigrants were accounted for by family dependants (70% of all entries from third countries). The number of entries by permanent wage earners fell in 2002 (7 469 compared with 8 811 in 2001), and was particularly marked among African immigrants. In contrast, there was a sharp increase in the number of permanent workers migrating from South-East Asia, India and Poland.

The second category of migrant, whose number has remained stable in absolute terms, primarily comes to France to work. They accounted for 13 000 of the permanent entrants and 41% of EEA nationals. The Portuguese make up 31% of permanent wage earners, followed by British and Italian nationals (13-14%) and then Belgian, Spanish and German nationals (10%). Entries by EEA nationals for family reasons are declining (–15.5% for family reunification). As in the case of wage earners, the leading group consists of Portuguese (30% of all family members) and British (20%) nationals, followed by Belgian, German and Italian nationals.

Table III.9. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, France**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Permanent immigration				
Registered flows by category[1]				
Family reunification (broadly defined)	**52.7**	**62.8**	**73.7**	**89.7**
Family members of French nationals	15.3	16.0	20.9	23.0
Family members of foreigners	21.8	21.4	23.1	27.3
Other ("vie privée et familiale" permit holders)	15.6	25.4	29.7	39.5
Workers	**6.3**	**6.4**	**22.7**	**21.0**
Wage earners	5.3	6.0	21.7	20.0
Self-employed	1.0	0.4	1.0	1.0
Visitors	**8.5**	**8.4**	**18.0**	**18.9**
Refugees	**6.1**	**6.7**	**9.0**	**10.6**
Principal applicants	4.7	5.2	7.3	9.0
Family members of refugees	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.5
Other status ("asile territorial) with family members	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2
1997 Regularisation programme	**3.3**	**0.2**	**0.1**	**0.1**
Other	9.4	10.7	4.7	4.1
Total	**86.3**	**95.2**	**128.1**	**144.4**
of which: EEA	5.6	5.4	24.6	23.9
Total registered and estimated flows[2]	**114.9**	**126.8**	**141.0**	**156.2**
Temporary immigration by category (excluding EEA)				
Trainees	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0
Holders of a provisional work permit[3]	5.1	6.6	8.7	8.8
Students	25.1	36.1	40.0	55.5
Seasonal workers	7.6	7.9	10.8	13.5
Inflows of asylum seekers (excluding accompanying minors)				
Conventional	30.9	39.8	47.3	51.1
Territorial	8.2	13.8	29.0	28.4

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Re-admissions[4]	**15.0**	**10.5**	**10.0**	**11.0**
Registered outflows of foreigners[5]				
Expulsions	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4
Actual removals to the borders	7.4	9.0	8.2	9.6
Assisted departures	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.8
Foreigners involved in an assisted departure procedure				
(number of persons)	**125**	**67**	**12**	**11**
(Cumulated figures since 1984)				(73 808)
of which: Workers[6]	97	47	8	8
(Cumulated figures since 1984)				(33 022)
Acquisition of French nationality				
Legal procedures	67.6	77.5	64.6	64.1
of which: Naturalisation	39.8	45.5	39.4	38.4
Declarations	68.9	64.0	57.0	58.8
of which: Decision following a wedding	24.1	26.1	24.0	26.4
Declaration of becoming French[7]	–	–	–	–
Other	9.0	8.6	5.9	5.2
Total	**145.4**	**150.0**	**127.6**	**128.1**
Mixed marriages	**30.0**	**34.6**	**39.8**	. .
% of total marriages	10.5	11.6	13.8	. .
Stocks of foreigners aged 15 and over according to work status[8]				
Total foreign population	2 875.4	2 843.1	2 903.9	2 974.9
Labour force	1 593.9	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8
of which: employment	1 228.3	1 249.4	1 317.1	1 325.6
Participation rate (%)	55.4	55.5	55.7	54.6
Unemployment rate (%)	22.9	20.8	18.6	18.4

1. Data for non-EU nationals are workers registered by the OMI. Up to 2000, data for EU citizens include only permanent workers (including entries from the EEA since 1994) who are included through declarations made by employers to the authorities. From 2001 on, the EU estimates are issued from more accurate figures from the Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF).
2. Including estimates by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of residence permits issued.
3. Provisional work permits (APT) are granted for a 9 month period and are renewable. Excluding holders of a "scientific card" (carte "scientifique").
4. Re-admissions undertaken within the framework of international agreements.
5. 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.
6. The others are accompanying dependants of workers involved in an assisted departure procedure.
7. People born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.
8. 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.

Temporary and seasonal immigration

There are mainly three categories of temporary immigrant: holders of a provisional work permit (valid for 9 months at most, renewable), asylum seekers (see below) and students. The wage earners in the first category (10 000) are mostly skilled and highly-

skilled workers. The number of workers from North America has significantly declined, whereas that of workers from Asia, Europe and North Africa rose in 2002.

In addition, 66 000 foreign students entered France in 2002 (*i.e.* 14 000 more than in 2001). However, entries by foreign students were probably higher, since students enrolled on short courses in France since 1999 are covered by a 3-6 month visa and are no longer reported in the statistics. The overall number of foreign students from third countries is rising (55 000). The share of foreign students from the EEA now amounts to only 15% of the total, compared to 45% in 1998. Foreign students entering France are predominantly Africans, followed by Asians.

Seasonal immigration (13 500 persons) rose by 25% in 2002. As in 2001, the main nationalities were Moroccans, whose numbers rose from 5 386 to 6 732 and Poles (4 634 to 5 856). Eighty-five per cent of these seasonal workers were employed in "multi-task agricultural work", fruit and vegetable picking and grape harvesting.

Refugees and asylum seekers

There were 87 000 asylum applications in 2002. A distinction is drawn in France between "conventional" and "territorial" asylum applications. The number of conventional asylum applications increased by 8% between 2001 and 2002. Over 59 000 foreigners applied for asylum under this procedure, 8 000 of whom were minors accompanying their parents and who were reported for the first time by the *Office français de protection des réfugiés et des apatrides* (OFPRA) [French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons] from May 2002 onwards. The increase in the number of conventional asylum applications was primarily attributable to applications from Africa (notably the Democratic Republic of Congo, the former Zaire) and the Commonwealth of Independent States. The number of territorial asylum applications remained stable at around 28 000 to 29 000 applications. Algerian nationals accounted for the largest share of territorial asylum applications (75% in 2002), followed by Romanians and Turks. Africa accounted for 47% of all asylum applications, followed in second place by Asia (28%).

Fewer than 200 out of the 28 000 to 29 000 territorial asylum applications filed were successful in 2002, and two thirds of the successful applicants were Algerians. In 2002, 83% of conventional asylum applications were immediately rejected by OFPRA (prior to appeals and possible reviews). However, the number of statutory refugees (8 495, of which 483 accompanying minors) increased by 16% compared with 2001.

Departures of foreigners

Known departures, that is those that are the outcome of an administrative procedure, include measures to deport foreigners that are actually implemented (approximately 21 000) and financially assisted voluntary repatriation (fewer than 800 persons, 70% of whom are asylum seekers whose application has been rejected). The first category includes expulsions (440 ordered and 385 implemented), deportation orders and denial of entry to the country (48 700 issued and 9 600 implemented) and, lastly, people without valid papers apprehended and sent back to their home country under repatriation agreements (11 800 repatriation orders issued and 11 000 implemented). The second category comprises humanitarian repatriations and recipients of employment benefits (for certain categories of wage-earners and job-seekers). However, the results of the latter procedure proved insignificant in that in 2002, only eight unemployed foreigners left France under this scheme. Another instrument, which has remained unchanged

since 1991, is that of aiding the return to work in their home country of foreigners asked to leave France (the funding of economic micro-projects in the country to which the foreigner returns, for example). The number of persons choosing to benefit from this form of assistance has been rising since 2000 (555 in 2000, 575 in 2001, and 656 in 2002).

Evolution of stocks of foreign residents in France and French nationals abroad

The 1999 census put the number of foreign residents in France at 3.25 million. After a review of mistaken declarations of nationality, the number of foreigners is apparently higher (3.6 million). At the end of 2002, according to figures issued by the Ministry of the Interior, the total number of foreigners with a valid residence permit amounted to 3.35 million, of whom 83.6% held a ten year permit. As of 31 December 2002, Africans accounted for 45% of the adult foreign population, European Union nationals (EU15) 35%, Asians 12%, followed by non-EU15 Europeans and nationals of the Americas.

As of 1 January 2003, according to estimates by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, there were 2 million French nationals (including those with dual nationality) living abroad, of whom 1.1 million were registered with French consulates. Just over half of the French nationals registered with their consulate were in Europe, around a fifth were in the Americas, 16% in Africa and about 13% in the Asia-Pacific region.

Naturalisations

The number of foreigners acquiring French nationality (128 000) remained stable in 2002 compared with previous years. In 2002, the number of new French citizens from African countries continued to account for the majority of naturalisations (slightly under two thirds of all naturalisations) whereas the number of European nationals acquiring French citizenship (15%) declined slightly.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Draft legislation on controls on immigration and foreign residents in France was adopted by Parliament on 26 November 2003. This new legislation provides for:

- New measures to combat illegal immigration (creation of a fingerprint databank for non-EU15 visa applicants, verification of official proof of accommodation statements issued to sponsors of visa applicants, tougher penalties for people traffickers, the period of administrative detention increased from 12 to a maximum of 32 days, increase in the period of cohabitation needed to qualify for a residence permit from one to two years and criminalisation of the organising of or participation in a marriage of convenience).
- New measures relating to the social integration of foreigners (the granting of a residence permit will be conditional upon verification of the social integration of the applicant after a period of five years, as opposed to the current three years. Residence permits will no longer be automatically issued to family members who have entered France under the family reunification procedure. Family members will only be issued a residence permit if they have successfully integrated into French society after a period of five years).
- The protection of certain categories of foreigner (foreigners born in France or resident in France since the age of 13, foreigners resident in France for 20 years, foreigners resident in France for 10 years and married for 3 years to a French citizen or a foreigner who has

spent his childhood in France, foreigners resident for 10 years who have children of French nationality) against expulsion and the ban on re-entry to the country, through the scrapping of the "double penalty" provision.

Two Acts relating to the social integration of foreigners were enacted in 2003: the Act of 3 February 2003 increasing the severity of the punishment for offences of a racist, anti-semitic or xenophobic nature and the Act of 1 August 2003 on town planning and environmental renovation. Moreover, a circular on the development of sponsorship schemes to promote the employment of persons experiencing difficulties in entering the job market was adopted on 4 August 2003. Lastly, use of the "admission and integration contract", deployed from 1 July to 31 December 2003, has been authorised in all *départements* from 1 January 2004 onwards. This is a contract between the State, represented by the Prefect of the *département*, and the person authorised to reside on French soil. It comprises a number of reciprocal commitments entered into by the person newly arrived in France: the former must respect the laws and values of the Republic and must take language lessons and a course on civic and community education; the French State is responsible for organising these educational programmes.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Draft legislation reforming the right of asylum was finally adopted by Parliament at the end of 2003. The Act of 10 December 2003 makes OFPRA, from 1 January 2004 onwards, the one-stop shop for processing asylum applications. The *Commission des recours des réfugiés* (CRR) [Refugee Appeals Commission] is the sole body to which asylum applicants rejected by OFPRA can appeal. Territorial asylum is replaced by humanitarian protection, an internationally recognised protection regime. The reform, which draws heavily on European Community law, introduces the concepts of internal asylum (when a person can have access to protection in a part of the territory of his or her country of origin) and safe countries of origin as grounds for rejecting an asylum application.

Measures to combat the employment of illegal foreign workers

Under the Act of 26 November 2003, any employer found to have employed an illegal immigrant must make a lump-sum contribution to cover the costs of returning the foreigner to his or her country of origin (without prejudging any legal action that may subsequently be taken against the employer and the special contribution payable to the *Office des migrations internationales*).

International agreements

The Euro-Mediterranean Agreement establishing an Association between the European Communities and their member states and the People's Democratic Republic of Algeria was signed on 27 April 2002 and provides for equality of treatment, integration and the elimination of discrimination in the labour market.

With regard to bilateral relations, agreements on exchanges of young professionals were signed with Bulgaria on 9 September 2003 and with Romania on 21 November 2003. Under these agreements young workers aged 18 to 35 years are authorised to move to the other country, subject to an annual quota requirement. An agreement was also signed with Australia on 24 November 2003 to allow young people aged 18 to 30 years to work in the other country as part of the Working Holiday Maker programme. Another agreement has also been signed with Romania on 4 October 2002 on the protection of Romanian minors in

difficulty in France and to promote co-operation in efforts to organise their return to Romania and to combat organised crime networks involved in human trafficking. This agreement entered into force on 7 March 2003. Lastly an agreement on removing the long-stay visa requirement for students was signed with Estonia on 2 April 2003 and entered into force on 12 June 2003.

Germany

Introduction

The rate of growth of the German economy has been slowing down since 2000 and decreased further to –0.1% in 2003 (from 0.2% in 2002). This represents one of the lowest GDP growth rates among EU countries and in fact among all OECD member states in 2003. The unemployment rate remained high, increasing to 9.3% in 2003 (from 7.8% in 2001 and 8.6% in 2002). According to projections, growth in GDP should be over 1% in 2004 and 2005.

Immigration flows to Germany substantially decreased in almost all categories of entry in 2002. At the same time, the number of foreigners residing in Germany remained at nearly the same level amounting to over 7.3 million at the end of 2002 (8.9% of the total population). The natural increase of foreigners, although positive, fell over the 1998-2001 period, while that of Germans continued to decline, doing so sharply over 2001.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

In 2002, net migration of German nationals declined noticeably for the first time since 1998 (by 21% over 2001). After considerable growth between 2000 and 2001, net migration of foreigners also fell (by 19% over 2001), with some 658 300 foreigners entering and some 505 500 departing Germany in 2002 (see Table III.10). Net migration was highest for nationals of the Russian Federation and Turkey whereas it was negative for nationals of Serbia and Montenegro. Nationals of Poland (12%), Turkey (9%), the Russian Federation (6%), Italy (4%) and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (4%) were the most numerous among foreigners arriving in Germany in 2002, with Italy displaying a considerable decrease over 2001 (by 28%). In addition, inflows of ethnic Germans continued in 2002 (99% of which were nationals of the former Soviet Union), although their number decreased by 7% over 2001.

In 2002, under bilateral agreements, Germany hosted around 293 200 seasonal workers (up 5% on 2001) and around 45 400 contract workers (down 3% on 2001). As in previous years, nationals of Poland comprised the largest proportion of both groups (85% of seasonal workers and 47% of contract workers) (see Table III.10).

Illegal migration

Available data on illegal entries only relate to the number of foreigners arrested at the border. This figure has decreased substantially by 21%, from 28 560 in 2001 to 22 640 in 2002. The largest fall in the number of illegal entries was registered at the German external EU borders (by 43%, from 11 690 in 2001 to 6 650 in 2002). The tightening of Czech asylum legislation in 2002, is considered to be the main reason for the decline in the number of

Table III.10. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Germany**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Components of population changes				
Total population (total change)	126.4	95.7	180.9	96.9
Natural increase	–75.6	–71.7	–94.1	–122.4
Net migration	202.0	167.4	275.0	219.3
Germans (total change)[1]	175.4	160.6	139.1	71.7
Natural increase	–156.5	–107.0	–123.0	–149.4
Net migration	83.7	81.0	84.0	66.5
Acquisition of German nationality[2]	248.2 |	186.7	178.1	154.5
Foreigners (total change)	–49.1	–64.9	39.1	25.2
Natural increase	80.9	35.3	28.9	26.9
Net migration	118.2	86.5	188.3	152.8
Acquisition of German nationality[2]	-248.2 |	–186.7	–178.1	–154.5
Migration of foreigners[3]				
Inflows by nationality	**673.9**	**648.8**	**685.3**	**658.3**
of which:				
Poland	72.2	74.1	79.7	81.6
Turkey	47.1	49.1	54.6	58.1
Russian Federation	27.8	32.1	36.6	36.5
Serbia and Montenegro	87.8	33.0	28.3	26.4
Italy	34.9	32.8	34.5	25.0
Net migration by nationality	**118.2**	**86.5**	**188.3**	**152.8**
of which:				
Russian Federation	17.7	20.7	24.5	22.1
Turkey	6.2	10.1	18.7	21.4
Poland	13.6	13.7	15.0	13.6
Romania	2.2	7.4	1.8	6.4
Serbia and Montenegro	39.5	–56.3	–7.6	–11.5
Inflows of ethnic Germans from:				
Central and Eastern Europe	104.9	95.6	98.5	91.4
of which:				
Former USSR	103.6	94.6	97.4	90.6
Poland	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Romania	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3
Inflows of asylum seekers	**95.1**	**78.6**	**88.3**	**71.1**
of which:				
Iraq	8.7	11.6	17.2	10.2
Turkey	9.1	9.0	10.9	9.6
Serbia and Montenegro	31.5	11.1	7.8	6.7
Afghanistan	4.5	5.4	5.8	2.8
Stock of foreign population by duration of stay				
(31 December of the year indicated)	**7 343.6**	**7 296.8**	**7 318.6**	**7 335.6**
Less than one year (%)	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.8
1 year to less than 4 years (%)	13.9	13.6	13.4	13.6
4 to less than 8 years (%)	19.5	17.0	15.6	15.1
8 to less than 10 years (%)	8.8	9.8	9.3	7.4
10 to less than 20 years (%)	20.2	21.3	22.5	25.0
20 years and more	31.9	33.4	33.9	34.1
Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Naturalisations of foreign nationals[4]	**143.3**	**186.7**	**178.1**	**154.5**
Issuance of work permits	**1 034.5**	**1 083.3**	**1 054.5**	**945.1**
of which: Issue of work permits for a first employment[5]	433.7	473.0	553.7	529.6
Stock of foreign workers (microcensuses) – Top 5 nationalities				
Turkey	1 008	996	1 004	974
Italy	386	395	403	407
Greece	219	207	210	213
Croatia	189	195	193	185
Poland	100	106	113	133
Others	1 625	1 643	1 690	1 742
Total	**3 545**	**3 546**	**3 616**	**3 634**
Contract workers (annual average)[6]	**39.9**	**43.6**	**46.8**	**45.4**
of which :				
Poland	18.2	18.5	22.0	21.2
Hungary	6.4	6.7	7.3	7.5
Croatia	3.9	5.1	5.2	4.6
Romania	3.9	5.2	3.7	3.3
Czech Republic	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Seasonal workers by nationality[7]	**223.4**	**219.0**	**277.9**	**293.2**
of which :				
Poland	199.4	192.2	236.7	251.0
Romania	7.1	8.7	16.6	16.6
Slovak Republic	6.0	6.4	9.7	9.7
Croatia	3.4	4.9	6.0	4.7
Unemployment (national definition)				
Total number of unemployed workers (Germany as a whole)	4 099.2	3 888.6	3 851.6	4 060.3
Total number of unemployed workers (western Germany)	2 755.5	2 529.4	2 478.0	2 648.8
Unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)	8.8	8.7	8.3	8.7
Total number of foreign unemployed workers (western Germany)	477.7	436.8	428.6	459.9
Foreigners' unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)	18.4	16.4	16.5	17.8

1. Figures include ethnic Germans whose German origin has been recognised, except for the acquisition of German nationality since 2000.
2. From 2000 on, data do not include ethnic Germans.
3. Data are from population registers.
4. Data do not include ethnic Germans.
5. Citizens of EU member States are not included.
6. Contract workers are recruited under bilateral agreements. Quotas by country of origin are revised annually.
7. Seasonal workers are recruited under bilateral agreements and they are allowed to work 3 months per year.

Sources: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Statistiches Bundesamt; UNHCR.

illegal migrants to Germany that year. Other reasons for the fall include the abolition of visa duty for nationals of Bulgaria (since April 2001) and Romania (since January 2002) as well as the continuing improvement in border co-operation with neighbouring countries, and in particular with Poland and the Czech Republic. Despite the general downward trend, the number of illegal entries from China showed a significant increase (from 470 in 2001 to 1 020 in 2002).

As a consequence, the number of illegal migrants intercepted entering Germany with the assistance of traffickers as well as the number of traffickers arrested, decreased in 2002 compared to 2001 (by 38% and 25% respectively). Nationals of Iraq, China, Afghanistan, Turkey and the Russian Federation were the most numerous trafficked migrants whereas Poles, Germans and Turks were predominant among traffickers. Half of the total population of illegal migrants was smuggled through the German external EU borders (with Poland and the Czech Republic).

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, the number of asylum seekers was 71 100, a decrease of 19% compared to 2001 (see Table III.10). As in the previous year nationals of Iraq (14%) and Turkey (14%) were the largest groups. The number of applications from Iraq, however, decreased substantially over 2001 (by 40%). Of the approximately 130 130 decisions on applications taken in 2002, 1.8% were decided in the applicants' favour. In addition, 3.2% of applicants were granted protection against deportation.

On 31 December 2001, about 1.1 million foreign nationals were resident in Germany on humanitarian grounds.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

On December 31, 2002, over 7.3 million foreigners resided in Germany. This represents an increase of 0.5% compared to the end of 2001. The proportion of foreigners in the total population (8.9%) has remained at approximately the same level since 1995. Nationals of the 15 EU member states amounted to one-fourth of the total. Slightly over half of the foreign population consisted of nationals of Turkey (26%), the former Yugoslavia (8%), Italy (8%), Greece (5%) and Poland (4%). Amongst them, only Poland reported a small increase over 2001 (of around 2%). The largest increases were reported for Russian nationals (of 14%, from 136 080 in 2001 to 155 580 in 2002), Chinese (of 14%, from 63 110 to 72 090), Ukrainians (of 12%, from 103 480 to 116 000) and Iraqis (of 9%, from 76 300 to 83 300). Around 95% of all foreigners lived in West Germany.

Nearly two-thirds of all foreigners had lived in Germany for more than 10 years, and over one-third of these for at least 20 years, while only 5% had spent less than one year in Germany (see Table III.10). Although the proportion of women has been increasing since the recruitment of workers in the 1960s, men continue to predominate in the foreign population in 2002. Nevertheless, the male share of the foreign resident population is smaller than that of the population as a whole. The age distribution of foreigners hardly changed compared to previous years: persons under 21 accounted for around 23% whereas those aged between 21 and 45 years constituted almost half the total. Those older than 65 years comprised only around 6%.

According to the 2002 sample census, 45% of Germans and 43% of foreigners were economically active and nearly 97% of all economically active foreigners lived in West

Germany. At the same time, 8% of all foreigners were unemployed, compared to 4% of Germans. The unemployment rate for foreigners increased in 2002 (from 17.4% in 2001 to 19.1% in 2002). The highest rates were reported among nationals of Turkey (above 20%). Nationals of Italy, Greece and the former Yugoslavia followed, with rates between 15 and 20%.

Naturalisations

In 2002, approximately 154 550 foreigners obtained German citizenship, a decline of 13% over the previous year (see Table III.10). Of these, as in the previous year, 42% were Turkish nationals. Their proportion of the total number of naturalisations was much higher than their share of the total foreign population.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

After a failed attempt to introduce a new immigration law in 2002, the German government reached an agreement with opposition parties on this legislation in May 2004. The main provisions of the new law include the following:

New structures: The current complex structure of five different residence permits will be reduced to two, *i.e.* to a temporary and a permanent permit. The new law is no longer structured according to the permits themselves, but rather with respect to the purpose of stay (*e.g.* education, employment, family reunion, humanitarian migration). Accordingly, a separate work permit application will no longer be required, and the labour office will instead give internal consent for labour-related immigration (so-called "one-stop government"). A newly-established Federal Office for Migration and Refugees will be in charge of the co-ordination of migration-related government activities.

Labour immigration: The new law officially ends Germany's recruitment stop of foreign workers – which applied since 1973 – with respect to highly skilled individuals. It therefore replaces the current special framework for IT specialists, which expires on 31 December 2004. Recruitment of highly skilled individuals, however, remains generally subject to a labour market test. These highly skilled immigrants (*e.g.* scientists, academics and people surpassing a certain income threshold) are allowed to settle permanently and obtain a permanent residence permit from the outset. Foreign students may now also seek employment in Germany after graduation. Qualified immigrants who are not considered to be highly skilled (*e.g.* people having only completed vocational training), however, can only be recruited in exceptional cases. Self-employed may settle in Germany provided they invest at least one million Euro and employ at least ten people. It was originally planned to introduce further channels of immigration into Germany, *e.g.* immigration independent of an employment offer via a points system, but these plans were abandoned during the legislation process.

Family reunification: Spouses and children below 16 (under certain circumstances up to the age of 18) are allowed to join the migrant and, in general, initially obtain a temporary residence permit.

Humanitarian migration: Individuals suffering under non-governmental and gender-specific persecution may now also be granted refugee status. Furthermore, several other groups of migrants in need of protection obtain a better status compared to the current legislation.

Security aspects: The new law facilitates the deportation of religious extremists who preach hatred and violence, as well as people suspected of involvement in or support of terrorist activities. People that have been sentenced because of human trafficking can also be deported.

Integration: New immigrants have the legal right to participate in language courses, as well as so-called "integration courses" covering German law, culture and history. The federal government finances these courses. Immigrants who do not participate or fail to complete the courses will face sanctions, which may ultimately lead to a denial of the prolongation of their stay in Germany. Foreigners who are already residing in Germany may also be obliged to participate in integration courses under certain circumstances, and failure to do so may lead to a reduction in social security benefits.

The new immigration law has passed both chambers of Parliament in July 2004 and will enter into force on 1 January 2005. The new Federal Office for Migration and Refugees has already started its activities.

Greece

Introduction

The Greek economy grew at a rate of 4.2% in 2003 (the OECD forecasts 4% growth in 2004), above the European average. Investment related to the Olympic Games played a major role in boosting economic activity. However, despite having fallen in recent years, the unemployment rate still remains high (9.3% in 2003).

Since the early 1990s, the volume of migration flows into Greece has risen. A large share of inflows came from third countries, but there was also a large amount of return immigration from the countries of the former Soviet Union. Recent migration flows indicate an increase in the number of refugees and asylum seekers as well as a growing share of family reunification migrants.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Immigration is a relatively recent phenomenon in Greece and is directly related to geopolitical changes in Eastern Europe and the economic crisis in Albania. While recent changes in the foreign population (see below) clearly reflect this phenomenon, there is no reliable data available on inflows. It is nonetheless thought that most new immigrants are entering the country for work purposes. The largest immigrant groups are those from Albania, Bulgaria, Georgia and Romania. Most migrants move to the capital, Macedonia and the Peloponnesos.

Illegal migration

A large share of recent immigration flows is made up of illegal immigrants. To combat this problem, Greece has introduced measures to tighten border controls. The Act of 2001 significantly increases the size of fines for illegal entry to the country and for the employment or sheltering of illegal migrants. The latter, should they refuse to pay the tax laid down by the law at the time of their repatriation, will be refused the right to re-enter the country legally.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2003, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees reported almost 8 200 new asylum applications in Greece, an increase of 45% on the previous year. In 2003, the largest share of asylum seekers were from Iraq (2 831 applications), followed by nationals of Pakistan, Iran and Afghanistan (in sharp decline compared with 2002).

Table III.11. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Greece**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality (Units)				
Iraq	906	1 334	1 972	2 567
Afghanistan	116	446	1 459	1 238
Iran	74	135	212	411
Pakistan	21	141	252	250
Turkey	195	591	800	211
Nigeria	11	14	33	184
India	2	27	41	84
Other countries	203	395	730	719
Total	**1 528**	**3 083**	**5 499**	**5 664**

	2001	
	Total	*of which*: Entered Greece for employment purposes
Stock of foreigners by nationality		
Albania	438.0	240.7
Bulgaria	35.1	27.5
Georgia	22.9	11.1
Romania	22.0	17.3
United States	18.1	3.7
Russian Federation	17.5	7.8
Cyprus	17.4	5.0
Other countries	191.1	100.1
Total	**762.2**	**413.2**
of which: Women	346.6	168.6

	2001	
	Total	*of which*: Women
Stock of foreign-born population by region of birth		
Europe	843.5	422.3
Asia	162.5	73.2
America	42.1	24.3
Africa	52.2	25.5
Oceania	21.1	11.4
Other countries	1.5	0.7
Total	**1 122.9**	**557.4**

Sources: UNHCR; National Statistical Service of Greece, Population Census, 2001.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The results of the 2001 census show that the number of foreign residents has risen sharply over the past ten years. The foreign population rose from 167 000 in 1991 to around 800 000 in 2001, of which 413 000 had migrated to Greece for employment purposes (see Table III.11). The foreign population represented 7% of the total population in 2001 (1.6% in 1991). Immigration has therefore contributed strongly to the increase in Greece's total population. Over 438 000 Albanians were enumerated in 2001, while Bulgarians accounted for around 5% of resident foreigners.

In 2001, male foreign workers were employed mainly in the building sector (35%) and the agriculture and fishing sectors (20%), whereas most women workers were employed in the household services sector (52%) and catering (20%).

Two major amnesties were organised in 1998 and 2001 for illegal immigrants who could prove that they had been resident in Greece for at least a year. In 1998, over 370 000 applications were received, the bulk of which were from Albanian nationals. The 2001 regularisation exercise attracted over 350 000 applications and was noteworthy for the emergence of new nationalities, particularly Ukrainians and, to a lesser extent, Peruvians and Chinese. By the end of 2001, approximately half of the legalisation applications submitted under the second programme had been granted.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In accordance with Act 2910/01, as amended by Act 3013/02, Greece's migration policy focuses on the entry and residence of foreigners who wish to work in Greece. The Greek Organisation for Employment and Labour (OAED) administered by the Ministry of Labour is responsible for drawing up an annual report estimating labour market requirements and the number of posts vacant, by profession and by region, in order to establish a work permit quota. Under the Act a work permit can only be issued if there is proof of a contractual relationship with a Greek employer. Residence permits are only issued to foreigners who already have a work permit.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In view of the problems relating, at least in part, to administrative delays, in 2002 the Greek Ombudsman proposed a number of reforms to the system for granting political asylum, the main points of which were as follows:

- The need to maintain mechanisms that guarantee the objective and impartial evaluation of asylum applications.
- The training of staff responsible for receiving and examining asylum applications.
- The tightening of regulations regarding the making of decisions relating to refugees with the aim of ensuring that they provide legal protection where this is appropriate.

Hungary

Introduction

Growth in the Hungarian economy slowed from the 2001 level to 2.9% in 2003, but should gradually start to recover this year in response to strong growth in exports and investment. In contrast, compared with the previous year, the rate of unemployment remained stable in 2002 (5.6%) and increased slightly in 2003 (5.8%), putting Hungary at a level well below that of the OECD area.

With a view to accession to the European Union, in April 2004, Hungarian MPs passed a number of amendments to the 2001 Act on the entry and residence of foreigners and to the 1997 Act on asylum. These legislative changes provide for the regularisation of certain restricted categories of foreigner.

The number of foreigners residing legally in Hungary is relatively low: 116 000 foreigners hold a long-term residence permit, *i.e.* 1.1% of the total population. There are thought to be a significant number of illegal foreign workers. According to some estimates, the number of illegal workers during the summer period is twice that of workers with a valid work permit.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

Since the early 1990s, net migration of nationals has remained positive and has increased significantly over the past five years. Over three quarters of Hungarian nationals resident in other European countries live in Germany. In addition, the United States, Canada and Australia are among the non-European countries with a large resident population of Hungarian nationals.

In 2002, there were approximately 15 700 new entries of foreign immigrants on long-term permits, a decline compared with the previous year (see Table III.12). However, these figures are still provisional and the trend in the foreign population does not seem to indicate a significant fall but rather a relative stabilisation. The share of Romanian nationals in these flows is by far the largest, with 9 000 entries reported in 2002, *i.e.* over 57% of total inflows. This share has been rising sharply for a few years, which would indicate a trend opposite to that observed from the early 1990s onwards when Romanian nationals accounted for almost 80% of foreign immigrants. The share of other nationalities in inflows has grown, notably Ukrainians (11.6% in 2002 compared with 3% in 1990), EU nationals (8.8% compared with 3.4%) and Chinese.

Table III.12. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Hungary**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Registered long-term immigration by country of origin[1]				
Romania	7.8	8.9	10.6	9.0
Ukraine	2.4	2.4	2.5	1.8
Slovak Republic	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.5
Serbia and Montenegro	2.5	1.8	1.0	0.4
United States	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Other countries	6.4	5.7	5.0	3.6
Total	**20.2**	**20.2**	**20.3**	**15.7**
Inflows of asylum seekers	**11.5**	**7.8**	**9.6**	**6.4**
Stocks of foreign residents (long-term and permanent residents)				
by country of origin[2]				
Romania	57.3	41.6	45.0	47.3
Ukraine	11.0	8.9	9.8	9.9
Serbia and Montenegro	10.9	8.6	8.4	7.9
Germany	9.6	7.5	7.7	7.1
China	8.9	5.8	6.8	6.4
Other countries	55.3	37.6	38.7	37.3
Total	**153.1 |**	**110.0**	**116.4**	**115.9**
of which: Women	. .	56.5	59.6	59.2

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Acquisition of the Hungarian nationality	**6.1**	**7.5**	**8.6**	**3.2**
of which, in percentage of total acquisitions:				
Romania	57.1	56.1	65.7	66.2
Former Yugoslavia	18.7	22.0	15.2	14.8
Former USSR	14.4	13.5	13.3	13.0
Registered foreign workers, by country of origin[3]				
Romania	14.1	17.2	22.0	25.8
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	5.9
Slovak Republic	1.0	2.9	1.8	2.8
China	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	0.9
Other countries	6.3	5.5	5.5	6.0
Total	**28.5**	**35.0**	**38.6**	**42.7**
Number of expulsions	**18.4**	**19.6**	**14.0**	**6.1**
of which:				
Romania	11.3	13.0	8.8	3.3
Serbia and Montenegro	2.6	1.0	0.9	. .
Ukraine	0.7	1.2	0.8	0.8
China	0.5	0.9	0.3	0.2
Afghanistan	0.5	–	–	–
Number of deportations by nationality	**12.9**	**12.9**	**9.0**	**1.8**
of which:				
Romania	7.4	8.3	5.4	0.8
Serbia and Montenegro	2.0	0.8	0.6	0.2

1. Foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Data include ethnic Hungarians.
2. Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. From 2000 on, registers have been cleaned up to exclude expired permits.
3. Valid work permits at the end of the year.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; Central Statistical Office; Employment Office; UNHCR.

Illegal migration

The number of expulsion orders and deportations has fallen sharply for the second year running. In 2002, expulsion orders were issued to 6 100 foreigners (compared with 14 000 the previous year). They were mainly addressed to nationals of Romania (3 300), Moldova, Yugoslavia, the Ukraine and Turkey. Expulsion orders are generally issued for offences against the Immigration Acts, but are also issued for the illegal pursuit of a professional activity (which is the case for most Ukrainians). In 2002, deportation orders were issued for around 1 800 persons (compared with 9 000 the previous year).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Only 2 400 persons applied for asylum in Hungary in 2003, compared with 6 400 in 2002 and 9 600 in 2001 (see Table III.12). Since 2000, the majority of asylum seekers no longer come from the former Yugoslavia, but also from Afghanistan (469 in 2003), Iraq (348), Iran (170), Turkey (125) and Somalia (113). The vast majority of asylum seekers enter

Hungary illegally. For example, in 2002, out of the 6 400 asylum seekers registered, 5 700 had entered the country illegally. For most asylum seekers, Hungary is simply a country of transit to the European Union. However, asylum seekers from the former Yugoslavia are an exception in that a large proportion of them settle in Hungary.

Barely 6% of the rulings made in 2003 led to the award of refugee status as defined by the Geneva Convention. However, almost a quarter of the rulings allowed the award of another type of humanitarian status. A quarter of the applications received were rejected and no ruling could be made on 45% of the applications examined, usually due to the absence of the applicant.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners and the foreign-born population

In 2002, there were some 116 000 foreign residents holding long-term permits. This population consisted mainly of persons from Romania (40.8%), the Ukraine (8.5%) and Serbia and Montenegro (6.8%). The stock of those from Serbia and Montenegro has been declining since 2000. The next main source countries are Germany and China nationals, although their stocks have recently started to fall. Approximately 51% of foreign residents are female.

In 2002, of the 307 000 strong foreign-born population, almost half were from Romania, over 11% from the Czech or Slovak Republics, 11% from the former Soviet Union and 10% from the former Yugoslavia.

Naturalisations

In 2002, the number of naturalisations fell to its lowest level since 1990. A total of 3 200 persons acquired Hungarian nationality, compared with 8 600 the previous year. The breakdown by nationality has remained fairly stable: two thirds were Romanians, 15% were nationals of the former Yugoslavia and 13% nationals of the former USSR. Most naturalisations were of persons who had a Hungarian parent or spouse.

2. Policy developments

Amendments to the law on the entry and residence of foreigners

A number of amendments have been made to the right to detain foreigners set out in the 2001 legislation. In particular, foreigners who do not speak Hungarian now have the right to be represented by a lawyer.

In addition, unaccompanied minors are now entitled to a residence permit on humanitarian grounds even if they do not meet all the legal requirements. The right to appeal the rejection of a residence permit application has also been introduced. Family members wishing to undertake gainful employment no longer need a work permit if they already have a residence permit. However, only the spouses of Hungarian nationals have free access to the labour market; other foreign nationals need to obtain a work permit.

Amendments to the asylum law

The main amendments to the asylum law passed in April 2004 simplify the procedure for processing asylum applications, revoke the possibility of implementing a deportation procedure once an application has been fully processed, and introduce a number of provisions regarding unaccompanied minors, access to the labour market for asylum seekers and, lastly, voting rights for refugees in local elections.

The authorities responsible for processing asylum applications no longer have the power to initiate a deportation procedure with regard to foreigners residing illegally in Hungary whose request for asylum has been turned down. The status of unaccompanied minors must now be determined immediately and a guardian appointed to represent the minor. During the first year on Hungarian soil, minors may only work in the centre in which they are accommodated.

Regularisation of immigrants illegally resident in Hungary

The law of 2004 also provides for the regularisation of certain foreigners illegally resident in Hungary who can provide proof of entry into the country prior to 1 May 2003. Other highly restrictive conditions apply to foreigners seeking regularisation under this law. They must: *i)* be married to a Hungarian national, or to a foreigner residing legally in Hungary or have a child of Hungarian nationality; or *ii)* be able to prove that they receive income as the head or manager of a company; or *iii)* be able to show that they have cultural links with Hungary. Applicants meeting one of these conditions may be granted a one-year residence permit. No leave is given to appeal in the event of a failed application.

Ireland

Introduction

The growth rate in Ireland during 2003 was only 1.4%, a substantial drop from the approximately 7% experienced in 2002, indicating that the boom period in the Irish economy may have ended even if GDP growth rate is expected to reach 3.6% in 2004. Recently job losses have mounted, especially in the high-technology sector. From 2001 to 2003 unemployment rose from 3.9 to 4.6%, the first such rise in many years. While the fundamentals of the Irish economy remain sound, employment increases are likely to be on a much reduced scale compared with recent years.

Nevertheless, Ireland continued to be a net immigration country which it had become in the mid-1990s. However, net migration in 2003 at 29 800 showed the first decline in this figure for some years, falling by 28% compared to 2002.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The results of the 2002 Census of Population indicated that net inflows of population were higher than the estimates for recent years and have led to some recalculation of gross inflows and outflows which are shown in Table III.13. Figures for 1999-2003 show an increase in net migration each year until 2002 when, as mentioned above, net migration declined by 28% compared with the previous year to a figure below that of 2001. Both the gross inflows and outflows in 2003 also showed a decline over those in 2002.

Non-nationals form an increasing proportion of gross inflows, rising from 45.6% in 1999 to 65.3% in 2003. Immigration by those from non-EU states has risen dramatically in recent years, from about 14.3% of total inflows in 1999 to 38.2% in 2003. At the moment there are no comparative figures for outflows.

There are indications that the skill profile of the immigrant inflow is changing. Almost 45% of the employment inflow in 2002 related to persons coming to engage in service or unskilled activities, up from 35% in the mid-1990s. At the same time, the number of work permits issued to non-EEA nationals has escalated, from around 6 000 in 1998 to 47 600 in 2003. With new work permits becoming harder to obtain since 2002, the renewal rate of existing work permits has increased from about one-third prior to 2002 to an estimated 60% in 2003.

While all sectors have recorded increases in foreign employment, the most rapid growth has been in agriculture (mainly from the Baltic States) from under 100 in 1998 to 7 200 in 2003 and in hotels and catering, from 600 in 1998 to over 10 000 in 2002 . Overall, the Baltic States, other EU accession states and other Eastern European states accounted for about 26 600 of the work permits issued, 55% of the total, compared to 21% of the 1999

Table III.13. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Ireland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Immigration by nationality[1]	**48.9**	**52.6**	**59.0**	**66.9**	**50.5**
Irish	26.7	24.8	26.3	27.0	17.5
United Kingdom	8.2	8.4	9.0	7.4	6.9
Other EU countries	6.9	8.2	6.5	8.1	6.9
United States	2.5	2.5	3.7	2.7	1.6
Other countries	4.5	8.6	13.6	21.7	17.7
% of returning Irish citizens	*54.6*	47.1	44.6	40.4	34.7
Emigration of both Irish and foreign people by country of destination[1]	**31.5**	**26.6**	**26.2**	**25.6**	**20.7**
United Kingdom	11.2	7.2	7.8	7.4	5.9
Other EU countries	5.5	5.5	5.6	4.8	4.6
United States	5.3	4.0	3.4	4.8	1.9
Other countries	9.5	10.0	9.5	8.5	8.3
Stock of total population[2]	**3 741.7**	**3 789.6**	**3 847.2**	**3 917.2**	**3 978.8**
Irish nationals	3 623.9	3 663.3	3 692.2	3 729.5	3 756.7
Total foreign population	117.8	126.3	155.0	187.7	222.1
United Kingdom	69.2	67.4	78.0	78.6	90.4
Other EU countries	20.4	25.0	25.0	27.3	30.5
United States	9.9	7.9	10.1	10.7	8.4
Other countries	18.3	26.0	41.9	71.0	92.9
% of foreign population in total population	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8	5.6
Asylum seekers	**7.7**	**11.1**	**10.3**	**11.6**	**7.9**
Work permits issued and renewed	**6.3**	**18.0**	**36.4**	**40.3**	**47.6**
By nationality					
Central and Eastern Europe	1.3	8.0	20.0	21.2	26.6
India and Pakistan	0.6	1.1	1.6	1.7	1.9
United States and Canada	1.1	1.9	1.5	1.1	1.3
Other countries	3.3	7.0	13.4	16.4	17.8
By sector of activity					
Agriculture	0.4	3.0	5.7	6.2	7.2
Industry	0.4	1.8	3.1	3.1	3.4
Services	5.4	13.3	27.6	31.0	36.9
Employment by nationality[2]	**1 589.0**	**1 671.5**	**1 721.9**	**1 763.8**	**1 793.4**
Irish nationals	1 535.9	1 611.6	1 641.7	1 667.4	1 682.2
Foreigners in employment	53.1	59.9	80.2	96.4	111.2
United Kingdom	31.6	32.1	37.9	38.4	42.2
Other EU countries	12.1	15.4	17.2	18.5	20.3
United States	3.3	2.8	3.5	3.7	2.7
Other countries	6.1	9.6	21.6	35.9	46.0
Employment to total population ratio	**42.5**	**44.1**	**44.8**	**45.0**	**45.1**
Irish nationals (%)	42.4	44.0	44.5	44.7	44.8
Foreigners (%)	45.1	47.4	51.7	51.4	50.1
United Kingdom (%)	45.7	47.6	48.6	48.9	46.7
Other EU countries (%)	59.3	61.6	68.8	67.8	66.6
United States (%)	33.3	35.4	34.7	34.6	32.1
Other countries (%)	33.3	36.9	51.6	50.6	49.5

1. CSO estimates made on the basis of 1996 and 2002 Census results.
2. Central Statistics Office revised estimates from the Quarterly National House Survey (second quarter). Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling errors.

Sources: Central Statistics Office; Labour Force Survey; UNHCR.

total of 6 300. Other major source countries were the Philippines and South Africa, accounting for nearly 14% of all work permit holders in 2002.

Illegal migration

There were 518 deportations carried out in 2002 (365 in 2001). In August 2003 deportation orders were issued on a significant number of people who had residency cases lodged on the basis of having an Irish-citizen child. These families were given three weeks to apply to the Minister for Justice for temporary leave to remain on humanitarian grounds.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of persons entering Ireland as asylum seekers remains at a high level, although there are signs that the inflow is declining. There were 11 600 claims in 2002, falling to less than 8 000 in 2003. In 2002, just over a third of asylum seekers were Nigerian, 14% Romanian with the rest coming from a diverse range of countries. The rate of grant of official refugee status remains low at around 11%.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The number of foreign residents continues to increase as it has done over recent years, to about 187 700 in 2002 that is 4.8% of the total population, up from 4% in 2001 (see Table III.13). The population as a whole was estimated at April 2002 to be 3 917 000. The majority of foreign residents are from other EU countries, but the number of non-EU nationals has been growing rapidly, to 80 000 in 2002, mainly the result of the rapid increase in the number of asylum seekers and the recent large influx of work permit holders.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The basic legislation governing the entry and residence of non-nationals dates from 1935 and 1946 and is thought by the government to be inappropriate in view of the rapid increase in immigration and asylum seeking. New legislation is currently being developed by the Department of Justice. Meanwhile, in 2003, two legislative measures dealing with specific issues have been introduced.

The Immigration Act of 2003 introduced carrier liability for transporting undocumented migrants and contained a substantial number of amendments to the 1996 Refugee Act. Although the carrier liability measures were controversial, the government defended the measures on the grounds that they were necessary for Ireland to meet its obligations under the Schengen Agreement.

The 2003 Employment Permits Act codifies requirements related to work permits and working visas. It was primarily designed to facilitate free access to the Irish labour market to the citizens of the new EU accession states with effect from May 2004. The Act also allows the Minister to re-impose a requirement for employment permits in respect of the nationals of accession states if the labour market is experiencing or is likely to experience a "disturbance".

Citizenship law

Until 2003, the non-national parents of Irish-born children were almost automatically granted residency in Ireland. This led to substantial numbers of pregnant women coming to Ireland and claiming asylum then subsequently abandoning their asylum application,

opting instead to claim leave to remain in the country based on their Irish-born child. In January 2003, the Supreme Court ruled that non-EU immigrants did not automatically gain a right to reside in Ireland by parenting an Irish-born child and the following month the Department of Justice announced that immigrant parents could no longer seek residency based on their child's Irish citizenship.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Immigration Act of 2003 allows the fingerprinting of all asylum seekers, including minors, to assist the more efficient operation of the Dublin Convention, which determines which EU State is responsible for processing an asylum application. Furthermore, the legislation increased the permissible period of detention of asylum claimants between court appearances from 10 to 21 days, though it should be noted that asylum seekers are not routinely detained in Ireland. The Act makes provision for the Minister to designate safe countries of origin, from which asylum seekers will be presumed not to be refugees unless they can prove otherwise. An accelerated procedure was introduced for certain categories of applications deemed to warrant prioritisation, including those from the nationals of safe countries, applicants aged under 18 and where there is the likelihood that the application is well founded. Asylum applicants are now also required to participate more actively in the asylum process.

Since June 2003, asylum seekers no longer have a right to claim rent allowance in order to live outside the asylum support system. If they choose to forgo the full board and accommodation provided, they will only receive reduced social welfare.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In response to the economic slowdown, amended work permit arrangements were introduced in 2002 to ensure that employers offered first choice of available jobs to Irish or other EEA nationals. Further restrictions were introduced in April 2003, since when new permits are not issued for certain, varying, categories of jobs, including clerical and administrative workers, general labourers and building workers, operator and production staff and childcare workers.

International agreements

As part of a policy to facilitate deportations, the Irish government has signed Readmission Agreements with Romania and Nigeria, and further agreements are to be concluded with Bulgaria and Poland. The agreement with Nigeria has been controversial due to the nature of some punishments imposed on women by Islamic courts in that country.

Italy

Introduction

The low growth in the Italian economy in 2002 (+0.4% GDP) and in employment (+1.1%) did not affect significantly migration trends, which have seen steadily increasing inward labour migration over the past decade. The main indicators, the number of incoming foreigners, new permits issued and enrolment in municipal registries, all showed increases.

In July 2002 the so-called "Bossi-Fini Law", number 189/02, was passed by the Italian parliament and became law. The new law makes substantial changes to the 1998 framework immigration law, especially in terms of admission and expulsion procedures. Part of this law was a regularisation, for which more than 700 000 applications were filed between 11 September and 11 November 2002.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The number of immigrants entering Italy and receiving permits has been increasing over the past four years. In 2002 it increased by 60% over the previous year, reaching a record total of 388 086 individuals whose new permits were still valid at year's end (see Table III.14). Of all permits issued, two-thirds were due to entry for *work* (139 127, or 35.8%) and *family* (112 858, or 29.1%) but other categories of entry also increased (elective residence, religious reasons…). A quota of 11 000 annual work permits and 68 500 seasonal work permits was also set for 2003 (against respectively 19 500 and 60 000 in 2002).

In terms of countries of origin, the main source was Central and Eastern Europe (42.2%), followed by North Africa (16.2%) and Central/South America (10.7%). The main development in 2002 was the sharp rise in immigration from Romania, which was by far the leading incoming population, with 50 168 new permit-holders at the end of the year. Albania, which had overtaken Morocco as the leading sending country, slipped to second place at 39 144 new permit-holders. Other important growing nationalities are China, Poland, the Philippines and Ukraine. The Ukrainian population increased by 60% in just two years.

Illegal migration

The number of undocumented foreigners expelled or refused entry by the Italian authorities in 2002 reached 88 500 persons (a 13.9% increase over the previous year). Between 30 000 and 40 000 persons are stopped annually trying to enter Italy without the proper documents. In 2002 around 37 700 were turned back at the border while 24 800 undocumented foreigners were expelled and accompanied to the border, 17 000 were repatriated and 2 500 obeyed voluntarily the order to leave.

Table III.14. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Italy**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
New residence permits issued[1]				
by nationality				
Romania	20.9	20.7	18.7	50.2
Albania	37.2	31.2	27.9	39.1
Morocco	24.9	24.7	17.8	26.1
China	11.0	15.4	8.8	15.4
Poland	6.7	7.1	8.7	15.3
Other	167.4	172.5	150.7	242.0
Total	**268.0**	**271.5**	**232.8**	**388.1**
New work permits	**21.4**	**58.0**	**92.4**	**139.1**
Inflows of seasonal workers[2]				
by region of nationality				
Europe	19.6	29.4	27.9	. .
Africa	0.4	0.9	1.5	. .
Other	0.4	0.7	1.0	. .
Total	**20.4**	**30.9**	**30.3**	**. .**
Inflows of asylum seekers	**33.4**	**15.6**	**9.6**	**8.2**
Acquisition of Italian nationality	**13.6**	**11.6**	**10.4**	**10.6**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Foreigners who hold a residence permit[3]	**1 252.0**	**1 388.2**	**1 362.6**	**1 512.3**
By region of origin				
Europe	499.1	556.6	563.9	642.4
Africa	356.8	385.6	366.6	401.4
Asia	239.8	277.6	259.8	279.8
America	153.0	165.0	158.2	178.6
Others	3.3	3.3	14.2	10.1
By reason for presence				
Employment[4]	747.6	850.7	803.2	834.4
Family reunification	308.2	354.9	393.9	472.2
Study	30.7	35.7	30.8	43.0
Religion	54.3	55.1	48.9	54.1
Tourism (long-term)	10.3	8.5	. .	. .
Retirees	–	45.3	44.6	48.0
Asylum seekers/refugees[5]	5.4	6.3	15.3	19.6
Others and not specified	95.5	31.7	26.0	41.0
By region of residence				
North	670.8	761.3	773.4	887.8
Central	368.6	422.5	396.8	428.5
South	143.9	143.1	133.3	134.7
Islands	68.7	61.3	59.2	61.3
Stocks of foreign employment[6]	**747.6**	**850.7**	**800.7**	**840.8**
Registered foreign unemployed[7]	**204.6**	**91.0**	**59.1**	**43.1**

1. New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000.The other permits issued in these years were first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for amnesty in 1998. One hypothesis for explaining the huge increase in 2002 is that a more important number of people asked for a temporary resident permit by anticipating the 2003 regularisation programme
2. Figures refer to new arrivals of non-EU foreigners with agricultural work contracts based on authorisations to hire "foreign" labour conceded annually until 1997. From 2000 on they are for all seasonal workers in agriculture, industry and services.
3. Data are from residence permits and refer to 31 December of the years indicated. Since 1998 data were corrected to exclude expired permits and to estimate the number of minors who are registered on their parents' residence permit.
4. Including self-employed and unemployed.
5. Includes applications and not issued permits, humanitarian permits with no work access and "social protection" for 2002.
6. Number of non-EU foreigners who hold a work permit. Excluding unemployed with a residence permit who are registered in the local employment offices.
7. Excluding EU citizens. Since 2000, data refer to foreigners who are officially job seekers. These figures reflect only those foreigners who hold permits for job seeking, and do not capture those who have lost their job and have not yet renewed their permit.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; ISTAT; UNHCR.

The 2002 law 189/02 was passed along with a decree (195/02) which offered a new regularisation. Originally, the regularisation was focused on domestic workers, specifically nannies and those involved in caring for the elderly and the disabled. The regularisation was then extended to undocumented workers whose firms were willing to offer them a contract. The procedure represented a departure from past regularisations: the entire application process was assigned to the post offices, which distributed and collected the applications and received the payment of three months of pending pension contributions, passing the data along to the Ministry of Interior, responsible for the examination and for all decisions. The application period ran from 11 September to

11 November 2002. 702 156 applications were received, divided more or less equally between the two eligible categories. The pension system received EUR 353 million from applicants.

Preliminary data have been provided on the applications. The principal nationalities varied according to gender and to the type of employment concerned by the application. 54.1% of applications were from men, but the majority of applications for domestic work (333 731) were filed by women. Domestic workers were mainly from the Ukraine (27%), Romania (19.3%), Ecuador (7.6%), Poland (7.3%) and Moldova (6.9%), while the applications for other forms of employment (360 197) concerned mainly men and were composed primarily of Romanians (22.4%), Moroccans (11.9%), Albanians (11.4%) and Chinese (8.5%).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Italy remains a minor destination for asylum seekers. Italy had few historical, geographic, ethnic or cultural ties with the countries from which asylum seekers came. In December 2002 there were 6 303 foreigners in Italy who had been granted asylum, and 10 399 held valid permits for awaiting a decision on their status, as well as 388 asylum seekers sent back to Italy under the Dublin Convention. At the same time there were 2 073 with special permits for humanitarian reasons.

In 2002, 8 210 applications were filed and reported to the Central Commission as compared to 9 620 the previous year. The main countries of origin are Sri Lanka (17%), Iraq (15%) and Serbia and Montenegro (14%). The rejection rate remains very high – 91.7% – but for many of those who are rejected, the Commission recommends a humanitarian permit. Such permits are issued at the discretion of local police foreigners' offices.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Last year, the system of registration of resident permits issued by the Ministry of Interior (*permessi di soggiorno*) has changed. In fact, 2001 saw a drop in the number of legally resident foreigners. This was a result of an internal review of the database, eliminating expired permits. In 2002 a sharp increase in the number of legally resident foreigners, to 1 512 324, was recorded (up 150 000 from the previous year) (see Table III.14). This evolution is particularly noteworthy as it does not take into account the 2002 regularisation. Furthermore, this figure is considered by many experts to be too low. Caritas, a Roman charity which publishes a scheduled data analysis, adds more than 310 000 to this number, to cover minors (who are listed on their parent's permits) and unregistered renewals.

The final figures provided by the national Census, conducted every 10 years and held between October and December 2001, showed only 1 334 889 foreigners, suggesting some undercounting.

Immigration in Italy is still variegated and polycentric. The top five nationalities (Morocco, Albania, Romania, Philippines and China) together make up only 37.4% of the foreign population. Most incoming immigrants head for the North and Northeast of the country, where the labour market is stronger and unemployment is low.

Naturalisations

Acquisition of citizenship remains low, and naturalisation negligible. Rejection rates for naturalisation have dropped to about 50%, but eligibility requirements are still stiff (10 years of residence, adequate income, etc.). The procedure can last up to 3 years. In 2002,

10 645 foreigners were naturalised, a 2.4% increase over 2001. More than 91% of naturalisations took place following marriage to an Italian.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

There were no significant changes in the Italian immigration law since the Law 189/02, the so-called "Bossi-Fini" Law, which was passed in July 2002. This law has made fundamental changes to the procedure for obtaining and renewing a permit for work or family in Italy and to the treatment of those without a valid permit.

The new provisions eliminate for instance the "sponsor" system, which was the only possibility for foreign workers to come to seek work in Italy without a prior contract. Under the law 189/02, the employer must prove that adequate housing has been arranged and that any eventual costs of repatriation are covered before requesting a foreign worker. In any case, the job offer must be published by the public employment offices for at least 20 days. To the residence permit (*permesso di soggiorno*) a residence contract (*contratto di soggiorno*) has been added, closely tied to the foreigner's employment situation and work contract. The system for admitting seasonal workers has also been modified. Returning workers would have priority the following year, as under the current law, and could, after the second season, obtain a 3-year seasonal work permit. Family reunification has been limited to spouses and children under 18. Parents can be brought to Italy only if they have no other children elsewhere.

The law 189/02 requires the creation of an advanced series of databases and electronic links between public administrations: *Prefetture*, pension system, consulates and local employment offices. It has also created a "one-stop shop" or *sportello* for immigration, which would handle applications by employers or for family reunification, although immigrants would still have to go to the Police for their permits.

For those unable to renew their residence permit, or who enter without a valid visa, the law classifies such irregular presence to be a crime. Those caught illegally in Italy would be expelled, accompanied to the border or sent back to their home country. Second-time offenders would be imprisoned for 6-12 months, and third-time offenders would be imprisoned for 4 years.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The law 189/02 has introduced major changes in the asylum-request process, transferring responsibility to local commissions which will rule quickly on asylum requests. Pending decision, applicants would be kept in reception centres. Appeals can be made to the same local commission, with an additional member. A second rejection can be appealed but would in most cases not delay expulsion.

In 2001, thanks to an agreement between the Ministry of Interior, the UNHCR and the Association of Italian Municipalities (ANCI), a pilot project was started to create a comprehensive refugee reception system. In the first two years the system, which involved 60 local reception projects, hosted 3 781 asylum seekers and refugees. This system was transformed by the new immigration law into a recognised network for reception of asylum seekers.

Japan

Introduction

Economic expansion gained momentum in late 2003 after several years of recession. Japanese economic growth was 2.7% in 2003 and is expected to reach 3% in 2004. The unemployment rate in 2003 was 5.3%, only a very small reduction on the 5.4% rate in 2002.

Inflows of migrants fell in 2002 compared with the number entering the previous year. The number of foreigners registered in Japan, however, increased again to 1 851 800, that is 1.5% of the total population.

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

Inflows and outflows of the foreigners and of nationals

Persons who stay in Japan for more than 90 days are considered to be immigrants and must be officially registered as such. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries, the past few years have seen an increase of such inflows, but these fell by 2.1% in 2002 compared with 2001, to 343 800. However, within this category, the number of foreigners who have obtained residence status for employment reasons rose by 2.2% to 145 100. This was chiefly due to the increase in entries by entertainers, who constitute the largest group of foreigners holding work permits (123 300 in 2002, an increase of 4.7%). All other categories are much smaller and most experienced declines in entries in 2002 (see Table III.15). There was another decline in the number of residence permits granted to highly-skilled workers (1 800 permits compared to 2 100 in 2001).

Also within the above inflows, entries of students increased as they have done over the past few years, by 7% to 50 700, in 2002. Entries by trainees, in contrast, declined by 1%. Dependents of those entering as students, for cultural activities and to work, showed a decline of 15.1% and entry by spouses and children of Japanese nationals and permanent residents decreased by 24% and 4.3% respectively. The entry of long-term residents (who are authorised to work), largely the descendants of Japanese who had emigrated to Latin America, but also the spouses or children of Japanese citizens or permanent residents, also fell (see Table III.15).

Illegal migration

At the beginning of 2003 an estimated 221 000 foreigners (of whom men comprised 52.2%) had overstayed their legal period of stay, a fall of 1.6% on the year before. The decline is a consequence of both the economic recession in Japan and measures to counter irregular stay taken by the Japanese government. Korea was the main source country with over a fifth of the total, followed by the Philippines and China (both of which showed increases over the previous year) and then Thailand and Malaysia.

Table III.15. **Inflows of foreigners by status of residence, 1999-2002, Japan**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002	% change 2001-2002
Total[1]	**281.9**	**345.8**	**351.2**	**343.8**	**–2.1**
Diplomat and official	18.1	21.2	20.9	23.4	11.9
Residents with restricted permission to work	**108.0**	**129.9**	**141.9**	**145.1**	**2.2**
of which:					
Entertainer	82.3	103.3	117.8	123.3	4.7
Specialist in humanities or international services	6.5	7.0	6.9	6.2	–11.4
Engineer	3.7	3.4	3.3	2.8	–16.6
Intra-company transferee	3.8	3.9	3.5	2.9	–16.3
Instructor	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.3	1.2
Skilled labour	3.4	3.5	2.1	1.8	–15.4
Professor	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	–2.9
Religious activities	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.9	–14.4
Investor and business manager	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	–16.9
Researcher	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8	–1.4
Journalist	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	111.4
Artist	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	4.3
Cultural activities	3.7	3.2	3.1	3.1	–1.7
Student	33.9	41.9	47.3	50.7	7.0
Trainee	48.0	54.0	59.1	58.5	–0.9
Dependant	16.7	17.6	16.4	13.9	–15.1
"Designated activities"	2.9	4.4	4.7	4.9	3.6
Long-term residents	**50.5**	**73.6**	**57.7**	**44.2**	**–23.3**
of which:					
Spouse and child of Japanese national	26.7	33.2	27.5	20.9	–24.0
Spouse and child of permanent resident	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	–4.3
Other	23.5	40.0	29.7	22.9	–23.0

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

An additional 30 000 people were estimated to have entered Japan illegally in 2002, making the total number of irregular migrants about a quarter of a million. Deportation procedures were taken against 42 000 foreigners in 2002, an increase of nearly 3% over the previous year. Of these, 8 400 were illegal entrants whilst illegal workers accounted for 77% of total deported. Of the illegal workers, about half had been in the country for more than three years and a quarter for more than five years.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since the refugee recognition system was established in 1982, 2 782 foreigners have applied for refugee status but only 305 were recognised as refugees, with 259 more given special permission to stay on humanitarian grounds. The number of asylum claims has grown sharply since 1996, but remains low compared with many OECD countries. In 2002, however, the number of applications (250) was 103 fewer than in 2001 and only 14 had their claims accepted. A further 40 were allowed to stay for humanitarian reasons. The main origin countries in 2002 were Turkey, Myanmar, Pakistan and China. Applicants of African origin have increased in recent years, for example those from Cameroon and Nigeria. Japan has also accepted Indochinese refugees since 1975. By the end of 2002, some 10 940 refugees

Table III.16. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Japan**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows of foreign nationals[1]	**281.9**	**345.8**	**351.2**	**343.8**
Stock of foreign nationals[2]	**1 556.1**	**1 686.4**	**1 778.5**	**1 851.8**
% of total population[3]	*1.2*	*1.3*	*1.4*	*1.5*
By nationality				
Korea	636.5	635.3	632.4	625.4
China (including Chinese Taipei)	294.2	335.6	381.2	424.3
Brazil	224.3	254.4	266.0	268.3
Philippines	115.7	144.9	156.7	169.4
Peru	42.8	46.2	50.1	51.7
Other countries	242.6	270.2	292.2	312.6
By status of residence				
Permanent residents[4]	635.7	657.6	684.9	713.8
Long-term residents	492.5	523.9	531.9	522.7
of which:				
Spouse or child of Japanese national	270.8	279.6	280.4	271.7
Spouse or child of permanent resident	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.6
Other	215.3	237.6	244.5	243.5
Foreign workers with permission of employment	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6
Other (accompanying family, student, trainee etc.)	302.1	350.2	392.9	435.6
Naturalisations	**16.1**	**15.8**	**15.3**	**14.3**
of which:				
Korea	10.1	9.8	10.3	9.2
China	5.3	5.2	4.4	4.4
Foreign labour force (estimates)[5]	**670**	**710**	**740**	**760**
Foreign residents with permission of employment by status of residence[6]				
Specialist in humanities or international services	31.8	34.7	40.9	44.5
Entertainer	32.3	53.8	55.5	58.4
Engineer	15.7	16.5	19.4	20.7
Skilled labour	10.5	11.3	11.9	12.5
Instructor	8.1	8.4	9.1	9.7
Intra-company transferee	7.4	8.7	9.9	10.9
Professor	5.9	6.7	7.2	7.8
Investor and business manager	5.4	5.7	5.9	6.0
Religious activities	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9
Researcher	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.4
Journalist	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4
Artist	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Medical services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Legal and accounting services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	**125.7**	**154.7**	**168.8**	**179.6**
Trainees and Working Holiday Makers	**23.3**	**29.7**	**37.8**	**46.4**
Estimates of students engaged in part time jobs	**47.0**	**59.4**	**65.5**	**83.3**
Estimates of Japanese descents engaged in gainful activities[7]	**220.5**	**233.2**	**239.7**	**233.9**
Illegal workers[8]	**251.7**	**232.1**	**224.1**	**220.6**
Number of foreign nationals deported	**55.2**	**51.5**	**40.8**	**41.9**

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.
2. 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.
3. As a per cent of registered population as of 1st October of the years indicated.
4. Essentially Korean nationals. A "special permanent residents" category was introduced in 1992. It includes Koreans and Chinese Taipei 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, spouses 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 Health, Labour and Welfare.

had been accepted in this category. In recent years, these are the family members of Vietnamese residents.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2002, there were approximately 1.85 million foreigners legally residing in Japan, accounting for 1.5% of the total population, an increase of 4.1% over the year before (see Table III.16). The number of women continues to exceed that of men, as they account for 53.5% of legal foreign residents; 54% are aged 20-39; and Asians account for three quarters of the total, followed by South Americans (18%). About 625 000 are from the Korean Peninsula, although their proportion of the total continues to decrease year by year and reached an all-time low of 34% in 2002. The next largest groups are from China (424 000), Brazil (268 000), the Philippines (169 400) and Peru (51 800).

Permanent residents numbered 714 000 in 2002, an increase of 4% on the year before and accounting for 38.5% of foreign residents. Among non-permanent residents, the number of those who had a residence status allowing them to work was 179 600 at the end of 2002, up 6.4% on the year before.

Those whose registered status was "dependent" at the end of 2002 amounted to 83 100, an increase of 5.4% over the previous year. In May 2002, foreign students numbered 95 600, which was a record for Japan and a 21.2% increase compared with the previous year. Just over 61% were from China and 16.6% were from Korea. The vast majority of these obtain permission to engage in part-time work (83 300 in 2002).

Naturalisations

Over the last 50 years, just over a third of a million foreigners have become Japanese citizens. The number of people naturalised in 2002 was 14 300, a small decline compared with 2001. Almost two thirds of them were Korean and most of the rest Chinese.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In April 2003, an information service office for immigrants of Japanese descent was established in each of seven cities, expanding on earlier similar services. The offices provide information on job search and working conditions, vocational guidance and an interpretation service in several languages as well as advice to employers. Two of the main centres have been expanded to provide this service to all foreign workers.

Enhanced border control measures have been introduced. New document examination machines were introduced in airports and ports during 2001 and 2003 respectively . These follow an amendment to the Immigration Control Act in November 2001 which added new grounds for deportation, including making liable for deportation those who produce forged or counterfeit documents with the intent of helping other foreigners obtain entry or resident permission, illegally.

Asylum and the rights of refugees

In 2002, the government set up a working group to examine the refugee recognition system. As a result, a council co-ordinating the activities of the relevant ministries and agencies has been established and assistance for the settlement of convention refugees was implemented in September 2003.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In 2003, as part of a rolling programme of seminars begun in 1998, a Japanese government agency gave local seminars in Indonesia about the requirements for legal entry into Japan to work.

International agreements

Bilateral negotiations have taken place with nearby countries such as China and Korea with the aim of taking concerted measures against illegal foreigners.

Korea

Introduction

GDP growth in Korea was 6.9% in 2002, in contrast to the 3.8% observed in 2001. Employment increased by 2.7% and the stock of foreign workers by over 11% to about 427 000. Foreign workers now account for almost 2% of total civilian employment. Korea's foreign worker policy underwent a significant change in 2003, with the introduction of an unskilled foreign worker admission policy. Formerly, unskilled workers had been admitted to Korea exclusively as "trainees", were "trained" for a year and then eligible to work for two years.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002 over 5.2 million persons of foreign nationality entered Korea, most of them for tourist or business-related visits. This represents an increase of 3.3% over 2001. Japan (45%), China (11%) and the United States (11%) are the main countries of origin, with entries of Chinese in particular having increased substantially (23%). By contrast 6.7 million Korean residents went overseas during the same year, with China (26%), Japan (22%) and the United States (12%) being the main destination countries.

Illegal migration

The number of overstaying foreigners, most of whom are believed to be working illegally, continued to increase from about 189 000 in 2000 to 289 000 in 2002 (see Table III.17), more than half of these being from China. This represents almost 70% of the foreign labour force in Korea. The count of overstayers seems to have stabilised in the early part of 2003, with the count in April standing at approximately the same figure as in December of 2002.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The registered foreign population in Korea increased by about 10% to 252 000 in 2002. All major countrie's nationals increased, in particular the Chinese, from 74 000 to 85 000. The number of registered legal workers increased from about 27 000 to 40 000, with almost half accounted for by trainees whose status changed to that of "worker".

2. Policy developments

The most significant migration development in Korea concerns the introduction of an admission policy for unskilled foreign workers. A first step was taken in this direction in June 2002 when foreigners with Korean ancestors were allowed to apply for work permits as unskilled workers in the service sector. After much debate, a work permit system for

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Table III.17. **Foreign workers by category, 1999-2002, Korea**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Skilled workers	**12.6**	**19.1**	**27.6**	**40.5**
Language teacher	5.0	6.7	8.7	10.9
Other teacher	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
Entertainer	2.3	4.7	5.8	5.3
Researcher	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.2
Technician	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Other professional	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Others	3.3	5.4	10.8	21.8
Trainees by recruiting agencies	**98.4**	**104.8**	**100.3**	**97.2**
Korean Federation of small businesses	67.0	77.2	72.1	65.2
Companies investing abroad	30.0	26.1	25.8	27.5
Others	1.4	1.6	2.5	4.2
Estimates of the number of overstayers[1]	**135.3**	**189.0**	**255.2**	**289.2**
China	68.8	95.6	130.3	149.4
Philippines	9.2	12.9	16.8	18.1
Bangladesh	10.9	14.5	15.5	16.2
Mongolia	10.6	13.1	15.3	13.6
Vietnam	5.1	7.8	12.6	14.4
Pakistan	4.3	6.1	6.7	6.4
Sri Lanka	1.3	1.7	2.2	. .
Others	25.1	37.3	55.8	71.1
Total (skilled workers, trainees and overstayers)	**246.3**	**312.9**	**383.2**	**426.9**

1. Most of the overstayers are believed to working illegally.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

unskilled foreign workers of all origins was created in July of 2003, to enter into force in August of 2004. This introduction of this system is a clear response to the heavy concentration of illegal overstayers among foreign workers present in Korea.

Under the new system, Korean employers with fewer than 300 employees in the manufacturing, construction and service sectors must demonstrate, before being allowed to recruit from abroad, that they have attempted to find domestic workers through the public employment offices for one month without success. After this the Korean employers receive a "certificate of shortage of employees" and are allowed to enter into employment contracts with foreign workers who meet the required qualifications. In a compromise, the trainee system was maintained at the request of small employers in manufacturing, who had been benefiting from the low wages of persons in this group.

The work permit scheme is a managed migration scheme, in which the Korean government signs a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with sending country governments, who are then responsible for selecting and managing their nationals working in Korea. The MOU is to include the following elements:

- Only government agencies are to be involved in sending workers to Korea.
- Objective criteria for selecting candidates are provided by the Korean government and are to include education, work experience and knowledge of Korean.
- The candidates will not be guaranteed employment in Korea.

- In renewing the MOU every two years, problems with selecting labour, the number of overstaying workers, preferences of Korean employers towards the country in question will be considered.
- Governments of sending countries will need to ensure foreign employers remain with the same employer.

Employers are to choose foreign workers from a list at the public employment officers, with the Korean Manpower agency under the Labour Ministry being responsible for "importing" foreign labour. The employment period is to last three years, with one-year having to elapse before a subsequent three-year assignment.

In order to allow for an orderly transition, special dispositions were put in place for foreign workers who were in illegal status and which depended on how long they had been in this state as of 31 March 2003. Those who had been in Korea for less than three years were able to stay on for two more years at most. Those who had been in Korea between three and four years had to leave Korea, but with a re-entry advance approval certificate. With this in hand, they could re-enter Korea within three months and work for a maximum of five years (including the illegal stay period). Finally, those present in Korea longer than four years had to leave Korea or risk deportation. Under this programme, 189 000 out of a possible 289 000 overstayers reported to the authorities. Over three quarters of these had stayed less than three years.

At the time of application, undocumented workers had to be working in construction (only for persons of Korean ancestry), six service sectors (also for ethnic Koreans: restaurants, business support services, social work, cleaning services, private households and private nursing), inshore fisheries, agriculture and livestock farming. Those working in other sectors could apply for a work permit only after finding a job in one of the above sectors. Penalties apply to either employers or workers falsifying information or documents.

Any illegal foreign workers wishing to leave Korea had to do so between 1 September and 15 November 2003, if they wished to avoid a fine, otherwise they would face deportation.

Latvia

Introduction

In recent years Latvia has had a high rate of economic growth: 7.9% in 2001, 6.1% in 2002, and 7.5% in 2003. The unemployment level is also relatively high: 7.7% in 2001, 8.5% in 2002, and 8.6% in 2003.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The population of Latvia in the beginning of 2004 was 2 319 203. Since the beginning of 2000 it has decreased by 56. 200. The pace of decrease had slowed in recent years, but increased in 2003. The population decreased by 0.89%, due to negative natural increase and negative net migration.

Illegal migration

Trends of irregular migration in Latvia are similar to those in Estonia and Lithuania. For example, the number of departure orders issued since 1995 has decreased gradually from 1 317 to 490 in 2003. But the smaller number of departure orders issued in 2003 and likely in 2004 as well does not mean that flows of irregular migration to Latvia have decreased. The main reason for this phenomenon is Latvia's accession to EU, which facilitates entry and residence conditions for nationals of EU member states and a high proportion of foreigners expelled in previous years were nationals of Lithuania.

In Latvia, as in Estonia and Lithuania, the majority of irregular migrants come from the Russian Federation and the Ukraine. There is also a high number of illegal immigrants from Belarus.

The campaign against the irregular migration flows from the Russian Federation is hampered by the fact that no readmission agreement has yet to be signed between Latvia and the Russian Federation (as is also the case with the EU and the Russian Federation). A readmission agreement with the Ukraine was signed in 1997 (effective 17.05.1998.). However, in practice there are situations when Ukraine does not accept to readmit their nationals, because according to the new Citizenship Law, it is claimed, the person is no longer a Ukrainian national.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The present Asylum Law came into force on 1 September 2002. It replaced the former law on "Asylum Seekers and Refugees in the Republic of Latvia" (1997). In addition to refugee status, the Asylum Law introduced subsidiary protection (in order to ensure the observance of a *non-refoulement* principle), temporary protection, border procedures,

accelerated procedures to deal with manifestly unfounded applications as well as with family reunification. The law complies with the requirements of the EU *Acquis* on asylum. The European Union has since agreed on minimum asylum standards and further necessary amendments into Latvian legislation will be prepared.

Evaluation of stocks of foreigners

In 2004 around 28% of the total population of Latvia was not of Latvian nationality (481 352). This is due to historical reasons as a result of the 50 years when Latvia was part of the former USSR. Since 2004 most immigrants to Latvia come from the former Soviet republics: Russia, the Ukraine, and Belarus.

Naturalisation

Any non-citizen of Latvia or foreigner who has been residing in Latvia for five years with a permanent residence permit is entitled to apply for Latvian citizenship. The candidates for naturalisation should speak Latvian; know the Constitution, the national anthem and history of Latvia; have a legal source of income; and take an oath to be faithful to the Republic of Latvia. In 2002 the Naturalisation Board naturalised 9 844 persons, in 2003 – 10 049, and in 2004 (until October 1) – 9 252 persons.

2. Policy developments

The political development of Latvia is influenced by EU regulations, which will have to be implemented in Latvia following membership. The next goal is to enter the Schengen Agreement.

Since joining the EU, migration trends in Latvia are changing. The number of immigrants is not significantly increasing at the moment. However, the number of Latvian citizens who temporarily move to other EU countries to study or work is increasing.

Citizenship Law

The Citizenship Law of Latvia was adopted on July 22, 1994. The Law stipulates that citizens of Latvia are:

- Persons who were Latvian citizens on 17 June 1940, and their descendants who have registered with the Population Register, except persons who have acquired the citizenship (nationality) of another state after 4 May 1990.
- Persons who are Latvians by nationality and whose permanent place of residence is Latvia.
- Persons who have completed general primary or secondary education in Latvian.
- Children one or both of whose parents is a Latvian citizen.
- Children who are found on the territory of Latvia and whose parents are unknown.
- Children born in Latvia after August 21, 1991 and whose parents are not citizens of any country.

Latvian citizenship may be obtained by naturalisation if a person has been permanently residing in Latvia for the last five years.

Asylum

In order to ensure that Latvia's legislation is in accordance with the requirements of EU standards, the amendments in the Asylum Law concerning the implementation of the

Dublin Regulation and Council Directive 2003/9/EC of 27 January 2003, laying down minimum standards for the conditions of reception of asylum seekers have been prepared during the last year.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

For the employment of a foreigner without a work permit, employers are fined up to 2 500 lats for illegal employment of one to five foreigners and 10 000 lats for more than five. Also foreigners themselves may be fined up to 500 lats if they are working without a work permit.

Lithuania

Introduction

The Lithuanian economy grew 9.0% in 2003, increasing from 6.8% in 2002. This was the highest growth rate since 1996, but growth is forecast to decline below 7% in 2004-2005. The unemployment rate remained high in 2003 (12.7%), even though it was lower than in previous years (16.1% in 2001 and 13.6% in 2002).

Regarding total migration flows, it should be noted that most of the statistics for the period 1990-2000 were revised on the basis of the population census that was carried out in Lithuania in 2001. Moreover, since 2001, immigrants are defined not only as permanent residents but also as temporary residents who remain in Lithuania for at least one year. This change has been particularly important since the beginning of 2002, when the new Immigration Law came into force. The latter allows any EU citizen to obtain a temporary residence permit more easily. As a result, data on 2001 and 2002 migration flows cannot be compared with previous data.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

From the results of the 2001 population census, it is estimated that, 278 110 persons emigrated from Lithuania between 1990-1999, an average of about 25 000 annually. In 2001 and 2002, according to the official statistics based on declarations of permanent departure, the number of emigrants decreased to 7 250 in 2001 and 7 090 in 2002. In 2002, as in the previous year, the major destination countries for permanent emigrants from Lithuania were the Russian Federation (27%), Belarus (12%), Germany (12%), the United States (10%) and the Ukraine (8%).

In addition, in 2002, only approximately 730 Lithuanian nationals were legally employed abroad on the basis of bilateral agreements (down 15% on 2001), mainly in Germany (46%) and Sweden (38%). In the same year, 950 Lithuanians were recruited by private employment agencies to work abroad, mainly in Ireland (57%) and the United Kingdom (32%). At the same time, it is estimated that around 150 000 Lithuanians are involved in short-term irregular work abroad each year. This illustrates the inability of official statistics to capture the whole range of outflows from Lithuania.

In 2002 the number of immigrants slightly increased, compared to 2001 (from 4 690 to 5 110) (see Table III.18). In both years, around 60% of immigrants originated from the CIS countries, particularly from the Russian Federation, the Ukraine and Belarus and most of the foreigners came to Lithuania for family reasons.

In addition, in 2002, only 477 foreigners obtained permits to work in Lithuania, 20% less than in 2001. This decrease is mainly due to the new law that, since 2002, allows EU

Table III.18. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Lithuania**

Thousands

	Inflows of foreign population by country of birth[1]	
	2001	2002
CIS	**3.0**	**3.3**
of which:		
Russian Federation	1.5	1.6
Ukraine	0.6	0.7
Belarus	0.6	0.6
Armenia	0.1	0.1
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.1
Europe	**1.0**	**1.1**
of which:		
Latvia	0.2	0.2
Germany	0.2	0.2
Poland	0.1	0.1
Finland	0.1	0.1
Denmark	0.1	0.1
Asia	**0.4**	**0.5**
of which:		
China	0.1	0.1
Lebanon	0.1	0.1
Israel	0.1	0.1
America	**0.2**	**0.3**
of which:		
United States	0.2	0.2
Total	**4.7**	**5.1**

	Stocks of foreign population	
	2001 Census data	
	Thousands	%
Foreign population with one citizenship		
Russian Federation	13.4	*64.7*
Belarus	2.2	*10.5*
Ukraine	1.6	*7.5*
Poland	0.7	*3.6*
Latvia	0.4	*2.0*
United States	0.3	*1.2*
Germany	0.2	*1.1*
Armenia	0.2	*1.1*
Kazakhstan	0.2	*1.0*
Lebanon	0.1	*0.6*
Israel	0.1	*0.5*
Georgia	0.1	*0.5*
Azerbaijan	0.1	*0.4*
Moldova	0.1	*0.4*
Vietnam	0.1	*0.3*
Denmark	0.1	*0.3*
Estonia	0.1	*0.3*
Others	0.7	*3.4*
Not indicated country	0.1	*0.6*
Total (foreign population with one citizenship)	**20.7**	*100.0*
Population with dual citizenship	**0.7**	
Stateless	**10.5**	
Not specified	**3.2**	
Grant total	**35.1**	

1. All foreigners who come to Lithuania for one year or more and are issued temporary residence permit.

Source: Central Statistical Office.

citizens to take up jobs in Lithuania without work permits. Almost one-third of all entries of foreign workers in 2002 consisted of Chinese nationals. Their number increased from 103 in 2001 to 131 in 2002. Other source countries of foreign workers in 2002 included the Russian Federation (12%), the United States (11%), Belarus (10%) and the Ukraine (8%). Certain categories of foreign workers, particularly the highly skilled (since 1998), and EU citizens (since 2002), are not included in the above data, as they do not need work permits in order to work legally in Lithuania.

Illegal migration

The phenomenon of illegal migration and illegal transit migration in Lithuania has been relatively stable over the last three years. In 2002, 114 illegal migrants were intercepted while illegally crossing the border, of whom 35% came from Vietnam, 18% from India and 11% from Turkey. At the same time, 388 foreigners were detained for unauthorised residence in Lithuania (up 17% on 2001). In addition, approximately 560 illegal migrants were deported or ordered to leave Lithuania in 2002 (down 28% on 2001). Nationals of the Russian Federation, Belarus and the Ukraine constituted the biggest share of this group.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Although asylum applications remain relatively few in number, in 2002 there were around 550 asylum seekers in Lithuania (up 29% on 2001), of which 294 (256 in 2001) applied for refugee status and 252 (169 in 2001) for a residence permit on humanitarian grounds. Adult men comprised 43% of the total in 2002 and adult women 23%. Asylum seekers of Chechen origin (nationals of the Russian Federation) made up around 70% of all asylum applications in Lithuania.

In 2002, 288 positive decisions were made, of which one was to grant refugee status and 287 to issue temporary residence permits on humanitarian grounds.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

According to the 2001 population census, slightly over 35 000 foreigners reside in Lithuania, which represents only 0.1% of the total population. Nationals of the Russian Federation comprise the most numerous group, accounting for 65% of the total, followed by nationals of Belarus (11%) and the Ukraine (8%). As many as one-third of all foreigners were stateless.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The main focus of Lithuanian migration policy has been to bring its existing legislation into conformity with the *acquis communautaire*. As a consequence, the new law on the entry and residence of EU nationals and their family members in Lithuania came into effect in January 2002. This law facilitated the obtaining of a temporary residence permit by EU nationals and their family members. They are also allowed to work in Lithuania without a work permit.

The state of the Lithuanian labour market is a principal pre-condition for the employment of foreigners (meaning, since January 2002, non-EU nationals). Every year, the Government establishes employment quotas depending on the state of the labour market.

The quota for 2003 was set at 800 foreign workers (in each of the years between 1995 and 1998 and in 2002, the figure was 1 000; in 1999, 2000 and 2001 it was 1 300). Work permits are issued for a maximum of two years.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Since 2001, the Lithuanian Government has spent approximately EUR 14 500 annually on the deportation of illegal migrants (including refugees whose asylum applications have been rejected). Lithuania has also taken part in the voluntary return scheme implemented by the International Organisation of Migration. As a result, between 2000 and 2002, approximately 1 500 illegal migrants have been sent back to their country of origin. Currently, such programmes are no longer conducted.

Stricter measures against illegal migration were implemented in February 2002. Since then, breaching entry, transit, residence or departure procedures can result in a fine of between LTL (Lithuanian litai) 250 and LTL 1 000 (previously between LTL 250 and LTL 500) (LTL 1 000 = EUR 289). Persons who facilitate illegal immigration through providing employment or accommodation are liable to a fine of between LTL 2 000 and LTL 3 000 (prior to February 2002 a fine could range between LTL 1 000 and LTL 2 000).

Asylum and rights of refugees

The amended Asylum Law came into effect in February 2002. The law regulates the detention procedures for asylum seekers, including alternative measures to be applied by the Court instead of detention (for example, obligatory periodic reporting by asylum seekers of their place of residence to the police, NGO supervision/protection of an asylum seeker, civic supervision/protection of an asylum seeker by a Lithuanian citizen or a foreigner related to the asylum seeker, if the former is legally residing in Lithuania. The legal status of unaccompanied minors is also regulated. Their applications are examined as a priority and they are not subject to deportation under the safe countries' and manifestly unfounded claims' principles. They are accommodated in the Refugee Reception Centre.

Luxembourg

Introduction

Luxembourg's economic outlook started to improve in the second half of 2003. Growth rose to 1.7% in 2003 and the forecasts of 2.6% and 3.5% for 2004 and 2005 respectively are encouraging. However, the recovery will not be enough to reverse the upward trend in the unemployment rate. Growth in employment will remain weak in the short-term with rates of unemployment expected to be around 4.3% in 2004 and 4.5% in 2005.

As of 1 January 2003, foreigners accounted for 38% of the total population (448 300), by far the highest proportion within the OECD area. The number of cross-border workers from France, Germany and Belgium continued to rise and in September 2003 had almost reached 106 000.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The annual net migration gain amounted to around 4 000 during the 1990s. Since 2000, these annual gains have followed a downward trend (3 644 in 2000 compared with 2 649 in 2002) (see Table III.19). There were 12 101 arrivals in 2001 and 9 452 in 2002. Entries from European countries have fallen, apart from those of Portuguese nationals. In contrast, those from other countries have been steadily increasing. In 2002, the Ministry of Labour and Employment issued 5 377 individual work permits (5 225 in 2001). Approximately 56% of the permits issued are valid for one year, 21% for four years and 11% are unlimited. An increase in the salaried employment of non-national residents has been reported in the housing, corporate services, financial brokering and transport and communications sectors.

Illegal migration

In March 2001, the government decided to regularise certain categories of foreigners residing illegally in Luxembourg (see *Trends in International Migration*, 2003). The provisional statistics as of 31 December 2002, show that 2 894 migrants residing illegally in the country applied for papers. Of these, 64% were granted a temporary residence permit and 22% were rejected. A third of the applications for residence papers were for children. Three quarters of those granted a temporary residence permit (including permits for family members) were from the former Yugoslavia, and a total of 1 900 work permits were issued.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Approximately 670 asylum applications relating to just over 1 000 persons were registered in 2002 (*i.e.* an increase of over 50% on 2001). As of 30 November 2003,

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Table III.19. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Luxembourg**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Components of total population change				
Natural increase	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.6
of which: foreigners	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.0
Net migration	4.7	3.6	3.3	2.6
of which: foreigners	4.9	3.7	3.3	2.7
Population on 31 December				
of the years indicated	435.7	441.3	444.1	448.3
of which: foreigners	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7
Migration flows by nationality				
Inflows	**11.8**	**10.8**	**11.1**	**11.0**
Portugal	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.8
France	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.9
Belgium	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.3
Germany	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Other countries	7.5	4.4	4.6	4.4
Net migration	**4.9**	**3.7**	**3.3**	**2.7**
Portugal	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.9
France	1.1	1.2	0.8	0.5
Belgium	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3
Germany	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.7	1.4	1.3	0.9
Foreign population by main nationality[1]	**159.4**	**164.7**	**166.7**	**170.7**
Portugal	57.0	58.4	59.8	61.4
France	18.8	20.1	20.9	21.5
Italy	20.1	20.3	19.1	19.0
Belgium	14.5	15.1	15.4	15.9
Germany	10.5	10.6	10.1	10.2
Other countries	38.5	40.2	41.4	42.7
Acquisition of nationality by country				
of former nationality (units)[2]	**549**	**648**	**496**	**754**
Italy	94	157	105	119
Belgium	53	72	39	87
France	43	52	33	65
Germany	41	50	45	47
Other countries	318	303	274	436
Mixed marriages (units)	**539**	**581**	**549**	**566**
% of total marriages	25.8	27.0	27.7	28.0

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows of foreign workers[3]	**24.2**	**26.5**	**25.8**	**22.4**
of which: Women	8.2	9.1	8.4	7.4
Inflows by region or country of origin				
EU	23.1	25.1	24.3	21.6
of which:				
France	11.1	11.9	11.1	9.0
Belgium	4.0	4.3	4.2	3.6
Germany	3.5	4.0	4.1	3.4
Portugal	2.4	2.6	2.5	3.0
Italy	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6
Other countries	1.1	1.3	1.5	0.8
Inflows by major industry division				
Agriculture, forestry	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Extractive and manufacturing industries	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.6
Building	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.5
Trade, banks, insurances	13.7	15.2	14.3	11.8
Transport, communications	2.3	3.1	3.1	2.5
Hotels	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Personal services	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other services	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.7
Inflows by status				
First employment	7.0	7.5	7.4	7.1
Cross-border workers	17.3	18.9	18.4	15.3
Total foreign employment[4]	**145.7**	**152.7**	**170.7**	**177.6**
% of total employment	60	60	61	61
Stock of cross-border workers by nationality[5]	**78.4**	**88.7**	**101.3**	**103.4**
France (% of total cross-borders)	52.9	54.0	52.9	52.3
Belgium (% of total cross-borders)	28.2	26.7	27.5	27.8
Germany (% of total cross-borders)	18.9	19.3	19.6	19.9
Job-seekers (national definition)	**5.4**	**5.0**	**4.9**	**6.8**
of which: Foreigners (% of total job seekers)	57.0	58.1	60.6	64.3
Inflows of asylum seekers	**2.9**	**0.6**	**0.7**	**1.0**

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; including cross-border workers.
4. Includes cross-border workers.
5. Data refer to the 31 of March of the following year.

Sources: STATEC ; Inspection générale de la Sécurité sociale (IGSS) ; Administration de l'Emploi; UNHCR.

1 052 applications relating to 1 342 persons have been filed. In 2002, 193 asylum seekers whose applications had been rejected were provided with assisted returns to their home country, of whom 70% went to Montenegro. The number of such returns increased in 2003

(592, of which 87% were to Montenegro). The Ministry of Justice has also been carrying out forcible repatriations since June 2001.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners in Luxembourg

Growth in the population of Luxembourg is largely due to immigration. The increase in the population of Luxembourg nationals is due solely to naturalisations. The foreign population also has a higher birth rate than that of Luxembourg nationals and accounts for over half of all births. It is also younger and almost half of new arrivals are in the 20-34 year age group. At the beginning of 2003 Luxembourg had 170 700 foreign residents (see Table III.19).

An analysis of the foreign population by nationality reveals the predominant share of Portuguese nationals (nearly a third of the total foreign population and 13.7% of all residents). The Italian population amounts to 19 000, *i.e.* about 11% of the foreign population and 4% of residents. Nationals of neighbouring countries (France, Belgium and Germany) account for around 28% of all foreigners and 10.6% of the total population. As of 31 March 2003, the ranking of salaried foreign workers in Luxembourg by size of population was as follows: EU15 (264 000), non-EU15 Europe (5 700), Africa (1 500), the Americas and Asia (approximately 800 respectively). There were 7 700 European civil servants residing in Luxembourg in 2002.

Cross-border migration

In March 2002 there were 100 000 registered cross-border workers. As of 30 September 2002, such workers accounted for 36.5% of total domestic employment and 38.6% of salaried domestic employment (compared to 27% for foreign residents and 35% for Luxembourg nationals). Over the past five years, slightly less than two thirds of the salaried jobs created have been filled by cross-border workers. Between May 2002 and May 2003, 77% of jobs created were filled by cross-border workers and 23% by residents. Cross-border workers are mainly employed in the housing sector, business services, financial brokering, commerce, car repairs, transport and communications, construction and manufacturing industries. French cross-border workers are the largest group (53%), followed by Belgians (27%) and Germans (20%).

Naturalisations

The legislation on naturalisation was amended by the Act of 24 July 2001 which entered into force on 1 January 2002. It lowered the age and length of residency requirements for applying for Luxembourg nationality. Naturalisation can also be obtained by exercising an acquired right ("option", see *Trends in International Migration*, 2003). In 2002, 754 people acquired Luxembourg nationality (496 in 2001), of which 356 obtained it through naturalisation (207 in 2001) and 398 through the exercise of an "option" (289 in 2001).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Act of 29 April 2004 regulated the access to Luxembourg's labour market of wage earners who are nationals of the new EU member states. It allows the government to take measures with regard to the transitional period of two years during which restrictions on access to the labour market for such nationals will remain in force.

New electoral legislation entered into force in February 2003. Under this legislation, foreigners residing in Luxembourg, regardless of whether or not they are EU nationals, are allowed to vote and/or stand as a candidate in the communal elections of October 2005 without losing their voting rights in their home country commune. It also reduces the length of the residence period required before which foreigners can register on electoral lists. Foreigners must be domiciled in the Grand Duchy, or to have legally resided there prior to 1 April 2004, for at least five years. Foreign nationals had until 31 March 2004 to register on electoral lists.

With a view to promoting the integration of foreigners, in July 2003, Luxembourg set up reception and insertion classes for first-generation immigrant pupils and the children of asylum seekers who do not speak the languages in which instruction is provided. In addition, special language classes have been introduced (in which instruction can be provided in a language other than German) in technical secondary schools. The draft legislation on the organisation of pre-school and primary education, put forward on 15 October 2003, provides for the possibility of employing foreign nationals to provide integrated classes in the mother tongue of foreign children, notably the children of refugees. It also provides for the possibility of recruiting intercultural mediators. The interim report by the special "immigration" commission of 17 July 2002, stresses the high degree to which the labour market is segmented by language and recommends that the language which should be learned as a priority should be defined more clearly. Consideration has been given to providing periods of leave for language training.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Act of 3 April 1996 establishing a procedure for the examination of asylum applications, had been amended by the Act of 18 March 2001 with the aim of speeding up the asylum process and introducing a temporary protection regime (for massive flows of refugees escaping a conflict zone). New draft legislation was put forward on 21 April 2004. This new legislation is again aimed at reducing the time taken to process asylum applications. It provides for a fast-track procedure for applicants from safe third countries, the abolition of certain appeals, the introduction of shorter administrative and judicial procedures, as well as mechanisms aimed at forcing asylum seekers to play a more active part in the procedural process.

Mexico

Introduction

Mexico's recovery continued in 2003, led by the growth in the United States manufacturing sector. GDP grew by 1.3% in 2003, compared with 0.7% in 2002 and a drop of 0.1% in 2001. Though the recovery has been slower than anticipated, GDP growth is expected to accelerate in 2004.

Mexican migration flows are dominated by emigration of Mexicans to the United States. About ten million Mexican-born individuals live in the United States, where there are about 24 million Hispanics of Mexican origin. These figures grow continuously as each year, more than 200 000 Mexicans migrate to the United States on a permanent basis. This emigration seems, on the whole, to be beneficial to the Mexican economy, *inter alia* through its impact on migrant savings and remittances. Migrant remittances, for example, reached almost US$ 10 billion in 2002, which is four times the official figure for 1990. Preliminary figures for 2003 indicate a further strong increase up to US$ 14 billion in that year.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002, 1 854 permanent resident permits were issued by the National Institute for Migration (INM), which resulted in a considerable increase for the second consecutive year (1 035 in 2000 and 1 315 in 2001). As in the past, the two main origin countries were the United States (16.1%) and Spain (8.1%). These were followed by individuals from Germany (5.4%) and the Latin American countries Colombia (5.0%), Chile (4.8%), Cuba (4.6%), and Argentina (4.5%). A large part of migrant flows to Mexico are temporary agricultural workers from Guatemala, who are estimated to vary between 50 000 and 100 000 annually.

Emigration

Official Mexican emigration to the United States has continued to grow in the fiscal year of 2002, reaching 219 380 migrants (see Table III.20). However, a large part of these are mere changes of migrants' status from temporary to permanent. In 2001, 63 028 new immigrant visas for Mexicans were issued. These new issuances are about five and twenty thousand less than in 2000 and 1999, respectively. In contrast, issuances of non-immigrant visas are on the rise and have reached a new record of, 2 220 330 non-immigrant visas (including border crossing cards) in 2001, almost half a million more than the previous year. Furthermore, about 10 900 temporary agricultural workers went to Canada in 2002 under the bilateral agreement between the two countries, a rise of 17.5% on the year before.

In addition to its role as an emigration country, Mexico is also an important transit country for migrants from other countries, mainly for flows from Central America which

Table III.20. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Mexico**

Thousands

	Foreign-born population living in Mexico in 2000, by region of origin[1]			Mexican emigration to the United States, 1911-2002			
	Foreign-born population in 2000	*Of which:* Entered after 1995	Entered before 1995	Period	Mexican emigrants to the United States[3]	*Of which:* Persons who had benefited from the US 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA)	Inflows of Mexican temporary workers[4]
Total	**405.9**	**104.8**	**301.2**	1911-20	219.0		
By region of origin (%)				1921-30	459.3		
North America	63.2	65.5	62.4	1931-40	22.3		
Caribbean	2.4	3.4	2.1	1941-50	60.6		
Central America	11.2	7.3	12.6	1951-60	299.8		
South America	7.3	9.3	6.6	1961-70	453.9		
Africa	0.2	0.3	0.2	1971-80	640.3		
Asia	2.9	4.1	2.5	1981-90	1 655.8	962.7	
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	1991-2000	2 253.7	1 048.6	
Europe	11.9	9.3	12.8	1989	405.7	339.2	
Other	0.7	0.7	0.7	1990	680.2	623.5	
				1991	947.9	894.9	
Foreign-born labour force population living in Mexico in 2000 by nationality[2]				1992	214.1	122.5	
				1993	126.6	17.5	
Total	**120.5**			1994	111.4	4.4	
By nationality				1995	90.0	3.0	
United States	46.3			1996	163.7	3.6	
Guatemala	12.2			1997	146.9	2.0	33.5
Spain	10.0			1998	131.6	0.7	43.6
Argentina	3.8			1999	147.6	–	58.1
Cuba	3.5			2000	173.9	0.3	69.1
Colombia	3.1			2001	206.4	0.1	77.9
Other countries	41.6			2002	219.4	. .	. .

1. Foreign-born population aged 5 and over.
2. Foreign-born labour force aged 12 and over.
3. Data refer to grants of permanent residence in the United States. Data refer to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).
4. Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, (categories H, O, P, Q, R, NATO, and NAFTA). Including family members. Data refer to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).

Sources: 2000 Census, *Instituto Nacional de Estadistica Geografia e Informatica* (INEGI), CONAPO (National Council of Population of Mexico); US Department of Justice, 2002 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service; Bureau of Consular Affairs.

are directed towards the United States. Around 90 000 official entries of transmigrants were counted in 2002. Most transmigrants, however, enter undocumented, and estimated flows are about 200 000 per year. An indicator for the magnitude is the number of apprehensions of transmigrants from Central America in Mexico, which has surpassed 100 000 per year.

Irregular migration

Unauthorized migration makes up a major share of both emigration and immigration flows. According to a 2003 report by the United States Immigration and Naturalisation Service, the unauthorized Mexican population in the United States increased from about 2 million in 1990 to more than 4.8 million in 2000, *i.e.* almost 70% of the entire unauthorized immigration into the United States. Within the framework of the US-Mexico agreement for a bilateral programme on orderly and safe repatriation, 583 000 Mexican nationals were

expelled from the United States in 2002 and subsequently received by INM authorities. This figure is 26% down from the previous year and data for the first seven months of 2003 indicate a further decline.

An indication of the importance of unauthorised immigration into Mexico is given by the number of detentions of foreigners. Around 138 060 foreigners were detained in 2002, 49% of which came from Guatemala, 30% from Honduras, and 15% from El Salvador. Almost 40% of all detentions were made in the Southern state of Chiapas, and a further 19% in the Federal District.

The irregular nature of a large part of migratory flows is associated with a high death toll. In 2003, 478 Mexicans died at the frontier with the United States. Furthermore, many migrants from Central America die at Mexico's southern border. In 2002, 73 migrant deaths were reported at the southern border.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Despite the continuous presence of many refugees from Central America, there were only 224 official refugee applications in 2002, 31 of which were successful. An additional 2 601 refugee-visa equivalents were granted to Guatemalan refugees. There were no entries of individuals with the status of political asylees.

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

The most recent data on the population of the foreign-born are from the 2000 Census. According to these data, about 405 919 foreign-born had permanent residence in Mexico, *i.e.* only 0.5% of the entire resident population are foreign-born (see Table III.20). About 65% of these individuals are of North American origin.

Naturalisations

In 2002, 2 332 naturalisation applications were made. Given the long-term presence of many Guatemalans in Mexico, the country runs a special naturalization programme for individuals from that country. However, naturalisations of Guatemalans have continued their decline in 2002. Only 23 were naturalised that year, compared to 490 in 2001 and 2 520 in 2000.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Since 2002, Mexican consulates in the United States have been authorized to issue "consular cards" (*matricula consular*), which is an identification document for Mexican nationals, mainly unauthorized ones. It enables these individuals access to certain services and to open a bank account.

The *Paisano* programme, which was introduced in 1989 to improve the federal public services for migrants, has been reviewed in 2002 and 2003. The main results were an increase in the sanctions against corruption and a corresponding reduction in the number of migrants' complaints.

Refugees

Since May 2002, a newly-established eligibility committee is responsible for granting refugee status. Prior to that date, this status was not officially recognized, and refugees were given the migratory status of a visitor.

Measures against undocumented immigrants

In 2000 and 2001, Mexico carried out Migration Regularisation Programmes to offer foreign citizens without valid migratory documents an opportunity to regularise their stay. In 2001, 6 432 requests were presented, down from 7 807 in 2000. Apparently, relatively few migrants participated in the programme, as the stock of undocumented Guatemalans in Mexico, for example, is estimated still to be about 150 000.

International agreements

The Mexican government has made considerable efforts to improve the legal situation of undocumented Mexicans in the United States and to reach an agreement on Mexican migrants with the United States. Negotiations on a migration agreement between the two countries were suspended after the events of September 11, 2001. In January 2004, United States President George Bush announced a programme that would permit unauthorised foreigners in the United States having jobs to become legal residents on a temporary basis. The programme is still pending in Congress.

In March 2001, Mexico and the United States signed a readmission agreement to facilitate the repatriation of Mexicans who are apprehended as illegal migrants. In July 2004, a pilot repatriation programme started, which aims at a safer return of apprehended Mexicans at the border between Arizona and Mexico. Instead of being deposited on the Mexican border, apprehended Mexicans have the opportunity to be returned directly to their home community.

Netherlands

Introduction

Growth in the Netherlands was low in 2002 at 0.2% and negative in 2003 (–0.7%). The economy is however expected to emerge from recession in 2004. The unemployment rate reached 3.8% in 2003, an increase over the previous year's figure of 2.7%. The Dutch government has committed itself to further tightening the conditions for family migration and to improving the integration of migrants.

1. Trends in migration flows and changes in the foreign and the foreign-born population

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002, inflows fell by almost 10% to 121 300 (see Table III.21) compared to the record immigration in 2001 of 133 400. In 2002, 21 400 were Dutch-born and nearly 100 000 were foreign-born, the first substantial decrease in the latter category for some years. The figure for emigration in 2002 (96 900) showed a big jump of 17% over the previous year's figure. There was a negative net migration figure of 22 200 for the Dutch-born whilst the foreign-born flows produced a net positive figure of 46 500. Overall, net migration was 24 300, a substantial drop on the figures for the four previous years and a fall of 52% compared with the 2001 figure.

About a quarter of foreign-born immigrants to the Netherlands are from EU countries and 56% from non-Western countries. One remarkable feature with regard to the origin of migration flows is the declining immigration from Eastern European countries. It can be explained by the sharp fall in immigration from the former Yugoslavia.

Nevertheless, inflows of foreign workers on temporary work permits continued to grow. In 2002, the increase over the previous year amounted to 14.5%, as 34 600 temporary work permit holders entered the Netherlands. The highest number of labour migrants came from Poland (6 660) followed by the former Soviet Union (3 600), the United States (2 600) and China (1 700). The largest increase was from Poland, due to a change in government policy relating to the recruitment of seasonal workers in the agricultural and horticultural sectors where, in fact, the highest number of temporary work permits were issued in 2002 (one third of all permits).

Illegal migration

No data is available on the number of illegal entries other than that provided for 2000 (11 330) in the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*. However, expulsions of 50 400 persons not entitled to reside in the Netherlands occurred in 2002, an increase of 23% compared with the number expelled in 2001, but similar to the figure for 2000.

TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION: SOPEMI 2004 EDITION – ISBN 92-64-00792-X – © OECD 2005

Table III.21. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Netherlands**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Migration flows[1]				
Total population				
Inflows	119.2	132.9	133.4	121.3
Outflows (incl. Adm. Corrections)	78.8	79.0	82.6	96.9
Net migration	60.1	71.6	70.1	54.5
Adjusted total net migration[2]	40.4	53.9	50.8	24.3
Persons born in the Netherlands				
Inflows	25.0	23.8	23.2	21.4
Outflows (incl. Adm. Corrections)	35.8	37.4	39.4	43.6
Adjusted total net migration	–10.8	–13.6	–16.2	–22.2
Foreign born				
Inflows	94.2	109.0	110.3	99.8
Outflows (incl. Adm. Corrections)	43.0	41.6	43.2	53.3
Adjusted total net migration	51.2	67.5	67.1	46.5
Stock of population[3]				
Total population	15 863.9	15 987.1	16 105.3	16 192.6
Total foreign population	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0
of which:				
Turkey	100.7	100.8	100.3	100.3
Morocco	119.7	111.4	104.3	97.8
Germany	54.3	54.8	55.6	56.1
United Kingdom	39.5	41.4	43.6	44.1
Belgium	25.4	25.9	26.1	26.3
Total foreign-born population	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2
of which:				
Turkey	178.0	181.9	186.2	190.5
Suriname	185.0	186.5	188.0	189.0
Morocco	152.7	155.8	159.8	163.4
Indonesia	168.0	165.8	163.9	161.4
Germany	124.2	123.1	122.1	120.6
Naturalisations	62.1	50.0	46.7	45.3
of which:				
Morocco	14.2	13.5	12.7	12.0
Turkey	5.2	4.7	5.5	5.4
Iraq	3.8	2.4	2.3	2.4
Suriname	3.2	2.0	2.0	2.0
Afghanistan	1.8	0.9	0.8	1.1
Naturalisation rate (%)	*9.4*	*7.7*	*7.0*	*6.6*

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Refugees and asylum seekers				
New requests for asylum	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7
Total requests for asylum heard	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total grants of asylum	13.5	9.7	8.2	4.8
Expulsions	69.2	49.1	40.9	50.4
of which: asylum seekers	18.3	16.6	16.0	21.3
Inflows of foreign workers[4]	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6
of which:				
Poland	1.5	2.5	2.8	6.6
Former USSR	2.1	3.6	3.8	3.6
United States	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.6
China	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.7
Labour force indicators according to the new definition of "Autochtonous" and "Allochtonous" populations				
Total				
Total labour force (thousands)	7 097	7 187	7 311	7 444
Activity rate	*67*	*67*	*68*	*68*
Unemployment rate	*4*	*4*	*3*	*4*
Autochtonous[5]				
Total labour force (thousands)	5 943	6 013	6 079	6 166
Activity rate	*68*	*69*	*69*	*70*
Unemployment rate	*3*	*3*	*3*	*3*
Allochtonous[6]				
Total labour force (thousands)	1 130	1 173	1 232	1 278
Activity rate	*59*	*60*	*61*	*61*
Unemployment rate	*9*	*8*	*6*	*8*
Suriname[7]				
Total labour force (thousands)	135	148	147	151
Activity rate	*65*	*69*	*67*	*67*
Unemployment rate	*10*	*9*	*6*	*8*
Turkey[7]				
Total labour force (thousands)	90	101	112	113
Activity rate	*45*	*49*	*52*	*51*
Unemployment rate	*13*	*9*	*8*	*9*
Morocco[7]				
Total labour force (thousands)	74	67	83	93
Activity rate	*45*	*40*	*47*	*50*
Unemployment rate	*18*	*13*	*10*	*10*
Antilles/Aruba[7]				
Total labour force (thousands)	43	46	49	57
Activity rate	*61*	*60*	*59*	*63*
Unemployment rate	. .	*8*	*8*	*10*

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. Holders of a temporary work permit (WAV).
5. Autochtonous refers to persons who have both parents who are born in the Netherlands.
6. "Allochtonous" refers to persons who have at least one parent who is born abroad.
7. Persons who have at least one parent who is born in the mentioned country.

Sources: Statistics Netherlands; Ministry of Justice; Labour Force Survey.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, there was a further substantial decrease in the number of asylum seekers for the second year in a row to 18 700 (down 43% compared to 2001). The decline was especially noticeable for Angola which had seen an increase in 2001 of 87%, but whose numbers fell in 2002 by 54% (from 4 100 to 1 890). The big drop in asylum seekers from Sierra Leone (by 33%) and Afghanistan (by 70%) were probably due to the termination of the general protection policies for these countries in the summer of 2002. Nigeria, however, bucked the general trend, with an increase to 556 from 401. The number of claims accepted, declining since 1997 to reach 8 200 in 2001, fell again to 4 800 in 2002. Citizens from Sierra Leone accounted for nearly 25% of the grants. Of the 50 400 expulsions from the Netherlands in 2002, 21 300 (up 33% on 2001) were persons whose asylum request was refused, with nearly 48% coming from Iraq, the former Yugoslavia, the former Soviet Union, Somalia, Turkey, Iran and Afghanistan.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The definition of the non-Dutch population used in the statistics makes a considerable difference to the numbers of foreign stock recorded. If nationality is the criterion, the number of non-Dutch residents in 2002 was 700 000 persons, 4.3% of the total population of 16.2 millions. If the criterion is whether a person is foreign-born, the proportion is 10.6% (1 714 200) but if the calculation is done on the basis of how many in the population are considered to be "allochtonous" (see Table III.21 for the definition), the figure is almost 3 million (19%). This last category has increased by 20% between 1995 and 2002. In comparison, the Dutch population as a whole grew by only 5% cent during this period and the stock of foreign citizens fell by 3.5%. The growth in the "allochtonous" population can largely be attributed to those originating from Eastern European countries and non-western countries. Their unemployment rate was 8% in 2002 compared with a 3% rate for those of Dutch origin ("autochtonous") but this is a significant decrease from the 14% it was in 1997.

The foreign-born populations from Turkey, Suriname and Morocco have increased every year since 1997 and now account for larger shares of the foreign-born population than do those from Indonesia and Germany (see Table III.21). The Indonesian (400 600), German (393 200) and Turkish (341 400) "allochtonous" populations, however, remain higher than the similar Surinam population (320 700), followed by the "allochtonous" populations from Morocco (295 300) and the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba (129 300). The "allochtonous" populations from these last two countries have the highest unemployment rate at 10% followed by Turkey at 9% and Surinam at 8%. However, all these figures are significant decreases on the unemployment rates for the same communities in 1997 which were 21%, 22% and 14% respectively.

Naturalisations

Since 1996, when 83 000 foreigners were naturalised, there have been successive declines in the number of persons naturalised, to 45 000 in 2002. This trend is strongly correlated to changes in Dutch naturalisation policy which occurred in 1997 and which severely restricted the possibility of newly naturalised Dutch citizens retaining their original citizenship.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

For some time, the Dutch government has tried to limit immigration to the Netherlands. The legislative basis of much of the Dutch policy regime is the Aliens Act, implemented in 2001. The Aliens Act introduced a number of measures aimed at limiting family reunification, described in the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*. Since then, the government has committed itself to tightening further the conditions for such migration. Measures include raising the minimum age for marital migration from 18 to 21, increasing the income requirement to be met by the Dutch national or resident permit holder seeking reunification and insisting on a knowledge of the Dutch language and society before entry.

The Aliens Employment Act (WAV) covers temporary migration and the government is making efforts to relax and accelerate procedures to facilitate entry of the category of "knowledge migrants". The government has made agreements with particular industrial sectors where there is a shortage of workers to allow foreign recruitment, for example in healthcare, horticulture and Chinese restaurants. The WAV is to be amended to provide a legal basis for these.

In 2003, the government proposed measures to improve the effectiveness of its integration programme by improving the quality of language and cultural education provided and insisting that newcomers demonstrate more responsibility for their own integration. The proposals were that newcomers should already have learnt Dutch and acquired knowledge of Dutch society while still in their country of origin; they must pay for the costs of integration projects (about € 6 000) , with only partial reimbursement possible; a broader range of educational institutions will be able to offer integration courses; and municipalities will continue to take responsibility for the provision of the integration programme without being able to control the educational course a migrant chooses to follow. The government has, however, decided to reduce the funds available for subsidised work programmes from which long-term unemployed migrants particularly benefited.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In autumn 2003, the government proposed several changes to asylum policy (the extensive ones previously implemented in April 2001, were described in the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*, but it should be noted that asylum seekers have only a limited right to work). In order to limit influxes of asylum seekers, the government is in discussion with the EU and UNHCR to provide better reception and protection of refugees in the areas of origin. The Netherlands wishes to set up a trial protection project in an area of origin. Other initiatives include attempts to develop an effective return policy. It is therefore proposed to strengthen the supervision of aliens and implement stronger sanctions against the employment of illegal migrants. In addition to this, the voluntary return of aliens will be encouraged, with assistance from the International Organisation for Migration. Finally, a one-off measure available until December 2003, will allow certain asylum seekers, whose cases have been under consideration since May 1998, to be granted a residence permit. It is anticipated that about 2 200 people will benefit.

New Zealand

Introduction

New Zealand's growth rate was 3% in 2003, a decrease on the rate in 2002 of 4.3%, and the economy is likely to head towards a soft landing after a period of rapid expansion. Unemployment was 4.7% in 2003 compared to 5.2% in 2002. Net permanent and long-term movements had become positive in the 2001 calendar year and continued with rapid growth in 2002 (38 300). In 2003, net migration was slightly lower at 34 900. Unless stated to the contrary, the years referred to below are fiscal years (1 July to 30 June of the given year).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Permanent and long-term arrivals have been increasing since the late 1990s and in 2002/03 reached 97 200, an increase of 5% on the figure for 2001/02. The number of departures also steadily increased throughout the 1990s, but fell in 2000/01, and have continued to do so, falling to 57 800 in 2002/03. Thus, the net inflow during that year was 42 500 (note that this figure is not comparable to the 2002 calendar year figure provided in Table III.22)

There was, however, a decrease in the number of people approved for residence in 2002/03, to 48 500 from 52 900 the year before, a reversal of the upward trend of recent years. As in previous years, the majority of migrants in 2002/03 were approved under the General Skills (55% of all residence approvals), Family (30%) and Business (8%) categories. The Business and General Skills Streams fell the most (by 15.3%) whereas the Family Stream was almost stable. The International/Humanitarian Stream is slightly decreasing. China and India (each 16%) and the United Kingdom (14%) were the main source countries overall. In the Family Stream, the United Kingdom (16% of the total) replaced China (13%) as the main source country.

Of the 26 650 people approved for residence in the General Skills category, the top source regions were Asia, Africa and Western Europe as in the previous year. The top three source countries were India (25%), the United Kingdom (16%) and China (16%), followed by South Africa (9%) and South Korea (6%). South Africa and China reversed their ranking from the previous year, when they had accounted for 12% and 11% respectively. About 42% were classified as Professionals, 18% as Technicians and associate professionals and 17% as Legislators, administrators and managers. For calendar year 2002, the ranking by occupation of permanent and long-term migrants was somewhat different with Professionals coming first again, followed by Clerks, then Legislators and Technicians (see Table III.22). A further 3 800 people were approved in the Business Category, down from 4 100 the year before.

Table III.22. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, New Zealand**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Permanent and Long-term Movements by citizenship[1]				
Total				
Arrivals	63.0	81.1	96.0	. .
Departures	74.3	71.4	57.8	. .
Net migration	–11.3	9.7	38.2	. .
New Zealand				
Arrivals	20.8	23.5	25.4	. .
Departures	58.7	56.0	42.1	. .
Net migration	–37.9	–32.6	–16.7	. .
Foreigners				
Arrivals	42.2	57.6	70.5	. .
Departures	15.6	15.3	15.6	. .
Net migration	26.6	42.3	54.9	. .
Residence approvals[2]				
by region of origin				
Asia	14.4	20.9	28.2	25.7
Western Europe	6.3	6.9	8.0	8.1
Africa	4.8	5.5	5.8	3.7
Australia and the Pacific	5.0	6.3	5.7	6.1
Middle East	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.5
North America	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4
Central and Eastern Europe	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8
Former USSR	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6
Central and Latin America	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Other	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.1
by category of admission				
Family Sponsored stream	14.3	14.6	11.8	13.0
Business/Skilled stream	17.1	25.7	35.9	30.4
International/Humanitarian stream	3.5	3.3	4.1	3.8
Other	0.0	0.2	1.1	1.3
Total	**34.9**	**43.9**	**52.9**	**48.5**

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Net permanent and long-term migration (incl. people from New Zealand)				
by occupation				
Managers, administrators and legislators	–1.6	–0.9	0.7	. .
Professionals	–1.5	–0.6	1.5	. .
Technicians	–1.9	–0.7	0.3	. .
Clerks	–0.7	0.1	1.0	. .
Service and sales workers	–2.2	–1.3	–0.1	. .
Agriculture and fishery workers	–0.3	–0.1	–0.1	. .
Trades workers	–1.5	–0.6	0.2	. .
Plant and machine operators	–0.9	–0.5	–0.1	. .
Elementary occupations[3]	–0.6	–0.3	–0.2	. .
Occupation unidentifiable or illegible	–1.1	0.0	4.4	. .
Family members and students	0.3	11.2	25.3	. .
Not stated	0.5	3.6	5.3	. .
Total	**–11.3**	**9.7**	**38.2**	. .
Grants of New Zealand citizenship				
by country of origin[4]				
United Kingdom	3.7	3.0	2.2	. .
South Africa	2.0	2.0	2.0	. .
China	3.8	2.6	1.9	. .
Samoa	1.7	1.6	1.3	. .
Chinese Taipei	2.0	1.6	1.1	. .
Other	16.5	12.7	11.0	. .
Total	**29.6**	**23.5**	**19.5**	. .
Inflows of asylum seekers	**1.6**	**1.6**	**1.0**	**0.8**

1. Permanent and long-term arrivals include overseas migrants who arrive in New Zealand intending to stay for a period of 12 months or more (or permanently), plus New Zealand residents returning after an absence of 12 months or more. Permanent and long-term departures include New Zealand residents departing for an intended period of 12 months or more (or permanently), plus overseas visitors departing from New Zealand after a stay of 12 months or more.
2. Data refer to fiscal year (1 July to 30 June of the given year) while data presented in the Statistical Annex refer to the calendar year and are therefore not fully comparable.
3. Includes labourers and related elementary service workers.
4. The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available. If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.

Sources: New Zealand Statistics; Department of Internal Affairs.

Around a third of all residence approvals in 2002/03 were to people aged between 31 and 45 years, while 24% were under 16 and 12% over 45, similar to the previous year. In the same year, women accounted for 50% of such approvals, with 44% of principal applicants being women. Twenty-two women in total have gained residence in New Zealand under the Domestic Violence policy introduced in 2001 (see the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

Work permit policy is intended to protect job opportunities for New Zealanders while enabling employers to fill short-term skills shortages. In 2002/03, 66 800 work permits were granted, an increase of 13% on 2001/02 and of 154% on 1997/98. Some 23 200 permits were for skill shortages, 20 300 went to working holidaymakers (about 44% to UK nationals, 21% to those from Japan and 9% to Irish nationals). The remaining 34% of work permits were granted for a range of reasons, including to asylum seekers and the spouses/partners of New Zealanders. Students are another major entry group and in 2002/03 87 900 student permits were issued, 19% up on the year before and 390% up on five years previously. Almost half go to Chinese people.

Illegal migration

In April 2003, the overall number of overstayers in New Zealand was estimated to be between 16 515 and 20 042, a similar level to that of the previous October. Chinese, Fijians and Britons continued to be the main overstayers. In 2002/03, 213 people were turned away at the national border. The number of overstayers who were removed, more than doubled to 750 but the number of those who left voluntarily (844) was very similar to the previous year.

Refugees and asylum seekers

New Zealand accepts up to 750 mandated refugees a year under the Refugee Quota Programme. In 2002/03, 684 people were accepted for resettlement under this programme, the largest source countries being, as during the previous year, Iraq (59%), Afghanistan (12%) and Iran (8%). New Zealand also accepts claims for refugee status. The inflow of asylum seekers for the calendar year 2003 was 800, a decrease on the previous calendar year when 1 000 entered. During 2002/03, the claims of 247 people were successful. This was a big decrease compared to the previous year when 631 were granted asylum, but this had been due to the increase generated by the 130 "Tampa" refugees who were accepted in that year.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Data from the 2001 population census in New Zealand indicated that almost 20% of its population was foreign-born. The estimated resident population by the end of 2002/03 was 4.0 million, a growth of 1.8% over the previous year with a net migration gain contributing to three fifths of the growth.

Naturalisations

During 2002, there were 19 500 naturalisations granted continuing the decline evident in recent years (see Table III.22). The largest source countries, accounting for about 10% each of the grants made, were the United Kingdom, followed by South Africa and China.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Immigration Programme for 2003/04 is the same as that for 2002/03, with 45 000 places available. Of these, 60% are in the Skilled/Business stream, 30% Family Sponsored and 10% International/Humanitarian. Greater English language skills were required for the General Skills and Business categories from October 2002.

As a result of a major policy review, the General Skills category was closed in November 2003, to be replaced in December 2003 by the Skilled Migrant category. The changes are designed to strengthen New Zealand's ability to attract skilled migrants to meet the country's specific skill shortages and help expand the economy.

A key change is that instead of lodging applications for residence, potential migrants will now register an expression of interest, based on health, character and English language requirements, as well as evidence of employability and likely contribution to capacity building. There is a minimum qualifying points level that must be reached before an expression of interest can be registered. Those who register their interest are pooled and those achieving the highest level of points are invited to apply for residence. Residence will then be granted to applicants who provide factual evidence of ability to settle and contribute, for example, an offer of skilled employment. Those who cannot provide such evidence but can demonstrate the potential to contribute, may be offered a two year open work permit with a formal route to residence. It was considered that the previous system, where any prospective migrant could apply for residence at any time, and New Zealand had to consider and approve an application if the policy criteria were met, was not adequately focused on meeting New Zealand's needs.

With regard to the integration of migrants, the New Zealand government has agreed to pursue a national settlement strategy, setting out six high-level goals and taking a whole-of-government approach. A review of immigration health policy is underway. It is considering both current health policy objectives and areas where health screening could be strengthened.

International agreements

Citizens of 52 countries do not need a visa in order to visit New Zealand for up to three months. The visa waiver agreement with the Czech Republic, which had been suspended in January 2001, was reinstated in January 2003, whilst the visa waiver agreement with Zimbabwe was suspended in February 2003.

In April 2003, the government agreed to increase the cap on the number of working holidaymakers people to enter New Zealand in any given year from 20 000 to 25 000.

Norway

Introduction

Economic growth in 2002 was 1.4%, although it slowed in 2003 (0.3%) and should rebound in 2004 (3.1%). Unemployment in Norway fell from 1993 to reach 2.1% in 1998, after which it began to climb again. By 2002 the unemployment rate was 3.2%, but the labour market continued to deteriorate and by May 2003 the unemployment rate for the total workforce stood at 3.7% but at 9.7% for immigrants. The foreign population increased slightly to 4.3% of the population in 2002 and immigrants (those born abroad or in Norway but with both parents born abroad) made up 7.3% of the population at the end of the year.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The total inflow (of nationals and foreigners intending to stay more than six months) to Norway in 2002 was 40 100, of whom nearly 52% were women and 30 800 (77%) were foreign citizens (see Table III.23). The overall inflow rose 17% over 2001, reversing a recent downward trend. Outflows, at 22 900 persons, fell by 13% compared to the year before, of whom 12 300 (53%) were foreigners. Sixty-six per cent of the total outflow left for an EU country. The overall net migration of foreign citizens in 2002 was 18 500, about 8 300 more than the year before. The EU countries, Russia, Thailand and refugee source countries such as Iraq, Somalia and Afghanistan were the main sources. Between 2001 and 2002, Iraqis and Somalis alone were responsible for 60% of the increase in immigration from developing countries and their gross inflows increased by 135% and 91% respectively over the previous year. Russian entries grew by 40.5%, many of whom were women entering for family reunion. Thai immigration increased by just over 50% of whom nearly 81% were women.

By contrast, the number of Swedish entries decreased, partly in response to improvements in the Swedish economy. The net emigration of Norwegians, at 1 300 in 2002, was 40% down on the year before. It is difficult to be accurate about the extent of labour-based migration but in 2002, 4 700 EEA nationals and 22 000 non-EEA nationals were given the opportunity to enter the Norwegian labour market. Of the latter, 15 700 were seasonal workers (up a third on 2001) mostly from Central and Eastern Europe, of whom Poles constitute the main group.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The period since the late 1990s has seen the number of asylum seekers in Norway increasing rapidly, 2002 being the peak year with almost 17 500 arrivals, an increase of 18% over 2001. There may, however, be a slight decrease in 2003. As in 2001, South Eastern and

Table III.23. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Norway**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002		1999	2000	2001	2002
Total population[1]	**4 478.5**	**4 503.4**	**4 525.1**	**4 552.3**	**Asylum seekers by nationality**	**10.2**	**10.8**	**14.8**	**17.5**
% of foreigners	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.3	Serbia and Montenegro	1.2	4.2	0.9	2.5
					Russian Federation	0.3	0.5	1.3	1.7
Migration flows by group of nationality					Iraq	4.1	0.8	1.1	1.6
Inflows	**41.8**	**36.5**	**34.3**	**40.1**	Other	4.6	5.4	11.5	11.7
Nationals	9.6	8.8	8.9	9.3					
Foreigners	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	**Foreign population by region**	**178.7**	**184.3**	**185.9**	**197.7**
of which:					Europe	114.8	114.8	112.4	115.7
Nordic countries	8.1	7.3	6.8	6.8	Asia	36.8	40.5	43.3	48.5
EU (15 members)	11.0	9.8	9.6	9.5	Africa	11.6	13.6	14.7	17.4
Outflows	**22.8**	**26.9**	**26.3**	**22.9**	North America	10.3	10.2	10.1	10.3
Nationals	10.2	11.9	11.1	10.7	South America	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3
Foreigners	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	Other	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5
of which:									
Nordic countries	6.8	7.0	6.6	6.0	**Acquisition of nationality by previous**				
EU (15 members)	8.1	9.1	8.7	7.5	**nationality (units)**	**7 988**	**9 517**	**10 838**	**9 041**
Net migration	**19.0**	**9.7**	**8.0**	**17.2**	*of which:*				
Nationals	–0.5	–3.2	–2.2	–1.3	Europe	2 434	3 586	5 419	3 203
Foreigners	19.5	12.9	10.2	18.5	Asia	3 801	4 697	3 757	4 033
of which:					Africa	1 077	704	1 232	1 236
Nordic countries	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.8	America	589	469	363	504
EU (15 members)	2.9	0.7	0.9	2.0	Other	87	61	67	65
					Mixed marriages (units)	**3 975**	**5 405**	**5 735**	**6 131**
					% of total marriages	16.0	20.2	23.3	23.8

1. Data on 31 December of the years indicated, taken from population registers.

Sources: Statistics Norway; Directorate of Immigration; UNHCR.

Eastern Europe predominated making up about 50% of the total. The largest groups were those from Serbia and Montenegro (2 460), Russia (1 718), Iraq (1 624), and Somalia (1 534).

In 2002, rather more asylum seekers were granted Convention refugee status (342) than in 2001 (296), whereas there was a decrease of about 23% in those who were granted protection on humanitarian grounds, to 3 284. For the latter, the maintenance requirements before they are entitled to family reunion were reintroduced in mid-2003. Refugees are also accepted under a refugee resettlement quota. The quota set for 2001-2003 was 3 750, 16% down on the prior three-year period.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

During 2002 the proportion of immigrants in Norway's total population of 4.55 million (an increase of 0.6% over 2001) went up by 0.4% to 7.3%. About three-quarters of these were born abroad with two foreign-born parents and a quarter were born in Norway with two foreign-born parents.

In contrast to their predominance amongst foreign nationals, European immigrants make up only 42% of the total immigrant population, as fewer Europeans opt for Norwegian citizenship when they qualify for it. Iraqis and Somalis accounted for one-third of the increase in the stock of immigrants compared with 2001.

The proportion of foreign nationals increased to 4.3% (from 4.1% in the previous year) with nearly 58.5% (60.1% in 2001) being European citizens and nearly one-quarter Asian. The most significant increase regionally came from Africa whose nationals increased by 18% over 2001. The largest group of foreign nationals come from Sweden (12.8%), followed by Denmark (10.1%), Iraq (6.6%) and the United Kingdom (5.7%).

Naturalisations

In 2002, naturalisations fell to 9 041 compared to 10 838 in 2001. The proportion accounted for by Bosnians, although remaining the largest group at 1 229, droped by 60% compared with their numbers in 2001. The figures for Pakistani nationals rose significantly to 829 (409 in 2001). Naturalisations of foreigners from Asia were highest, followed by those from Europe, reversing the previous year's ranking.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The government has established a legal committee which is to present a proposal for a new Immigration Act. Substantial changes were made liberalising the grant of work permits in 2002, which were described in last year's Edition of *Trends in International Migration*. In addition, proposals to extend seasonal work permits are under consideration.

In June 2003, a new law was enacted on introductory programmes for certain newly arrived immigrants, designed to counter the low employment rate of immigrant groups caused by mismatches, lack of Norwegian language skills and discrimination. Newly arrived refugees, persons granted residence on humanitarian grounds and family members reunited with them are, in principle, obliged to participate in an introductory programme adapted to individual needs. The main contents of the programme are training in the Norwegian language and social studies relating to Norwegian society as well as training for the labour market or for education. For the duration of the programme, participants receive a monetary benefit. The government is considering legislating in 2004 to make participation in language training a requirement for the later granting of a settlement permit and for obtaining Norwegian citizenship.

In the summer of 2002, the government presented a new plan of action to combat racism and discrimination for the period 2002-2006. It applies to indigenous people, national minorities and the immigrant population of Norway. The measures set out in the plan are mainly focused on eight target areas: working life; public services; education; the police system, documentation/monitoring; the Internet; the local community; and the strengthening of legal protection against ethnic discrimination and racist harassment. In response to the report of two government working groups on discrimination law and its enforcement, a bill has been proposed implementing the principle of equal treatment irrespective of racial or ethnic origin.

Citizenship law

The government is preparing a new law on citizenship, due to come before Parliament in 2004. The principle of single citizenship will be maintained.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The increase in the number of asylum seekers since the late 1990s has stretched administrative resources so that the government is taking measures to reduce the number of those arriving who are not in need of protection. An amendment of the definition of refugee in the existing Immigration Act is in progress.

The government considers that the decisions of many asylum seekers to come to Norway are based on incorrect information about the possibility of getting a permit to stay in the country. During 2002 and 2003, it mounted an information campaign abroad to set out the conditions of immigration to Norway. In September 2003, a new information campaign was introduced, whereby upon arrival in the country, asylum seekers receive information about case processing, rights and duties, the chances of having their application accepted and possible return to the home country. Further measures were implemented in early 2004. A fast track (48 hours) procedure for asylum seekers from safe countries was introduced. For those rejected, accommodation in reception centres is no longer available after the departure deadline, except for families with children. Cash payments are no longer made for those in reception centres during the first period of their stay in Norway. There is also an increased focus on the voluntary return of rejected asylum seekers, in co-operation with the International Organisation for Migration.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In order to combat illegal migration, amendments to the Immigration Act came into effect in July 2003. Maximum penalties for smugglers and traffickers were raised and it became a criminal act to provide a person with a passport or travel document that could be used for illegal entry to Norway or any other state.

International agreements

From September 2003, though it is not an EU member, Norway implemented the rules of the Dublin II regulation. This determines which state should be responsible for examining applications for asylum lodged in one of the EU member states.

Poland

Introduction

After undergoing a decline in economic growth in 1999-2002, Poland experienced a recovery in 2003, driven mainly by export and private consumption growth. The rate of economic growth increased to 3.7% from 1.4% in 2002 and forecasts for the next years are optimistic. At the same time, the unemployment rate in 2002, revised on the basis of the 2002 population census, remained very high at 20%.

The first population census in the post-war period that included data on foreigners' nationality was carried out in Poland in May 2002. According to its recent results, there are some 49 200 foreign nationals residing in Poland, which represent 0.1% of the total population. This group includes permanent residents of Poland (excluding those who at the time of the census were absent for more than one year) and temporary residents who at the time of the census were residing in Poland for over one year.

The year 2003 brought important changes to the Polish legal system. In September 2003, the Aliens Act and the Act on the Protection of Aliens came into force, making a distinction between asylum and other immigration matters. The first regularisation programme allowed undocumented foreigners to legalise their status in 2003. Visas for nationals of Belarus, the Russian Federation and the Ukraine were introduced in October the same year.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

According to the Central Population Register, in which permanent residents of Poland are registered, net migration was negative in 2002 (see Table III.24). After a slight decrease in the past year, emigration in 2002 slightly increased (by 5%) to 24 530, of which 49% were women. As in previous years, the majority of emigrants settled in Germany (73%), the United States (11%) and Canada (4%). After a very substantial decline in 2001, Germany and the United States recorded increases of 5% (from 16 900 to 17 800) and 8% (from 2 480 to 2 680) respectively, over 2001.

After the decrease in 1999-2001, immigration to Poland remained practically at the same level in 2002 as in previous year (around 6 600). Immigrants arrived mostly from Germany (35%), and the United States (17%). Immigrants from all other source countries amounted to less than 10% each of the total. Immigrants in 2002 tended to have differing gender distribution according to the region of origin. Among those coming from the former Soviet Union women predominated, whereas among those coming from the European Union and North America the opposite was the case.

According to the results of the 2002 population census, some 89 200 people migrated or returned to Poland from abroad between 1989 and 2002, of which 50% were women. This

Table III.24. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Poland**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Migration flows (Central Population Register)[1]				
Inflows	7.5	7.3	6.6	6.6
Outflows	21.5	27.0	23.4	24.5
Net migration	**–14.0**	**–19.7**	**–16.7**	**–17.9**
Residence permits issued by nationality[2]				
Ukraine	2.6	3.4	4.8	6.9
Belarus	0.7	0.7	1.3	2.7
Russian Federation	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.9
Germany	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.6
France	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.5
Vietnam	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2
United Kingdom	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.2
United States	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.2
Armenia	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6
Kazakhstan	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6
India	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5
Other countries	7.4	5.5	7.4	9.7
Total	**17.4**	**15.9**	**21.5**	**30.2**
of which:				
Permanent residence permit	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.6
Temporary residence permit	16.8	15.0	20.8	29.5

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows of asylum seekers by country of origin	**3.0**	**4.6**	**4.5**	**5.2**
Russian Federation	0.1	1.2	1.5	3.0
Afghanistan	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.6
Armenia	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.2
India	–	–	–	0.2
Moldova	–	–	0.3	0.2
Mongolia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Iraq	–	–	0.1	0.1
Ukraine	–	0.1	0.1	0.1
Vietnam	0.1	–	–	0.1
Romania	–	0.2	0.2	–
Other countries	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.5
Mixed marriages				
Foreign husband	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.1
Foreign wife	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4
Total	**3.6**	**3.5**	**3.5**	**3.6**
Work permits granted by occupation or qualification				
Manager	4.2	3.6	2.1	8.4
Owner	4.2	4.3	2.2	3.2
Expert, consultant	2.5	4.3	5.9	6.1
Other non-manual workers[3]	1.9	2.1	1.7	1.9
Skilled worker	1.5	2.4	2.0	2.0
Unskilled worker	0.4	0.7	2.5	0.2
Other	2.5	0.5	0.6	0.9
Total	**17.1**	**17.8**	**17.0**	**22.8**

1. Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Figures 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. Since 1 January 1998, two types of permits can be delivered: "permanent residence (settlement) permit" and "temporary (fixed-time) residence permit".
3. In 1999 data relates only to teachers.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Office for Repatriation and Aliens; Ministry of Economy, Labour and Social Policy; UNHCR.

group includes permanent residents of Poland (excluding those who were absent for more than one year) and temporary residents who at the time of the census were residing in Poland for over one year. Foreigners (people without Polish citizenship) comprised 33% of this group. The principal former countries of residence for foreigners, returning Poles and re-emigrants were Germany (27%), the United States (14%) and the Ukraine (6%).

In 2002, some 786 100 permanent residents of Poland had remained abroad for at least two months, of which 53.8% were women. The majority were emigrants staying outside Poland for at least one year (80%), of which 16% left Poland before 1989 (in 1988 or earlier). The main foreign countries of residence were Germany (37%) and the United States (20%).

Contemporary emigration from Poland is mainly related to temporary employment abroad. The number of job offers in seasonal employment in Germany (mainly agriculture, three months a year) continued to increase in 2003, totalling around 291 000 (up 3%

on 2002). In addition, in 2003, there were over 10 000 job offers related to seasonal employment of Polish workers (mainly women) in Spain.

Illegal migration

In 2002, 4 950 foreigners were apprehended for illegally crossing the border (5 880 in 2001), of which 62% were arrested by the Polish Border Guards and 38% were deported to Poland on the basis of readmission agreements (of which 92% were from Germany). This represents a decrease in both numbers, compared to the previous year. In 2002, 233 organised groups of migrants were apprehended, totalling 2 100 migrants. Both figures showed a decline in comparison with 2001 (280 and 2 540 respectively). Despite the decline in 2002, recent data suggests that the overall level of illegal migration increased in 2003.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, approximately 5 200 asylum seekers applied for refugee status in Poland (see Table III.24). As in 2000-2001, the largest number of applicants was from the Russian Federation (predominantly from Chechnya). They accounted for around 60% of asylum seekers in 2002. In 2002, some 280 people were granted refugee status, including 225 Russians (of Chechen origin). In 2000, they had numbered 26 and in 2001, 207. The recognition rate, as in previous years, was slightly above 5%. More recent data indicate that over 6 900 asylum applications were recorded in 2003, of which 80% were nationals of the Russian Federation.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

According to the results of the 2002 population census, there were around 49 200 foreign nationals residing in Poland in May 2002, of which 50% were women. This represents around 0.1% of the total population. Almost 40% were nationals of four countries of the former Soviet Union, namely the Ukraine (20%), the Russian Federation (9%), Belarus (6%) and Armenia (3%). Other source countries with large representations included Germany (8%), the United States (4%) and Vietnam (3%). Approximately 60% of the foreign population were permanent residents of Poland (excluding those who were absent for more than one year), of which 43% came to Poland between 1989 and 2002. At the same time, temporary residents (staying in Poland for over one year) constituted 40% of the total, of which 86% arrived in Poland between 1989 and 2002.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The new Alien Act that came into force on 1 September 2003 covers the principles and conditions of entry, residence and transit through Poland by citizens of non-EU countries. The rules concerning the conditions of entry and stay of EU citizens and their family members were adopted in July 2002 and came into force on Poland's formal accession to the EU. Three main acts govern the situation and status of foreigners in Poland, distinguishing between persons seeking protection, persons of Polish origin migrating to Poland (the Repatriation Act came into force in January 2001) and other foreigners (*i.e.* other *extracommunitari*).

The first regularisation programme for illegal migrants who had resided in Poland for several years was introduced by the 2003 Alien Act. Those who had stayed in Poland continuously for at least six years (since before 1 January 1997), had a place to live and

proper financial means to cover essential expenses (or a work promise from an employer) obtained the right to submit an application for a one-year temporary residence permit (*i.e.* legalise their status in Poland) between the 1st of September and the 31st of December 2003. In this period, 3 218 applications were submitted, of which over 85% were made by nationals of Armenia and Vietnam (45% and 40% respectively). Undocumented foreigners who did not meet the requirements of the regularisation programme were given an opportunity to leave Poland without any adverse consequences between September and October 2003. On this basis 282 foreigners were sent back to their countries of origin, mainly Ukrainians (49%).

On 1 October 2003, the implementation of the new visa regime required by the EU took place. Initially, visas with Belarus, the Ukraine and the Russian Federation were planned for 1 July but the broad public debates on this resulted in the date being postponed.

Asylum and rights of refugees

On 1 September 2003, a separate Act on the Protection of Aliens came into effect. Among other changes to the asylum regime in Poland, the introduction of "tolerated" status is of central importance. It allows rejected asylum seekers who cannot return to their country of origin to seek protection in Poland. The "tolerated" status gives a foreigner a right to work (without a work permit). Foreigners are also entitled to social assistance, medical care and education in Poland. It is intended to be a solution to the problem of the large numbers of rejected asylum seekers (mainly nationals of the Russian Federation of Chechen origin) who, after the completion of the asylum procedure, were left completely unassisted by the Polish state. A new element of the Act is that a foreigner who applies for refugee status without a valid visa or who stays in Poland illegally may be placed in a detention or deportation centre.

Portugal

Introduction

The growth rate, which averaged 3.4% in 1999 and 2000, began to drop significantly in 2001 (falling to 1.6%) due to the unfavourable external environment. This trend continued in 2002. The projections for 2004 indicate an increase to 0.8%. The unemployment rate continued to increase in 2003, reaching 6.4%, compared to 2002 (5.1%). With regard to foreigners, the data available for 2002 show an increase in the unemployment rate, which has reached a value (5.3%) close to the national one.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net migration has been positive since 1993. The number of Portuguese emigrants rose significantly in 2002 (from 20 589 in 2001, to 27 358 in 2002), reversing the trends of past years, in response to economic stagnation and contraction of the labour market. Four out of five of the emigrants were men and the vast majority were temporary workers (68%) in one of the EU countries or Switzerland. However, the years after 2000 seem to be marked by the resurgence of "old" emigration destinations, such as Angola and Brazil. It is estimated that some 19 100 people returned to Portugal in 2002, a little more than 50% coming from EU countries.

According to data from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the population of Portuguese origin and their descendants who were living abroad in 2002 was estimated at 4.9 million. Most of these (around 55%) live in the United States, Brazil and France. Canada, Venezuela and South Africa are also relevant places of settlement, as well as Switzerland and the United Kingdom, an emerging destination where more than 200 000 Portuguese are apparently living. If the criterion of nationality only is considered, France is probably the country with the largest number of residents holding Portuguese nationality.

In 2002, 13 833 foreigners applied for a residence permit. Applications were by nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries (32%, principally Angola, Cape Verde and Guinea-Bissau), EU countries (in particular Spain – 6.0%, the United Kingdom – 7.0% and Germany – 5.1%) and Brazil (10%). Nearly half of these new applications were filed for reasons related to employment (22%) and family reunification (22%).

The government has introduced an amnesty programme for undocumented foreigners with employment contracts. Between 10 January 2001 and 31 March 2003, 179 165 one-year resident permits were issued. Most of those regularised were Eastern Europeans (in particular from Ukraine, Moldova, Romania), Russians and Brazilians. Some 57% of those regularised were men. Eastern Europeans now represent about one-quarter of the whole foreign population and Ukrainians have become the major foreign group (62 041 people)

TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION: SOPEMI 2004 EDITION – ISBN 92-64-00792-X – © OECD 2005

Table III.25. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Portugal**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Emigration[1]	**28.1**	**21.3**	**20.6**	**27.4**
of which: women	8.0	4.3	4.8	5.0
Returns of nationals (estimates)[2]	**15.2**	**12.6**	**14.1**	**19.1**
Inflows of foreign population[3]	**10.5**	**15.9**	**14.2**	**13.8**
EU	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.3
of which:				
Spain	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.9
United Kingdom	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
Germany	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
PALOP[4]	3.2	7.0	5.6	. .
Brazil	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.7
Other	1.8	2.7	2.5	. .
Asylum seekers	**0.3**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**
Foreign population[5]	**190.9**	**207.6**	**350.5**	**413.3**
By region of residence				
Region of Lisboa	105.4	113.8	159.2	187.0
Region of Setubal	18.0	20.2	34.4	37.8
Region of Algarve (Faro)	24.9	27.1	47.2	54.1
Other regions	42.6	46.5	109.7	134.4
By group of nationality				
Africa	89.5	98.8	127.1	142.3
European Union	56.7	61.7	61.6	66.0
Eastern Europe	. .	. .	75.2	101.1
South America	25.8	27.4	53.4	67.0
North America	10.2	10.2	10.3	10.0
Other regions	8.7	9.5	22.9	26.9
Acquisition of Portuguese nationality through naturalisation	**0.9**	**0.7**	**1.1**	**1.4**
Mixed marriages	**1.6**	**1.7**	**1.9**	**2.7**
% of total marriages	2.3	2.7	3.2	4.8
Foreign labour force[6]	**91.6**	**99.8**	**233.6**	**285.7**
Permanence permits issued following the 2001 regularisation programme				
Ukraine	. .	. .	45.2	16.5
Brazil	. .	. .	23.7	11.4
Moldova	. .	. .	9.0	3.1
Romania	. .	. .	7.5	2.9
Cape Verde	. .	. .	5.5	2.5
Angola	. .	. .	5.0	2.5
Russian Federation	. .	. .	5.0	1.5
Guinea-Bissau	. .	. .	3.2	1.0
Bulgaria	. .	. .	1.7	1.1
Other countries	. .	. .	21.1	5.1
Total	. .	. .	**126.9**	**47.7**

1. Results of a special survey (INE).
2. This estimate under-represents the returns of non-working population.
3. This figure excludes foreign children born in Portugal from foreign parents and foreigners that obtained permanence permits in 2001 and 2002.
4. PALOP stands for Portuguese-Speaking African Country.
5. Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit (including those who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes). In 2001 and 2002 includes both foreigners with residence permits and permanence permits.
6. Workers who hold a valid residence or permanence permit (including the unemployed). Data include workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes, as well as all workers who obtained permanence permits in 2001 and 2002.

Sources: Survey on outflows (INE); Labour Force Survey (INE); Ministry of the Interior; UNHCR.

(see Table III.25), very close to the figures of the other two main foreign populations (the old established Cape Verdians – 60 392 and the Brazilians – 59 950). People from the Portuguese-speaking African countries represent nowadays less than one third of total foreigners.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Unlike other EU countries, Portugal receives very few asylum applications (between 200 and 250 applications per year over the 1997-2002 period). Most applicants are men (87%) and are young (70% belong to the 19-34 year age group). The origins of the applicants are very diverse; however nationals from some West African countries are more frequently represented.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The results of the March 2001 census show that the population has grown by 4.8% (some 500 000 people) since the previous census. These data confirm the increasing size of immigration flows into Portugal, as is shown by the contribution of net migration to total population growth.

If the holders of residence permits and permanent permits are considered, the stock of foreigners stood at roughly 413 300 people at the end of 2002 (4% of the resident population). There is a trend towards a growth in the proportion of women in the total foreign population (nearly 44.4% in 2002, as compared to 41.5% in 1995). The proportion of female immigrants is particularly relevant among Latin American groups (over 60%), EU citizens and Sub-Saharan Africans (over 50% since 2000).

When the results of the 2001 regularisation are taken into account, it can be seen not only that the relative share of nationals of Brazil, East European countries and Russia is growing, but also that the regional distribution of the foreign population has shifted, with newly arrived migrants more widely distributed over all regions, even though two-thirds of foreigners overall hold a residence permit to live in the districts of Lisbon and Setúbal.

Naturalisations

Legal foreign residents may obtain Portuguese nationality in three main ways: through marriage with a Portuguese national, through adoption by a Portuguese parent or through the traditional procedure of naturalisation after 10 years' residence (only 6 years of legal residence is required for nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries). The global number of acquisitions of Portuguese nationality has followed a growing trend between 1998 and 2001 (from 1 948 to 3 886). In 2002, the number of naturalisations slightly declined to 3 759. The majority of the naturalisations involved non-European people coming from important destinations of Portuguese emigration, particularly Brazil (25%) and the Portuguese-speaking African Countries (35.6% in total, mostly Cape Verdeans), as well as Venezuela (16%) and the United States (8%).

2. Policy developments

In 2002 and 2003, the Portuguese authorities took steps in order to better regulate flows on the basis of labour market needs and to facilitate the integration of immigrants. A new High Commission for Immigrants and Ethnic Minorities was appointed in 2002 for a three-year period and this governmental body acquired the status of Commissariat (ACIME) under the supervision of the Prime Minister. The competences and organisation of

ACIME were reformulated and strengthened (more human and financial resources) with the basic idea of better promoting the integration of those who come legally to Portugal. In addition, a new law regulating the entry, residence, exit and expulsion of foreign citizens from the national territory was published on 25 February 2003 (the Decree-Law No. 34/2003 of 25 February 2003).

Admission, stay and integration

The ACIME promotes exchange and dialogue between entities that are representative of immigrants and ethnic minorities in Portugal and develops a policy aimed at promoting the integration of immigrants in Portuguese society. In concrete terms, the activities developed by ACIME between mid-2002 and mid-2003 involved the following:

- The creation of a National Immigrant Information Network (*Rede Nacional de Informação ao Imigrante*), which includes the publication of a monthly information bulletin, educational leaflets and brochures in several languages (on health, education, acquisition of nationality, etc.), as well as the establishment of an information call centre (accessible in three languages) and the transmission of information *via* the Internet (*www.acime.gov.pt*).
- The creation of a National Immigrant Assistance System (*Sistema Nacional de Apoio ao Imigrante*), involving the installation of one-stop centres at national level (in Lisbon and Porto) and small assistance points at local level.

An immigration observatory has also been created to carry out studies that will assist the government in preparing new migration policies. The studies already developed consist of: the analysis of the representations of immigrants and ethnic minorities in the media; a preliminary analysis of two surveys on immigrants in Portugal: Portuguese opinion and immigrant opinion; an analysis of the impact of immigration in the public budget; and a study on the contribution of immigrants to Portuguese demography. Other studies in preparation include the characterisation of the second wave of Brazilian immigration to Portugal, an analysis of the impact of family reunion and a study on the impact of immigrants in the Portuguese economy.

In order to stimulate the spread of values of tolerance and the defence of human rights, ACIME created the "Immigration and Ethnic Minorities: Journalism for Tolerance" award, to be awarded annually by means of a public contest. The aim is to pay tribute to the journalistic works and academic research on journalism that have best contributed to the promotion of a culture which accepts differences and condemns all forms of discrimination.

ACIME, by way of the Consultative Council for Immigration Issues (*Conselho Consultivo para os Assuntos da Imigração*, or COCAI), that integrates several bodies of local, regional and national administration, as well as representatives of some social partners and organisations of immigrants, has the responsibility for sounding out civil society about legal projects related to the rights of immigrants, social integration policies that promote the elimination of all forms of discrimination, as well as respect for their identity and culture.

In addition to changes in the institutional bodies dealing with immigration, the new law regulating the entry, residence, exit and expulsion of foreign citizens from the national territory (the Decree-Law No. 34/2003 of 25 February 2003) has introduced significant changes in the previous law that allowed for the regularisation of undocumented immigrants holding a valid work contract. The new cabinet has drawn a more elaborate law based on three objectives: *i)* the promotion of legal immigration in accordance with the

country's labour market needs; *ii*) the effective or real integration of immigrants; *iii*) the fight against illegal immigration. In addition to integration initiatives developed by ACIME, the new law reduces the minimum residence period to obtain a long-term residence permit from six to five years (Portugese-speaking countries) and from ten to eight years (other countries).

As far as the labour market is concerned, the government publishes every two years a report on labour market needs, elaborated on the basis of an econometric model and taking into account the comments and remarks from a set of labour and immigrant-related institutions assessing the labour needs in the various regions and sectors of economic activity. In this report, a maximum annual limit for entries of third-country nationals onto the national territory is established and workers coming to Portugal must hold a labour visa or a residence permit. A new kind of work visa for scientific and research activities was created with the goal of keeping scientists and highly skilled people in Portugal. The explicit reference to the skills of immigrants is a feature of the new law and reveals the preference for workers who have received some kind of professional training in the country of origin.

A bilateral agreement signed in July 2003 between Portugal and Brazil has enabled the creation of a specific legal device aimed at the regularisation of undocumented Portuguese citizens living in Brazil and of undocumented Brazilian citizens settled in Portugal, before the 11th July 2003. In early September 2003, around 30 000 Brazilian workers had registered with the purpose of regularising their situation.

The reception programme (*Portugal Acolhe*), developed by the Ministry of Labour and Solidarity (through the Institute for Employment and Vocational Training, IEFP), has continued in 2002/2003. This programme makes Portuguese language courses available to new immigrants and provides them with information on Portuguese society and citizenship. In order to encourage immigrants, certain benefits are provided in case of need, such as food assistance and transport grants. An effort has been made to ensure that courses are scheduled outside migrants' working hours.

Romania

Introduction

In 2002, GDP growth amounted to 4.3%, a decrease on the 5.3% growth recorded in the previous year. Unemployment was 6.6% in 2001. The number of Romanians emigrating and those seeking asylum abroad continued to decline. However, the number trying to travel abroad and who were not permitted to do so remained extremely large.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002, the number of Romanians who emigrated to settle abroad numbered 8 200, 18% fewer than the year before and continuing the downward trend observed from the early 1990s. At the same time, 6 600 Romanian or ex-Romanian citizens returned from abroad, a decrease of 40% over the previous year largely due to a drop of 57% in the flow of arrivals from Moldova. Overall, provisional Population and Housing Census data for 2002 indicated 361 000 Romanian citizens are living abroad, with 213 400 of them working.

Of those emigrating, over 95% went to OECD member countries, including 46% to the EU compared to 42% in 2001, a small reversal of the downward trend of the proportion going to the EU which had been evident over recent years. Canada, the United States, Italy, Germany and Hungary were the main destination countries, the same as last year. The very sharp decline in the numbers emigrating to Germany since the mid-1990s was partly reversed in 2002. Some 80% of emigrants were of working age, nearly 55% were women and over a quarter had higher education. Of those with higher education, 58.5% went to Canada or the United States.

Around 25 500 Romanians left to work abroad in 2002 as a result of bilateral agreements. The agreement with Germany saw 19 700 go there, more or less evenly split between men and women and working mainly in agriculture (77%) and hotels and catering (16%). Another 2 400, mainly men, went to Spain to work predominantly in agriculture and construction. A further 3 300 Romanian staff worked in Germany for Romanian companies with contracts in that country, predominantly in construction, food processing, mining and quarrying. 7 320 Romanians sought asylum in industrialised countries in 2002, principally in Ireland and the United Kingdom. This figure is a decrease on the figures for 2002 (7 870) and 2001 (9 480).

Illegal migration

In 2002, as a consequence of controls carried out inside the country, 7 400 foreign citizens in an illegal situation were identified, an 80% increase over 2001. Of these 5 600 were forced to leave the country, and the rest were granted prolonged visas or access

Table III.26. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Romania**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Stock of foreigners				
Stock of persons with permanent residence status	**1.3**	**1.2**	**1.1**	**1.4**
Stock of persons with temporary residence visas[1]	**61.9**	**69.4**	**66.4**	**66.5**
Moldova	6.9	8.2	7.6	8.1
China	6.7	7.1	7.5	7.6
Turkey	5.2	7.0	5.3	5.3
Italy	4.6	5.3	4.7	4.6
Greece	5.1	5.0	4.5	3.7
Syria	3.4	3.3	3.7	3.6
Other	30.0	33.6	33.2	33.6
of which: Foreign citizens in education and training	17.8	19.8	16.6	16.4
Moldova	6.7	8.0	7.1	7.6
Greece	4.2	4.1	3.1	2.3
Ukraine	1.1	1.4	1.1	1.1
Israel	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.7
Return migration	**10.5**	**12.4**	**11.0**	**6.6**
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Refugee claims submitted	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.2
Refugee status granted	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1
Illegal immigration				
Number detected at border (including Romanian citizens)	2.0	15.3	5.7	3.6
Number detected within borders	7.3	7.9	4.1	7.4
Estimated stock of illegal migrants[2]	18.0	20.0	15.0	12.0
Expulsions				
Romanian citizens expelled from other countries	21.9	21.9	18.2	13.9
Foreigners expelled from Romania	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.5
Romanian citizens in Germany				
A. Migration flows between Romania and Germany				
Ethnic Germans from Romania	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3
Inflows of Romanian nationals	18.8	24.2	20.3	24.0
Outflows of Romanian nationals	14.7	16.8	18.6	17.6
Seasonal workers from Romania	7.1	8.7	16.6	20.6
B. Stock of people from Romania in Germany				
Stock of Romanian nationals	87.5	90.1	88.1	88.7
Acquisitions of German nationality by former Romanians[3]	0.5	2.0	2.0	. .

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.
3. Excluding ethnic Germans from 1999 on.

Sources: Romanian Ministry of the Interior; Statistiches Bundesamt (Germany).

to the asylum procedure. Some 3 600 persons were arrested while trying to cross the Romanian border illegally, of whom about 2 540 (both foreign and Romanian nationals) were seeking to leave the country. Overall this was a fall of about a third on the number of arrests the year before. About two thirds of those arrested were foreign citizens, the remainder were Romanians. Among the foreigners, the largest group was Turkish, followed by Moldovans, Iraqis, Indians and Bulgarians.

In the same year, 13 900 Romanian citizens found in illegal situations in other countries were returned, the vast majority as a result of readmission agreements. This number was down by a quarter on the year before. Italy, France, Belgium, Spain and Hungary were the main sources of the returnees. With the exception of 1995, 2002 recorded the lowest number of returned Romanians since the beginning of the 1990s. But between January and November 2002, 367 700 Romanian nationals were prevented from carrying out a journey to EU15 and certain other destination countries because they did not fulfil the conditions for leaving (see the 2003 edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

Refugees and asylum seekers

There were 1 151 applications for asylum in 2002, a decrease of over 50% on the number the previous year (however that year had seen a 78% increase over the 2000 figure of 1 400). The most significant declines were in applications from Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia, although Iraq remained the single largest source country. Of the decisions made (1 003) in 2002, only 51 (5%) were granted. The number of decisions made the year before was more than twice as high but the success rate at 5.1%, was very similar.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The total population of Romania was estimated to be 22.3 million in 2002. By the end of 2002, 66 500 foreign citizens had temporary residence in Romania, the main source countries again being Moldova (8 100 up from 7 600 the year before), China (7 600) and Turkey (5 300) (see Table III.26). As in previous years, most came for business (51%, with 96% of all the Chinese in Romania being there for this reason) or training (25%, with Moldovans accounting for 46.5%). The rest came for a variety of reasons, including technical assistance (overwhelmingly from OECD member countries) and humanitarian reasons. There were about 1 500 foreigners with work permits, almost all men, with Turkey (33%) the main source country. Foreigners with permanent residence had increased from 1 100 in 2001 to 1 400 in 2002.

Naturalisations

During 2002, 242 foreigners were granted Romanian citizenship, with the main source countries being Syria (55), Iran (30), Jordan (29), Lebanon (27) and Iraq (15).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

New legislation affecting migration policy was implemented at the end of 2002, following Romania's negotiations with the EU in the areas of justice and home affairs. It stipulated that annual decisions would be made on the number of residence permits to be granted to foreigners with work permits, the number of places for foreigners in education and training units and the allowances available for foreigners relating to medical care and hospitalisation. The legislation also included changes to the visa regime. Two new types of long-term visas were introduced, one for family reunification and one for foreigners married to Romanian citizens. Provision was also made for the extension of temporary visas for the family members of foreigners.

The legislation also provided for the possibility of foreign citizens to settle permanently in Romania after a period of temporary legal residence of at least six years (three years in the case of those married to Romanian citizens), although some foreigners of Romanian origin

are allowed to settle permanently without meeting these conditions. Other provisions relate to assistance in integration (such as language tuition) and access to education for foreign children. In 2003, a government decision exempted citizens of the United States, Canada, Switzerland and Japan from meeting some of the conditions relating to prolongation of stay.

Also in 2003, the government approved as a priority a strategy for managing the country's borders. This involves investment in improved border security, especially to the East and North, with funding from the State budget and from EU and NATO contributions.

Citizenship law

The Law on Romanian citizenship was amended in 2003, increasing the required legal period of residence before naturalisation is possible from seven to eight years (though leaving the period at five years where a foreigner is married to a Romanian). For internationally well-known foreigners or those investing more than half a million Euros, these periods can be halved. It also allowed ex-Romanian citizens who lost their citizenship before December 22nd 1989 for reasons which could not be imputed to them to reacquire it upon request while retaining their foreign citizenship.

Illegal migration

Further afield, the Romanian Ministry of Interior has liaison officers deployed to eight European states and, by 2007, it will have officers in 35 states. The work priorities of these officers are to combat illegal migration and especially human smuggling and trafficking and to monitor the circulation of Romanian citizens in the Schengen area.

International agreements

In 2002, Romania ratified the UN Convention against trans-national organised criminality, including the trafficking of persons. An agreement to exchange information between Romania, INTERPOL and the regional centre for fighting against trans-border criminality was finalised in 2002. In addition, an agreement between France and Romania was concluded to promote the protection of underage Romanian children in difficulty on French territory.

Slovak Republic

Introduction

2003 was marked by preparation for accession to the European Union, which had been approved in a referendum held at the beginning of the year. While GDP grew by 4.4% in 2003 (3.3% in 2002), employment grew by merely 0.2%. The unemployment rate in 2002 stood at 18.5%. The Slovak Republic has recently embarked on an ambitious process of reform aimed at stimulating employment and speeding up the process of catching up with the per-capita income levels of the most advanced OECD member countries.

After steadily declining since the second half of the 1990s, the number of entries for long-term residency has sharply increased recently, even though levels still remain modest. Net migration is very slightly positive and the foreign population accounts for around 0.5% of the total population.

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

Emigration

Austria and the Czech Republic are the main host countries for Slovak emigrants. In 2001, these two countries admitted a comparable number of Slovaks (2 400 entries according to the data records of the two countries). Besides this "long-term" emigration, there is also a not insubstantial flow of temporary, seasonal, cross-border or contractual Slovak emigrants. Slovak labour is predominant in the Czech Republic (accounting for over half of all foreign employees); the share in Austria, Germany and Hungary is much lower but is continuing to rise.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

After a period of constant decline since the second half of the 1990s the number of entries for long-term residence has since grown significantly. However, the level reported in 2003 nonetheless remains modest (2 700 entries) (see Table III.27). There has also been a reverse in the observed trend in terms of country of origin in that, since 2000, inflows from the Czech Republic have fallen while all other inflows have risen.

The Ministry of the Interior's register of residence permits is another source of data on inflows. The trend in long-term permits is highly volatile. Over the past ten years, the average number of new permits issued each year has been 3 700. A significant decline was reported in 2002 with regard to all categories of migrants (particularly wage-earners and self-employed workers) except for students. The number of permanent residence permits issued primarily to family members of residents has steadily declined. Barely 250 migrants were registered in 2002.

Table III.27. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Slovak Republic**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Inflows of permanent residents	**2.3**	**2.0**	**2.3**	**2.7**
Arrivals (excluding those from Czech Republic)	1.0	1.0	1.6	2.0
Arrivals from Czech Republic	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.7
Outflows of permanent residents	**0.8**	**1.0**	**1.4**	**1.1**
Departures (excluding those to Czech Republic)[1]	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.7
Departures to the Czech Republic (Slovak registers)[1]	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Departures to the Czech Republic (Czech registers)	2.8	3.1	. .	. .
Net migration (according to Slovak registers)	**1.5**	**1.0**	**0.9**	**1.6**
Residence permits newly granted by category[2]				
Long-term residence permits	2.9	3.8	3.7	3.2
Permanent residence permits	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.3
Family reunification	0.6	0.8	0.4	1.3
Other	0.2	0.1	0.7	–
Inflows of asylum seekers	**1.6**	**8.2**	**9.7**	**10.3**
Illegal migrants caught at the border	**6.1**	**14.6**	**15.3**	**12.5**
of which:				
Inflows	2.2	3.9	5.0	6.4
Outflows	3.8	10.7	10.3	6.1
Holders of permanent or long-term residence permit[3]	**28.8**	**29.4**	**29.5**	**29.2**
Work permit holders, by country of origin[4]				
Germany	. .	. .	0.4	0.4
Ukraine	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	. .	. .	0.2	0.1
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.5
Total	**2.5**	**2.5**	**2.7**	**2.7**
Estimates of Czech workers[5]	**2.3**	**1.9**	**2.0**	**2.3**
Slovak citizens abroad				
Slovak workers in the Czech Republic	63.6	63.6	56.6	56.8
% of total foreign workers in the Czech Republic	61.3	61.3	55.9	55.8
Slovak citizens in Germany	14.7	17.0	18.3	. .
% of total foreign citizens in Germany	0.2	0.2	0.3	. .
Slovak workers in Austria	4.3	4.8	5.1	. .
% of total foreign workers in Austria	1.8	2.0	2.2	. .
Slovak workers in Hungary	2.9	1.8	2.8	. .
% of total foreign workers in Hungary	8.2	4.6	6.5	. .

1. The outflow is under-reported because people leaving the country are requested but not required to report their departure.
2. 2002 and 2003 data refer to new types of migrants according to the 2002 legislation.
3. Stocks as of 31 December of the years indicated.
4. The data refer to the stock of work permit holders as of 31 December of the years indicated.
5. 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.

Illegal migration

The volume of illegal immigration, based on the number of illegal immigrants stopped at the border, is far higher than that of the long-term immigrants mentioned above. However, the significant increase in inflows of illegal immigrants observed in 2001 and 2002 was largely offset by the volume of outflows. The increased inflows were mainly reported at the Hungarian and Ukrainian borders, while the number of illegal migrants caught trying to leave the country increased at the Austrian and Czech borders. Most illegal immigrants are from the former Yugoslavia, Afghanistan and Romania.

The number of persons apprehended at the Austrian border has risen substantially and for the first time ever outnumbered the illegal movements reported at the Czech border (6 000 and 5 700 migrants apprehended in 2001 and 2002 attempting to cross into Austria, compared with an annual average of 1 250 in the previous two years).

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers has grown spectacularly since 1999 (1 600 in 2000; 10 300 in 2003), whereas the number of persons granted refugee status remains insignificant (20 in 2002). In 2001, 8 200 applications were lodged, 4 300 of which were by Afghan nationals. The geographical origin of applicants diversified in 2002 (over 1 000 applications from nationals of China, India, Afghanistan, Iraq and Bangladesh). One of the striking points about 2003 was the four-fold increase in applications from Russian nationals.

In many cases applicants are not openly refused entry but have their files "closed for administrative reasons" (this was the case for over 1 000 applicants in 1999, 1 370 in 2000 and 2 450 in 2002). Moreover, the number of applications waiting to be processed continues to rise and in 2002 stood at 4 500.

Family reunification

Most permanent residence permits are issued under the family reunification procedure. In 2001, 770 such permits were issued on these grounds (*i.e.* 87%). 2002 saw the number of permanent residence permits issued decline to 240, of which over 90% were granted on the grounds of family reunification (*i.e.* 221 persons).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Since 2001, the Slovak Republic has had a negative natural increase balance offset by a very slightly positive balance in migration flows. The foreign population accounts for only 0.5% of the total population (which stood at 5 380 000 in 2002). Since 1999, the foreign resident population has remained more or less stable and reached 29 200 persons in 2003. Of this total, 12 100 were residents holding a long-term residence permit and 17 290 were permanent residents. Over 40% of the foreign population consists of nationals of the countries bordering on the Slovak Republic (the Czech Republic, the Ukraine, Poland), followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia. Western countries are also represented, in particular the United States, Austria, the United Kingdom, Italy and Greece.

The Slovak population also includes a large ethnic component that is often poorly reported in the various sources available (censuses in particular). The largest ethnic minority is Hungarian (9.7% of the population in 2001). These foreigners are mostly concentrated in the southern and eastern parts of the country, close to the borders with

Hungary and the Ukraine. The two largest ethnic groups after Hungarians are Romanians (1.7%)* and Czechs (0.8%).

Naturalisations

Some 1 080 foreigners acquired Slovak nationality in 1999, over 4 200 in 2000 and approximately 1 760 in the first ten months of 2001. The three highest ranking countries in terms of the number of their nationals to have acquired Slovak nationality are the Czech Republic, the Ukraine and the United States. As noted in previous issues of *Trends in International Migration*, the adoption of new legislation has made it possible to issue residence permits, which can ultimately lead to the acquisition of nationality, to Slovaks abroad (that is to say foreign nationals of Slovak descent). During the first ten months of 2001, around 3 000 foreign residents obtained a residence permit under this procedure.

2. Policy developments

Implementation of new legislation on foreign residency

The new Act on foreign residence entered into force in April 2002. The main purpose of this revision was to bring Slovak law into conformity with European regulations and international agreements in relation to family reunification, mobility and the residence of foreigners. Rules on the detention of foreigners and their deportation to the country through which they transited have been introduced. The sanctions available to punish persons involved in the illegal transport of foreigners ("people smuggling") have been redrafted.

Three different categories of resident status have been defined: permanent, temporary and "tolerated" residence, with a different set of procedures from those laid down in the previous legislation. In particular, the maximum period of validity for an initial temporary permit is now one year. If at the end of this period, the migrant fails to meet the requirements for the grant of a permanent permit, his stay may be extended by three years. "Tolerated" residence is granted for a period of 180 days to persons who cannot be expelled, who have applied for temporary asylum or who cannot leave the country immediately.

Special provisions have been made for the entry and residence of EU nationals, who are allowed to reside in the country for one year (renewable) for work-related reasons and who qualify under the family reunification procedure.

* According to some estimates, however, residents of Romanian descent may amount to up 6.5% of the total population

Spain

Introduction

Spain did not escape the effects of the slowdown in the international economy since 2000, but has managed to weather them better than many other countries. Growth in output rose to 2% in 2002, accelerated in the second half of 2003 and should continue to strengthen in response to strong domestic demand (the forecast growth rates for 2003 and 2004 are 2.4% and 2.9% respectively). Although this growth has been driven by large-scale job creation, for the first time since 1994 the Spanish economy has experienced an increase in the rate of unemployment (11.5% at the end of 2002). This increase would seem to have been due not only to the sensitivity of the working population to the economic climate, but also to significant immigration which has continued to grow since the late 1990s.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

A recent phenomenon, immigration has grown substantially over the past few years. The number of foreigners newly registered in local census lists (*Padrón municipal de habitants*) increased almost eight-fold between 1998 and 2002 and stood at 443 085 for the year 2002 (see Table III.28). These figures should nonetheless be treated with caution in that there may be some multiple entries. While most of the registrations in 2000 and 2001 can be attributed to the regularisation of illegal immigrants, the increase observed in 2002 is due to immigration of family members, particularly those of illegal immigrants granted resident status in the previous two years.

Flows in 2002 were also characterised by an increased inflow of Europeans (primarily from Eastern Europe and more specifically Romania, the Ukraine, Bulgaria and Lithuania) and, to a lesser extent, immigrants from Latin America (Ecuador, Uruguay, Venezuela, Argentina, Bolivia). The number of Latin Americans entering Spain annually still continues to exceed that of other groups with 216 000 in 2002 compared to 160 000 Europeans and 56 000 Africans. In fact, the volume of inflows from Africa, as well as Asia, currently remains stagnant.

Lastly, while there was strong growth in the number of foreign students in 2001, their numbers fell sharply, by around 19.2%, in 2002. Only 23 774 residence permits were issued to foreign students in 2002, compared to 29 410 in 2001.

Illegal migration

As the four regularisation programmes conducted since 1990 have shown, a large number of immigrants enter Spain and live there illegally. Some cross the straits of

Table III.28. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Spain**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Net migration of Spanish citizens				
By continent of origin/destination				
Europe	19.6	20.0	20.1	. .
America	12.3	20.9	24.5	. .
Africa	1.3	1.5	1.2	. .
Asia	1.0	0.9	0.9	. .
Oceania	0.4	0.4	0.3	. .
Total	**34.6**	**43.7**	**47.0**	. .
Inflows of foreigners[1]				
By continent or region of origin				
Europe	39.9	84.9	113.1	160.0
EU	32.1	40.5	50.1	66.0
Europe non-EU	7.8	44.5	63.0	93.9
America	34.7	179.6	212.1	215.6
North America	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.3
Latin America	33.6	178.1	210.2	213.3
Africa	20.3	54.6	56.2	55.7
Asia	4.0	11.5	12.4	11.6
Oceania	0.09	0.20	0.21	0.19
Total	**99.1**	**330.9**	**394.0**	**443.1**
Stock of foreign residents[2]	**801.3**	**895.7**	**1 109.1**	**1 324.0**
By region of origin				
Europe	361.9	361.4	412.5	470.4
Africa	211.6	261.4	304.1	366.5
America	159.8	200.0	298.8	380.3
Asia	66.5	71.0	91.6	104.7
Oceania	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0
Stateless	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.0
By region of residence				
Cataluna	183.7	215.0	280.2	328.5
Madrid	158.9	163.0	231.3	272.7
Andalucia	109.1	132.4	157.2	163.9
C.Valenciana	80.6	87.0	101.4	138.4
Canarias	68.3	77.6	87.5	92.1
Others	200.6	220.7	251.6	328.3
Total	**801.3**	**895.7**	**1 109.1**	**1 324.0**
Acquisition of Spanish nationality[3]	**16.4**	**12.0**	**16.7**	**21.8**

1. Foreigners registered to the local register (Padron municipal de habitantes) – Estadistica de variaciones residenciales (EVR).
2. Stock of foreigners who hold a residence permit on 31 December of the given year. Permits of short duration (less than 6 months) as well as students are excluded. Data include permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme but only 25 500 out of 164 000 persons regularised under the 2000 programme.
3. Excluding persons recovering their Spanish nationality.

Source: General Directorate on Migration; Ministry of Labour and Social Security; Ministry of Justice.

Gilbraltar in flimsy vessels (*pateras*) to land in Andalusia or the Canary Islands, and shipwrecks are by no means unusual. It nonetheless needs to be said that most immigrants enter into Spain legally on a visa or a residence permit, although there are many who remain in Spain once their residence permit has expired. It is difficult to put a precise figure on the number of immigrants involved. One indication may lie in the difference

between the number of immigrants registered in local census lists (1 977 946 as of 1 January 2002) and the number of foreign residents holding a valid residence permit (1 109 000). In other words, there would seem to have been over 850 000 foreigners (including EU nationals who failed to apply for resident status) residing illegally in Spain in 2002. Even though this indicator should be treated with caution, the increase (a difference of over one million in 2003 between the number of foreigners registered in census lists and the number of residence permits issued) confirms the growth in illegal migration, undoubtedly driven by the current buoyant growth in the Spanish economy.

Over half of these illegal immigrants (51%) came from Latin America, a third from European countries and 14% from Africa. The majority came from Ecuador, Colombia, Morocco, and to a lesser extent Germany, the United Kingdom, Romania and Argentina. The areas with the highest concentrations of illegal immigrants would seem to be the autonomous communities of Madrid, Valencia and Catalonia.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers fell from 6 300 in 2002 to 5 770 in 2003. However, applications from nationals of Nigeria, Algeria, Liberia and Iraq rose in 2003. The number of applicants from Sierra Leone, Cuba, Armenia and Romania fell dramatically to around, or fewer than, 100 persons for each of these nationalities.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

According to residence permit statistics, over 1 650 000 foreigners were legally resident in Spain in December 2000, around 4.7% of the total population. The foreign population has therefore grown at an annual rate of 24.4%, the largest annual increase since 1992.

The last two regularisation programmes (2000 and 2001), together with bilateral agreements, helped to bring about a far-reaching change in the socio-demographic breakdown of the foreign population. The rate of growth in the number of non-EU foreigners was well over 20% in 2002, whereas growth in the number of EU foreigners fell slightly. The Latin American population increased its share of the foreign population and the proportion of EU residents declined. Likewise, the share of African or Asian residents in the overall foreign population remained level or fell. Nonetheless, Europe still remains the main region of origin, followed by Latin America and Africa. In December 2002, the main nationalities were Moroccan (282 432), Ecuadorian (115 000), British (90 091), Colombian (71 238) and German (65 823).

At the same time, the proportion of males in the foreign population has risen sharply. The regularisation programmes would appear to have been partly responsible for this trend by increasing the proportion of men in the foreign population by three percentage points, raising it to 55.2% by the end of 2002. Furthermore, over half of all legal immigrants (53.6% at the end of 2002) were between 25 and 44 years of age and the proportion of foreigners under 15 or over 65 years of age is tending to fall. Lastly, foreign residents would appear to be largely concentrated in Madrid, Barcelona, the Mediterranean coast, the Balearics and the Canary Islands.

Naturalisations

Around 22 000 people acquired Spanish nationality in 2002, that is to say an increase of 5 000 over the previous year (see Table III.28). The rate of naturalisation therefore

amounted to 2% in 2002 compared with 1.9% in 2001. Over two thirds of naturalisations were of Latin American nationals, notably from Peru, the Dominican Republic, Colombia, Ecuador and Argentina. Twenty per cent of those who acquired Spanish nationality were African, mostly Moroccans, and 9% were Asian, primarily Filipinos. The predominance of Central and Latin American nationals is probably due to the fact that they are subject to less strict requirements for naturalisation (two years of continuous legal residence as opposed to five for refugees and ten for other foreigners).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Following the disappointing results of the introduction of a quota system (only 13 600 jobs, of which 3 100 were available under "stable" work permits, were filled out of the 32 000 job vacancies approved in December 2001), the government made a number of amendments to the relevant legislation in January 2003: *i)* firms wishing to employ more than five foreign workers are also entitled to publish job vacancies themselves; *ii)* employers can now rehire a worker who had temporarily returned to his home country, but the latter cannot be hired by another employer; *iii)* the government can reassign unfilled job vacancies to the provinces where demand is highest; *iv)* the administrative procedures have been streamlined; *v)* the unions now have a role to play in quota assignment. A preliminary quota of 13 700 temporary job vacancies and 10 600 "stable" job vacancies has been set for 2003. Nonetheless, it is still difficult to assess the impact of these changes on Spanish immigration.

International agreements

To stem illegal immigration across the Straits of Gilbraltar, Spain is vigorously encouraging the Moroccan government to step up controls along its borders. The recent proposal by the European Commission to invest 40 million euros in the organisation of joint patrols by the EU and Morocco is a move in this direction. Policing work is apparently starting to bear fruit in the Straits, but in response to this action some of the flows appear to have been diverted to the Canaries.

A bilateral agreement on labour was signed with Morocco in 2002. The aim of this agreement is to prevent illegal immigration and the economic exploitation of undocumented foreigners residing in Spain. It contains a general description of the selection procedure for foreign workers and provides for guaranteed rights and working conditions, special measures for temporary workers and aid programmes for voluntary repatriation.

Lastly, the government is stepping up the deportation of undocumented foreigners residing in Spain.* Repatriation agreements have been negotiated with Ghana, Algeria, Guinea-Bissau, Morocco, Nigeria and a number of other countries.

* Under its 2003 Finance Law, the Spanish government has proposed a budget of 8 million euros for deportations, that is to say almost three times as much as in 2002.

Sweden

Introduction

After an increase in the Swedish growth rate in 2002 to 2.1%, growth slowed to 1.6% in 2003 but is expected to increase to 2.3% in 2004 and 2.6% in 2005. The unemployment rate, which averaged 4.9% in 2001 and 2002, increased to 5.6% in 2003 and 6.3% in the first quarter of 2004. Nevertheless, the unemployment rate in Sweden has remained below the OECD average (as well as the EU 15 average).

With regard to international migration, immigration flows continued to grow for almost all categories of entry in 2002. In addition, at the end of 2002, there were approximately 474 100 foreigners residing in Sweden, comprising 5.3% of the total population.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The inflows of foreign nationals who intend to remain in Sweden for more than a year (not including asylum seekers with applications pending, or temporary workers) have been increasing since 1999 and reached 47 600 in 2002 (up 8% on 2001 and 38% on 1999) (see Table III.29). As in previous years, nationals of Nordic countries comprised one-fifth of the total. Iraq and the former Yugoslavia were traditionally two major non-Nordic source countries and they accounted for 16% and 4% of the total inflows in 2002, an increase in the case of Iraq (of 14%) and a decrease in the case of the former Yugoslavia (of 13%) compared to 2001. In general, net migration of foreigners was positive and reached 33 400 in 2002.

The number of residence permits granted to nationals of non-Nordic countries increased sharply in 2000 (by 21%) and since then their number has been fluctuating at around 45 000 a year (see Table III.29). In 2002, 44 700 residence permits were issued. Half of them were granted on family reunion grounds (of which approximately 4 600 went to family members accompanying refugees), one-fourth on humanitarian grounds and a similar proportion under the EEA freedom of movement agreements. In addition, the number of foreign students in Sweden has been continuously increasing in recent years, from 1 500 in 1996 to 4 600 in 2002.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Approximately 33 000 asylum seekers arrived in Sweden in 2002, an increase of 40% over the previous year's figure (see Table III.29). As in the previous year, the former Yugoslavia (26%) and Iraq (16%) were the two major source countries. The number of applicants from the former Yugoslavia increased by 30% (mainly because of the growth in the number of applicants from Serbia and Montenegro) while the number of applicants from Iraq decreased by 13% compared to 2001. In addition, the number of

Table III.29. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Sweden**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total population[1]	**8 861.4**	**8 882.8**	**8 909.1**	**8 940.8**
% of foreign population	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.3
Stock of foreign population[1]	**487.2**	**477.3**	**476.0**	**474.1**
Nordic countries	159.0	160.2	161.5	163.3
Finland	99.0	98.6	97.5	96.3
Norway	30.9	32.0	33.3	34.7
Denmark	25.0	25.6	26.6	28.1
Other countries	328.2	317.1	314.5	310.8
of which:				
Iraq	30.2	33.1	36.2	40.1
Serbia and Montenegro	22.7	20.2	20.7	20.1
Germany	15.5	16.4	17.3	18.1
Inflows of foreigners by nationality				
or region of origin[2]	**34.6**	**42.6**	**44.1**	**47.6**
Nordic countries	7.0	8.8	9.4	10.4
Finland	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.3
Norway	2.0	2.9	3.0	3.5
Denmark	1.3	3.6	3.4	3.2
Other countries	27.6	33.8	34.7	37.2
of which:				
Iraq	5.5	6.6	6.5	7.4
United Kingdom	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4
Net migration of foreigners				
by nationality[2]	**21.0**	**30.0**	**31.4**	**33.4**
Nordic countries	1.4	3.1	3.4	4.3
Finland	0.7	0.9	0.4	0.5
Norway	0.5	1.3	1.5	1.8
Denmark	0.3	0.9	1.4	1.9
Other countries	19.6	26.9	28.0	29.1
of which:				
Iraq	5.4	6.5	6.4	7.2

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Number of residence permits				
by category of admission[3]	**37.4**	**45.2**	**44.5**	**44.7**
Family reunification	21.7	22.8	24.5	22.2
Refugees	5.6	10.5	7.9	8.5
EEA-agreement	6.1	7.4	6.9	8.0
Foreign students	2.8	3.1	4.0	4.6
Adopted children	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9
Employment	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Asylum seekers	**11.2**	**16.3**	**23.5**	**33.0**
of which:				
Serbia and Montenegro	1.8	2.1	3.1	5.9
Iraq	3.6	3.5	6.2	5.4
Persons with foreign background[4]	**1 777.8**	**1 821.1**	**1 865.5**	**1 912.0**
Foreign-born	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5
Swedish citizens	581.5	609.2	631.1	654.0
Foreigners	400.1	394.6	396.9	399.5
Born in Sweden[5]	796.2	817.3	837.5	858.5
Swedish citizens	716.9	734.6	758.4	789.8
Foreigners	79.3	82.7	79.1	68.7
Stock of foreign labour[6]	**222.0**	**222.0**	**227.0**	**218.0**
Nordic nationals	86.0	80.0	83.0	84.0
Non-nordic nationals	136.0	142.0	144.0	134.0
Acquisition of nationality				
by country of former nationality	**37.8**	**43.5**	**36.4**	**37.8**
Iraq	2.3	4.2	4.0	4.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	11.3	12.6	4.2	4.1
Serbia and Montenegro	4.0	5.1	1.6	2.7
Other countries	20.1	21.6	26.5	26.8
Mixed marriages	**7.0**	**7.8**	**7.8**	**. .**
% of total marriages	18.1	18.0	20.0	. .

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.
6. Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.

Sources: Swedish Immigration Board ; Statistics Sweden.

asylum seekers from Romania, the Russian Federation, Somalia and Turkey has been continuously increasing since 2000. Recent data indicate that there were about 31 360 asylum applications in 2003.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

As at 31 December 2002, 474 100 foreign nationals lived in Sweden, of whom 50.5% were women. Nationals of Nordic countries comprised one-third of the total (see Table III.29), followed by Iraqis (8%), nationals of Serbia and Montenegro (4%) and Germany (3%).

The foreign-born population has been steadily increasing and stood at 1 053 500 in 2002, 11.8% of the total population, a slight increase over 2001 (11.5%) (see Table III.29). Swedish nationals constituted over 60% of the foreign-born population in 2002. In the same year, an additional 858 500 persons were born in Sweden who had at least one parent born abroad. As in the previous year, persons with a foreign background (born abroad and born in Sweden) comprised approximately one-fifth (1 912 000) of the total population of Sweden.

According to the Labour Force Survey data, in 2002 the stock of foreign workers in Sweden was 218 000 (down 4% on 2001), (see Table III.29) of whom 47.2% were women. Workers from non-Nordic countries accounted for approximately 60% of the total and their number decreased by 7% over 2001. Of these, workers from the former Yugoslavia predominated. In addition, women accounted for 53.6% of all foreign workers from the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland and Norway).

Naturalisations

Approximately 37 800 foreigners became Swedish nationals in 2002, an increase of 4% over 2001 (see Table III.29). Nationals of the former Yugoslavia comprised around one-fourth of the total (one-fifth in 2001) whereas Iraqis, Polish and Turkish nationals accounted for 11%, 7% and 6% respectively, with Poland displaying an increase and Turkey a decrease over 2001 (of 37% and 24% respectively). In addition, both Iranians and Somalis accounted for approximately 5% of the total number of naturalisations in 2002. Their number decreased by 14% and 36% respectively, compared to 2001.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Labour migration has been somewhat eased for specialists working for international corporations from 2002 and the government is to investigate increasing the possibilities for labour immigration from outside the EU/EEA. A government committee has also recommended that family reunion residence permits be granted to close relatives of migrants even if they are not core family members, provided that the relative residing in Sweden accepts financial responsibility for two years. Proposals have also been made for a better planned settlement period for asylum seekers who are granted residence permits. The government proposes to legislate to improve the enforcement of decisions to expel and return aliens in cases of uncertain identity. It is also considering imposing fines on carriers which do not fulfil the obligation of checking that a foreigner has a passport and the necessary permits for entry to Sweden.

Enhancing the integration of migrants into Swedish society and into the labour market remains a government priority as does promoting a multicultural society. The measures described in last year's edition of *Trends in International Migration* are still being implemented. New initiatives have also been introduced. These include, from 2003, vocational training of skilled migrants who work in jobs for which they are overqualified, in fields where there are labour shortages. Procedures for validating foreign qualifications and assessing the equivalent Swedish ones will be strengthened. Newly arrived migrants will be more actively assisted into work for which they are qualified.

Special teams at employment offices will assist migrants who need extra help. New and flexible Swedish language training has started, which enables participants to combine

this with work and practical training. The government promotes ethnic and cultural diversity amongst its employees. In 2002, 70% of the 249 state agencies reported that they have taken active action to promote ethnic and cultural diversity and 40% have worked out action plans. Despite this positive development, the proportion of the foreign born population is still very low among state employees. In 2000 only 7% were foreign born.

On 1 July 2003, a new law prohibiting discrimination entered into force. The law strengthens protection against discrimination with respect to labour market activities, starting and running business operations, carrying on a trade or profession and commercial provision of goods, services or housing. Two investigations are underway into institutional discrimination because of ethnic and religious affiliation.

Asylum and rights of refugees

New legislation came into force in 2003 implementing the EU Directive on dealing with mass influxes of displaced persons. It establishes minimum standards for granting immediate temporary protection to such persons and guaranteeing them a reasonable level of rights. Proposals for improved measures to combat people smuggling, especially in connection with sex slavery, are under consideration.

International agreements

A special agreement between the EU member States and Switzerland took effect on 1 June 2002. It enables the rules allowing citizens of EEA states to have access to the labour markets of EU member States to apply in principle to citizens of Switzerland. In 2003, 9 234 people were granted residence permits in accordance with this arrangement.

Switzerland

Introduction

Although the unemployment rate doubled, rising from 1.9% in 2001 to 3.7% in 2002, the recovery spread to all sectors of the economy during the final quarter of 2003. The OECD forecasts growth of 1.8% in 2004 and 2.3% in 2005.

In 2002, immigration remained stable and emigration declined compared with the previous year. The resident foreign population amounted to 1 447 312, *i.e.* 19.9% of the total population. The agreement between Switzerland and the European Union on the free movement of persons entered into force on 1 June 2002, putting an end to seasonal permits.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

Net migration for foreigners was slightly up on the previous year's level, rising from 46 800 to 49 300 in 2002 (see Table III.30). This trend was mainly due to declining emigration flows, which fell from 52 713 in 2001 to 49 697 in 2002. The number of new immigrants amounted to almost 99 000 in 2002, and there were also 4 231 changes in status. Around 670 of these changes were related to the conversion of seasonal permits, while the remainder mainly concerned nationals of European Union (EU15) and European Free Trade Association (EFTA) member states.

German nationals accounted for a large share of new immigrants in 2002, amounting to some 15 000 or around 15% of new entries. Portuguese nationals were the second largest group with around 9 200 new immigrants, followed by nationals of Serbia and Montenegro who accounted for almost 8% of new entries. The share of foreigners from third countries fell. Almost half of the foreigners who entered Switzerland in 2002 came from EU15 or EFTA member states. In 2002, 42.4% of first-time immigrants were granted a one-year residence or establishment permit under the family reunification procedure (30% in 2001).

Approximately 149 500 foreign nationals arrived in Switzerland for a stay of less than 12 months in 2002. According to the central foreigners register, 94% were paid employees working mainly in the service sector, notably in the catering and hotel industries. The majority of these temporary workers were nationals of EU15 or EFTA member States (85%).

As of 30 June 2002, there were 598 000 Swiss nationals registered with Swiss diplomatic and consular services abroad, an increase of around 7 300 on the previous year. Approximately 60% of Swiss nationals living abroad reside in an EU15 member state, particularly France (158 215) and Germany (68 731). The largest Swiss communities outside Europe are to be found in the United States, Canada and Australia.

Table III.30. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Switzerland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Population on 31 December				
of the years indicated	**7 164.4**	**7 204.1**	**7 261.2**	**7 317.9**
% of foreigners	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9
Components of foreign population				
change	**20.8**	**15.7**	**34.7**	**28.2**
Net migration[1]	27.7	31.7	48.6	50.6
Natural increase	13.4	12.7	13.7	14.0
Acquisitions of Swiss nationality	–20.4	–28.7	–27.6	–36.5
Other	–	–	–	–
Migration flows of foreigners				
Inflows by main nationality[2]	**83.4**	**85.6**	**99.5**	**99.0**
Germany	10.9	12.4	14.4	15.0
Portugal	3.5	3.6	4.8	9.2
Serbia and Montenegro	8.3	6.7	7.4	7.6
France	6.1	6.5	6.5	6.6
Italy	5.8	5.2	5.5	6.0
Other countries	48.8	51.1	60.9	52.6
Outflows by main nationality	**58.1**	**55.8**	**52.7**	**49.7**
Turkey	1.5	1.3	1.1	7.7
Germany	5.9	5.9	6.5	6.7
Italy	8.7	8.0	6.8	6.0
Portugal	8.0	6.8	5.6	4.9
France	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.0
Other countries	30.4	30.0	28.7	20.4
Net migration by main nationality	**25.3**	**29.8**	**46.8**	**49.3**
Germany	5.0	6.5	7.9	8.3
Serbia and Montenegro	6.1	3.9	5.3	6.1
Portugal	–4.5	–3.1	–0.8	4.3
France	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.6
Italy	–2.9	–2.7	–1.3	–
Other countries	19.2	22.6	33.2	28.0
Asylum seekers	**46.1**	**17.6**	**20.6**	**26.1**
Acquisition of nationality	**20.4**	**28.7**	**27.6**	**36.5**
by country of former nationality				
Italy	5.5	6.7	5.4	6.6
Former Yugoslavia	2.4	3.3	3.7	5.8
Turkey	2.3	3.1	3.1	4.1
France	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.4
Other countries	9.4	14.3	14.1	18.6

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Foreign population				
by main nationality[3]	**1 368.7**	**1 384.4**	**1 419.1**	**1 447.3**
Italy	327.7	319.6	314.0	308.3
Serbia and Montenegro	189.4	190.7	194.7	198.1
Portugal	135.0	134.7	135.5	141.1
Germany	102.7	108.8	116.6	125.0
Spain	86.8	83.4	81.0	78.9
Turkey	79.9	79.5	79.5	78.8
Other countries	447.2	467.6	497.7	517.1
Foreign workers	**856.0**	**885.8**	**921.6**	**1 031.0**
of which: Women	316.4	329.7	344.5	405.0
Workers by status of residence				
(as a % of total)				
Resident workers	81.9	81.0	80.2	78.0
Cross-border workers	16.9	17.6	18.2	16.7
Seasonal workers	1.2	1.4	1.6	. .
Foreign resident workers				
by main nationality[1, 4]	**701.2**	**717.3**	**738.8 |**	**830.0**
Italy	179.3	175.4	172.3	. .
Former Yugoslavia	80.4	82.8	85.7	. .
Portugal	76.5	80.0	77.9	. .
Germany	61.3	65.4	70.9	. .
Spain	51.7	50.1	48.8	. .
Others	252.0	263.6	283.2	. .
Foreign resident workers				
by major industry division				
Extractive and manufacturing				
industries	278.9	281.8	286.1	. .
Trade	90.7	94.6	97.3	. .
Hotels, restaurants	82.2	81.9	83.8	. .
Building	72.5	71.9	72.0	. .
Agriculture	13.5	12.9	12.3	. .
Other services	163.4	174.3	187.3	. .
Cross-border workers by nationality				
(% of the total)	**144.8**	**156.0**	**168.1**	**173.2**
France	51.0	50.7	50.6	50.8
Italy	22.0	22.6	22.6	22.8
Germany	21.0	20.8	21.0	20.7
Others	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.7

1. Data cover only foreigners with annual or settlement permits and include conversions of seasonal work permits into annual or settlement permits. This kind of conversion has been abolished in 1st June 2002.
2. Data include only foreigners who obtained an annual or settlement permit during the indicated year (excluding foreigners who obtained the conversion of their seasonal permits into an annual or settlement permit).
3. Stocks of foreigners with annual or settlement permits. From 2002 on, data also include foreigners with a short term duration permit (less than 12 months), "permis courte durée".
4. Data for 2002 are issued from the Swiss Labour Force Survey.

Source: Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration (IMES); Office fédéral des statistiques (OFS); Enquête sur la population active 2002 (ESPA).

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Illegal migration

Some 8 700 foreigners were refused entry to Switzerland in 2002, including 1 690 illegal workers. The illegal workers identified were mostly employed in the banking, insurance and real estate sectors, followed by the hotel, agriculture and building sectors.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, the number of asylum seekers increased by almost 27% compared with the previous year and 26 125 applications were received. Over 14% of asylum applications were from nationals of Serbia and Montenegro, 7.4% from Turkish nationals, 6% from Bosnian nationals and 4.5% from Iraqi nationals. Nigeria appeared as a new country of origin with 1 062 asylum applications in 2002.

Of the 25 185 applications processed in 2002, 1 729 were approved, an approval rate of around 8% and down by over a percentage point on the previous year. This rate varied significantly from one country of origin to another, ranging from 4.9% for Serbia and Montenegro to 33.9% for Iraq.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2002, the foreign population rose by 2% to 1 447 312. Foreign residents in Switzerland in 2002 accounted for almost 20% of the total population (see Table III.30). Over the past few decades, the breakdown of the foreign population in Switzerland by nationality has radically changed.

In 2002, 36.5% of foreign residents came from the neighbouring countries of Italy, Germany, France, Austria and Liechtenstein and only 11.9% were from non-European countries. EU15 and EFTA nationals account for just over 56% of the foreign population in Switzerland. Italians alone account for 21% of foreigners, although their numbers have been steadily declining (–44% since 1974). The second largest foreign community is from Serbia and Montenegro and accounts for 13.7% of the resident foreign population. The Portuguese community ranked third with 141 085 nationals in 2002, *i.e.* 4.1% more than in 2001. Among non-European countries, there has been remarkable growth in the number of Sri Lankan nationals which has risen from 786 in 1989 to almost 29 300 in 2002.

Naturalisations

There were 36 500 naturalisations in 2002, a sharp increase on 2001 (+32%). This trend is attributable to a sharp increase in the number of applications compared with previous years as a result of the introduction of simplified procedures and a reduction in the number of applications pending. The rate of naturalisation nonetheless remains low in that only 2.5% of the foreigners permanently resident in Switzerland applied for and obtained Swiss nationality.

Most naturalisations are through the so-called “ordinary” procedure (approximately 75% of naturalisations) which requires the applicant to have resided in Switzerland for at least twelve years, with years of residence counting double for young people aged 10 to 20 years. Almost a quarter of naturalisations are through the “facilitated” procedure. A breakdown of naturalisations by country of origin show that around 77% of applicants in 2002 came from a European country, 18% from Italy, 16% from Serbia and Montenegro and 11% from Turkey.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The entry into force on 1 June 2002 of the agreement on the free movement of persons, has made the hiring of workers from EU15 and EFTA member states far easier. The first two-year transitional phase ended on 31 May 2004. The labour market test and wage conditions were abandoned for all foreigners other than those from third countries, although quotas will nonetheless remain in place until May 2007 for access to the labour market for EU15 and EFTA nationals. With regard to new EU member states, Switzerland will apply a transitional period until 2011 similar to that in force in EU15 member states. A special quota may be introduced from 2005 onwards. Swiss nationals have had free access to the EU15 labour market since 1 June 2004.

In March 2002, the Federal Council adopted a draft revision of the 1931 Act on the residence and establishment of foreigners under which a new legislative framework will be created for immigration from third countries. Several measures relating to the social integration of immigrants have also been included in this proposed revision, which is still being discussed in Parliament.

Citizenship law

A proposed reform of the legislation on the acquisition of Swiss nationality was drafted, with a view to facilitating the acquisition of Swiss nationality by second-generation young people under certain conditions and at birth by children of third-generation residents. A popular vote on the two proposals took place on 26 September 2004 and they were rejected.

International agreements

At the Switzerland-European Union summit in May 2004, the two parties agreed that Switzerland would accede to the Dublin and Schengen agreements in 2005.

On 25 July 2005, an agreement on the exchange of trainees between Switzerland and the Philippines entered into force. Fifty young professionals from both countries can obtain a residence and work permit for the other country for a maximum period of 18 months. In addition, a protocol agreement signed between Switzerland and Canada on 1 June 2003 has relaxed the criteria for access to the labour market for Canadian nationals in Switzerland and Swiss nationals in Canada.

Turkey

Introduction

During 2002/03 five major developments were background for Turkey's international migration regime. These were: economic recovery (GDP grew by 7.9% in 2002 and 5.8% in 2003); a new government; the ongoing EU accession debate; the Iraq crisis (although the anticipated mass inflow of asylum seekers did not occur); and growing concern about irregular migration in Turkey. However, despite the economic recovery, the unemployment rate slightly increased to 10.5% in 2003, from 10.1% the year before.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Immigration has been increasing over recent years. Besides the traditional migration of ethnic Turks, which is also often a form of asylum seeking, four main types of foreign inflows have developed over the past decade. These comprise asylum seekers and refugees, transit migration flows, illegal labour migration and the legal migration of foreigners. The first three types of inflows often overlap. It is estimated that in 2002, just under 240 000 migrants arrived in Turkey (a 5.5% decline on the figure estimated for 2001 of 254 000). Two thirds of those arriving were legal migrants but about a third were irregular and/or transit migrants. Less than 2% were asylum seekers. Of the 157 670 residence permits granted by the Turkish authorities in 2002, 14% were for students and 14% were based on employment, whilst the vast majority of the rest were given to foreign ethnic Turks coming to join relatives or friends in Turkey. The top source countries were Bulgaria (59 000), Azerbaijan (10 000), Greece (7 000), Iran (7 000) and the Russian Federation (6 000).

Several categories of emigration flows exist. One of the main categories is family-related emigration, though recently the numbers have been in decline, from around 90 000 in 1996 to under 50 000 in 2002 (estimated figures). Another major category is that of asylum seekers. UNHCR statistics show that Turkish nationals making claims in Europe rose from 17 000 in 1999 to 30 000 in 2001, but fell to 28 000 in 2002. And there is also a category of emigrants from Turkey who enter other countries illegally or overstay their right to be there, although their numbers are hard to estimate.

Project-tied labour emigration is another significant part of Turkish emigration. The numbers have been rising in the last few years from 13 600 in 2000, to almost 27 000 in 2002, an increase of 33% over the previous year (see Table III.31). These migrants are principally working for Turkish or foreign contractors in the Commonwealth of Independent States and in Arab countries. In 2002, Russia was the main destination country (38%), followed by Saudi Arabia (24%) and Germany (12%). The movement to Europe is almost entirely to Germany, based on a 1991 bilateral agreement.

Table III.31. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Turkey**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Residence permits issued by category	. .	**168.1**	**161.2**	**157.6**
Work	. .	24.2	22.4	22.5
Study	. .	24.6	23.9	21.5
Other	. .	119.3	114.8	113.5
Asylum applications by nationality	**6.6**	**5.8**	**5.2**	**3.8**
Iran	3.8	3.9	3.5	2.5
Iraq	2.5	1.7	1.0	0.9
Other countries	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.4
Asylum applications of Turkish nationals				
in European countries[1]	**16.7**	**28.2**	**30.1**	**28.4**
Undocumented migrants by nationality				
Iraq	11.5	17.3	18.8	20.9
Moldova	3.1	8.3	11.4	9.6
Pakistan	2.7	5.0	4.8	4.8
Afghanistan	3.0	8.5	9.7	4.2
Iran	5.3	6.8	3.5	2.5
Other countries	21.9	48.6	44.2	40.8
Total	**47.5**	**94.5**	**92.4**	**82.8**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Number of workers sent abroad				
by the Turkish Employment Office				
by host country				
CIS	7.1	7.1	8.0	14.2
Middle East (except Israel) and Maghreb	5.9	2.5	5.2	8.0
Israel	1.5	1.3	3.9	0.3
European Union Countries	2.4	2.3	2.7	3.9
Other European Countries	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.1
Australia, Canada, United States	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2
Other	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.2
Total	**17.5**	**13.6**	**20.2**	**26.9**
Stock of Turkish nationals abroad				
by host countries				
Europe	. .	3 191	3 125	3 086
of which: EU	. .	3 086	3 015	2 987
of which: Germany	. .	2 110	1 999	1 999
United States	. .	130	220	220
Australia	. .	51	54	54
CIS	. .	52	42	36
Canada	. .	35	40	40
Other countries	. .	144	138	153
Total	. .	**3 603**	**3 619**	**3 574**

1. EU-15, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Liechtenstein, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Switzerland.

Sources: UNHCR (2001); Annual Reports of the General Directorate of Services for the Workers Abroad, attached to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security BFBA (2001a).

A relatively new source of emigration is that by highly-skilled Turkish workers, especially in computing, finance and management. Estimates suggest such migrants number around 2 000-3 000, the principal destinations being Australia, Canada, the USA and some European countries.

Overall, the total number of expatriate Turks is put at 3.6 million (with nearly 3 million in the EU15), or 5.4% of Turkey's total population. There is some evidence that the recent trend has been slightly downward as Turks have naturalised in their adopted countries or returned home.

Illegal migration

Unsupported estimates have indicated the presence of around one million illegal foreign workers in Turkey, although more cautious estimates put the figure at 150-200 000. Domestic work and the entertainment sector are the largest employers of illegal female workers, construction and agriculture for males.

There is some evidence that flows of irregular workers may be falling, as there were 95 000 apprehensions in 2000 but only 83 000 in 2002 (see Table III.31). Of these, 57% were caught entering or leaving illegally and the rest were overstayers. Iraqis (25%) were the principal group, followed by Moldovans (12%), Pakistanis (6%) and Afghans (5%). Those from Bulgaria, Georgia, the Ukraine and Romania each accounted for about 4%. Despite the decline in numbers, the regional composition has remained similar over the past few years

with just under one third of illegal migrants originating from Eastern Europe and Russia and one third from Afghanistan, Iran and Iraq. The decline in apprehensions is indicative of both fewer irregular migrants and the deterrent effect of improved methods of border control by the Turkish authorities.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Turkey has received 5 000-6 000 applications annually between 1998 and 2001. In 2002, there was a sharp decline in numbers to 3 800 (see Table III.31). There have been some shifts in source countries, with fewer coming in 2002 than in 2001 from Afghanistan (47 and 318 respectively) and Iran (2 505 and 3 500 respectively). Numbers from Iraq fell between 2000 and 2001 but have remained stable since (970 in 2002). The Turkish authorities and the UNHCR process all the asylum applications. Turkey will only accept claims from persons from Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union.

Evolution of stocks of the foreign-born

The results of the 2000 Census became available in 2002. There were approximately 1 279 000 foreign-born in Turkey, by far the largest groups being the Bulgarian-born (481 000) followed by those born in Germany (274 000). Women comprised nearly 52% of the total foreign-born population. The foreign-born therefore comprised 1.9% of the total population of 67 804 000, a decline on the 2.4% of the population it accounted for in 1990, according to the data collected by the 1990 census.

Naturalisations

In 2002, the number of new applications for naturalisation was over 7 700, slightly more than 2000 and considerably more than 2001. Most applicants were migrants of Turkish origin.

2. Policy developments

Citizenship law

In June 2003, the Citizenship Law was amended. Previously, foreign women might acquire Turkish citizenship immediately upon application, after marrying a Turkish national. Under the new legislation they must be married three years first. Foreign men, for whom it had been harder to obtain Turkish nationality upon marriage than it was for women, will now have the same rights as women. The overall thrust of the legislation is to prevent arranged marriages by foreign irregular migrants, resulting in the acquisition of Turkish citizenship.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Another legislative change was the approval of a Law on Work Permits, related to irregular migration and its labour outcomes. It aims to ensure that the work permit processes reach EU standards, including the establishment of measures to prevent illegal employment.

International agreements

Several important new policy measures were implemented in 2002 and 2003 relating to migration, and in particular to combat people-trafficking and smuggling, following on from international agreements. Firstly, in May 2002 the government ratified the Optional

Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Secondly, the provisions of the UN Conventions Against Transnational Organised Crime and its additional protocols were ratified and implemented by domestic legislation in August 2002. This introduced the definition of human trafficking into the Turkish legal system and criminalised it as well as outlawing human smuggling. Thirdly, the government accepted the UN Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime and its two additional protocols aimed at preventing human trafficking, especially that of women and children and human smuggling by land, sea and air.

United Kingdom

Introduction

The United Kingdom's economic performance has continued to be relatively strong with a GDP growth rate of 1.6% in 2002 rising to 2.2% in 2003. Unemployment was 5.1% in 2002 and fell to 5% in 2003. It continues to attract immigrants at a historically high level. The evidence points to a continuation of the resurgence of economic migration into the United Kingdom, attracted by various factors, including strong economic growth and the flexibility of the labour market. The United Kingdom government strongly supports the principle of managed migration.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

During 2003 a recalculation was done for the flow statistics of the last decade. These show that 1993 had the lowest net flow for the period with a loss of 1 200. From 1994 onwards there were net gains (though fewer than under the former method of calculation) peaking at 171 800 in 2001 (see Table III.32)**.** In 2002, net migration declined to 153 400, a fall of 10.7% compared to 2001, in part due to a large increase in the British net loss (up 71.9%) and a significant decrease in the net gain from the Old Commonwealth countries (down 33.5% from 35 200 to 23 400). These losses were not offset by the more modest rises in the net gain of other foreign nationals. Net migration by EU15 nationals remained stable. The emerging picture from recent years is one of rising overall net gains with net losses of British nationals and net gains of foreign nationals, with underlying fluctuations in the nationality composition of the flows.

In 2002, 88 600 work permits (including first permissions) were approved. This was an increase of nearly 4% over the previous year's figure, but a much smaller increase than between 2000 and 2001, when approvals rose by 32%. India remained the most common country of origin and permits issued to Indian nationals increased by just over 12%. However those granted to nationals of the United States, the next largest country of origin, decreased by nearly 14%. Personal and protective service occupations rose from 3.3% to 7.5% of the total and catering occupations by exactly the same percentages.

Acceptances for settlement, excluding EEA nationals, rose by 8% in 2002 to 115 895. Increases were evident in employment-related grants which rose by 30% and asylum-related grants by 11%. Although grants for family formation and reunion remained the largest category, they fell by 7% compared with the previous year, to nearly 53 000.

Table III.32. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, United Kingdom**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Migration flows (adjusted figures)[1]				
Total inflows	**453.8**	**483.4**	**479.6**	**512.8**
Inflows of non-British citizens	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2
of which:				
EU	66.6	63.1	60.4	62.8
non-EU	270.8	316.2	312.9	355.4
Inflows of British citizens	116.4	104.1	106.3	94.6
Total outflows	**290.8**	**320.7**	**307.7**	**359.4**
Outflows of non-British citizens	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7
of which:				
EU	58.6	57.0	49.1	51.7
non-EU	93.0	102.6	99.4	122.0
Outflows of British citizens	139.2	161.1	159.2	185.7
Net migration	**163.0**	**162.8**	**171.8**	**153.4**
Non-British citizens	185.8	219.7	224.8	244.5
of which:				
EU	8.0	6.1	11.2	11.1
Non-EU	177.8	213.6	213.6	233.4
British citizens	–22.8	–57.0	–53.0	–91.1
Acceptances for settlement[2]	**97.1**	**125.1**	**106.8**	**115.9**
By region of origin				
Europe (excluding EU)[3]	16.0	15.1	13.8	11.7
America	8.5	11.5	11.9	11.7
Africa	27.0	44.5	31.4	39.1
Indian Sub-Continent	21.4	22.7	22.9	24.7
Middle East[4]	5.6	7.1	. .	. .
Remainder of Asia	13.1	17.7	20.5	21.9
Oceania	4.1	4.9	5.5	6.3
Other	1.4	1.6	0.9	0.6
By category of acceptance				
Employment	11.5	15.6	15.3	19.8
Asylum	38.7	45.1	27.0	29.9
Family formation and reunion	42.2	53.0	56.8	52.8
Other grants on a discretionary basis	4.8	11.3	7.8	11.0
Stock of total population by nationality (Labour Force survey)				
Total population[5]	58 298	58 425	58 866	59 074
British citizens	56 079	56 065	56 272	56 384
Foreign nationals	2 208	2 342	2 587	2 681

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total grants of citizenship in the United Kingdom				
by previous country or region of nationality[2]	**54.9**	**82.2**	**90.3**	**120.1**
Indian sub-continent	14.8	22.1	23.7	26.7
Africa	12.9	21.9	29.8	37.5
Asia	10.9	15.8	14.0	25.0
Middle East	4.7	6.6	5.3	9.4
Remainder of Asia	6.2	9.2	8.6	15.5
Europe	7.3	11.4	11.1	19.3
European Economic Area	1.7	2.1	1.7	1.6
Remainder of Europe	5.6	9.4	9.4	17.8
America	5.4	7.0	7.2	8.0
Oceania	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.7
Other	2.2	2.3	2.6	1.8
Asylum seekers (total applications received)[2]	**71.1**	**80.3**	**71.4**	**84.1**
By region of origin				
Europe	28.3	22.9	14.2	13.2
Africa	18.4	17.9	20.6	29.4
America	2.0	1.4	1.3	2.3
Asia	17.5	23.2	23.5	20.8
Middle East	4.2	14.4	11.3	18.3
Other	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.2
According to the place where the application was received (%)				
At port	59.0	32.3	35.3	31.6
In country	41.0	67.7	64.7	68.4
Illegal immigration statistics				
Persons against whom enforcement				
action taken	23.0	50.6	76.1	57.7
of which: Illegal entry action[6]	21.2	47.3	69.9	48.1
Total persons removed from the UK[7]	37.8	46.7	49.1	65.5
Total work permits and first permissions	**42.0**	**64.6**	**85.1**	**88.6**
India	5.7	12.3	16.9	19.0
United States	9.7	12.7	11.1	9.5
South Africa	3.3	4.4	7.1	8.0
Australia and New Zealand	3.8	5.7	7.9	7.8
Other countries	19.5	29.5	42.1	44.3
Total stock of employment (Labour Force survey)				
Total	27 025	27 568	28 029	28 228
British citizens	26 018	26 460	26 799	26 925
Foreign nationals	1 005	1 107	1 229	1 303

1. Data are from the International Passenger Survey and have been revised since 1992. Figures for all years show the EU as it has been constitued since 1 january 1995. Movements between the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom are not recorded. Data include adjustments for asylum seekers and for persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for other reasons.
2. Provisional figures for 2002.
3. An acceptance of settlement is not required for EU citizens.
4. Figures for Middle East in 2001 and 2002 are included in remainder of Asia.
5. Including not stated nationality.
6. Illegal entrants detected and persons issued with a notice of intention to deport or recommended for deportation by a court.
7. Including "voluntary" departures after enforcement action was initiated.

Sources: International Passenger Survey; Home Office Statistical Bulletin; Control of Immigration Statistics; National Labour Force Survey; UNHCR.

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Illegal migration

The number of persons against whom enforcement action was initiated in 2002 was 57 700, a substantial drop compared to 2001 (down 24%) (see Table III.32). Some 48 050 illegal entrants (persons who entered the country clandestinely or by deception) were served with papers in 2002, 31% fewer than in 2001. Some 65 500 persons were removed from the United Kingdom in 2002, a substantial increase of 33% over the removals which took place in the previous year.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications (including dependants) received in 2003 was 103 000, 12.5% more than in 2002. This continued the upward trend of recent years, other than for 2001 when a 12.8% decline occurred compared with the previous year (see Table III.32). However, in 2003, there were 61 000 applications, a 40% fall on the previous year. Compared with 2001, large increases occurred in 2002 in the number of applications from Iraqis, Zimbabweans and Chinese. In 2002, the main nationalities applying were Iraqi (17%), Zimbabwean (9%) Afghan (9%) Somali (8%) and Chinese (4%). Over a third of all applications in 2002 were from African nationals.

As for 2001, it is again estimated that about 42% of applications in 2002 resulted in the granting of asylum (10%) or of exceptional leave to remain (23%) or in appeals which were allowed (a further 10%).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The United Kingdom population in 2003 was estimated at 59.3 million, an increase of nearly 0.4% over 2002. The stock of foreign nationals in the United Kingdom rose by 6.9% to reach 2.865 million in 2003. Foreign citizens now account for 4.8% of the total United Kingdom population, up from 4.5% in 2002, and foreign national numbers rose by 6.9%. In contrast, between 2002 and 2003 there was almost no change in the stock of United Kingdom citizens. In 2003, Europe was the largest source of foreign nationals, as last year, with 43.5% of the total, down from 45.9% in 2002, followed by Asia (24.9%) and Africa (16.8%). The Irish maintained their traditional dominance as the largest country of origin (374 000) but this is waning and their share fell again in 2003 to 13%. The next largest source countries were India accounting for 5.5% of total, followed by citizens from the United States (4.7%), Australia (4%), and France (3.8%) .

The number of foreign nationals working in the United Kingdom fluctuated until 1996, after which the number rose continuously to reach 1.396 million in 2003, 4.9% of the workforce. This represents an increase over 2002 of 7.1% Europeans accounted for nearly 45% of foreign workers in 2003, followed by Asians (21.2%), and Africans (with an increase from 14% to 15.9%).

Naturalisations

The number of applications for British citizenship increased by 6% in 2002 compared to 2001. The levels in both years were much higher than previously. This probably reflects the high number of persons granted settlement in 1999, 2000 and 2001, and an increase in applications following the introduction into Parliament for consideration of the Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Bill in 2002 which proposes to introduce citizenship ceremonies and testing for language and citizenship knowledge. In 2002, the number of

persons granted British citizenship in the United Kingdom rose by 33% to 120 145. This is the highest recorded annual figure.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The UK government has strongly embraced the principle of managed migration. The Home Secretary in a speech in November 2003, argued for a balanced approach to migration policy, including tough measures to tackle abuse of the asylum system and illegal immigration, while at the same time working to build tolerance and enthusiasm for legal migration.

Changes to the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme (HSMP), announced in October 2003, include: reducing the overall points required to qualify, introducing new criteria for applicants aged under 28 to make it easier for younger, skilled applicants to work in the United Kingdom and taking account of graduate partners' achievements. In future applicants to the HSMP will have to pay a fee of £150.

From mid-2004, foreign nationals who have studied maths, science or engineering at a United Kingdom institution will be able to work in the country for 12 months following graduation under the new Science and Engineering Graduates Scheme. The upper age limit of 25 in the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS) was removed from January 2004.

It was announced in June 2003 that the Working Holidaymakers Scheme would be updated and extended, by various measures including raising the upper age limit from 27 to 30, removing employment restrictions and allowing a switch into work permit employment after 12 months, if the necessary criteria are met.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The new Parliamentary programme, announced in November 2003, includes the fifth legislative attempt in a decade to change the asylum system. Measures proposed in the Bill include those to restrict the appeals system, sanctions for those who destroy or discard their travel documents and an end to support for families whose claims have been denied.

Several other initiatives to deal with asylum issues were announced in 2003. In order to strengthen links with local authorities, the government announced in June 2003 that twelve new regional offices would be opened with responsibility for housing contract management, outreach staff and investigation into abuse of the system, the reporting of antisocial behaviour and racial harassment. In October 2003, the Home Secretary announced that 15 000 families who had sought asylum in the United Kingdom more than three years ago would be considered for permission to live and work in the United Kingdom. An estimated 45 000 people would benefit.

United States

Introduction

During 2003, GDP grew again in the United States to 3.1%, from 2.2% in 2002 after weak growth in 2001. Unemployment, which had been increasing since 2000, reached 6% in 2003. The unemployment rate for the foreign-born labour force was 6.9% in 2002.

1. Trends in migration flows and changes in the foreign-born population

Inflows of migrants

Migrants to the United States fall into three distinct categories:

- Immigrants – Aliens who are lawfully admitted to the United States for permanent residence and are eligible for eventual US citizenship. Refugees may adjust to immigrant status after one year.
- Non-immigrants – Aliens lawfully admitted to the United States temporarily for a specific purpose.
- Unauthorized migrants – Aliens entering without inspection or overstaying/violating their non-immigrant visas. Intended duration of stay may range from short temporary visits to permanent residence.

The number of persons granted lawful permanent resident status in fiscal year 2002 totalled 1.06 million (see Table III.33), virtually the same as 2001, both representing an increase of over 25% relative to the FY 2000 level. In recent years, however, changes in immigration levels, whether a decline or an increase, do not necessarily represent corresponding changes in demand to immigrate to the United States. Rather, changes in the level of immigration are often an artifact of new legislative initiatives, increasing documentation requirements and backlogs in the processing of applications. In 2002, 64% of all immigrants granted permanent residence were already living in the United States.

Almost two-thirds of permanent immigration (673 000) in 2002, was associated with family reunification. Employment-based immigration in 2002 was 175 000, 16.4% of all immigration, although over half of this was accounted for by dependents of those entering for employment. Overall, employment-based immigration, although less than in 2001, was up by 93% on 1997, compared with a 33% increase in total immigration during that period.

The humanitarian programme (see also below) accounted for 126 100 grants of permanent residence, up just over 16% on the 2001 figure. Another admission route (accounting for 4% of permanent inflows) is the annual diversity programme, under which 50 000 visas are available by lottery. It aims at increasing the diversity of countries sending immigrants to the United States.

Table III.33. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, United States**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflows of permanent settlers				
by entry class				
Immediate relatives of US citizens	258.6	347.9	443.0	486.0
Relative preferences	216.9	235.3	232.1	187.1
Worker preferences	56.8	107.0	179.2	175.0
IRCA legalization	–	0.4	0.3	0.1
Refugees	42.9	65.9	108.5	126.1
Diversity Programme	47.6	50.9	42.0	42.8
Legalization dependants	. .	0.1	–	–
NACARA entrants	11.3	23.6	18.9	9.5
Others	12.6	18.6	40.2	37.4
by region of birth				
Asia	199.4	265.4	349.8	342.1
Central, South America and Carribean	156.5	210.7	248.3	240.0
Mexico	147.6	173.9	206.4	219.4
Europe	92.7	132.5	175.4	174.2
Africa	36.7	44.7	53.9	60.3
Canada	8.9	16.2	21.9	19.5
Other	4.9	6.4	8.5	8.2
Total	**646.6**	**849.8**	**1 064.3**	**1 063.7**
Non-immigrants visas issued by class of admission[1]				
Total	**1 106.6**	**1 256.0**	**1 380.9**	**1 288.7**
Students	268.8	290.2	298.7	238.4
Academic students (F1)	262.5	284.1	293.4	234.3
Vocational students (M1)	6.2	6.1	5.4	4.1
Representatives (and families)				
to international organisations (G)	32.6	35.3	32.9	33.0
Temporary workers and trainees	298.9	355.1	401.8	356.9
Specialty occupations (H1B)	116.5	133.3	161.6	118.4
Agricultural workers (H2A)	28.6	30.2	31.5	31.5
Professional workers: NAFTA (TN)	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.7
Intracompany transferees (L1)	41.7	55.0	59.4	57.7
Treaty traders and investors				
families (E)	32.9	36.5	36.9	33.4
Others	78.6	99.2	111.6	115.2
Family members often above classes				
and others	143.6	168.5	190.9	163.7
Others	362.7	406.9	456.5	496.6

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Foreign-born population				
by country of birth				
Mexico	7 429.1	8 072.3	8 494.0	9 900.4
Philippines	1 549.4	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1
India	849.2	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4
Germany	986.9	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8
China	890.6	898.0	968.2	986.9
Other countries	16 311.6	17 030.9	17 681.6	18 523.9
Total	**28 016.9**	**29 472.5**	**30 633.9**	**33 383.4**
Stock of foreign-born labour force				
Total	**17 054.7**	**18 028.5**	**18 994.1**	**20 917.6**
***of which* women:**	7 046.0	7 425.3	7 860.7	8 546.8
Labour force				
Employed	16 152.2	17 154.1	18 075.5	19 504.2
Unemployed	902.5	874.4	918.5	1 413.3
Unemployment rate	5.3	4.9	4.8	6.8
Participation rate	65.4	66.2	67.0	67.3
Persons naturalised by region of birth				
Total	**839.9**	**888.8**	**608.2**	**573.7**
Asia	273.9	331.1	247.2	232.4
North America and Central				
America	385.6	347.2	200.9	170.0
of which: Mexico	207.8	189.7	103.2	76.5
Europe	101.3	121.3	89.4	93.6
South America	54.4	58.0	42.3	42.9
Africa	20.4	25.9	24.3	31.5
Oceania	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.4
Unknown and stateless	1.9	2.6	1.5	0.9

1. Excludes visitors, transit foreigners and crewmembers.

Sources: Office of Immigration Statistics; US Census Bureau, Current Population Survey; Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Mexico continued to be the principal country of origin accounting for about a fifth of total new permanent residents. Latin America as a whole and Asia were the primary source regions, and accounted for approximately 43% and 32% of these, respectively. Destinations in the United States tend to be geographically concentrated with six states receiving nearly two-thirds of all immigrants. However, data from the late 1990s show some increase in the diversification of places of residence for immigrants. Since 1993 women have been in the

majority of those granted permanent residence (54.3% in 2002), largely because of the operation of the family reunification provisions, although the gender breakdown is now fairly stable from year to year.

The United States currently has over 60 categories of non-immigrant admission, most of which are not numerically restricted. In 2002, 1 288 700 temporary visas were issued (excluding foreign government officials, visitors and transit foreigners). These were principally temporary workers and trainees (28% of the total), students (nearly 19%), and their family members. This was a decline compared to 2001 (1 380 900), reversing the upward trend of previous years. Student admissions declined by 20%, and temporary worker admissions (356 900) showed a decline of 11% over such admissions in 2001. The two major temporary worker categories are specialty professionals (H1-B visa) and intra-company transfers, with 118 400 and 57 700 entries respectively. These figures were declines over similar admissions during the previous year. More dramatic was the decline in H1-B visas issued to specialty professionals in 2002, which stood at 161 600 in 2001, a decline of 20% in one year.

Illegal migration

Estimates based on the 2000 census indicate an unauthorised immigrant population of 7 million, higher than previous estimates and representing 2.5% of the total population. Mexico continues to be the largest source, accounting for around 4.8 million; its share of the total unauthorised population has risen from 58% in 1990 to 69% in 2000. An estimated 33% of the unauthorised population consists of visa overstayers.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The maximum number of refugee admissions from outside the United States and the individual regional ceilings are set annually. In 2002 and 2003 the ceiling was set at 70 000 but refugee admissions were 27 000 and 28 000 respectively, well down on figures for previous years.

Asylum seekers' (those who claim asylum when already in the United States or at ports of entry) claims filed in the year October 2002-September 2003 totalled 43 000 (excluding certain Salvadorans). The number of new claims filed was well down on the previous two years (57 900 and 58 700) but up on each of the three years 1998-2000. Under the reform of the asylum system, the backlog of cases has continued to fall and there were 262 118 cases pending as of September 30, 2003.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The estimated population of the United States in 2000 was 281 million. The foreign-born population grew from 9.6 million in 1970 (5% of the total population) to 32.5 million in 2002 (11%). There has been a parallel trend in the numbers of foreign-born workers, up from five to 14% of the labour force, of which women were nearly half. The principal countries of origin for foreign-born migrants according to the 2000 Census data were Mexico (nearly 30%), China (including Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei) (nearly 5%), the Philippines (4.4%) and India (3.3%). Table III.33 provides similar data by region of origin which indicates that 52% of the United States' foreign-born population originated in Latin and Central America in 2002.

Naturalisations

During the 1990s applications for naturalisation fluctuated, peaking at over a million in 1996 then falling sharply before peaking again at 889 000 in 2000. Since then they have fallen each year to 456 000 in 2003.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Policy developments in 2003 were dominated by security issues, by the creation of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS), which took over the functions of the Immigration and Naturalisation Service, and by implementing related initiatives. The DHS has five major Directorates, two of which cover immigration functions including the two agencies focusing on interior enforcement activities and border patrol and inspections at ports of entry.

As a result of September 11, between October 2002 and April 2003 there was a mandatory call-in registration, as part of the National Security Entry Exit Registration System (NSEERS) programme, of certain non-immigrant men, mainly from Muslim countries, who were interviewed, fingerprinted and photographed by the immigration authorities. The principles of NSEERS will be expanded by the US Visitor and Immigrant Status Indicator Technology (US-VISIT). This aims to create an automated entry/exit system to the United States by the end of 2003 at all sea and air ports of entry.

The 2001 Patriot Act required all countries participating in the Visa Waiver Programme to issue their own machine-readable biometric passports by October 2004. The Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS) was launched in August 2003. It implemented the requirement in the Patriot Act that a centralised, computerised system maintaining and managing information about foreign students and exchange visitors be developed. Its aim is to ensure they maintained their status during their stay. Also from August 2003, personal appearances and interviews at embassies and consulates of the United States are required for most non-immigrant visa applications.

In October 2003, the annual numerical limit for H1-B visas was reduced from 195 000 to 65 000, although the actual number of new H1-B admissions will remain well above this limit because significant numbers of workers are exempted from numerical limitation.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Guestworker and amnesty programmes were widely discussed by Congress and numerous legislative proposals were drafted, although none have yet been voted upon.

International agreements

Free Trade Agreements with Chile and Singapore were signed in September 2003. A new visa for a range of highly skilled people from these countries was developed, to become effective in January 2004.

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STATISTICAL ANNEX

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex are taken from the individual contributions of national correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of member countries. Consequently, these data have not necessarily been harmonised at international level. This network of correspondents, constituting the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI), covers most OECD member countries as well as the Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania. 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.

No data are presented on the native population, since the purpose of this annex is to describe the "immigrant" population as defined in the specific host country (*i.e.* the foreign or foreign-born population, as the case may be). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population and immigrant labour force, together with acquisition of nationality. 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, since few sources are specifically designed to record migration trends. Because of the great variety of sources used, different populations may be measured. In addition, the criteria for registering population and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if a theoretically identical source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of illegal migrants. Part of this population can be counted through censuses. The number of immigrants who entered legally but then stay on after their residence permits (or visa) have expired can be calculated from permit statistics, but without it being possible to determine what the number of these immigrants that have left the country. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to account for a far from negligible fraction of illegal immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible better to evaluate the volume of the foreign population at a given time, although it is not always possible to classify these immigrants by the year when they entered the country.

The rationale used to arrange the series has been to present first the tables covering the total population (series 1.1 to 1.6: inflows and outflows of foreign population, inflows of asylum seekers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign population, acquisition of nationality), and then focus on the labour force (series 2.1 to 2.4): inflows of foreign workers, inflows of seasonal workers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign labour force.

Since the nature of the sources used differs considerably across countries, each series is preceded by an explanatory note aimed at making it easier to understand and use the data produced. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each host country), which introduces the tables by nationality or country of birth as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides for each country the sources and notes of the data presented in the tables.

General comments on tables

a) The tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1993-2002).

b) As from 1994, data on the European Union refer, unless stated otherwise, to the first 15 countries that joined the EU: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

c) The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other tables, nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.

d) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.

e) Tables on inflows of asylum seekers by nationality (series B.1.3) are presented for the top ten host countries in 2003. The data on outflows of foreign population (series 1.2), inflows of workers (series 2.1) and seasonal workers (series 2.2) are not broken down by nationality. Only totals are presented, in Tables A.1.2, A.2.1 and A.2.2, respectively.

f) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.

g) The symbols used in the tables are the following:

. . Data not available.

– Nil, or negligible.

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Inflows and Outflows of Foreign Population

OECD countries seldom have specific tools for measuring inflows and outflows of foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. The discrepancies of measurement due to the use of these various sources have been presented in a box on the measurement of migration flows (Part I). This note is aimed at describing more systematically what is measured by each of the sources used.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners. To register, foreigners may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as minimum registration period. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, although the period of (intended) absence is not always specified.

When population registers are used, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return in the host country in the more or less long term can hesitate to inform about his departure to avoid losing the rights related to the affiliation to the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries (as the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants ranges from three months to one year), which poses major problems of international comparison. For example, in some countries, register data cover a portion of temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants).

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called "settlement countries" (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been issued "acceptances for settlement". Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries since the legal duration of their residence is often similar to long-term migration (over a year). In the case of France, the permits covered are valid for at least one year (only students are not included). Data for Italy and Portugal include temporary migrants.

Another characteristic of permit data is that flows of nationals are not recorded. Some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, either because the type of permit they hold is not used for statistics or because they are not required to have a permit

(freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: *i)* permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; *ii)* permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit. 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.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Data for the United Kingdom are based on a survey of passengers entering or exiting the country by plane, train or boat (International Passenger Survey). One of the aims of this survey is to estimate the number and characteristics of migrants. The survey is based on a random sample of approximately one out of every 500 passengers. The figures were revised significantly following the latest census in each of these two countries, which seems to indicate that these estimates do not constitute an "ideal" source either. Australia and New Zealand also conduct passenger surveys which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants' stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Inflow data based on population registers:										
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8	. .
Belgium	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	68.5	68.6	66.0	70.2
Czech Republic	. .	. .	5.9	7.4	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2 |	11.3	43.6
Denmark	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2	22.0
Finland	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0
Germany	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3
Hungary	16.4	12.8	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	15.7
Japan	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8
Luxembourg	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0
Netherlands	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6
Norway	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8
Spain	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1
Sweden	54.8	74.7	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6
Switzerland	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	70.1	72.4	83.4	85.6	99.5	97.6
Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:										
Australia										
Permanent inflows	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	91.9	106.8	88.5
Temporary inflows	93.2	115.2	124.4	130.2	147.1	173.2	194.1	224.0	245.1	340.2
Canada										
Permanent inflows	256.7	224.4	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.2	189.9	227.3	250.5	229.1
Temporary inflows	57.0	59.0	60.5	61.1	64.3	69.0	77.2	89.7	82.4	74.1
France	99.2	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	139.5	114.9	126.8	141.0	156.2
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	38.2	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ireland	. .	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.7	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1
Korea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	75.4	111.0	123.9	128.0	137.7
Mexico										
Permanent inflows	49.9	18.6	40.2	43.2	46.2	48.6	42.2	41.1	35.7	32.4
Temporary inflows	33.2	14.8	30.0	29.2	27.1	25.3	22.7	24.2	26.1	24.6
New Zealand	. .	42.5	55.9	42.7	32.9	27.4	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.7
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.2	17.4	15.9	21.5	30.2
Portugal	9.9	5.7	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9 |	141.1	61.5
United Kingdom	179.2	206.2	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2
United States										
Permanent inflows	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3	1 063.7
Temporary inflows	. .	. .	. .	. .	999.6	997.3	1 106.6	1 249.4	1 375.1	1 282.6

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 details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Outflow data based on population registers:										
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0	. .
Belgium	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4	35.6	31.4	31.0
Czech Republic	. .	. .	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	20.4	31.1
Denmark	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.9	8.7
Finland	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8
Germany	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.4	497.0	505.6
Hungary	5.0	5.1	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.8
Japan	200.5	204.2	194.4	160.1	176.6	187.8	198.3	210.9	232.8	248.4
Luxembourg	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.6	8.3
Netherlands	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2
Norway	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3
Sweden	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.7	14.3
Switzerland	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7	49.7
Outflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:										
Australia										
Permanent departures	18.1	17.4	16.9	17.7	18.2	19.2	17.9	20.8	23.4	24.1
Long-term departures	26.6	26.1	27.4	27.7	28.6	30.3	29.4	30.0	42.2	31.9
Mexico										
Permanent departures	43.3	13.7	40.6	41.5	45.7	47.4	45.9	39.1	31.2	29.1
Long-term departures	32.9	11.7	34.4	30.7	27.0	25.0	21.5	22.6	25.7	26.8
New Zealand	11.6	10.6	10.8	12.6	14.7	16.2	15.9	15.6	28.6	22.4
United Kingdom	117.7	112.6	101.0	108.0	130.6	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **AUSTRALIA, inflows of permanent settlers and temporary residents by country or region of birth**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
A. Permanent settlers										
United Kingdom	9.0	10.7	11.3	9.7	9.2	8.8	9.2	9.0	8.7	12.5
New Zealand	7.8	10.5	12.3	13.1	14.7	18.7	21.9	25.2	15.7	12.4
China	2.7	3.7	11.2	7.8	4.3	6.1	6.8	8.8	6.7	6.7
India	2.6	3.9	3.7	2.7	2.8	2.6	4.6	6.3	5.1	5.8
South Africa	1.7	2.8	3.2	3.2	4.3	5.0	5.7	5.8	5.7	4.6
Philippines	4.2	4.1	3.2	2.8	2.8	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.8	3.2
Malaysia	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.9			2.2	1.9	2.7
Vietnam	5.4	5.1	3.6	3.0	2.3	2.1	1.5	1.6	1.9	2.6
Sri Lanka	1.4	2.0	2.0	1.4	1.3	0.9	1.3	2.0	2.0	1.8
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.6
Lebanon	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.6
Fiji	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.1	1.6	1.9	2.2	1.6	1.6
United States	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.3
Chinese Taipei	0.8	0.8	1.6	2.2	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.6	1.7	1.1
Hong Kong (China)	3.3	4.1	4.4	3.9	3.2	1.9	1.5	1.5	0.9	1.0
Other countries	25.8	34.2	37.0	30.8	26.6	26.7	28.2	31.4	29.3	33.0
Total	**69.8**	**87.4**	**99.1**	**85.8**	**77.3**	**84.1**	**91.9**	**106.8**	**88.5**	**93.5**
B. Temporary residents										
United Kingdom	35.7	42.1	42.8	49.1	60.7	70.0	85.7	91.6	109.0	112.9
Northern Europe	15.9	16.9	17.7	18.9	22.1	24.1	28.8	4.3	10.0	12.7
Southern Europe	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.2	3.1	4.1	3.6	4.1	4.8
Asia	30.6	30.4	33.1	41.6	46.8	52.1	56.1	63.8	95.9	96.3
Middle East	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.0	2.9	3.0
North America	24.1	26.1	27.9	25.3	29.7	31.2	32.0	33.4	57.5	62.3
South America	1.4	1.0	0.8	1.4	1.3	2.1	2.6	2.3	2.6	3.2
Africa	1.9	2.2	1.8	4.1	5.8	7.1	8.9	10.0	10.3	10.8
Oceania	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.9	4.3	4.0	4.3
Other and not stated	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	29.9	43.9	48.5
Total	**115.2**	**124.4**	**130.2**	**147.1**	**173.2**	**194.1**	**224.0**	**245.1**	**340.2**	**358.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **AUSTRIA, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Europe	**49.1**	**59.4**	**51.7**	**61.4**
of which:				
Germany	6.6	7.5	7.7	10.4
Turkey	5.9	7.2	7.0	7.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	2.6	3.9	4.1	6.5
Serbia and Montenegro	9.4	13.5	6.4	6.2
Croatia	3.3	3.8	4.4	5.4
Poland	5.0	5.1	3.5	3.5
Hungary	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.4
Romania	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.4
Italy	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.7
Czech Republic	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.4
Slovenia	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7
Africa	**2.5**	**2.8**	**2.8**	**2.9**
America	**2.3**	**2.3**	**2.3**	**2.4**
Asia	**5.0**	**7.5**	**8.6**	**7.7**
Other countries	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Total	**59.2**	**72.4**	**66.0**	**74.8**
of which: EU	12.1	13.5	13.6	16.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **BELGIUM, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	3.4	4.8	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.9	5.7	7.1	8.5
Netherlands	6.7	4.3	6.5	7.8	6.3	6.2	6.2	7.2	8.2	8.4
France	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0	8.1
Turkey	2.5	3.6	2.5	2.5	1.4	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.9
Germany	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0
United States	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.7
United Kingdom	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.5
Poland	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.9	2.4
Italy	2.8	1.9	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3
China	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1
Portugal	2.1	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6
Spain	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5
Democratic Rep. of Congo	2.3	2.2	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.3
Former Yugoslavia	0.8	0.7	2.5	2.5	0.1	0.3	7.0	0.5	0.7	0.8
Japan	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8
Other countries	14.6	19.1	14.3	10.8	12.9	12.8	22.5	26.4	18.8	20.2
Total	**53.0**	**56.0**	**53.1**	**51.9**	**49.2**	**50.7**	**68.5**	**68.6**	**66.0**	**70.2**
of which: EU	26.4	27.0	26.6	28.7	27.6	27.4	28.0	29.6	29.7	30.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **CANADA, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of origin**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Asia	**131.2**	**128.4**	**112.9**	**124.8**	**117.1**	**84.2**	**96.4**	**120.6**	**132.8**	**118.9**
of which:										
China	9.5	12.5	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.8	29.1	36.7	40.3	33.2
India	20.6	17.3	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.4	17.4	26.1	27.8	28.8
Pakistan	4.2	3.8	4.0	7.8	11.2	8.1	9.3	14.2	15.3	14.2
Philippines	19.8	19.1	15.2	13.2	10.9	8.2	9.2	10.1	12.9	11.0
Korea	3.7	3.0	3.5	3.2	4.0	4.9	7.2	7.6	9.6	7.3
Sri Lanka	9.1	6.7	8.9	6.2	5.1	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.0
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.1	2.8	3.2	3.0
Africa and the Middle East	**36.6**	**29.5**	**32.9**	**36.5**	**37.8**	**32.6**	**33.5**	**40.8**	**48.1**	**46.1**
of which:										
Iran	3.9	2.7	3.7	5.8	7.5	6.8	5.9	5.6	5.7	7.7
Europe	**46.8**	**38.7**	**41.3**	**40.0**	**38.7**	**38.5**	**38.9**	**42.9**	**43.2**	**38.8**
of which:										
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.5	4.4	5.6	5.7
United Kingdom	7.2	6.0	6.2	5.6	4.7	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.7
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.0
Russian Federation	0.8	1.2	1.7	2.5	3.7	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.1	3.7
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	3.3	3.6	3.6
America	**42.1**	**27.7**	**25.7**	**24.7**	**22.5**	**18.8**	**20.8**	**22.8**	**26.0**	**24.7**
of which:										
United States	8.1	6.3	5.2	5.8	5.0	4.8	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.3	2.2	3.0	3.2
Not stated	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5
Total	**256.7**	**224.4**	**212.9**	**226.1**	**216.0**	**174.2**	**189.9**	**227.3**	**250.5**	**229.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **CZECH REPUBLIC, inflows of foreigners by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Slovak Republic	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.0	2.4	13.0
Ukraine	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.1	2.8	10.7
Vietnam	0.4	0.7	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.3	2.2	5.7
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	2.5
Poland	0.2	0.2	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.7
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	–	0.2	0.8
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.7
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7
Belarus	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6
Romania	0.1	0.2	. .	. .	0.1	–	0.2	0.3
Kazakhstan	. .	. .		0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	0.5	–	–	0.1	0.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	0.4	0.2	0.1	. .	0.1	. .
Other countries	1.2	1.7	3.3	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.4	5.8
Total	**5.9**	**7.4**	**9.9**	**7.9**	**6.8**	**4.2**	**11.3**	**43.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **DENMARK, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Iraq	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.3	1.9	2.9	3.2	2.1
Norway	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.5	3.0	1.3
Iceland	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1
Germany	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Somalia	. .	1.3	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Turkey	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8
Sweden	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7
United Kingdom	. .	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7
United States	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Thailand	. .	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5
Iran	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Poland	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Pakistan	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4
Other countries	9.4	6.8	23.0	12.0	9.1	8.5	8.7	9.6	9.9	9.6
Total	**15.4**	**15.6**	**33.0**	**24.7**	**20.4**	**21.3**	**20.3**	**22.9**	**25.2**	**22.0**
of which: EU	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.9	4.9	5.1	. .	4.4	4.5	4.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **FINLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Russian Federation	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.0
Estonia	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2
Sweden	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6
China	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
Iraq	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Thailand	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Somalia	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Iran	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Serbia and Montenegro	1.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.3	–	0.2
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Vietnam	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	–	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.9	4.1	3.1
Total	**10.9**	**7.6**	**7.3**	**7.5**	**8.1**	**8.3**	**7.9**	**9.1**	**11.0**	**10.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **FRANCE, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Algeria	13.1	9.7	8.4	7.8	12.2	16.7	11.4	12.4	15.1	23.3
Morocco	13.8	8.1	6.6	6.6	10.3	16.1	14.1	16.9	18.7	21.4
Turkey	6.8	4.7	3.6	3.4	5.1	6.8	5.7	6.6	6.9	8.5
Tunisia	3.5	2.3	1.9	2.2	3.6	5.3	4.0	5.6	6.5	7.6
United States	. .	2.4	2.4	2.7	. .	. .	2.7	2.6	2.6	3.4
Haiti	3.2	1.9	1.4	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.0
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.9
China	. .	1.3	0.9	0.7	2.8	5.7	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.7
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	0.8	0.9	. .	. .	1.2	1.3	2.1	1.6
Democratic Rep. of Congo	2.2	1.3	0.9	0.9	2.9	4.6	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.6
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.5
Romania	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.4
Japan	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.4
Lebanon	. .	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.2
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.1	1.2
Other countries	54.3	35.0	27.6	26.7	38.8	56.1	37.1	38.6	62.9	64.6
Total	**99.2**	**69.3**	**56.7**	**55.6**	**80.9**	**116.9**	**86.3**	**95.2 |**	**128.1**	**144.4**
Total (including estimates)	**. .**	**91.5**	**77.0**	**75.5**	**102.4**	**139.5**	**114.9**	**126.8 |**	**141.0**	**156.2**
of which: EEA	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.7	26.3 |	33.5	31.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **GERMANY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Poland	75.2	78.6	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.1	72.2	74.1	79.7	81.6
Turkey	67.8	63.9	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.0	47.1	49.1	54.6	58.1
Russian Federation	29.4	33.4	33.0	31.9	24.8	21.3	27.8	32.1	36.6	36.5
Serbia and Montenegro	141.6	63.2	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9	87.8	33.0	28.3	26.4
Italy	31.7	38.7	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6	34.9	32.8	29.0	25.0
Romania	81.6	31.4	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0	18.8	24.2	20.3	24.0
Ukraine	12.3	13.9	15.4	13.7	12.5	14.1	15.3	18.2	20.5	20.6
Hungary	24.2	19.3	18.8	16.6	11.2	13.3	14.9	16.0	17.4	20.6
United States	17.6	15.8	16.0	16.3	15.1	17.0	16.8	17.5	17.4	15.5
Greece	18.3	18.9	20.3	18.8	16.4	16.1	17.6	17.4	16.5	15.0
Bulgaria	27.2	10.4	8.0	6.3	6.3	5.3	8.1	10.3	. .	13.2
Croatia	26.0	16.7	14.9	12.3	10.0	10.1	12.6	14.1	13.9	13.1
Iraq	1.3	2.0	6.5	12.6	14.7	8.0	9.1	12.3	. .	13.0
France	13.0	13.6	14.4	14.9	14.4	14.3	15.3	15.9	14.5	12.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	107.0	68.3	55.2	11.1	6.9	8.4	10.3	10.4	12.8	10.5
Other countries	312.6	285.9	298.2	296.9	271.2	251.1	265.3	271.5	323.7	272.7
Total	**986.9**	**774.0**	**788.3**	**708.0**	**615.3**	**605.5**	**673.9**	**648.8**	**685.3**	**658.3**
of which: EU	136.7	155.8	177.2	172.5	151.5	136.0	137.3	132.7	125.3	110.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **HUNGARY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
EU-15	**1.4**	**1.7**	**1.7**	**1.6**	**1.9**	**1.8**	**1.8**	**1.3**
Germany	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other EU countries	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.4
Europe non-EU-15	**9.5**	**8.1**	**7.8**	**10.7**	**14.8**	**15.4**	**15.9**	**12.5**
Romania	5.1	4.2	4.0	5.5	7.8	8.9	10.6	9.0
Ukraine	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.5	1.8
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.5
Serbia and Montenegro	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.0	0.4
Russian Federation	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Poland	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other European (non-EU-15) countries	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.5
Asia (including the Middle East)	**2.2**	**3.0**	**3.1**	**2.9**	**2.6**	**2.2**	**1.7**	**1.1**
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Israel	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Mongolia	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1
Other Asian countries	1.9	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.7	1.0	0.6
America	**0.6**	**0.7**	**0.5**	**0.6**	**0.6**	**0.5**	**0.7**	**0.5**
United States	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Other American countries	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Africa	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.3**
Libya	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	–	–	0.1	0.1
Other African countries	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other and unknown	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Total	**14.0**	**13.7**	**13.3**	**16.1**	**20.2**	**20.2**	**20.3**	**15.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **IRELAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
United Kingdom	6.3	5.8	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.4	9.0	7.4	6.9
United States	2.0	1.5	4.0	4.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.7	2.7	1.6
Other countries	5.0	6.3	9.2	11.1	10.8	11.5	16.9	20.0	29.8	24.5
Total	**13.3**	**13.6**	**21.5**	**23.7**	**21.7**	**22.2**	**27.8**	**32.7**	**39.9**	**33.0**
of which: EU	9.6	9.0	13.3	13.9	14.7	15.1	16.6	15.5	15.5	13.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **ITALY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Romania	5.9	20.9	20.7	18.7	50.2
Albania	11.2	37.2	31.2	27.9	39.1
Morocco	7.3	24.9	24.7	17.8	26.1
China	3.4	11.0	15.4	8.8	15.4
Poland	3.9	6.7	7.1	8.7	15.3
United States	4.7	5.7	7.2	7.3	11.2
Philippines	2.6	5.7	12.2	4.6	10.4
Egypt	1.1	6.1	6.5	. .	8.6
Serbia and Montenegro	5.7	24.5	5.3	6.0	8.2
Ukraine	1.0	2.6	4.1	5.1	8.1
Tunisia	1.5	5.8	6.8	6.5	8.0
Peru	1.6	4.8	4.7	. .	7.7
Sri Lanka	2.7	3.9	6.0	4.3	7.6
India	2.6	5.4	7.0	4.8	7.2
Brazil	2.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	6.9
Other countries	53.4	99.6	108.9	107.6	158.2
Total	**111.0**	**268.0**	**271.5**	**232.8**	**388.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **JAPAN, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
China	45.2	38.9	38.8	45.6	52.3	55.7	59.1	75.3	86.4	88.6
Philippines	48.2	58.8	30.3	30.3	43.2	47.6	57.3	74.2	84.9	87.2
Korea	21.3	21.3	18.8	17.1	17.9	17.1	23.1	24.3	24.7	22.9
Brazil	14.6	11.8	11.9	16.4	39.6	21.9	26.1	45.5	29.7	22.7
United States	27.4	27.6	27.0	27.9	27.7	27.7	24.7	24.0	20.6	21.5
Indonesia	5.5	5.5	7.2	8.3	10.2	8.6	8.8	9.9	10.6	9.7
Russian Federation	5.8	6.5	6.4	6.0	5.1	4.6	4.3	6.4	6.3	6.6
United Kingdom	5.9	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.9	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.7	6.6
Thailand	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.6	6.4	7.5	6.4	6.6	6.8	5.9
Vietnam	1.1	1.0	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.8	4.7	5.3
Other countries	53.1	52.6	54.7	58.8	62.8	65.0	62.0	68.7	69.7	66.9
Total	**234.5**	**237.5**	**209.9**	**225.4**	**274.8**	**265.5**	**281.9**	**345.8**	**351.2**	**343.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **LUXEMBOURG, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Portugal	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.8
France	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.9
Belgium	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.3
Germany	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Italy	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Netherlands	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
United States	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1
Other countries	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.4	4.4	3.1	3.4	3.4
Total	**9.2**	**9.2**	**9.6**	**9.2**	**9.4**	**10.6**	**11.8**	**10.8**	**11.1**	**11.0**
of which: EU	7.1	7.1	7.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.5	8.7	8.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **NETHERLANDS, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Turkey	7.8	4.3	4.8	6.4	6.5	5.1	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.4
Germany	7.4	6.1	4.7	5.7	5.7	4.7	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.1
Morocco	5.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.5	5.3	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.9
United Kingdom	5.0	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.9	4.8
China	1.1	1.0	. .	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	2.8	3.4
United States	2.6	2.2	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.0
Suriname	7.8	2.9	1.7	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.2
France	1.5	1.4	. .	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.0
Belgium	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8
Poland	1.3	0.8	. .	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6
Italy	1.0	0.9	. .	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4
Spain	. .	. .	. .	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4
Japan	1.0	1.1	. .	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Former Yugoslavia	8.9	8.4	7.3	3.4	1.6	1.4	0.7	1.4	1.1	0.8
Iran	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4
Other countries	34.2	30.8	38.2	37.4	35.8	43.0	43.8	53.4	54.5	46.9
Total	**87.6**	**68.4**	**67.0**	**77.2**	**76.7**	**81.7**	**78.4**	**91.4**	**94.5**	**86.6**
of which: EU	19.7	16.0	14.8	19.2	20.3	19.9	20.4	22.1	22.4	21.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **NEW ZEALAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
India	2.2	3.4	3.2	2.2	2.2	2.7	4.3	7.4	8.2
China	4.3	5.3	5.3	4.5	3.5	3.1	4.3	7.9	7.8
United Kingdom	5.9	6.4	5.4	5.5	4.4	4.4	5.0	6.8	6.6
South Africa	3.9	1.9	2.8	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	4.8	3.3
Korea	4.2	3.4	2.0	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1	2.4	2.4
Fiji	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.2	3.6	2.3
Philippines	0.6	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6
Samoa	1.4	2.2	2.1	2.2	1.5	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.2
Malaysia	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.2
United States	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0
Chinese Taipei	5.0	12.3	5.3	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.4	1.0
Iraq	0.4	2.3	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.9
Tonga	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7
Sri Lanka	1.0	1.3	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.7
Japan	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4
Other countries	10.1	12.7	9.4	7.3	6.0	7.9	8.4	10.5	8.4
Total	**42.5**	**55.9**	**42.7**	**32.9**	**27.4**	**31.0**	**37.6**	**54.4**	**47.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **NORWAY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Sweden	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.9	4.9	6.0	4.5	3.5	3.1	2.9
Iraq	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	2.1	4.5	1.2	2.7
Somalia	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	2.2
Denmark	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.4
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	–	–	–	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.1
Thailand	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9
United Kingdom	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.8
Iran	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.8
United States	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Serbia and Montenegro	1.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	6.5	0.7	0.6	0.7
Poland	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7
Pakistan	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Turkey	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6
Other countries	11.8	8.8	7.5	7.3	8.5	9.9	10.2	9.6	10.1	11.4
Total	**22.3**	**17.9**	**16.5**	**17.2**	**22.0**	**26.7**	**32.2**	**27.8**	**25.4**	**30.8**
of which: EU	6.0	6.5	6.6	7.7	10.8	13.3	11.0	9.8	9.6	9.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **POLAND, inflows of permanent settlers by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ukraine	0.9	2.6	3.4	4.8	6.9
Belarus	0.2	0.7	0.7	1.3	2.7
Russian Federation	0.4	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.9
Germany	0.2	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.6
France	–	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.5
Vietnam	0.8	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2
United Kingdom	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.2
United States	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.2
Armenia	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7
Turkey	–	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6
India	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5
Italy	–	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5
Sweden	–	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5
China	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Other countries	1.7	6.6	4.7	6.4	8.2
Total	**5.2**	**17.4**	**15.9**	**21.5**	**30.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **PORTUGAL, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.2	16.5
Brazil	1.8	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.2	1.7	25.2	13.0
Cape Verde	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.0	2.1	7.2	4.3
Angola	1.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	–	0.4	0.9	2.5	6.9	4.1
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.0	3.1
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.5	2.9
Guinea-Bissau	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	1.6	4.6	2.1
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.0	1.5
Bulgaria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.7	1.1
United Kingdom	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
Spain	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.9
Germany	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.8	0.7
France	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Pakistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2.9	0.2
Other countries	2.8	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.3	2.3	3.3	4.6	19.8	8.8
Total	**9.9**	**5.7**	**5.0**	**3.6**	**3.3**	**6.5**	**10.5**	**15.9 |**	**141.1**	**61.5**
of which: EU	1.8	2.3	2.4	1.9	1.9	2.9	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.3
Total women	4.2	2.7	2.5	1.8	1.7	3.2	5.1	7.9	. .	21.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **SPAIN, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Europe	**25.7**	**39.9**	**84.9**	**113.1**	**160.0**
of which:					
EU	**22.2**	**32.1**	**40.5**	**50.1**	**66.0**
of which:					
United Kingdom	4.5	7.9	10.9	16.0	25.3
Germany	7.1	9.3	10.2	10.7	11.2
Italy	2.0	2.6	3.9	6.2	10.4
France	2.7	3.3	4.2	4.9	5.5
Europe non-EU	**3.5**	**7.8**	**44.5**	**63.0**	**93.9**
of which:					
Romania	0.5	1.8	17.5	23.3	48.3
Bulgaria	0.2	0.7	6.5	11.8	15.9
Ukraine	0.2	0.6	6.3	11.0	10.8
America	**15.5**	**34.7**	**179.6**	**212.1**	**215.6**
of which:					
Ecuador	2.0	9.0	91.1	82.6	89.0
Argentina	1.2	1.9	6.7	16.0	35.4
Colombia	2.3	7.5	46.1	71.2	34.2
Bolivia	0.2	0.5	3.3	4.9	10.6
Peru	2.1	2.9	6.0	7.1	8.0
Uruguay	0.2	0.4	1.3	2.8	6.2
Africa	**13.1**	**20.3**	**54.6**	**56.2**	**55.7**
of which:					
Morocco	10.6	14.9	38.3	39.5	40.2
Asia	**2.7**	**4.0**	**11.5**	**12.4**	**11.6**
of which:					
China	1.0	1.6	4.8	5.2	5.7
Oceania	**0.1**	**0.1**	**0.2**	**0.2**	**0.2**
Other countries and unknown	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Total	**57.2**	**99.1**	**330.9**	**394.0**	**443.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **SWEDEN, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Iraq	4.6	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4	5.5	6.6	6.5	7.4
Norway	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0	3.5
Finland	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.3
Denmark	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.5	3.2
United Kingdom	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4
Iran	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	20.7	25.7	4.6	1.2	1.8	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2
Poland	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1
United States	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0
Somalia	. .	2.8	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.9
Turkey	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
India	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6
Chile	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Romania	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Greece	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	18.1	30.4	16.2	14.4	15.6	16.6	15.3	19.5	20.0	20.9
Total	**54.8**	**74.8**	**36.1**	**29.3**	**33.4**	**35.7**	**34.6**	**42.6**	**44.1**	**47.6**
of which: EU	5.8	7.0	7.9	7.9	7.1	8.4	8.8	10.8	11.9	12.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **SWITZERLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Germany	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.2	10.9	12.4	14.5	15.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.0	7.5	8.4	6.7	7.5	7.7
France	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.2	6.1	6.5	6.5	6.6
Portugal	10.0	8.6	7.6	5.5	4.0	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.7	6.6
Italy	7.3	6.9	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.0	5.8	5.2	5.4	5.6
Turkey	4.8	3.8	3.8	3.4	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.8	3.1	3.2
United Kingdom	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.7	3.9	3.1
United States	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.3	2.9
Austria	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.0	2.4	2.4
Spain	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7
Netherlands	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
Canada	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.0
Former Yugoslavia	34.2	25.3	22.3	14.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	22.8	21.9	22.0	21.6	27.0	29.3	33.9	35.3	45.0	40.7
Total	**104.0**	**91.7**	**87.9**	**74.3**	**70.1**	**72.4**	**83.4**	**85.6**	**99.5**	**97.6**
of which: EU	42.7	40.7	39.3	34.6	31.4	32.1	36.9	39.7	43.0	45.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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Table B.1.1. **UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of foreign population**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	10	11	9	12	13	14	27	26	24	34
China	1	1	2	5	3	1	6	15	19	18
France	9	4	3	12	11	21	15	14	15	16
Germany	6	4	8	5	8	8	9	9	11	16
India	4	6	6	6	6	10	6	10	17	16
South Africa	1	2	1	3	4	6	12	12	14	13
United States	11	14	15	11	15	11	21	17	14	13
Philippines	1	1	. .	1	2	1	–	5	6	12
New Zealand	6	6	7	8	9	7	14	13	12	12
Pakistan	6	4	4	4	8	5	4	7	9	10
Greece	3	8	3	3	6	9	12	10	6	6
Malaysia	5	5	8	10	5	10	5	4	6	5
Korea	2	1	1	3	4	. .	2	1	4	5
Japan	4	5	5	5	5	8	7	8	7	5
Bangladesh	2	4	2	2	1	5	2	3	3	4
Other countries	42	42	61	64	60	72	78	83	93	81
Total	**113**	**118**	**135**	**154**	**160**	**188**	**221**	**239**	**260**	**266**
Total (adjusted figures)	**175**	**179**	**206**	**228**	**224**	**237**	**287**	**337**	**379**	**373**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Table B.1.1. **UNITED STATES, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of birth**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
North and Central America	**301.4**	**272.2**	**231.5**	**340.5**	**307.5**	**253.0**	**271.4**	**344.8**	**407.9**	**404.4**
of which:										
Mexico	126.6	111.4	89.9	163.6	146.9	131.6	147.6	173.9	206.4	219.4
El Salvador	26.8	17.6	11.7	17.9	18.0	14.6	14.6	22.6	31.3	31.2
Cuba	13.7	14.7	17.9	26.5	33.6	17.4	14.1	20.8	27.7	28.3
Dominican Republic	45.4	51.2	38.5	39.6	27.1	20.4	17.9	17.5	21.3	22.6
Haiti	10.1	13.3	14.0	18.4	15.1	13.4	16.5	22.4	27.1	20.3
Canada	17.2	16.1	12.9	15.8	11.6	10.2	8.9	16.2	21.9	19.5
Other North or Central American countries	61.7	47.9	46.4	58.8	55.3	45.4	51.8	71.4	72.1	63.2
Asia	**358.0**	**292.6**	**267.9**	**307.8**	**265.8**	**219.7**	**199.4**	**265.4**	**349.8**	**342.1**
of which:										
India	40.1	34.9	34.7	44.9	38.1	36.5	30.2	42.0	70.3	71.1
China	65.6	54.0	35.5	41.7	41.1	36.9	32.2	45.7	56.4	61.3
Philippines	63.5	53.5	51.0	55.9	49.1	34.5	31.0	42.5	53.2	51.3
Vietnam	59.6	41.3	41.8	42.1	38.5	17.6	20.4	26.7	35.5	33.6
Korea	18.0	16.0	16.0	18.2	14.2	14.3	12.8	15.8	20.7	21.0
Other Asian countries	111.3	92.8	88.9	105.1	84.7	79.9	72.7	92.7	113.6	103.8
Europe	**158.3**	**160.9**	**128.2**	**147.6**	**119.9**	**90.8**	**92.7**	**132.5**	**175.4**	**174.2**
of which:										
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.2	0.5	4.1	6.5	6.4	4.2	5.4	11.8	23.6	25.4
Ukraine	18.3	21.0	17.4	21.1	15.7	7.4	10.1	15.8	21.0	21.2
Russian Federation	12.1	15.2	14.6	19.7	16.6	11.5	12.3	17.1	20.4	20.8
Other European countries	127.7	124.1	92.1	100.3	81.2	67.6	64.8	87.7	110.3	106.8
South America	**53.9**	**47.4**	**45.7**	**61.8**	**52.9**	**45.4**	**41.6**	**56.1**	**68.9**	**74.5**
of which:										
Colombia	12.8	10.8	10.8	14.3	13.0	11.8	10.0	14.5	16.7	18.8
Other South American countries	41.1	36.5	34.8	47.5	39.9	33.6	31.6	41.6	52.2	55.7
Africa	**27.8**	**26.7**	**42.5**	**52.9**	**47.8**	**40.7**	**36.7**	**44.7**	**53.9**	**60.3**
Oceania	**4.9**	**4.6**	**4.7**	**5.3**	**4.3**	**3.9**	**3.7**	**5.1**	**6.1**	**5.6**
Total	**904.3**	**804.4**	**720.5**	**915.9**	**798.4**	**654.5**	**646.6**	**849.8**	**1 064.3**	**1 063.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

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

Flow data based on Population Registers

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Austria	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 weeks.	Data are still preliminary. A revision is underway, taking into account the results of the last Census.	Statistics Austria.
Belgium	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Until 1994, some asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 they have been recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit.	Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders (valid for 90 days or more) whose stay exceeds a year.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data on immigrants only count those who have lived in the country for at least one 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, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit, intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year and having a domicile in Finland.	Foreign persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
Germany	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 week.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans.	Central Population register, Federal Statistical Office.
Hungary	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data include foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Outflow data do not include people whose permit has expired. 2002 data are preliminary.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior and Hungarian Central Statistical Office.
Japan	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* intending to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Luxembourg	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 4 of the next 6 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Includes asylum seekers awaiting decisions on their application for refugee status. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
Spain	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* Foreigners registered in the local register of residents (Padron municipal de habitantes) – Statistics on changes of residence (EVR).		Local register, National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	*Criteria for registering foreigners:* holding a permanent or an annual residence permit. Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months.	Inflows do not include conversions from seasonal to non-seasonal permits.	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2, and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	A. Permanent migrants: Permanent arrivals are travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle. Permanent departures are persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia. B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (*i.e.* excluding students). Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, *e.g.,* top managers, executives, specialist and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers. Long-term departures include persons departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. Inflow data do not include those persons granted permanent residence while already temporary residents in Australia.	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Population Research.
Canada	*Permanent:* Issues of permanent residence permits. *Temporary:* Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (excluding seasonal workers) provided by reason for initial entry.	Data include those already present in Canada, and also those granted residence as part of a programme to eliminate a backlog of applications.	Statistics Canada
France	Data consist of those entering as permanent workers plus those entering under family reunification. Persons entering as self-employed and persons entering under other permits relating to family reunification are also included. Since 1997, 76 513 persons benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme.	Data by nationality for non-EU nationals are workers registered by the OMI. Up to 2000, data for EU citizens include only permanent workers (including entries from the EEA since 1994) who are included through declarations made by employers to the authorities. From 2001 on, the EU estimates are issued from more accurate figures from the Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF). As a result, totals from 2001 on are not fully comparable with data for previous years. From 1994 on, some unregistered flows are estimated (mainly inflows of family members of EEA citizens). These figures are given in Total 2 (Table B.1.1).	Office des migrations internationales and Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF).
Greece	Issues of residence permits.	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order.
Ireland	Estimates on the basis of 1996 and 2002 Census results.	Data from 1997 on have been revised in the light of the 2002 Census of Population results.	Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Issues of residence permits, including short-term ones (excluding renewals) which are still valid at the end of the year. In principle, this excludes seasonal workers.	New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000. Other permits are first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for amnesty in 1998.	Ministry of the Interior.
Korea	Skilled workers and trainees.		Ministry of Justice.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2, and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Mexico	Permanent inflows: Entries of persons with permanent residence permits (*inmigrados*), including re-entries. Temporary inflows: Entries of *inmigrantes* (retirees, highly skilled workers, family members, artists, sportsmen…), including re-entries. Outflows: Data refer to persons holding a permanent residence permit (*inmigrados*) or a temporary residence permit (*inmigrantes*).	Data are not available by country of origin.	National Statistical Office (INM).
New Zealand	*Inflows:* Residence approvals. *Outflows:* Permanent and long term departures (foreign-born persons departing permanently or intending to be away for a period of 12 months or more).	Data refer to calendar years.	New Zealand Immigration Service and New Zealand Statistics.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-time" residence permits issued.		Office for repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. 2001 and 2002 figures include respectively 126 901 and 47 657 permits which were delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation.		SEF and National Statistical Office (INE).
United Kingdom	*Inflows:* Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Table A.1.1 data have been revised to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. Routes between Ireland and the United Kingdom are not covered. *Outflows*: Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom.	Data by nationality (Table B.1.1.) on inflows and outflows are not adjusted to include short-term migrants who actually stayed longer than one year.	*International Passenger Survey*, Office for National Statistics. Data by nationality are provided by Eurostat.
United States	*Permanent inflows:* Issues of permanent residence permits.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States, that is, those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.
	Temporary inflows: Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, excluding visitors and transit passengers (B and C visas) and crewmembers (D visas). Includes family members.		United States Department of State. Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Inflows of Asylum Seekers

The statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (*www.unhcr.ch/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/statistics*).

These statistics are most often derived from administrative sources, but there are differences depending on the nature of the data provided. In some countries, asylum seekers are registered when the application is accepted. Consequently, they are shown in the statistics at that time rather than at the date when they arrived in the country (it should be pointed out that acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities are going to review the applicants' files and grant them certain rights during this review procedure). In other countries, the data do not include the applicants' family members, who are admitted under different provisions (France), while other countries register the entire family (Switzerland).

The figures presented in the summary table (Table A.1.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.1.3, which give data by country of origin. This is because the data that the UNHCR receives by country of origin combine initial applications and appeals, and it is sometimes difficult to separate these two categories retrospectively. The reference for total asylum applications remains the figures shown in summary table A.1.3. Until 2002, the data were derived from annual contributions by governments. However, 2003 data have been compiled on the basis of monthly results and have since been revised by the UNHCR. The data for the United Kingdom and the United States refer to the number of applications registered rather than the total number of persons concerned. For further details by host country, refer to Chapter VI of the 2001 statistical directory of the UNHCR.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Australia	6.3	7.6	9.8	9.3	8.2	9.5	13.1	12.4	5.8	4.3
Austria	5.1	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	39.4	32.3
Belgium	14.4	11.4	12.4	11.8	22.0	35.8	42.7	24.5	18.8	16.9
Bulgaria	–	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9	1.6
Canada	22.0	26.1	26.1	22.6	23.8	29.4	34.3	44.0	39.5	31.9
Czech Republic	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.3	8.8	18.1	8.5	11.4
Denmark	6.7	5.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	12.3	12.2	12.5	6.1	4.6
Finland	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.4	3.1
France	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.7	47.3	51.1	51.4
Germany	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.3	71.1	50.5
Greece	1.3	1.3	1.6	4.4	3.0	1.5	3.1	5.5	5.7	8.2
Hungary	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	7.1	11.5	7.8	9.6	6.4	2.4
Ireland	0.4	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7	11.1	10.3	11.6	7.9
Italy	1.8	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4	15.6	9.6	7.3	–
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3
Luxembourg	–	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.7	2.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.6
Netherlands	52.6	29.3	22.2	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7	13.4
New Zealand	0.4	0.7	1.3	1.5	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.0	0.8
Norway	3.4	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.4	10.2	10.8	14.8	17.5	16.0
Poland	0.6	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.6	4.5	5.2	6.9
Portugal	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Romania	–	–	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.1
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.3	1.6	8.2	9.7	10.3
Spain	12.0	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.7	8.4	7.9	9.5	6.3	5.8
Sweden	18.6	9.0	5.8	9.7	12.8	11.2	16.3	23.5	33.0	31.4
Switzerland	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6	20.6	26.1	21.1
United Kingdom	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	91.2	98.9	91.6	103.1	61.1
United States	144.6	149.1	107.1	52.2	35.9	32.7	40.9	59.4	58.4	60.7
EU-15	**309.7**	**275.0**	**233.5**	**251.8**	**311.4**	**396.7**	**391.3**	**388.0**	**376.8**	**288.1**
EEA	**329.2**	**293.4**	**253.3**	**278.0**	**361.1**	**453.0**	**419.7**	**423.4**	**420.4**	**325.1**
Central and Eastern Europe	**2.1**	**2.7**	**6.5**	**8.0**	**16.8**	**25.6**	**33.3**	**44.2**	**31.6**	**33.2**
North America	**166.6**	**175.1**	**133.3**	**74.8**	**59.7**	**62.1**	**75.1**	**103.5**	**97.9**	**92.5**
OECD	**504.7**	**480.2**	**404.6**	**372.2**	**448.2**	**552.3**	**535.5**	**586.3**	**559.2**	**456.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **AUSTRIA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Russian Federation	127	120	102	37	59	120	291	366	2 221	6 715
Turkey	362	509	477	340	210	335	592	1 868	3 561	2 839
India	247	189	201	253	472	874	2 441	1 802	3 366	2 823
Serbia and Montenegro	624	1 371	1 025	1 084	6 647	6 834	1 486	1 637	4 723	2 518
Afghanistan	181	141	766	723	467	2 206	4 205	12 955	6 651	2 359
Nigeria	31	89	157	202	189	270	390	1 047	1 432	1 845
Iraq	899	659	1 585	1 478	1 963	2 001	2 361	2 118	4 466	1 433
Iran	425	485	656	502	950	3 343	2 559	734	760	981
Bangladesh	170	42	141	110	167	305	305	949	1 104	887
Pakistan	88	114	270	221	242	316	624	486	359	508
Bosnia-Herzegovina	746	1 050	220	84	78	172	96	162	212	214
Romania	157	91	50	66	51	43	55	60	89	173
Poland	15	6	–	16	2	7	5	8	7	13
Czech Republic	3	5	–	11	6	14	19	8	12	11
Hungary	8	1	–	6	1	2	18	1	14	2
Other countries	999	1 047	1 341	1 586	2 301	3 254	2 837	5 926	10 377	9 019
Total	**5 082**	**5 919**	**6 991**	**6 719**	**13 805**	**20 096**	**18 284**	**30 127**	**39 354**	**32 340**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **BELGIUM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Democratic Rep. of Congo	1 963	972	860	1 230	1 714	1 402	1 421	1 371	1 789	1 778
Russian Federation	215	243	274	213	277	1 376	3 604	2 424	1 156	1 680
Serbia and Montenegro	1 240	1 455	1 822	1 290	6 057	13 067	4 921	1 932	1 523	1 280
Iran	111	103	118	97	101	165	3 183	1 164	743	1 153
Turkey	601	581	713	436	403	518	838	900	970	618
Rwanda	667	297	405	565	1 049	1 007	866	617	487	450
Algeria	402	316	225	281	337	351	807	1 709	936	400
Slovak Republic	60	29	233	284	985	1 175	1 392	898	635	390
Pakistan	623	378	300	465	437	566	655	237	177	341
Albania	173	228	402	1 007	1 147	1 010	2 674	763	539	340
Armenia	160	479	991	604	697	1 472	1 331	571	340	316
Romania	1 244	915	758	641	1 572	1 703	948	697	631	282
India	902	119	178	263	204	340	442	450	212	202
Bulgaria	607	370	605	243	471	887	1 693	508	347	168
Ghana	275	108	61	61	36	22	13	6	17	24
Other countries	5 110	4 827	4 838	4 108	6 477	10 717	17 903	10 302	8 303	7 518
Total	**14 353**	**11 420**	**12 783**	**11 788**	**21 964**	**35 778**	**42 691**	**24 549**	**18 805**	**16 940**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

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Table B.1.3. **CANADA, Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Pakistan	703	1 011	1 105	1 047	1 607	2 335	3 088	3 192	3 884	3 944
Mexico	247	548	951	926	1 158	1 172	1 310	1 669	2 397	2 601
Colombia	90	76	87	71	270	622	1 063	1 831	2 718	2 011
China	603	777	929	900	1 420	2 443	1 855	2 413	2 862	1 750
Sri Lanka	2 658	2 392	2 946	2 665	2 634	2 915	2 822	3 001	1 801	1 239
India	1 128	1 259	1 367	1 166	1 157	1 346	1 360	1 300	1 313	1 114
Bangladesh	772	900	806	539	394	317	378	371	397	676
Nigeria	233	322	410	482	580	583	800	790	828	641
Israel	754	1 226	1 270	416	360	302	254	443	632	521
Democratic Rep. of Congo	417	592	1 127	767	744	880	985	1 245	649	406
Lebanon	467	434	274	268	197	345	444	486	449	390
Somalia	1 989	1 655	962	689	653	531	753	799	388	336
Iran	1 470	1 901	1 728	1 210	880	794	767	768	381	308
El Salvador	455	444	307	365	301	300	269	561	305	202
Hungary	6	42	64	294	977	1 581	1 936	3 895	1 180	58
Other countries	10 014	12 493	11 787	10 779	10 506	12 927	16 168	21 274	19 314	15 659
Total	**22 006**	**26 072**	**26 120**	**22 584**	**23 838**	**29 393**	**34 252**	**44 038**	**39 498**	**31 856**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **FRANCE, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Turkey	1 282	1 653	1 205	1 548	1 621	2 219	3 735	5 347	6 582	6 143
China	1 290	1 617	1 435	1 754	2 076	5 174	4 968	2 948	2 869	4 587
Democratic Rep. of Congo	1 765	1 241	1 064	1 348	1 778	2 272	2 950	3 781	5 260	4 046
Algeria	2 303	1 794	643	895	920	1 306	1 818	2 933	2 865	2 125
Mauritania	613	410	321	422	542	786	1 385	2 332	2 998	2 118
Sri Lanka	1 725	1 095	1 169	1 831	1 832	2 001	2 117	2 000	1 992	1 747
Serbia and Montenegro	1 437	842	699	717	1 283	2 480	2 053	1 591	1 629	1 563
Haiti	390	146	138	134	357	503	1 886	2 713	1 904	1 256
Mali	797	504	485	237	427	1 661	2 945	2 940	2 413	1 103
Angola	606	372	232	269	263	538	611	993	1 590	974
Pakistan	446	549	491	693	813	755	798	600	438	656
Romania	4 226	3 976	4 035	5 201	3 027	394	345	204	131	104
Cambodia	514	403	392	555	563	428	311	253	166	76
Vietnam	569	376	386	345	237	240	197	196	79	66
Laos	469	306	309	233	163	117	79	56	21	–
Other countries	7 612	4 886	4 401	6 455	6 473	10 033	13 577	18 404	20 150	32 720
Total	**26 044**	**20 170**	**17 405**	**22 637**	**22 375**	**30 907**	**39 775**	**47 291**	**51 087**	**59 284**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **GERMANY, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Turkey	19 118	33 750	31 732	25 937	11 754	9 065	8 968	10 869	9 575	6 235
Serbia and Montenegro	30 404	34 480	24 773	30 962	34 979	31 451	11 121	7 758	6 679	4 866
Iraq	2 066	6 941	10 934	14 189	7 435	8 662	11 601	17 167	10 242	3 895
Vietnam	3 427	3 025	1 907	2 855	2 991	2 425	2 332	3 721	2 340	2 101
Iran	3 445	4 314	5 264	4 490	2 955	3 407	4 878	3 455	2 642	2 053
India	1 768	4 565	4 128	3 027	1 491	1 499	1 826	2 651	2 246	1 739
Afghanistan	5 642	7 715	6 217	6 033	3 768	4 458	5 380	5 837	2 772	1 467
Pakistan	2 030	4 642	3 800	3 774	1 520	1 727	1 506	1 180	1 084	1 127
Lebanon	1 456	2 040	1 734	1 456	604	598	757	671	779	637
Bosnia-Herzegovina	7 298	5 217	2 246	2 348	1 533	1 755	1 638	2 259	1 017	594
Bulgaria	3 367	2 172	1 682	1 244	172	90	72	66	814	502
Ghana	300	781	676	698	308	277	268	284	297	369
Sri Lanka	4 813	6 687	5 640	5 125	1 982	1 254	1 170	622	434	280
Romania	9 581	5 536	2 105	1 180	341	222	174	181	118	103
Poland	326	199	189	207	49	42	141	134	50	34
Other countries	32 169	44 887	46 130	48 175	26 762	28 181	26 732	31 432	30 038	24 443
Total	**127 210**	**166 951**	**149 157**	**151 700**	**98 644**	**95 113**	**78 564**	**88 287**	**71 127**	**50 445**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **NORWAY, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Serbia and Montenegro	1 547	142	76	343	1 623	1 152	4 188	928	2 460	2 216
Afghanistan	9	10	3	16	45	172	326	603	786	2 050
Russian Federation	75	69	50	39	131	318	471	1 318	1 719	1 923
Somalia	251	189	180	552	938	1 340	910	1 080	1 534	1 623
Iraq	126	99	113	272	1 296	4 073	766	1 056	1 624	971
Bosnia-Herzegovina	201	106	73	90	233	161	272	907	810	676
Iran	160	163	120	138	264	350	327	412	450	621
Ethiopia	7	18	30	48	79	126	96	173	325	293
Turkey	30	35	24	44	129	279	164	204	257	240
Romania	46	10	8	19	76	153	712	203	247	209
Ukraine	3	15	8	8	14	34	131	1 027	772	101
Pakistan	26	31	16	26	140	265	220	186	216	95
Sri Lanka	233	90	413	196	173	112	165	164	87	65
Croatia	78	29	3	55	2 415	60	16	1 216	139	51
Chile	3	. .	2	4	2	9	2	7	7	2
Other countries	584	454	659	421	815	1 556	2 076	5 298	6 047	4 824
Total	**3 379**	**1 460**	**1 778**	**2 271**	**8 373**	**10 160**	**10 842**	**14 782**	**17 480**	**15 960**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

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Table B.1.3. **SWEDEN, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Serbia and Montenegro	7 944	1 012	636	2 115	3 446	1 812	2 055	3 102	5 852	5 305
Somalia	934	869	434	364	228	289	260	525	1 107	3 069
Iraq	1 668	1 783	1 557	3 057	3 843	3 576	3 499	6 206	5 446	2 701
Bosnia-Herzegovina	2 649	1 059	262	742	1 331	486	4 244	2 775	2 885	1 396
Russian Federation	473	326	203	232	229	449	590	841	1 496	1 361
Iran	382	451	401	356	613	854	739	780	762	787
Turkey	305	269	186	208	280	220	229	458	696	733
Bulgaria	24	14	15	31	17	11	18	461	767	688
Romania	252	84	54	37	22	45	67	82	534	490
Lebanon	170	56	44	75	125	176	124	196	299	398
Ethiopia	45	31	58	62	50	63	62	91	72	184
Pakistan	71	81	34	67	122	212	187	115	62	85
Chile	14	35	33	24	21	16	35	38	229	60
Poland	54	84	73	179	21	31	28	42	30	18
Stateless	240	74	96	142	243	295	412	538	859	1 788
Other countries	3 452	2 819	1 667	1 971	2 253	2 696	3 754	7 265	11 920	12 297
Total	**18 677**	**9 047**	**5 753**	**9 662**	**12 844**	**11 231**	**16 303**	**23 515**	**33 016**	**31 360**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **SWITZERLAND, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Serbia and Montenegro	4 124	5 491	6 228	6 913	20 396	28 913	3 613	3 425	3 692	2 991
Turkey	1 068	1 293	1 317	1 395	1 565	1 453	1 431	1 960	1 940	1 661
Iraq	151	321	413	522	2 041	1 658	908	1 201	1 182	1 451
Algeria	303	388	396	564	529	491	477	828	1 020	866
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3 343	3 534	1 269	1 987	1 891	1 513	1 304	1 230	1 548	743
Democratic Rep. of Congo	276	320	695	605	536	523	540	602	746	527
Somalia	881	478	700	884	610	517	470	369	387	493
Angola	1 059	493	468	251	392	545	378	600	824	392
Sri Lanka	1 487	1 024	1 965	2 137	1 901	1 487	898	684	459	349
Iran	82	110	134	129	168	206	728	336	286	263
Romania	113	82	70	114	92	271	51	33	968	248
Pakistan	420	437	483	448	314	323	236	278	274	235
India	48	156	201	203	162	131	135	181	154	200
Albania	50	–	315	3 081	3 752	1 386	339	205	151	116
Lebanon	170	129	148	184	152	111	94	102	122	62
Other countries	2 559	2 765	3 199	4 565	6 801	6 540	6 009	8 599	12 372	10 454
Total	**16 134**	**17 021**	**18 001**	**23 982**	**41 302**	**46 068**	**17 611**	**20 633**	**26 125**	**21 051**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Somalia	1 840	3 465	1 780	2 730	4 685	7 495	5 020	6 465	6 540	3 850
Iraq	550	930	965	1 075	1 295	1 800	7 475	6 705	14 570	3 465
Zimbabwe	–	105	115	60	80	230	1 010	2 115	7 655	2 600
China	425	790	820	1 945	1 925	2 625	4 000	2 390	3 675	2 585
Iran	520	615	585	585	745	1 320	5 610	3 415	2 630	2 140
Afghanistan	–	580	675	1 085	2 395	3 975	5 555	9 000	7 205	1 910
India	2 030	3 255	1 795	1 285	1 030	1 365	2 120	1 850	1 865	1 790
Turkey	2 045	1 820	1 420	1 445	2 015	2 850	3 990	3 700	2 835	1 760
Pakistan	1 810	2 915	1 640	1 615	1 975	2 615	3 165	2 860	2 405	1 370
Democratic Rep. of Congo	775	935	650	690	660	1 240	1 030	1 395	2 215	1 140
Nigeria	4 340	5 825	2 540	1 480	1 380	945	835	870	1 125	790
Serbia and Montenegro	1 385	1 565	1 030	2 245	7 420	11 465	6 070	3 280	2 265	690
Angola	605	555	365	195	150	545	800	1 025	1 420	675
Sri Lanka	2 350	2 070	1 260	1 830	3 505	5 130	6 395	5 510	3 130	630
Ghana	2 035	1 915	675	350	225	195	285	200	275	235
Other countries	12 120	16 585	13 325	13 885	16 530	27 350	26 955	20 590	24 325	23 739
Total	**32 830**	**43 925**	**29 640**	**32 500**	**46 015**	**71 145**	**80 315**	**71 370**	**84 135**	**49 369**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

Table B.1.3. **UNITED STATES, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
China	10 839	4 822	1 976	2 377	3 074	4 210	5 541	8 008	10 237	3 774
Colombia	1 336	740	250	251	200	334	2 631	7 144	7 950	3 729
Haiti	9 403	2 396	3 792	4 310	2 676	2 492	4 257	4 938	3 643	3 025
Mexico	9 266	9 148	7 820	13 663	4 460	2 251	3 669	8 747	8 775	2 928
Guatemala	34 176	22 006	8 857	2 386	2 526	1 107	890	1 131	1 193	1 754
India	4 415	3 135	3 942	3 776	1 764	1 180	1 289	1 894	1 708	1 002
Ethiopia	825	835	948	961	868	1 101	1 445	1 467	1 287	866
Russian Federation	2 163	775	512	554	1 073	770	856	844	837	815
Pakistan	3 262	2 318	651	548	364	354	338	410	567	540
El Salvador	18 458	75 138	63 174	4 706	3 553	2 008	1 736	1 264	640	341
Somalia	114	186	1 140	1 861	2 268	3 125	2 364	1 805	538	151
Cuba	3 155	1 180	654	481	295	237	157	160	121	71
Philippines	2 291	832	722	437	98	43	54	147	83	67
Honduras	4 318	2 926	972	473	278	67	43	58	59	36
Nicaragua	4 445	1 712	1 444	658	327	92	55	42	52	4
Other countries	36 111	20 546	10 276	14 775	11 214	13 340	15 542	21 373	20 714	19 646
Total	**144 577**	**148 695**	**107 130**	**52 217**	**35 038**	**32 711**	**40 867**	**59 432**	**58 404**	**38 749**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

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

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by UNHCR, Population Data Unit.
General comments:
All data is based on annual submissions. Data for 2003, however, has been aggregated based on monthly figures and is thus only provisional and subject to change.
Data for the United States and the United Kingdom refers to number of cases, and not persons.
Data for the United States refers to fiscal year and not calendar year.
Data for Table A.1.3. generally refers to first instance/new applications only and excludes repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.1.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications. This explains that data in Table A.1.3. and B.1.3. may be slightly different for some countries.
A dash ("–") in the table indicates that the value is zero or not available

Stocks of Foreign and Foreign-born Population

Two questions must be asked before examining stocks of immigrants in OECD countries: 1) Who is considered as an "immigrant" in OECD countries (the answer is clearest for inflows), and 2) What is the nature of the problems of international comparison?

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, *i.e.* Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may also include immigrants having retained the nationality of their country of origin as of the second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. It is possible to find people having always the statute of immigrant even if they are born in the host country. 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.

Sources and problems of measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries that have a population register and in those that use residence permit data effectively, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, as some countries instead use census or labour force survey data to evaluate the stock of the immigrant population. The same problems for studying stocks and flows are encountered whether registers or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of "clearing" series regularly to eliminate permits that have expired.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be very small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, especially where they tend not to be registered for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys generally do not cover those living in institutions such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources can detect a portion of the illegal population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

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Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Australia	4 053.9	4 084.6	4 164.1	4 258.6	4 315.8	4 334.8	4 373.3	4 417.5	4 482.0	4 565.8
% of total population	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.2
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	895.7	872.0	843.0	892.6	925.9
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11.1	10.7	10.4	11.0	11.6
Canada	. .	. .	. .	4 971.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	5 448.5	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	17.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	18.2	. .
Denmark	217.2	225.0	249.9	265.8	276.8	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5
% of total population	4.2	4.3	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.2
Finland	. .	. .	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1	131.0	136.2	145.1	152.1
% of total population	. .	. .	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5 868.2	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.0	. .	. .	. .
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 122.9	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.3	. .
Hungary	. .	. .	283.7	283.9	284.2	286.2	289.3	294.6	300.1	306.6
% of total population	. .	. .	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Ireland	. .	. .	. .	251.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	390.0
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	7.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.0
Luxembourg	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	144.8	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	33.0	. .
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	406.0	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.5	. .	. .
Netherlands	1 375.4	1 387.4	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2
% of total population	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	698.6	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.5	. .
Norway	216.2	233.4	240.3	246.9	257.7	273.3	292.4	305.0	315.2	333.9
% of total population	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.8	6.9	7.3
Sweden	869.1	922.1	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5
% of total population	9.9	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.0	10.8	11.8	11.3	11.5	11.8
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	518.7	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	12.0	. .
Turkey	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 278.7	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	. .	. .
United States	. .	21 254	23 365	26 275	27 743	28 291	28 017	29 472	30 634	33 383
% of total population	. .	8.2	8.9	9.9	10.4	10.5	10.3	10.8	11.1	11.8

Note: Data are from censuses for Canada, France, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, Slovak Republic and Turkey and from population registers for other countries except Australia and the United States. For Australia data are inter- and post-censal estimates of the foreign-born population and for the United States data refer to the Current Population Survey. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **AUSTRALIA, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Europe	**2 404.4**	**2 401.7**	**2 407.0**	**2 414.2**	**2 405.7**	**2 389.1**	**2 373.1**	**2 355.4**	**2 337.2**	**2 330.6**
United Kingdom	1 229.6	1 223.5	1 220.9	1 164.1	1 156.8	1 149.2	1 141.0	1 134.0	1 126.9	1 123.9
Italy	266.8	264.1	261.6	259.1	255.2	251.3	247.2	243.0	238.5	235.2
Former Yugoslavia	174.8	179.4	186.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Greece	144.6	143.4	142.3	141.8	140.6	138.8	136.7	134.7	132.5	131.2
Germany	119.9	119.9	120.1	120.8	120.5	119.8	119.0	118.3	117.5	117.1
Netherlands	98.1	97.0	96.1	95.3	94.8	94.0	93.0	92.1	91.2	90.4
Other countries	370.6	374.4	379.9	633.1	637.8	636.0	636.2	633.3	630.6	632.8
Asia	**803.6**	**835.9**	**880.0**	**939.3**	**975.1**	**990.4**	**1 011.0**	**1 035.5**	**1 073.6**	**1 117.1**
Vietnam	142.9	150.4	157.8	164.2	167.6	168.8	169.8	169.8	169.5	171.6
China	98.8	102.2	107.2	121.1	131.6	135.1	141.5	148.2	157.0	164.9
Philippines	88.6	93.2	98.3	102.7	104.4	105.6	108.2	110.2	112.2	115.8
India	73.1	75.6	80.0	84.8	87.8	89.4	91.2	95.8	103.6	110.6
Malaysia	80.5	81.6	82.8	83.0	83.8	84.1	84.6	85.4	87.2	89.6
Other countries	319.7	332.9	353.9	383.5	399.9	407.4	415.7	426.1	444.1	464.6
Oceania	**379.0**	**384.8**	**395.5**	**409.9**	**421.8**	**431.2**	**452.0**	**474.9**	**503.3**	**526.8**
New Zealand	291.4	295.9	304.2	315.1	323.8	331.7	349.6	369.5	394.1	413.7
Other countries	87.6	88.9	91.3	94.8	98.0	99.5	102.4	105.4	109.2	113.1
Middle East and North Africa	**200.7**	**202.6**	**206.8**	**211.8**	**219.4**	**223.6**	**227.4**	**232.0**	**237.6**	**244.9**
Lebanon	77.6	77.2	77.1	77.6	78.3	78.7	78.8	79.2	80.0	81.2
Other countries	123.1	125.4	129.7	134.2	141.1	144.9	148.6	152.8	157.6	163.7
Americas	**157.8**	**158.5**	**161.1**	**165.1**	**168.3**	**170.1**	**171.6**	**173.6**	**176.1**	**178.7**
United States	49.5	50.2	51.9	54.3	55.9	56.7	57.2	58.0	59.0	60.2
Other countries	108.3	108.3	109.2	110.8	112.4	113.4	114.4	115.6	117.1	118.5
Africa (excl. North Africa)	**108.3**	**110.2**	**113.8**	**118.4**	**125.4**	**130.5**	**138.3**	**146.0**	**154.3**	**167.8**
South Africa	56.0	57.0	58.8	61.7	66.1	69.4	74.9	80.8	86.9	95.3
Other countries	52.3	53.2	55.0	56.7	59.3	61.1	63.4	65.2	67.4	72.5
Total	**4 053.9**	**4 084.6**	**4 164.1**	**4 258.6**	**4 315.8**	**4 334.8**	**4 373.3**	**4 417.5**	**4 482.0**	**4 565.8**
% of total population	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which*: Women		
						2000	2001	2002
Bosnia-Herzegovina	113.1	125.1	115.4	131.5	138.7	58.5	65.3	68.4
Former Yugoslavia (other)	129.9	123.8	111.0	114.0	132.5	53.2	58.3	71.7
Turkey	118.8	124.5	110.1	128.0	127.3	52.5	54.0	58.5
Germany	122.8	122.2	126.0	125.2	120.9	76.7	74.8	70.8
Former CSFR	52.5	47.4	45.6	41.3	47.7	24.6	25.6	30.6
Croatia	50.8	50.5	54.7	53.9	44.5	29.5	27.2	23.9
Romania	40.5	34.0	31.2	37.2	39.9	19.7	19.8	20.2
Poland	41.2	41.0	42.3	43.2	37.6	24.8	23.8	22.0
Hungary	24.2	22.3	18.0	23.8	30.4	12.2	13.8	17.1
Italy	24.8	18.8	23.2	19.3	22.8	13.6	8.2	12.2
Slovenia	29.1	17.9	15.9	17.0	14.7	9.9	11.0	8.3
Other countries	148.0	144.5	149.6	158.2	168.9	77.0	81.8	91.1
Total	**895.7**	**872.0**	**843.0**	**892.6**	**925.9**	**452.2**	**463.6**	**494.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **CANADA, stock of immigrant population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1996	2001	*Of which:* Women	
			1996	2001
United Kingdom	655.5	606.0	352.2	323.1
China	231.1	332.8	122.2	177.6
Italy	332.1	315.5	158.0	152.2
India	235.9	314.7	117.0	156.6
United States	244.7	237.9	139.8	136.6
Hong Kong (China)	241.1	235.6	124.3	122.3
Philippines	184.6	232.7	111.7	139.3
Poland	193.4	180.4	100.1	95.7
Germany	181.7	174.1	95.2	90.9
Portugal	158.8	153.5	79.3	77.5
Vietnam	139.3	148.4	69.7	75.7
Former Yugoslavia	122.0	145.4	59.3	71.1
Former USSR	108.4	133.2	57.1	76.3
Jamaica	115.8	120.2	67.3	69.6
Netherlands	124.5	117.7	60.9	56.9
Other countries	1 702.2	2 000.4	851.4	1 004.5
Total	**4 971.1**	**5 448.5**	**2 565.7**	**2 825.9**
% of total population	17.4	18.2	9.0	9.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **DENMARK, stock of immigrant population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Turkey	24.9	25.5	26.5	27.3	28.2	29.0	29.7	30.4	30.8	30.9
Germany	21.9	22.0	22.5	22.6	22.9	22.9	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.5
Iraq	5.7	6.6	7.6	8.7	10.8	12.5	15.1	18.0	19.7	20.7
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.1	15.2	16.9	17.9	18.0	18.0	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.2
Norway	12.0	12.1	12.4	12.6	12.9	13.1	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.9
Former Yugoslavia[1]	9.4	10.3	12.3	12.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3
Sweden	11.7	11.7	11.9	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2
Lebanon	11.1	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.1
Somalia	4.6	6.0	8.4	9.9	10.7	11.3	11.8	12.2	12.3	11.8
Iran	10.0	10.1	10.5	10.7	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7
Poland	9.7	9.8	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9
Pakistan	8.7	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.7	9.9	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.7
United Kingdom	9.9	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7
Afghanistan	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.9	4.3	7.2	8.4	9.0
Vietnam	7.5	7.6	7.8	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.6
Other countries	76.8	81.6	86.8	91.2	95.7	100.3	105.7	111.4	117.1	121.8
Total	**225.0**	**249.9**	**265.8**	**276.8**	**287.7**	**296.9**	**308.7**	**321.8**	**331.5**	**337.8**
of which: EU	60.6	61.6	63.3	64.8	66.1	66.2	66.4	66.6	66.6	66.8

Note: Data refer only to immigrants as defined in the Annex. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

1. Figures refer to persons who immigrated before the dissolution of Former Yugoslavia.

Table B.1.4. **FINLAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Former USSR	24.8	26.4	28.8	31.4	33.5	32.9	34.4	36.3
Sweden	26.6	27.0	27.4	27.8	27.9	28.0	28.3	28.6
Estonia	5.6	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.4	7.8	8.7	9.5
Former Yugoslavia	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	5.9	4.2	4.5	4.6
Somalia	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.6
Germany	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9
Iraq	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.8
United Kingdom	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1
United States	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1
Vietnam	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0
China	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.7
Turkey	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6
Iran	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5
Thailand	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.4
India	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5
Other countries	25.5	26.0	27.2	28.9	28.6	34.3	38.3	40.0
Total	**106.3**	**111.1**	**118.1**	**125.1**	**131.1**	**136.2**	**145.1**	**152.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **GREECE, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2001	*Of which*: Women
		2001
Europe	**843.5**	**422.3**
of which:		
Albania	403.9	166.6
Germany	101.4	54.5
Turkey	76.6	45.1
Russian Federation	72.7	42.1
Bulgaria	38.9	23.8
Romania	26.5	12.7
Cyprus	22.5	13.0
Ukraine	16.7	12.5
Poland	15.5	8.7
United Kingdom	13.3	8.5
Asia	**162.5**	**73.2**
of which:		
Georgia	71.7	38.6
Kazakhstan	24.4	12.9
America	**42.1**	**24.3**
of which:		
United States	23.1	12.9
Africa	**52.2**	**25.5**
of which:		
Egypt	32.7	15.6
Oceania	**21.1**	**11.4**
of which:		
Australia	20.4	11.0
Other countries	1.5	0.7
Total	**1 122.9**	**557.4**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.4.

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Table B.1.4. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Romania	141.2	141.5	141.7	142.0	142.3	144.2	145.2	148.5
Former CSFR	43.3	41.8	40.3	38.9	37.5	36.0	34.6	34.1
Former USSR	27.1	27.8	28.3	29.2	30.2	31.5	30.4	31.4
Former Yugoslavia	33.9	33.6	33.3	33.5	34.4	35.1	33.4	30.8
Germany	13.2	13.4	13.6	13.8	14.1	14.4	15.3	15.9
Austria	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.2
China	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.7	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.8
Poland	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
United States	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4
Vietnam	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.6
France	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
Greece	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.5
Bulgaria	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Other countries	11.6	12.2	12.8	13.7	14.6	16.1	23.0	26.9
Total	**283.7**	**283.9**	**284.2**	**286.2**	**289.3**	**294.6**	**300.1**	**306.6**
of which: EU	22.0	22.4	22.9	23.3	23.8	24.3	26.4	27.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **IRELAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2002	*Of which* Women:
		2002
United Kingdom	242.2	123.7
United States	21.0	11.3
Nigeria	8.9	4.6
Germany	8.5	4.6
France	6.7	3.5
South Africa	6.1	3.0
Australia	5.9	3.1
Romania	5.8	2.5
China	5.6	2.4
Spain	4.5	2.8
Philippines	3.9	2.6
Canada	3.9	2.1
Italy	3.6	1.6
Netherlands	3.4	1.6
Pakistan	3.3	1.2
Other countries	56.6	25.7
Total	**390.0**	**196.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Portugal	41.7	20.0
France	18.8	9.9
Belgium	14.8	7.2
Germany	12.8	7.6
Italy	12.3	5.4
Serbia and Montenegro	6.5	3.0
Netherlands	3.3	1.6
United Kingdom	3.2	1.4
Spain	2.1	1.1
Denmark	1.5	0.8
United States	1.1	0.5
Poland	1.0	0.6
Sweden	1.0	0.5
Greece	0.9	0.4
Switzerland	0.8	0.4
Other countries	23.2	12.6
Total	**144.8**	**73.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Turkey	166.0	166.0	167.5	169.3	172.7	175.5	178.0	181.9	186.2	190.5
Suriname	182.9	180.9	181.0	181.6	182.2	184.2	185.0	186.5	188.0	189.0
Morocco	139.4	139.8	140.7	142.7	145.8	149.6	152.7	155.8	159.8	163.4
Indonesia	183.7	180.4	177.7	174.8	172.1	170.3	168.0	165.8	163.9	161.4
Germany	129.4	131.2	130.1	128.0	126.8	125.5	124.2	123.1	122.1	120.6
Former Yugoslavia	29.7	37.2	43.8	46.1	46.7	47.5	50.5	53.9	55.9	56.2
United Kingdom	44.8	43.3	42.3	41.7	42.3	42.7	43.6	45.7	47.9	48.5
Belgium	44.0	43.2	43.3	43.3	44.0	44.6	45.3	46.0	46.5	46.8
Iraq	4.8	7.4	10.2	14.4	20.4	27.3	29.9	33.7	36.0	35.8
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	7.2	10.8	14.6	19.8	24.3	28.5	31.0
Former USSR	5.7	6.6	8.4	10.1	11.7	13.7	16.1	21.6	27.1	30.8
China	15.2	15.2	16.1	16.9	18.0	19.4	20.6	22.7	25.8	28.7
Iran	10.8	12.7	14.9	17.3	18.5	19.3	20.1	21.5	23.2	24.2
United States	17.0	17.1	17.4	17.9	18.6	19.5	20.3	21.4	22.1	22.5
Poland	12.4	12.9	13.6	14.3	15.1	15.9	16.3	17.4	18.6	20.1
Other countries	389.6	393.5	400.2	407.9	423.5	444.3	465.6	494.3	523.2	544.7
Total	**1 375.4**	**1 387.4**	**1 407.1**	**1 433.6**	**1 469.0**	**1 513.9**	**1 556.3**	**1 615.4**	**1 674.6**	**1 714.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

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Table B.1.4. **NEW ZEALAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Oceania	**174.2**	**91.6**
of which:		
Australia	56.3	30.1
Samoa	47.1	24.7
Fiji	25.7	13.5
Tonga	18.1	9.1
Cook Islands	15.2	7.9
Europe	**284.7**	**142.0**
of which:		
United Kingdom	218.4	109.7
Netherlands	22.2	10.2
Germany	8.4	4.5
Africa and the Middle East	**48.4**	**24.0**
of which:		
South Africa	26.1	13.4
Asia	**165.8**	**88.9**
of which:		
China	38.9	20.5
India	20.9	10.2
Korea	17.9	9.4
Chinese Taipei	12.5	6.8
Malaysia	11.5	6.0
America	**25.5**	**13.3**
of which:		
United States	13.3	6.8
Other countries	–	–
Total	**698.6**	**359.7**
% of total population	19.5	10.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **NORWAY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Sweden	20.0	23.2	24.3	26.0	29.3	32.6	33.4	33.2	33.0	33.0
Denmark	20.5	21.2	20.9	20.9	21.1	21.7	21.7	22.0	22.1	22.3
Pakistan	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.9	13.3	13.6	14.1	14.6
United States	14.7	15.4	15.2	15.0	15.0	15.1	15.0	14.7	14.6	14.6
United Kingdom	13.4	13.7	13.6	13.5	13.6	14.1	14.3	14.2	14.1	14.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	5.1	8.1	10.8	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.6	11.7	11.8	13.5
Germany	8.4	9.3	9.5	9.7	10.1	10.8	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.9
Vietnam	10.4	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.7
Iran	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.3	7.7	8.3	8.9	9.3	10.1	10.7
Turkey	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.6	7.9	8.4
Serbia and Montenegro	9.0	8.9	7.9	7.3	7.2	7.5	13.3	12.9	11.7	8.1
Sri Lanka	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.7	8.0
Philippines	4.4	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4	7.0
Poland	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.7
Korea	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.4
Other countries	69.9	77.1	80.3	84.3	89.7	97.2	106.4	117.4	125.6	141.8
Total	**216.2**	**233.4**	**240.3**	**246.9**	**257.7**	**273.2**	**292.4**	**305.0**	**315.2**	**333.9**
% of total population	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.8	6.9	7.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **SLOVAK REPUBLIC, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2001
Czech Republic	71.5
Hungary	17.2
Ukraine	7.1
Poland	3.4
Romania	3.0
Russian Federation	1.6
Serbia and Montenegro	1.4
France	1.3
Bulgaria	1.0
Austria	0.7
United States	0.7
Vietnam	0.6
Germany	0.6
Croatia	0.3
Belgium	0.2
Other countries	407.9
Total	**518.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.4.

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Table B.1.4. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Finland	207.8	205.7	203.4	201.0	198.8	197.0	195.4	193.5	191.5	189.3
Former Yugoslavia	112.3	119.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	72.8	70.9	70.9	70.4	72.0	73.3	74.4	75.1
Iraq	23.4	26.4	29.0	32.7	37.9	43.1	49.4	55.7	62.8	67.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	46.8	48.3	50.0	50.7	51.5	52.2	52.9	53.9
Iran	48.7	49.0	49.2	49.8	50.3	50.5	51.1	51.8	52.7	53.2
Norway	45.9	53.9	43.8	42.7	41.9	41.8	42.5	43.4	44.5	45.1
Poland	39.0	39.4	39.5	39.6	39.7	39.9	40.1	40.5	41.1	41.6
Denmark	40.9	40.5	39.8	38.9	38.2	37.9	38.2	38.9	39.9	40.9
Germany	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.8	37.2	37.4	38.2	38.9	39.4	40.2
Turkey	29.2	29.8	30.2	. .	31.0	31.4	31.9	32.5	33.1	34.1
Chile	27.2	27.0	26.9	26.7	26.6	26.6	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.5
Lebanon	21.6	. .	21.6	21.4	20.2	20.0	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.8
United Kingdom	12.6	12.7	13.1	13.3	13.7	14.0	14.6	15.5	16.1	16.4
Syria	9.1	9.4	. .	. .	12.8	13.6	14.2	14.6	15.2	15.7
Other countries	267.9	286.3	291.2	332.0	299.5	307.2	317.9	329.9	342.1	356.4
Total	**922.1**	**936.0**	**943.8**	**954.2**	**968.7**	**981.6**	**1 003.8**	**1 028.0**	**1 053.5**	**1 078.1**
% of total population	10.5	10.5	10.7	10.8	11.0	11.8	11.3	11.5	11.8	12.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Table B.1.4. **TURKEY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1990	2000	*Of which*: Women	
			1990	2000
Bulgaria	462.8	480.8	237.9	252.5
Germany	176.8	273.5	88.3	140.6
Greece	101.8	59.2	54.0	32.3
Netherlands	9.9	21.8	5.0	11.1
Russian Federation	11.4	19.9	5.1	12.1
United Kingdom	6.5	18.9	3.3	10.1
France	10.3	16.8	5.0	8.2
Austria	7.0	14.3	3.5	7.2
United States	12.9	13.6	5.2	6.1
Iran	10.5	13.0	3.9	4.9
Cyprus	9.2	10.4	4.8	5.6
Switzerland	8.1	10.4	4.1	5.4
Former Yugoslavia	183.5	. .	93.2	. .
Iraq	27.3	. .	12.7	. .
Afghanistan	7.2	. .	3.6	. .
Other countries	92.1	326.1	45.0	167.6
Unknown	4.0	. .	1.7	. .
Total	**1 137.2**	**1 278.7**	**574.5**	**663.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.4..

Table B.1.4. **UNITED STATES, stock of foreign-born population by place of birth**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which*: Women		
											2001	2002	2003
Mexico	6 485.3	6 960.9	6 894.8	7 298.2	7 382.4	7 429.1	8 072.3	8 494.0	9 900.4	10 237.2	3 902.0	4 411.3	4 599.1
Philippines	1 117.8	1 084.4	1 239.0	1 205.6	1 324.6	1 549.4	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1	1 457.5	747.3	868.3	857.1
India	512.1	422.2	772.2	770.0	747.7	849.2	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4	1 183.6	484.5	556.8	542.5
China	576.7	523.9	825.0	961.4	865.9	890.6	898.0	968.2	986.9	1 167.6	524.5	520.7	634.9
Germany	1 143.5	1 169.5	1 096.1	1 204.2	1 200.8	986.9	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8	1 091.5	709.4	709.2	627.2
El Salvador	842.6	715.0	728.6	645.4	791.6	811.3	787.7	840.9	882.8	1 025.3	413.2	420.4	450.4
Cuba	828.9	819.8	790.6	927.3	930.6	960.9	957.3	859.6	935.7	1 005.2	444.3	478.1	514.3
Vietnam	515.8	475.9	800.9	805.9	1 013.8	988.1	872.7	768.2	831.5	946.7	374.7	423.0	510.4
Korea	575.5	560.8	595.5	659.0	657.6	660.7	801.8	889.2	811.2	916.2	506.8	491.0	530.0
Canada	881.0	870.4	867.0	739.9	787.3	825.1	879.3	957.4	921.2	852.6	496.1	506.2	431.9
Dominican Republic	563.4	510.3	526.6	643.4	646.8	692.1	699.2	640.1	668.6	725.9	403.5	397.3	431.8
United Kingdom	632.4	734.5	693.6	713.4	761.9	796.2	758.2	715.3	745.1	700.7	391.7	397.6	387.6
Jamaica	440.0	523.8	510.5	400.1	355.6	405.2	422.5	488.4	537.8	671.1	244.8	298.4	371.4
Italy	559.9	524.5	517.2	508.7	511.0	505.8	500.8	447.6	442.2	553.7	195.0	212.5	275.4
Russian Federation	458.1	480.3	363.7	507.6	490.8	459.3	370.5	523.5	522.6	543.5	287.4	290.9	297.8
Other countries	5 120.8	6 989.4	9 053.6	9 752.7	9 822.3	9 206.8	9 980.8	10 551.3	11 225.2	11 474.3	5 281.7	5 693.9	5 800.1
Total	**21 253.7**	**23 365.5**	**26 274.9**	**27 742.8**	**28 290.7**	**28 016.9**	**29 472.5**	**30 633.9**	**33 383.4**	**34 552.7**	**15 406.9**	**16 675.6**	**17 261.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

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Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Estimated resident population (ERP) based on Population Censuses. In between Censuses, the ERP is updated by data on births, deaths and net overseas migration. *Reference date*: 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Austria	*Reference date:* March of the given year.	Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria
Canada	Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents). "Other countries" include "not stated".	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
Denmark	Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad by parents that are both foreign citizens or born abroad. When no information is available on the nationality/country of birth of a person born abroad, the person is classified as an immigrant.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	Mainland only. *Reference date:* 8 March 1999.	Census, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Greece	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the census (Usual resident population).	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. *Reference data:* 28 April 2002.	Census, Central Statistics Office.
Luxembourg	*Reference date:* 15 February 2001.	Census 2001, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Population aged 5 and over.	2000 Census, National Council on Population (CONAPO)
Netherlands	Stocks of foreign-born citizens registered in the population register. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	Census results. *Reference date:* March 2001.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	Stocks of foreign-born citizens registered in the population register. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Slovak Republic	Census of population who had permanent residence at the date of the Census.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	Stocks of foreign-born citizens registered in the population register. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Sweden.
Turkey	Census of Population.	State Institute of Statistics (SIS).
United States	Data refer to the foreign-born (including those born abroad as US citizens). *Reference date:* March.	Current Population Survey (from 1994 on), US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Austria	689.6	713.5	677.1	681.7	683.4	686.5	694.0	701.8	707.8	707.9
% of total population	8.6	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.8	8.8
Belgium	920.0	922.3	909.8	911.9	903.2	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1
% of total population	9.1	9.1	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2
Czech Republic	77.7	103.7	158.6	198.6	209.8	219.8	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6
% of total population	0.8	1.0	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.3
Denmark	189.0	196.7	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4
% of total population	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.9
Finland	55.6	62.0	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7
% of total population	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 263.2	. .	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.6	. .	. .	. .
Germany	6 878.1	6 990.5	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.5	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6
% of total population	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	762.2	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.0	. .
Hungary	. .	137.9	139.9	142.5	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9
% of total population	. .	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1
Ireland	89.9	91.1	96.1	118.0	114.4	110.8	117.8	126.3	155.0	187.7
% of total population	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8
Italy	987.4	922.7	991.4	1 095.6	1 240.7	1 250.2	1 252.0	1 388.2	1 362.6	1 512.3
% of total population	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.6
Japan	1 320.7	1 354.0	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 512.1	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8
% of total population	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5
Korea	66.7	84.9	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9	169.0	210.2	229.6	252.5
% of total population	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Luxembourg	127.6	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7
% of total population	31.8	32.6	33.4	34.1	34.9	35.6	36.0	37.3	37.5	38.1
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	264.2	. .	. .
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	. .	. .
Netherlands	779.8	757.1	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0
% of total population	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3
Norway	162.3	164.0	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.0	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7
% of total population	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.3
Poland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	49.2
% of total population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Portugal	131.6	157.1	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9	208.0	350.5	413.3
% of total population	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	3.4	4.0
Slovak Republic	11.0	16.9	21.9	24.1	24.8	27.4	29.5	28.3	29.4	29.5
% of total population	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Spain	430.4	461.4	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1 109.1	1 324.0
% of total population	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.7	3.1
Sweden	507.5	537.4	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1
% of total population	5.8	6.1	5.2	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.3
Switzerland	1 260.3	1 300.1	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3
% of total population	18.1	18.6	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9
United Kingdom	2 001.0	2 032.0	1 948.0	1 934.0	2 066.0	2 207.0	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 681.0
% of total population	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.5

Note: Data are from population registers or from registers of foreigners except for France, Greece, Mexico and Poland (Census), Portugal (residence permits), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey) For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.5.

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Table B.1.5. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Former Yugoslavia	311.2	314.2	314.4	315.8	319.9	322.2	322.0	320.9
Turkey	136.4	135.0	133.0	132.2	129.6	127.3	126.2	121.4
Other countries	229.4	232.5	235.9	238.4	244.4	252.3	259.6	265.6
Total	**677.1**	**681.7**	**683.4**	**686.5**	**694.0**	**701.8**	**707.8**	**707.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Italy	216.0	213.5	210.7	208.2	205.8	202.6	200.3	195.6	190.8	187.0	88.3	86.3	84.8
France	97.1	98.7	100.1	101.7	103.6	105.1	107.2	109.3	111.1	113.0	56.7	57.6	58.5
Netherlands	72.6	75.0	77.2	80.6	82.3	84.2	85.8	88.8	92.6	96.6	39.9	41.7	43.8
Morocco	145.4	144.0	140.3	138.3	132.8	125.1	122.0	106.8	90.6	83.6	50.1	41.9	38.4
Spain	49.4	48.9	48.3	47.9	47.4	46.6	45.9	43.4	45.0	44.5	22.2	22.2	22.0
Turkey	88.3	86.0	81.7	78.5	73.8	70.7	69.2	56.2	45.9	42.6	28.5	23.2	21.5
Germany	30.2	31.0	31.8	32.7	33.3	34.0	34.3	34.6	34.7	35.1	17.0	17.1	17.4
United Kingdom	25.4	25.9	26.0	26.2	26.1	25.9	26.2	26.6	26.4	26.2	12.0	11.9	11.8
Portugal	21.9	23.0	23.9	24.9	25.3	25.5	25.6	25.6	25.8	26.0	12.7	12.8	12.9
Greece	20.3	20.1	19.9	19.5	19.2	18.8	18.4	18.0	17.6	17.3	8.4	8.3	8.2
Dem. Rep. of Congo	15.9	16.5	12.2	12.0	12.1	12.4	12.5	11.3	13.0	13.6	5.6	6.4	6.6
United States	11.7	11.7	12.0	12.3	12.6	12.4	12.2	11.9	11.8	11.7	6.0	6.0	5.9
Former Yugoslavia	7.4	7.7	8.1	1.1	1.3	6.0	14.4	9.8	10.3	10.4	4.8	3.1	3.1
Poland	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.3	6.7	6.9	8.9	10.4	4.5	5.6	6.4
Algeria	10.2	10.0	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.5	8.3	7.7	7.2	7.2	3.5	3.2	3.1
Other countries[1]	103.3	105.0	102.8	113.0	112.6	107.7	108.1	109.3	115.2	124.8	55.7	61.5	66.1
Total	**920.0**	**922.3**	**909.8**	**911.9**	**903.1**	**892.0**	**897.1**	**861.7**	**846.7**	**850.1**	**415.8**	**408.6**	**410.4**
of which: EU-15	543.5	547.1	554.5	559.6	562.1	562.5	534.3	533.4	564.2	566.7	267.7	268.4	269.1
Total women	424.6	429.7	428.0	431.9	430.3	427.1	431.2	415.8	408.6	410.4			

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

1. Including refugees whose stock is not broken down by nationality.

Table B.1.5. **CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Slovak Republic	16.7	39.7	50.3	52.2	49.6	40.4	44.3	53.2	61.1	66.3
Ukraine	14.2	28.2	46.3	43.4	52.7	65.9	50.2	51.8	59.1	60.5
Vietnam	9.6	14.2	17.6	21.0	22.9	24.8	23.6	23.9	27.1	28.1
Poland	20.0	23.1	24.5	25.0	22.2	18.3	17.1	16.5	16.0	16.3
Russian Federation	3.6	4.4	6.7	8.9	10.0	16.9	13.0	12.4	12.8	12.4
Germany	4.2	5.6	5.9	5.9	5.1	6.1	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2
Bulgaria	3.8	4.3	4.3	6.6	6.0	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.1
United States	3.5	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	4.8	5.0	3.8	3.9	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.1
China	2.9	4.2	4.8	4.5	4.2	4.3	3.6	3.3	3.2	3.0
Romania	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3
Austria	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
United Kingdom	1.4	1.9	1.5	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7
Other countries	20.5	20.0	23.6	27.9	32.8	32.7	27.7	28.3	30.2	29.7
Total	**103.7**	**158.6**	**198.6**	**209.8**	**219.8**	**228.9**	**201.0**	**210.8**	**231.6**	**237.7**

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated, except for 2003, data refer to the population on 30 June. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **DENMARK, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Turkey	34.7	35.0	35.7	36.8	37.5	38.1	36.6	35.2	33.4	31.9	17.3	16.3	15.6
Iraq	5.3	6.0	7.1	8.1	9.4	11.3	12.7	13.8	16.5	18.0	6.3	7.5	8.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	17.8	. .	. .	8.8
Norway	10.5	10.8	11.1	11.5	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0	13.2	13.4	7.5	7.6	7.8
Somalia	3.6	5.1	6.9	9.7	11.9	13.1	14.3	14.4	14.6	13.3	7.0	7.2	6.6
Germany	9.5	10.1	10.6	11.4	11.9	12.4	12.7	12.7	12.9	13.0	5.9	6.1	6.1
United Kingdom	11.4	11.9	12.1	12.5	12.8	12.9	12.7	12.6	12.8	12.7	4.4	4.5	4.5
Former Yugoslavia (other)[1]	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.8	. .	. .	5.3
Sweden	8.6	8.8	9.1	9.4	10.0	10.4	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.7	6.2	6.2	6.1
Afghanistan	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.9	4.2	7.1	8.2	1.9	3.2	3.8
Pakistan	6.4	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.2	6.9	3.8	3.8	3.7
Iceland	3.1	3.7	4.8	5.6	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.6	2.9	2.9	3.3
Poland	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.7	3.9	4.0	3.9
United States	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	2.4	2.3	2.4
Thailand	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.2	3.6	4.1	4.3
Other countries	83.0	85.3	104.3	110.8	115.4	116.0	116.3	113.6	116.3	85.8	57.9	59.7	44.9
Total	**189.0**	**196.7**	**222.7**	**237.7**	**249.6**	**256.3**	**259.4**	**258.6**	**266.7**	**265.4**	**130.8**	**135.4**	**135.4**
of which: EU	42.3	44.6	46.5	48.9	. .	53.2	52.8	54.3	55.1	55.4	24.2	24.7	24.9
Total women	91.6	96.0	109.2	117.3	. .	128.0	130.6	130.8	135.4	135.4			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

1. Include persons who immigrated before the dissolution of Former Yugoslavia.

Table B.1.5. **FINLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Russian Federation[1]	. .	. .	9.7	11.8	14.3	16.9	18.6	20.6	22.7	24.3	12.7	14.0	15.0
Estonia[1]	5.9	7.5	8.4	9.0	9.7	10.3	10.7	10.8	11.7	12.4	6.5	6.9	7.2
Sweden	6.5	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.8	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.0	3.5	3.5	3.5
Somalia	2.9	3.5	4.0	4.6	5.2	5.4	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5	2.1	2.2	2.3
Iraq	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.9	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.4	1.4	1.5	1.6
United Kingdom	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Germany	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	0.8	0.8	1.0
Iran	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	0.8	1.0	1.0
United States	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	0.8	0.9	0.9
Turkey	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	0.4	0.5	0.6
China	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.1	0.8	1.0	1.1
Thailand	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.5
Vietnam	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	0.9	0.9	0.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.3	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	0.8	0.8	0.8
France	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	28.7	31.3	24.4	24.5	25.5	25.5	26.2	27.1	29.8	31.0	12.0	13.2	13.6
Total	**55.6**	**62.0**	**68.6**	**73.8**	**80.6**	**85.1**	**87.7**	**91.1**	**98.6**	**103.7**	**45.5**	**49.3**	**52.0**
of which: EU	. .	. .	13.7	14.1	14.9	15.7	16.3	. .	17.4	18.0	. .	6.2	6.4
Total women	25.8	29.2	32.8	35.8	39.5	42.0	43.5	45.5	49.3	52.0			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

1. Figures include Ingrians (ethnic Finns).

Table B.1.5. **FRANCE, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1982	1990	1999	*Of which:* Women		
				1982	1990	1999
Portugal	767.3	649.7	553.7	361.6	304.2	258.9
Morocco	441.3	572.7	504.1	172.4	250.7	229.2
Algeria	805.1	614.2	477.5	310.5	253.9	204.6
Turkey	122.3	197.7	208.0	51.8	87.5	98.3
Italy	340.3	252.8	201.7	147.3	108.0	87.3
Spain	327.2	216.0	161.8	154.5	103.7	80.6
Tunisia	190.8	206.3	154.4	72.0	84.8	63.8
Former Yugoslavia	62.5	52.5	. .	28.7	24.5	. .
Cambodia	37.9	47.4	. .	17.6	22.6	. .
Poland	64.8	47.1	. .	37.9	28.9	. .
Senegal	32.3	43.7	. .	9.7	17.0	. .
Vietnam	33.8	33.7	. .	16.0	15.3	. .
Laos	32.5	31.8	. .	15.4	15.0	. .
Other countries	456.1	631.0	1 002.1	199.2	298.0	508.3
Total	**3 714.2**	**3 596.6**	**3 263.2**	**1 594.6**	**1 614.3**	**1 530.9**
of which: EU-15	1 594.8	1 311.9	1 195.5	739.4	613.9	572.5
Total women	1 594.6	1 614.3	1 530.9			

Note: Data are from the population censuses. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **GERMANY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Turkey	1 918.4	1 965.6	2 014.3	2 049.1	2 107.4	2 110.2	2 053.6	1 998.5	1 947.9	1 912.2	915.4	893.8	879.5
Italy	563.0	571.9	586.1	599.4	607.9	612.0	615.9	619.1	616.3	609.8	250.5	249.8	247.7
Serbia and Montenegro	929.6	834.8	797.7	754.3	721.0	719.5	737.2	662.5	627.5	591.5	. .	. .	. .
Greece	352.0	355.6	359.5	362.5	363.2	363.5	364.4	365.4	362.7	359.4	164.7	163.7	162.8
Poland	260.5	263.4	276.7	283.4	283.3	283.6	291.7	301.4	310.4	317.6	147.3	154.1	162.0
Croatia	153.1	176.3	185.1	201.9	206.6	208.9	214.0	216.8	223.8	231.0	105.1	109.1	113.8
Austria	186.3	185.1	184.5	184.9	185.1	185.2	186.1	187.7	189.0	189.3	85.1	86.1	86.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina	139.1	249.4	316.0	340.5	281.4	190.1	167.7	156.3	159.0	163.8	75.3	76.4	78.6
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	69.1	81.1	98.4	115.9	136.1	155.6	66.5	78.1	89.7
Portugal	105.6	117.5	125.1	130.8	132.3	132.6	132.6	133.7	132.6	131.4	57.8	58.0	58.0
Spain	133.2	132.4	132.3	132.5	131.6	131.1	129.9	129.4	128.7	127.5	61.7	61.7	61.4
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	51.4	63.8	76.8	89.3	103.5	116.0	51.0	59.7	67.5
Netherlands	113.4	112.9	113.1	113.3	112.8	112.1	110.5	110.8	112.4	115.2	50.7	51.1	52.3
United States	107.4	108.3	108.4	109.6	110.1	110.7	112.0	113.6	113.5	112.9	48.5	48.4	48.0
France	94.2	97.0	99.1	101.8	103.9	105.8	107.2	110.2	111.3	112.4	59.0	59.6	60.2
Other countries	1 822.3	1 820.4	1 876.0	1 950.0	1 898.7	1 909.4	1 945.8	1 986.1	2 043.8	2 090.0	1 198.9	1 219.2	1 239.4
Total	**6 878.1**	**6 990.5**	**7 173.9**	**7 314.0**	**7 365.8**	**7 319.6**	**7 343.6**	**7 296.8**	**7 318.6**	**7 335.6**	**3 337.5**	**3 368.7**	**3 407.4**
of which: EU	1 750.2	1 776.3	1 811.7	1 839.9	1 847.0	1 851.5	1 856.0	1 870.1	1 867.6	1 859.7	830.9	830.6	829.5
Total women	2 300.5	2 375.3	2 459.8	2 533.0	2 571.7	3 292.3	3 331.7	3 337.5	3 368.7	3 407.4			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

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Table B.1.5. **GREECE, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	2001	*Of which:* Women
		2001
Europe	**626.0**	**290.2**
of which:		
Albania	438.0	180.9
Bulgaria	35.1	21.2
Romania	22.0	9.5
Russian Federation	17.5	11.0
Cyprus	17.4	9.1
Ukraine	13.6	10.3
United Kingdom	13.2	7.9
Poland	12.8	7.0
Germany	11.8	7.1
Asia	**83.2**	**31.4**
of which:		
Georgia	22.9	13.0
Pakistan	11.1	0.5
America	**27.3**	**14.5**
of which:		
United States	18.1	9.3
Canada	6.0	3.1
Africa	**15.7**	**5.3**
of which:		
Egypt	7.4	1.8
Oceania	**9.0**	**4.8**
of which:		
Australia	8.8	4.7
Other countries	1.0	0.4
Total	**762.2**	**346.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
										2000	2001	2002
Romania	68.3	65.7	61.6	62.1	57.4	57.3	41.6	45.0	47.3	21.5	23.1	24.3
Ukraine	11.1	11.5	12.0	7.2	9.9	11.0	8.9	9.8	9.9	5.0	5.4	5.4
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	7.1	9.9	10.9	8.6	8.4	7.9	4.1	4.1	3.9
Germany	7.4	7.8	8.3	9.0	9.4	9.6	7.5	7.7	7.1	4.7	4.7	4.3
China	3.5	4.3	6.7	7.8	8.3	8.9	5.8	6.8	6.4	2.6	3.0	2.9
Former USSR[1]	. .	. .	. .	7.9	7.1	6.3	5.6	5.1	5.7	3.8	3.4	3.7
Former CSFR	. .	. .	. .	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.4	1.8	1.7	1.9
Vietnam	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.1	0.9	1.0	0.9
Poland	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.1	2.3	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.4	1.2
Russian Federation	3.7	3.7	4.1	2.5	2.8	3.0	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.1	1.2	1.1
Slovak Republic	3.4	3.5	3.7	1.0	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.0
Bulgaria	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.5
United Kingdom	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.3
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4
Israel	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	31.8	34.5	36.9	29.5	29.3	29.6	18.5	19.0	18.3	7.2	7.5	7.3
Total	**137.9**	**139.9**	**142.5**	**148.3**	**150.2**	**153.1 |**	**110.0**	**116.4**	**115.9**	**56.5**	**59.6**	**59.2**
of which: EU	11.8	13.0	14.7	16.4	17.3	17.9	11.7	12.2	11.6	6.2	6.3	5.9

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 metadata at the end of the tables B.1.5.

1. Data refer to citizens who entered Hungary before 1992.

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Table B.1.5. **IRELAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	2002	*Of which:* Women
		2002
Europe	**153.3**	**77.5**
of which:		
United Kingdom	101.3	51.8
Germany	7.0	3.9
France	6.2	3.2
Romania	4.9	2.1
Spain	4.3	2.6
Italy	3.7	1.6
Netherlands	3.0	1.4
Africa	**20.4**	**9.7**
of which:		
Nigeria	8.7	4.5
South Africa	4.1	2.0
Asia	**21.3**	**9.6**
of which:		
China	5.8	2.4
Philippines	3.7	2.4
Pakistan	2.9	1.0
America	**15.0**	**8.0**
of which:		
United States	11.1	6.0
Australia	3.6	1.9
New Zealand	1.6	0.8
Other countries	4.1	2.0
Total	**219.3**	**109.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5

Table B.1.5. **ITALY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	97.6	92.6	94.2	119.5	131.4	145.8	149.5	159.6	158.1	172.8
Albania	30.8	31.9	34.7	64.0	83.8	91.5	115.8	142.1	144.1	169.0
Romania	19.4	20.2	24.5	31.7	38.1	37.1	51.6	68.9	75.4	95.8
Philippines	46.3	40.7	43.4	57.1	61.3	67.6	61.0	65.4	64.2	65.3
China	22.9	19.5	21.5	29.1	37.8	38.0	47.1	60.1	56.6	62.3
Tunisia	44.5	41.1	40.5	44.8	48.9	47.3	44.0	45.7	46.5	51.4
United States	64.0	56.7	60.6	54.7	59.6	55.8	47.6	47.4	43.7	47.6
Former Yugoslavia	51.1	53.4	56.1	48.3	44.4	40.8	54.7	40.0	36.6	39.8
Serbia and Montenegro	51.1	53.4	56.1	48.3	44.4	40.8	54.7	40.0	36.6	39.8
Germany	39.9	37.1	39.4	36.5	40.1	40.7	35.4	37.3	35.9	37.7
Senegal	26.4	24.6	24.0	31.9	34.8	35.9	37.4	39.0	34.8	36.3
Sri Lanka	19.7	18.7	20.3	24.9	28.2	31.3	29.9	33.7	34.5	35.8
Poland	21.1	18.9	22.0	27.4	31.3	28.2	27.7	31.4	30.7	35.1
India	14.3	13.3	14.6	19.4	22.6	25.3	25.6	30.3	29.9	34.1
Peru	8.9	8.7	10.0	21.7	24.4	26.8	26.5	29.9	29.6	31.1
Other countries	429.4	391.8	429.5	436.5	509.6	497.0	443.6	517.4	505.6	558.4
Total	**987.4**	**922.7**	**991.4**	**1 095.6**	**1 240.7**	**1 250.2**	**1 252.0**	**1 388.2**	**1 362.6**	**1 512.3**
of which: EU	153.0	141.6	164.0	152.1	168.1	171.6	145.8	151.8	147.5	154.1

Note: Data are from residence permits and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **JAPAN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Korea	682.3	676.8	666.4	657.2	645.4	638.8	636.5	635.3	632.4	625.4
China	210.1	218.6	223.0	234.3	252.2	272.2	294.2	335.6	381.2	424.3
Brazil	154.7	159.6	176.4	201.8	233.3	222.2	224.3	254.4	266.0	268.3
Philippines	73.1	86.0	74.3	84.5	93.3	105.3	115.7	144.9	156.7	169.4
Peru	33.2	35.4	36.3	37.1	40.4	41.3	42.8	46.2	50.1	51.8
United States	42.6	43.3	43.2	44.2	43.7	42.8	42.8	44.9	46.2	48.0
Thailand	11.8	14.0	16.0	18.2	20.7	23.6	25.3	29.3	31.7	33.7
Indonesia	5.6	6.3	7.0	8.7	11.9	15.0	16.4	19.3	20.8	21.7
Vietnam	7.6	8.2	9.1	10.2	11.9	13.5	14.9	16.9	19.1	21.1
United Kingdom	12.2	12.5	12.5	13.3	14.4	14.8	15.4	16.5	17.5	18.5
India	4.6	5.2	5.5	6.3	7.5	8.7	9.1	10.1	11.7	13.3
Canada	6.5	6.9	7.2	8.0	8.8	9.0	9.2	10.1	11.0	11.9
Australia	6.3	6.2	6.0	6.3	6.9	7.6	8.2	9.2	10.6	11.4
Malaysia	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.5	6.0	6.6	7.1	8.4	9.2	9.5
Bangladesh	3.3	4.0	4.9	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.9	8.7
Other countries	61.4	65.8	69.2	73.6	80.3	82.2	87.8	98.3	106.4	114.9
Total	**1 320.7**	**1 354.0**	**1 362.4**	**1 415.1**	**1 482.7**	**1 510.0**	**1 556.1**	**1 686.4**	**1 778.5**	**1 851.8**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **KOREA, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
China	4.8	11.3	19.2	26.7	35.4	30.9	39.7	59.0	73.6	84.6	29.3	38.4	45.7
United States	18.9	19.6	22.2	26.4	27.9	26.1	25.8	22.8	22.0	22.8	10.3	9.8	9.9
Chinese Taipei	23.5	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.2	22.9	23.0	23.0	22.8	22.7	10.6	1.2	10.5
Philippines	2.4	5.7	9.0	10.8	13.1	8.0	10.8	16.0	16.4	17.3	7.3	8.0	8.7
Indonesia	0.6	1.6	3.4	9.6	13.6	9.7	13.6	16.7	15.6	17.1	3.3	3.1	3.2
Vietnam	0.4	2.7	5.7	10.3	13.5	8.1	10.0	15.6	16.0	16.9	5.5	5.6	6.1
Japan	8.2	8.4	9.4	12.4	13.7	13.0	13.2	14.0	14.7	12.1	9.7	10.1	10.6
Bangladesh	0.1	1.3	2.7	6.3	7.9	5.7	6.7	7.9	9.1	9.0	–	0.1	0.1
Canada	1.0	1.2	3.0	3.7	4.2	3.0	3.0	3.3	4.0	5.0	1.3	1.6	1.9
Thailand	0.6	0.4	0.5	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.8	3.2	3.6	4.8	1.1	1.2	1.5
Uzbekistan	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	3.7	4.0	4.2	0.8	1.2	1.2
Russian Federation	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.6	3.3	4.0	2.0	2.6	3.2
Pakistan	0.1	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.7	1.3	1.8	3.2	3.3	3.7	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sri Lanka	0.3	1.2	1.7	2.9	3.7	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.7	0.6	0.5	0.5
Nepal	–	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Other countries	5.6	6.9	7.1	11.3	12.7	11.2	12.1	14.7	16.7	23.2	5.4	15.5	7.4
Total	**66.7**	**84.9**	**110.0**	**148.7**	**176.9**	**147.9**	**169.0**	**210.2**	**229.6**	**252.5**	**87.5**	**99.3**	**111.1**
of which: EU	3.0	3.2	3.6	4.4	4.8	4.4	4.7	5.1	5.3	6.2	1.7	1.8	2.1
Total women	30.1	36.3	47.0	59.7	68.8	62.2	71.0	87.5	99.3	111.1			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Portugal	49.4	51.5	53.1	54.5	55.9	57.0	58.5	59.8	61.4
France	14.3	15.0	15.7	16.5	17.5	18.8	20.1	20.9	21.6
Italy	19.7	19.8	19.8	19.9	20.0	20.1	20.3	19.1	19.0
Belgium	11.3	11.8	12.5	13.2	13.8	14.5	15.1	15.4	15.9
Germany	9.5	9.7	9.9	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.1	10.2
United Kingdom	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.7
Netherlands	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.6
Spain	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.9
Denmark	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.0
Sweden	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Greece	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2
Ireland	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0
Finland	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8
Austria	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Other countries	12.7	14.0	15.0	16.3	17.9	20.5	21.4	23.5	24.6
Total	**132.5**	**138.1**	**142.9**	**147.7**	**152.9**	**159.4**	**164.7**	**166.7**	**170.7**

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which*: Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Turkey	202.6	182.1	154.3	127.0	114.7	102.0	100.7	100.8	100.3	100.3	50.8	50.8	50.9
Morocco	164.6	158.7	149.8	138.7	135.7	128.6	119.7	111.4	104.3	97.8	53.1	50.2	47.5
Germany	52.1	53.4	53.9	53.5	53.9	54.1	54.3	54.8	55.6	56.1	27.7	28.1	28.5
United Kingdom[1]	44.7	43.0	41.1	39.3	39.2	38.8	39.5	41.4	43.6	44.1	16.5	17.2	17.5
Belgium	24.2	24.1	24.1	24.0	24.4	24.8	25.4	25.9	26.1	26.3	13.6	13.8	14.0
Italy	17.5	17.5	17.4	17.3	17.4	17.6	17.9	18.2	18.6	18.7	6.3	6.5	6.6
Spain	16.8	16.8	16.7	16.6	16.6	16.8	16.9	17.2	17.4	17.5	8.2	8.4	8.5
United States	13.4	12.8	12.8	12.6	13.0	13.4	14.1	14.8	15.2	15.4	7.2	7.5	7.6
France	. .	. .	10.5	10.6	11.2	11.9	12.5	13.3	14.1	14.5	6.8	7.2	7.3
Portugal	9.6	9.2	9.1	8.8	8.7	8.8	9.2	9.8	10.6	11.3	4.4	4.7	5.0
China	. .	. .	7.9	7.3	7.3	7.5	7.5	8.0	9.4	11.2	4.3	5.1	6.2
Indonesia	. .	. .	8.2	7.9	8.0	8.4	8.7	9.3	10.1	10.8	6.1	6.6	7.0
Suriname	. .	. .	15.2	12.0	11.8	10.5	8.7	8.5	8.5	8.6	4.6	4.7	4.7
Poland	. .	. .	5.9	5.6	5.7	5.9	5.6	5.9	6.3	6.9	4.5	4.7	5.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	16.9	14.5	11.5	8.9	7.2	6.8	6.6	6.4	3.3	3.2	3.1
Other countries	234.5	239.6	181.6	184.1	199.2	204.5	203.6	221.7	243.6	254.1	105.7	115.6	121.6
Total	**779.8**	**757.1**	**725.4**	**679.9**	**678.1**	**662.4**	**651.5**	**667.8**	**690.4**	**700.0**	**323.0**	**334.2**	**341.2**
of which: EU	193.9	193.1	191.1	188.3	190.2	192.2	195.9	201.6	207.9	210.5	93.8	96.6	98.3
Total women	356.9	348.3	335.4	318.8	320.8	316.2	313.9	323.0	334.2	341.2			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

1. Including Hong Kong (China).

Table B.1.5. **NORWAY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which*: Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Sweden	13.5	14.4	15.4	17.3	20.6	24.0	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.2	12.9	12.7	12.7
Denmark	18.0	18.1	17.9	18.1	18.4	19.1	19.2	19.4	19.7	20.0	9.5	9.5	9.6
Iraq	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.3	4.2	5.8	9.9	10.8	13.0	3.1	3.6	4.8
United Kingdom	11.4	11.2	11.1	10.9	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.1	11.0	11.2	4.3	4.2	4.3
Somalia	3.4	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.8	6.2	6.6	8.4	2.9	3.1	3.9
Germany	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.4	6.0	6.7	7.1	7.5	8.2	3.5	3.7	4.1
United States	9.3	9.2	9.0	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.3	8.0	7.9	8.0	4.2	4.1	4.1
Bosnia-Herzegovina	6.3	9.5	11.2	11.5	11.6	11.8	12.2	11.6	8.8	7.9	5.9	4.4	3.9
Pakistan	10.4	10.3	9.7	8.6	7.5	6.9	7.4	6.7	6.9	6.7	3.6	3.6	3.6
Finland	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.5	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1	6.4	3.5	3.5	3.7
Serbia and Montenegro	7.3	6.7	6.4	6.0	5.7	5.5	10.2	8.8	6.5	6.0	4.2	3.1	2.9
Iran	7.0	5.9	4.7	3.8	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.7	1.8	2.0	2.3
Iceland	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.1	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.2	2.0	2.0	2.1
Sri Lanka	6.5	6.0	5.1	4.4	3.8	3.7	3.4	3.2	3.0	2.9	2.0	1.9	1.9
Philippines	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.4	1.6	1.7	1.9
Other countries	54.6	53.3	50.6	47.8	45.1	45.3	48.9	51.5	55.6	62.6	27.8	30.2	34.2
Total	**162.3**	**164.0**	**160.8**	**157.5**	**158.0**	**165.1**	**178.7**	**184.3**	**185.9**	**197.7**	**92.7**	**93.5**	**99.9**
of which: EU	58.9	60.5	61.6	64.1	69.1	75.5	78.5	79.2	80.1	84.8	38.1	38.4	39.1
Total women	77.8	80.2	80.3	79.9	80.5	84.3	90.8	92.7	93.5	99.9			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

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Table B.1.5. **POLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	2002
Ukraine	9.9
Russian Federation	4.3
Germany	3.7
Belarus	2.9
Vietnam	2.1
Armenia	1.6
United States	1.3
Bulgaria	1.1
United Kingdom	1.0
France	1.0
Lithuania	0.9
Czech Republic	0.8
Italy	0.7
Greece	0.5
Other countries	17.4
Total	**49.2**
Total women	24.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **PORTUGAL, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.4	62.0	. .	0.1	4.4
Cape Verde	32.0	36.6	38.7	39.6	39.8	40.1	43.8	47.1	55.4	60.4	19.7	21.3	23.6
Brazil	15.7	18.6	19.9	20.0	20.0	19.9	20.9	22.2	47.3	60.0	10.6	11.4	16.7
Angola	7.6	13.6	15.8	16.3	16.3	16.5	17.7	20.4	27.6	32.2	8.6	9.8	12.0
Guinea-Bissau	6.5	10.8	12.3	12.6	12.8	12.9	14.1	15.9	20.8	23.4	4.5	5.2	6.3
United Kingdom	9.6	10.7	11.5	12.0	12.3	12.7	13.3	14.1	15.0	15.9	6.5	6.9	7.4
Spain	8.1	8.5	8.9	9.3	8.8	10.2	11.2	12.2	13.6	14.6	6.0	6.8	7.4
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.0	12.2	. .	–	0.5
Germany	5.8	6.8	7.4	7.9	8.3	8.8	8.0	10.4	11.1	11.9	4.6	5.0	5.4
Romania	. .	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	8.0	10.9	0.1	0.2	0.8
Sao Tome and Principe	2.9	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.8	5.4	7.8	9.2	2.7	3.2	3.9
France	4.0	4.4	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.5	7.2	7.8	8.4	3.4	3.7	4.0
China	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.3	7.2	8.3	1.3	1.5	2.1
United States	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.1	9.6	8.0	8.1	8.1	3.5	3.5	3.5
Russian Federation	. .	. .	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	5.9	7.6	0.3	0.5	1.2
Other countries	29.6	32.9	33.9	34.5	35.9	35.4	37.6	40.4	60.4	68.4	17.6	18.6	21.1
Total	**131.6**	**157.1**	**168.3**	**172.9**	**175.3**	**177.8**	**190.9**	**207.6**	**350.5**	**413.3**	**89.3**	**97.7**	**120.1**
of which: EU	33.2	37.1	41.5	43.7	46.0	48.2	52.4	56.9	61.6	66.0	26.4	28.7	31.0
Total women	60.0	65.0	69.9	71.9	73.1	74.5	80.9	89.3	97.7	120.1			

Note: : Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **SLOVAK REPUBLIC, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Czech Republic	2.5	4.3	5.1	5.8	6.6	7.0	6.3	5.9	5.4	4.9
Ukraine	2.1	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.9
Poland	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.6	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.7	1.6	1.5
Other	8.5	10.7	11.6	10.7	12.8	13.4	13.2	13.8	15.5	15.5
Total	**16.9**	**21.9**	**24.1**	**24.8**	**28.4**	**29.5**	**28.8**	**29.4**	**29.5**	**29.2**

Note: Holders of a long term or a permanent residence permit. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **SPAIN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Morocco	61.3	63.9	74.9	77.2	111.1	140.9	161.9	199.8	234.9	282.4	65.3	75.2	92.2
Ecuador	. .	. .	2.0	2.9	4.1	7.0	12.9	30.9	84.7	115.3	17.1	42.1	57.5
United Kingdom	58.2	62.3	62.3	68.4	68.7	74.4	76.4	74.0	80.2	90.1	37.2	40.4	45.2
Colombia	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.9	8.4	10.4	13.6	24.7	48.7	71.2	17.1	29.9	42.8
Germany	34.1	38.2	41.9	45.9	49.9	58.1	60.8	60.6	62.5	65.8	30.1	31.1	32.8
France	25.5	28.5	30.8	33.1	34.3	39.5	43.3	42.3	44.8	47.0	21.5	22.6	23.7
China	7.8	8.1	9.2	10.8	15.8	20.7	24.7	28.7	36.1	45.8	12.5	15.8	20.0
Italy	15.9	17.8	19.8	21.4	22.6	26.5	29.9	30.9	35.6	45.2	11.0	13.0	17.0
Portugal	32.3	34.9	37.0	38.3	38.2	42.3	44.0	42.0	42.6	43.3	18.3	18.4	18.6
Peru	10.0	12.8	15.1	18.0	21.2	24.9	27.3	27.9	33.8	39.0	17.1	20.0	22.5
Romania	. .	. .	1.2	1.4	2.4	3.5	5.1	11.0	24.9	33.7	4.0	8.7	12.2
Dominican Republic	9.2	12.5	14.5	17.8	20.4	24.3	26.9	26.5	29.3	32.4	19.0	20.6	22.0
Argentina	21.6	19.9	18.4	18.2	17.2	17.0	9.4	16.6	20.4	27.9	8.4	10.0	13.8
Cuba	3.5	4.6	. .	7.8	10.5	13.2	16.6	19.2	21.5	24.2	11.3	12.6	14.2
Algeria	. .	. .	3.6	3.7	5.8	7.0	9.9	13.8	15.2	20.1	2.5	3.0	4.0
Other countries	144.7	151.1	162.2	166.1	179.2	209.8	238.7	247.0	293.8	340.4	115.2	131.5	152.3
Total	**430.4**	**461.4**	**499.8**	**539.0**	**609.8**	**719.6**	**801.3**	**895.7**	**1 109.1**	**1 324.0**	**407.4**	**494.8**	**590.6**
of which: EU	192.1	210.2	235.6	251.9	260.6	295.3	312.2	306.2	325.5	355.9	146.6	155.5	169.5

Note: Numbers of foreigners with a residence permit. Data refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

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Table B.1.5. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which*: Women		
											2001	2002	2003
Finland	106.7	104.9	103.1	101.3	99.9	99.0	98.6	97.5	96.3	93.5	55.0	54.5	53.1
Iraq	19.0	21.3	22.8	24.8	26.6	30.2	33.1	36.2	40.1	41.5	16.7	18.5	19.4
Norway	33.0	32.3	31.7	31.0	30.6	30.9	32.0	33.3	34.7	35.5	17.2	17.8	18.1
Denmark	26.7	26.5	26.0	25.4	25.0	25.0	25.6	26.6	28.1	29.7	11.3	11.8	12.4
Serbia and Montenegro	40.4	38.4	36.6	33.6	26.0	22.7	20.2	20.7	20.1	. .	9.9	9.5	. .
Germany	13.1	13.4	13.9	14.4	15.1	15.5	16.4	17.3	18.1	19.1	8.2	8.5	9.0
Bosnia-Herzegovina	47.7	53.9	55.4	54.8	44.5	34.2	22.8	19.7	17.0	15.5	10.0	8.6	7.8
United Kingdom	11.0	11.2	11.5	11.7	12.1	12.4	13.1	13.8	14.2	14.4	4.5	4.5	4.5
Poland	16.1	16.0	15.9	15.8	15.9	16.3	16.7	15.5	13.9	13.4	10.5	9.3	8.9
Iran	32.7	29.3	27.2	26.2	19.8	16.1	14.3	13.5	12.9	12.5	7.0	6.7	6.4
Turkey	22.0	20.3	18.9	18.4	17.4	16.4	15.8	13.9	12.6	12.4	6.9	6.2	6.0
United States	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.6	10.0	10.0	9.6	9.4	4.5	4.3	4.2
Chile	14.1	13.0	12.4	11.9	11.4	10.8	10.3	9.9	9.4	9.1	4.5	4.3	4.0
Somalia	. .	11.3	12.2	13.1	13.5	13.5	. .	9.6	8.7	8.8	4.9	4.4	4.5
Thailand	. .	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.5	. .	6.3	6.8	8.3	4.9	5.4	6.6
Other countries	145.8	126.0	124.7	125.1	127.5	128.9	148.5	132.1	131.5	134.5	65.8	65.3	66.4
Total	**537.4**	**531.8**	**526.6**	**522.0**	**499.9**	**487.2**	**477.3**	**476.0**	**474.1**	**457.5**	**241.7**	**239.5**	**231.2**
Total women	292.8	256.5	266.1	263.9	253.5	247.8	243.2	241.7	239.5	231.2			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Italy	367.7	364.0	358.9	350.3	342.3	335.4	327.7	321.6	314.0	308.3	136.9	133.8	130.9
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	189.4	190.7	194.7	198.1	89.5	91.7	. .
Portugal	121.1	128.6	134.8	137.1	136.3	135.8	135.0	140.2	135.5	141.1	66.6	64.9	66.8
Germany	87.1	89.1	90.9	92.7	94.7	97.9	102.7	110.7	116.6	125.0	50.9	53.5	57.6
Spain	105.9	103.7	101.4	97.7	94.0	90.4	86.2	83.8	81.0	78.9	37.8	36.7	35.7
Turkey	75.6	77.1	78.6	79.4	79.6	79.5	79.9	79.5	79.5	78.8	36.9	37.0	36.6
France	51.7	52.7	53.6	54.2	55.0	56.1	58.0	61.1	61.5	63.2	28.9	29.0	29.8
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	55.9	58.4	59.8	. .	27.0	27.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	44.3	45.7	46.0	. .	22.5	22.6
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	43.6	43.9	43.4	. .	21.9	21.7
Austria	28.4	28.3	28.1	28.1	28.0	28.6	28.2	29.6	29.9	31.1	13.4	13.4	13.9
United Kingdom	17.7	18.0	18.4	18.3	18.3	18.7	19.6	20.8	22.2	22.8	8.7	9.4	9.7
United States	10.6	11.0	11.4	11.6	11.6	11.1	12.2	16.9	13.4	18.1	8.2	6.4	30.3
Netherlands	12.7	13.1	13.6	13.9	13.9	13.8	13.9	14.4	14.6	15.0	6.8	6.8	7.0
Belgium	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.1	7.5	7.9	8.0	3.6	3.8	3.9
Other countries	375.7	408.3	434.4	447.8	460.6	. .	308.7	163.7	200.2	209.8	163.2	106.6	184.8
Total	**1 260.3**	**1 300.1**	**1 330.6**	**1 337.6**	**1 340.8**	**1 347.9**	**1 368.7**	**1 384.4**	**1 419.1**	**1 447.3**	**651.4**	**664.4**	**679.2**
of which: EU	782.2	787.4	824.9	817.2	807.1	. .	800.3	796.6	802.8	816.2	363.4	364.0	366.4
Total women	565.7	589.1	608.7	615.6	620.2	625.5	641.7	651.4	664.4	679.2			

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 metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

Table B.1.5. **UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign population by country or region of nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which*: Women		
												2001	2002	2003
Ireland	465	473	443	441	446	448	442	404	436	411	374	229	227	198
India	151	125	114	128	110	139	149	153	132	148	159	73	78	83
United States	110	81	110	105	104	120	123	114	148	109	135	85	65	73
France	41	55	60	53	54	74	68	85	82	96	109	47	53	67
South Africa	16	14	31	22	24	39	50	. .	68	65	99	33	33	50
Italy	72	78	80	85	77	89	80	95	102	98	94	47	45	50
Portugal	14	32	30	28	27	38	44	29	58	90	92	29	47	46
Pakistan	98	89	81	78	68	69	73	94	82	99	86	45	51	44
Australia	47	43	47	50	62	50	55	75	67	77	76	33	38	43
Germany	34	46	51	53	59	75	85	64	59	71	72	36	44	40
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	57	66	67	33	31	41
Turkey	31	44	29	42	56	63	41	38	58	52	67	24	26	31
Philippines	17	16	16	12	15	12	–	20	27	36	58	16	23	33
Netherlands	22	29	26	22	27	36	30	28	34	34	57	19	17	31
Jamaica	60	54	46	50	42	43	33	47	58	50	55	30	25	32
Other countries	823	853	784	765	895	912	935	1 096	1 119	1 179	1 265	565	566	642
Total	**2 001**	**2 032**	**1 948**	**1 934**	**2 066**	**2 207**	**2 208**	**2 342**	**2 587**	**2 681**	**2 865**	**1 344**	**1 369**	**1 504**
of which: EU	720	792	902	792	810	857	886	846	934	949	957	509	522	516
Total women	1 088	1 113	1 036	1 027	1 106	1 163	1 172	1 244	1 344	1 369	1 504			

Note: Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error.
The symbol "–" indicates that figures are less than 10 000.
For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.5.

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Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. *Reference date*: Annual average *Other comments*: The data were revised following the 1991 and 2001 censuses. Data for 2002 are preliminary.	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Until 1994, asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 they have been recorded in a separate register. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable). *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: Up to 1 January 1993, Slovak permanent residents were registered in the National Population Register. After 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 are registered in the central register of foreigners.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees). *Reference date*: 31 December.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date*: 30 September.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Includes permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and cross-border workers are not included. *Reference date*: 8 March 1999.	Census (25 per cent sample), National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign-born persons of German origin *(Aussiedler)*. *Reference date*: 31 December. *Other comments*: Disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over.	Central population register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the census. (Usual resident population).	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. From 2000 on, registers have been purged of expired permits. *Reference date*: 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	Estimates in Table A.1.5. are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.1.5.) are from the 2002 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over. *Reference date*: 28 April 2002 (2002 Census) and 2nd quarter of each year (Labour Force survey).	Central Statistics Office.
Italy	Holders of a residence permit. Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1987-1988, 1990, 1995-1996 and 1998 programmes. In 1999 and 2000, figures include 139 601 and 116 253 regularised persons respectively. The fall in stocks in 1994 is the result of a clean-up of the register of foreigners. Data for "Former Yugoslavia" refer to persons entering with a Yugoslav passeport (with no other specification). *Reference date*: 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population** *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) and cross-border workers. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Data refer to the resident foreign population aged 12 and over.	Census of Population, INEGI.
Netherlands	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). *Reference date:* 31 December. *Other comments:* The fall in stocks between 1994 and 1995 is due to a revision of data.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. From 1987 on, data include asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. *Reference date:* 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Census results. Excluding foreign permanent residents who had been staying abroad for more than 12 months and foreign temporary residents who had been staying in Poland for less than 12 months. *Reference date:* May 2002.	Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 1994 and 1996 include permits delivered following the 1992-1993 and the 1996 regularisation programmes, 39 200 and 21 800 permits respectively. Data for 2001 and 2002 include permanent permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme, 126 901 and 47 657 respectively. Data for women have not been corrected for including those specific permits.	Ministry of the Interior. National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	Holders of a long-term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Holders of residence permits. Does not include those with temporary permits (less that six months duration) and students. In 1996, and 2001, data include 21 300 and 234 600 permits respectively delivered following the 1996 and 2001 regularisation programme. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Stock of all those with residence or settlement permits (permits B and C respectively). Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. *Reference date:* 31 December	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). *Reference date:* 31 December. Other comments: Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.

Acquisition of Nationality

Naturalisations must be taken into account in the analysis of the population of foreigners and nationals. Also, differing national approaches to naturalisation between countries must be considered when making international comparisons. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly easily acquire nationality, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the native population. However, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain 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, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country.

Table A.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Countries where the national/foreigner distinction is prevalent										
Austria	14.4	16.3	15.3	16.2	16.3	18.3	25.0	24.6	32.1	36.4
% of foreign population	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.7	3.6	3.6	4.6	5.1
Belgium	16.4	25.8	26.1	24.6	31.7	34.0	24.3	62.1	63.0	46.4
% of foreign population	1.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.5	3.8	2.7	6.9	7.3	5.5
Czech Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.3	6.4	4.5	3.3
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.3	2.8	2.2	1.5
Denmark	5.0	5.7	5.3	7.3	5.5	10.3	12.4	18.8	11.9	17.3
% of foreign population	2.8	3.0	2.7	3.3	2.3	4.1	4.8	7.3	4.6	6.5
Finland	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.4	4.0	4.7	3.0	2.7	3.0
% of foreign population	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	5.0	5.6	3.4	3.0	3.1
France	95.5	126.3	92.4	109.8	116.2	122.3	145.4	150.0	127.6	128.1
% of foreign population	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.5	. .	. .	. .
Germany	199.4	259.2	313.6	302.8	271.8	236.1	248.2	186.7	178.1	154.5
% of foreign population	3.1	3.8	4.5	4.2	3.7	3.2	3.4	2.5	2.4	2.1
Hungary	11.8	9.9	10.0	12.3	8.7	6.4	6.1	7.5	8.6	3.2
% of foreign population	. .	. .	7.3	8.8	6.1	4.3	4.0	4.9	7.8	2.7
Italy	6.5	6.6	7.4	8.9	11.6	10.8	13.6	11.6	10.4	10.6
% of foreign population	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.8
Japan	10.5	11.1	14.1	14.5	15.1	14.8	16.1	15.8	15.3	14.3
% of foreign population	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Korea	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
% of foreign population	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Luxembourg	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.8
% of foreign population	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5
Netherlands	43.1	49.5	71.4	82.7	59.8	59.2	62.1	50.0	46.7	45.3
% of foreign population	5.7	6.3	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7	9.4	7.7	7.0	6.6
Norway	5.5	8.8	11.8	12.2	12.0	9.2	8.0	9.5	10.8	9.0
% of foreign population	3.6	5.4	7.2	7.6	7.6	5.8	4.8	5.3	5.9	4.9
Portugal	. .	. .	1.4	1.2	1.4	0.5	0.9	0.7	1.1	1.4
% of foreign population	. .	. .	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5
Spain	8.4	7.8	6.8	8.4	10.3	13.2	16.4	12.0	16.7	21.8
% of foreign population	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.3	1.5	1.9	2.0
Sweden	42.7	35.1	32.0	25.6	28.9	46.5	37.8	43.5	36.4	37.8
% of foreign population	8.5	6.9	6.0	4.8	5.5	8.9	7.6	8.9	7.6	7.9
Switzerland	12.9	13.8	16.8	19.4	19.2	21.3	20.4	28.7	27.6	36.5
% of foreign population	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.6
United Kingdom	45.8	44.0	40.5	43.1	37.0	53.5	54.9	82.2	90.3	120.1
% of foreign population	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.6	2.5	3.7	3.9	4.6
Countries where native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent										
Australia	122.1	112.2	114.8	111.6	108.3	112.3	76.5	70.8	72.1	86.3
Canada	150.6	217.3	227.7	155.6	154.6	134.5	158.8	214.6	167.4	141.6
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.8	20.2	34.5	29.6	23.5	19.5
United States	314.7	434.1	488.1	1 044.7	598.2	463.1	839.9	888.8	608.2	573.7

Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age, residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.6. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") gives the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

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Table B.1.6. **AUSTRALIA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
United Kingdom	36 401	36 134	35 431	27 294	23 080	13 529	14 592	12 474	16 411	14 854
New Zealand	7 786	9 033	11 724	9 982	8 764	6 320	6 676	11 007	17 334	13 994
China	5 242	5 971	4 250	16 173	21 053	10 947	7 664	6 890	6 416	7 126
South Africa	1 595	1 324	1 262	1 578	1 880	1 606	2 253	2 992	3 922	3 998
India	2 836	3 107	2 638	2 563	3 358	2 695	2 381	2 335	2 510	3 051
Philippines	6 600	5 408	4 021	3 815	3 688	2 606	2 349	2 211	2 849	2 885
Vietnam	10 713	7 772	7 741	5 083	4 685	3 083	3 441	1 953	2 090	1 676
Malaysia	. .	. .	. .	764	719	1 002	1 154	1 057	1 504	1 619
Fiji	2 018	2 204	1 815	1 721	1 934	1 665	1 379	1 398	1 567	1 509
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	1 591	2 877	1 698	1 853	1 862	2 182	1 502
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	1 637	2 728	1 841	1 531	2 661	2 194	1 475
Sri Lanka	1 691	1 730	1 644	1 620	2 049	1 707	1 832	1 672	1 362	1 328
United States	1 634	1 912	2 272	1 701	1 565	1 083	989	1 004	1 318	1 194
Iran	887	895	870	891	1 143	876	755	827	864	928
Ireland	1 805	1 882	1 688	1 278	1 167	724	698	682	852	734
Other countries	32 978	37 385	36 281	30 575	31 653	25 092	21 289	21 045	22 914	21 291
Total	**112 186**	**114 757**	**111 637**	**108 266**	**112 343**	**76 474**	**70 836**	**72 070**	**86 289**	**79 164**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **AUSTRIA, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Former Yugoslavia	5 791	5 623	4 538	3 133	3 671	4 151	6 745	7 576	10 760	14 018
Turkey	2 688	3 379	3 209	7 499	5 068	5 683	10 350	6 732	10 068	12 649
Central and Eastern Europe	1 858	2 672	2 588	2 083	2 898	3 850	3 515	4 758	5 155	4 062
Germany	406	328	202	140	164	157	91	102	108	91
Other countries	3 659	4 268	4 772	3 388	4 473	4 480	4 331	5 477	5 989	5 562
Total	**14 402**	**16 270**	**15 309**	**16 243**	**16 274**	**18 321**	**25 032**	**24 645**	**32 080**	**36 382**

Note: Figures include naturalisations granted to persons living abroad. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **BELGIUM, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	5 500	8 638	9 146	7 912	11 076	13 484	9 133	21 917	24 018	15 832
Turkey	3 305	6 273	6 572	6 609	6 884	6 177	4 402	17 282	14 401	7 805
Former Yugoslavia	353	417	416	. .	438	499	756	2 187	2 397	2 619
Democratic Rep. of Congo	410	474	452	442	756	1 202	1 890	2 993	2 842	2 579
Italy	1 431	2 326	2 096	1 940	1 726	1 536	1 187	3 650	3 451	2 341
Algeria	543	714	780	556	608	672	520	1 071	1 281	926
France	532	618	608	539	530	491	363	948	1 025	856
Netherlands	222	335	336	259	292	249	234	492	601	646
Poland	174	239	176	175	220	277	253	551	677	630
Tunisia	416	573	537	406	566	585	301	859	729	521
India	119	159	148	158	186	162	172	345	558	456
Pakistan	106	161	116	91	133	155	131	75	474	404
Philippines	118	147	124	115	147	162	190	315	323	388
Portugal	85	117	99	93	111	102	75	162	276	318
Romania	94	118	85	115	358	387	267	403	321	294
Other countries	2 968	4 478	4 438	5 171	7 656	7 894	4 399	8 832	9 608	9 802
Total	**16 376**	**25 787**	**26 129**	**24 581**	**31 687**	**34 034**	**24 273**	**62 082**	**62 982**	**46 417**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **CANADA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
China	7 777	14 228	12 878	10 563	11 535	14 110	17 991	24 310	18 555	16 973
India	6 306	8 953	11 677	10 756	10 766	8 804	11 446	19 402	14 788	13 136
Philippines	9 388	11 508	12 953	9 771	12 703	11 069	11 565	14 134	9 560	7 705
Pakistan	1 469	2 597	3 341	2 598	2 867	2 394	3 226	8 478	8 904	7 654
Hong Kong (China)	11 717	17 109	14 978	15 110	9 751	13 096	15 050	17 886	11 200	6 188
Iran	3 229	5 124	6 457	3 226	2 602	2 631	3 645	6 637	6 449	5 823
Chinese Taipei	1 538	2 036	2 738	3 774	4 751	4 351	4 818	8 945	6 750	4 745
Sri Lanka	2 848	5 768	10 154	6 288	4 925	6 114	6 302	6 692	4 448	3 555
Korea	967	966	1 426	1 679	1 205	1 395	2 129	3 724	3 129	3 503
Former Yugoslavia	1 704	2 114	1 920	2 926	4 037	2 861	4 557	5 460	3 526	3 082
United Kingdom	10 012	12 620	11 173	8 944	11 484	6 177	4 741	5 279	3 587	2 895
Romania	1 814	2 288	2 489	2 294	3 297	2 856	3 824	4 571	3 404	2 694
United States	4 334	5 244	4 812	3 120	2 760	2 143	2 429	3 180	2 443	2 362
Jamaica	3 341	4 159	5 258	3 039	2 245	2 010	2 390	2 944	2 678	2 218
Vietnam	3 833	5 223	6 426	4 579	5 528	4 150	3 967	4 128	2 750	2 192
Other countries	80 293	117 383	119 040	66 978	64 168	50 324	60 673	78 798	65 182	56 863
Total	**150 570**	**217 320**	**227 720**	**155 645**	**154 624**	**134 485**	**158 753**	**214 568**	**167 353**	**141 588**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

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Table B.1.6. **CZECH REPUBLIC, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Slovak Republic	6 278	5 377	3 378	2 109
Poland	23	8	163	304
Ukraine	273	376	173	251
Romania	47	68	142	109
Bulgaria	85	105	133	95
Russian Federation	104	74	87	65
Kazakhstan	3	17	25	43
Vietnam	111	112	80	29
Cuba	29	30	23	26
Bosnia-Herzegovina	10	22	18	20
Greece	45	26	38	19
FYROM	16	18	28	18
Serbia and Montenegro	50	12	35	16
Belarus	7	13	23	13
Syria	22	7	7	13
Other countries	206	171	146	131
Total	**7 309**	**6 436**	**4 499**	**3 261**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **DENMARK, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Former Yugoslavia	138	806	413	629	291	695	709	1 523	1 134	3 399
Turkey	560	915	797	917	1 036	1 243	3 154	2 787	3 130	2 418
Somalia	5	7	12	32	17	159	215	1 189	1 074	2 263
Iraq	241	166	177	339	244	718	918	2 210	871	1 161
Sri Lanka	370	515	635	765	376	613	523	819	365	594
Pakistan	192	203	145	220	149	284	463	545	297	573
Iran	710	491	531	829	553	969	914	1 105	437	519
Vietnam	169	125	137	200	126	365	439	647	318	508
Lebanon	234	237	216	314	160	811	601	1 099	309	376
Morocco	168	136	122	201	110	248	322	485	213	313
Poland	219	151	175	237	130	241	173	201	126	309
Afghanistan	27	20	24	29	15	101	98	276	215	301
China	17	7	18	42	32	117	169	228	195	289
Germany	134	140	118	126	138	173	197	240	129	174
Thailand	32	27	56	65	44	85	137	214	124	172
Other countries	1 821	1 790	1 684	2 338	2 061	3 440	3 384	5 243	2 965	3 931
Total	**5 037**	**5 736**	**5 260**	**7 283**	**5 482**	**10 262**	**12 416**	**18 811**	**11 902**	**17 300**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **FINLAND, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Europe	450	342	335	365	509	1 245	1 612	1 387	1 194	1 419
of which:										
Former USSR	158	48	55	52	44	138	135	48	51	56
Nordic countries	114	94	104	111	106	148	94	55	. .	. .
Asia	214	152	144	328	489	1 299	696	800	829	889
Africa	67	56	81	120	180	788	1 365	522	406	419
North America	5	11	1	5	6	7	7	12	1	1
South America	39	32	27	30	46	70	34	69	89	95
Oceania	1	–	2	1	2	6	4	1	1	1
Stateless and unknown	63	58	78	132	207	602	1 012	186	200	225
Total	**839**	**651**	**668**	**981**	**1 439**	**4 017**	**4 730**	**2 977**	**2 720**	**3 049**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **FRANCE, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994[1]	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	13 131	22 676	12 249	15 452	16 365	16 345	21 245	23 856	22 794	22 434
Algeria	7 909	10 868	9 499	13 218	13 488	13 377	15 468	17 302	15 136	15 264
Tunisia	5 370	9 248	4 182	5 109	5 420	5 699	5 914	7 330	5 886	6 233
Turkey	1 515	3 197	2 143	3 447	3 977	4 530	6 018	7 209	6 586	6 149
Portugal	5 233	6 908	3 775	4 644	4 997	4 505	4 517	3 815	2 819	2 590
Former Yugoslavia	1 652	2 278	1 499	1 722	1 549	1 536	1 828	2 513	1 918	2 007
Senegal	. .	. .	560	935	1 054	1 091	1 408	1 508	1 404	1 794
Haiti	744	1 351	962	1 202	1 174	1 145	1 274	1 470	1 234	1 493
Cambodia	1 847	3 319	2 445	2 950	2 896	2 404	2 297	2 268	1 560	1 437
Democratic Rep. of Congo	795	1 505	161	1 057	1 171	1 269	1 312	1 611	1 226	1 409
Vietnam	1 775	2 660	1 950	2 773	2 432	2 186	1 940	1 986	1 432	1 362
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	546	837	1 046	980	1 408	1 778	1 311	1 334
Lebanon	1 568	2 445	1 689	2 390	2 104	1 783	1 495	1 681	1 093	1 181
Laos	1 187	1 991	1 496	1 647	1 539	1 361	1 507	1 707	1 067	931
Italy	936	1 370	1 022	1 255	1 353	1 261	1 114	1 522	722	612
Other countries	16 345	23 266	17 706	21 340	23 111	20 764	22 912	25 978	22 401	24 201
Total[2]	**60 007**	**93 082**	**61 884**	**79 978**	**83 676**	**80 236**	**91 657**	**103 534**	**88 589**	**90 431**
Total (estimates)[3]	**95 500**	**126 337**	**92 410**	**109 823**	**116 194**	**122 261**	**145 435**	**150 025**	**127 551**	**128 079**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

1. From 1994 onwards, data broken down by nationality include children acquiring French nationality as a consequence of the parent's naturalisation.
2. 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.
3. 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.1.6. **GERMANY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Turkey	12 915	19 590	31 578	46 294	40 396	56 994	31 694	82 861	76 573	64 631
Former Yugoslavia	5 241	4 374	3 623	2 967	2 244	2 721	536	9 776	12 000	8 375
Russian Federation	. .	. .	60 000	60 662	62 641	65 868	9 451	4 583	4 972	3 734
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 656
Lebanon	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 300
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 974
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 904
Romania	28 346	17 968	12 028	9 777	8 668	6 318	544	2 008	2 026	. .
Poland	15 435	11 943	10 174	7 872	5 763	4 968	477	1 604	1 774	. .
Italy	1 154	1 417	1 281	1 297	1 176	1 144	116	1 036	1 048	. .
Austria	810	772	493	605	582	533	27	522	394	. .
Kazakhstan	. .	. .	101 000	94 961	88 583	83 478	. .	. .	2 148	. .
Former USSR	105 801	43 086	35 477	21 457	8 966	3 925	141	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	29 741	160 020	57 952	56 938	52 754	10 198	205 220	84 298	79 311	64 973
Total	**199 443**	**259 170**	**313 606**	**302 830**	**271 773**	**236 147**	**248 206**	**186 688**	**178 098**	**154 547**
of which: naturalisations by discretionary decision	44 950	26 295	31 888	37 604	39 162	49 909	64 302	. .	. .	. .

Note: Until 1999, data include naturalisations on the basis of a claim, which concern essentially ethnic Germans. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **HUNGARY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Romania	10 589	6 943	7 055	8 549	5 229	3 842	3 463	4 231	5 644	2 111
Former Yugoslavia	272	852	1 132	1 999	1 610	1 082	1 135	1 655	1 302	472
Former USSR	567	1 585	1 182	1 227	788	713	874	1 015	1 143	414
Other countries	378	525	651	491	1 030	799	594	637	501	191
Total	**11 805**	**9 905**	**10 021**	**12 266**	**8 658**	**6 435**	**6 066**	**7 538**	**8 590**	**3 188**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **ITALY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Albania	–	–	–	198	72	123	746	. .	. .	702
Morocco	235	295	333	323	586	97	641	. .	. .	619
Brazil	175	225	191	215	131	110	459	. .	. .	601
Cuba	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	540
Poland	262	211	313	302	96	76	497	. .	. .	516
Switzerland	472	423	638	514	768	26	828	. .	. .	511
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	439
Argentina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	409
Dominican Republic	245	375	390	468	544	151	420	. .	. .	392
Peru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	303
Colombia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	299
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	234
Venezuela	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	218
Egypt	246	169	223	228	28	32	272	. .	. .	191
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	184
Other countries	4 850	4 915	5 354	6 683	9 408	10 165	9 785	. .	. .	4 487
Total	**6 485**	**6 613**	**7 442**	**8 931**	**11 633**	**10 780**	**13 648**	**11 566**	**10 400**	**10 645**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **JAPAN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Korea	7 697	8 244	10 327	9 898	9 678	9 561	10 059	9 842	10 295	9 188
China	2 244	2 478	3 184	3 976	4 729	4 637	5 335	5 245	4 377	4 442
Other countries	511	424	593	621	654	581	726	725	619	709
Total	**10 452**	**11 146**	**14 104**	**14 495**	**15 061**	**14 779**	**16 120**	**15 812**	**15 291**	**14 339**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **LUXEMBOURG, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Italy	151	169	209	193	192	149	94	157	105	119
Belgium	63	75	67	65	64	48	53	72	39	87
France	89	71	78	85	79	53	43	52	33	65
Germany	78	64	70	55	60	44	41	50	45	47
Netherlands	18	16	15	20	17	15	11	14	13	11
Other countries	279	344	363	361	337	322	307	303	261	425
Total	**678**	**739**	**802**	**779**	**749**	**631**	**549**	**648**	**496**	**754**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **NETHERLANDS, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	7 750	8 110	13 480	15 600	10 480	11 250	14 220	13 471	12 721	12 033
Turkey	18 000	23 870	33 060	30 700	21 190	13 480	5 210	4 708	5 513	5 391
Iraq	. .	. .	. .	854	798	2 721	3 834	2 403	2 315	2 367
Suriname	4 990	5 390	3 990	4 450	3 020	2 990	3 190	2 008	2 025	1 957
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	360	217	905	1 847	945	803	1 118
China	. .	. .	. .	1 394	975	800	977	1 002	1 111	908
Germany	330	310	500	780	560	560	580	508	573	608
Poland	. .	. .	. .	1 129	827	677	688	587	597	530
Egypt	350	540	810	1 080	550	390	500	443	528	437
United Kingdom	490	460	820	1 170	690	580	450	374	356	394
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	3 002	2 141	4 918	3 487	1 634	873	378
Iran	. .	. .	. .	2 299	1 285	1 806	2 560	1 375	754	336
Former USSR	. .	. .	. .	289	298	537	1 021	681	544	. .
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	127	2 056	3 873	5 416	2 646	883	. .
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	302	288	289	489	422	335	. .
Other countries	11 160	10 770	18 780	19 164	14 455	13 394	17 621	16 761	16 736	18 864
Total	**43 070**	**49 450**	**71 440**	**82 700**	**59 830**	**59 170**	**62 090**	**49 968**	**46 667**	**45 321**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

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Table B.1.6. **NEW ZEALAND, acquisition of nationality by country of origin**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
United Kingdom	2 744	3 031	4 212	3 670	3 019	2 187
South Africa	937	1 181	1 645	2 010	2 028	1 973
China	1 346	2 232	4 687	3 752	2 579	1 896
India	520	895	1 779	1 847	1 376	1 350
Samoa	1 495	1 663	1 649	1 702	1 590	1 307
Fiji	808	739	1 104	1 253	1 273	1 139
Chinese Taipei	1 010	1 365	3 213	1 970	1 619	1 069
Korea	1 238	1 072	2 314	1 982	1 053	685
Philippines	329	403	1 007	949	829	652
Sri Lanka	213	363	836	774	738	568
Hong Kong (China)	1 251	1 416	1 600	1 270	740	539
Iraq	261	473	1 699	1 047	528	434
Former USSR	162	338	879	695	508	392
United States	282	288	427	363	281	335
Former Yugoslavia	513	1 223	1 507	945	404	315
Other countries	2 648	3 491	5 912	5 380	4 970	4 628
Total	**15 757**	**20 173**	**34 470**	**29 609**	**23 535**	**19 469**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **NORWAY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Pakistan	664	616	997	1 530	1 583	1 097	106	1 077	409	829
Former Yugoslavia	274	659	754	554	520	560	1 176	1 322	1 199	614
Turkey	393	752	793	836	837	705	170	523	356	412
Philippines	213	243	343	315	360	155	199	157	261	299
Vietnam	746	710	727	1 446	1 276	781	651	738	594	292
Chile	117	310	923	531	416	240	252	156	172	234
India	242	251	346	313	274	157	232	188	235	230
Sweden	153	150	130	112	167	154	241	246	249	216
Poland	265	275	374	267	282	192	209	196	159	165
Morocco	275	257	248	318	294	154	90	131	154	160
China	149	148	235	383	348	279	315	156	113	135
Denmark	119	187	102	91	143	149	158	170	162	108
Korea	105	135	121	122	109	146	144	113	143	106
Germany	56	59	45	41	63	55	73	74	68	95
United Kingdom	106	136	110	162	142	129	94	104	57	83
Other countries	1 661	3 890	5 530	5 216	5 223	4 291	3 878	4 166	6 507	5 063
Total	**5 538**	**8 778**	**11 778**	**12 237**	**12 037**	**9 244**	**7 988**	**9 517**	**10 838**	**9 041**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **PORTUGAL, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Brazil	235	241	296	46	186	175	283	345
Cape Verde	169	80	93	159	117	69	228	271
Venezuela	431	411	431	1	219	186	162	221
United States	164	120	203	7	91	64	90	108
Angola	76	57	56	56	62	42	65	82
Guinea-Bissau	43	27	16	67	37	27	55	73
Canada	76	69	92	4	70	55	54	65
Sao Tome and Principe	18	10	12	28	15	7	20	34
Mozambique	30	19	26	56	37	10	24	27
United Kingdom	16	14	9	0	17	8	5	12
Spain	9	12	9	3	3	4	4	9
France	14	11	18	3	8	6	8	9
India	. .	. .	. .	6	4	10	6	9
Italy	2	2	4	4	1	2	. .	8
China	. .	. .	. .	43	12	7	2	6
Other countries	130	81	99	36	67	49	76	90
Total	**1 413**	**1 154**	**1 364**	**519**	**946**	**721**	**1 082**	**1 369**
of which: EU	45	44	47	13	32	25	27	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **SPAIN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Peru	246	468	658	1 150	1 159	1 863	2 374	1 488	2 322	3 117
Morocco	986	897	785	687	1 056	1 542	2 053	1 921	2 822	3 111
Dominican Republic	298	393	499	833	1 257	1 860	2 652	1 755	2 126	2 876
Cuba	. .	172	169	250	442	773	1 109	893	1 191	2 088
Colombia	433	383	364	457	478	624	818	302	848	1 267
Argentina	1 532	1 690	1 314	1 387	1 368	1 126	1 027	661	791	997
Philippines	380	340	281	455	583	499	551	365	554	831
Portugal	424	503	372	452	524	677	683	452	568	627
Brazil	. .	. .	. .	128	217	299	308	273	411	477
Venezuela	373	211	130	133	153	203	290	197	326	439
Chile	725	335	317	425	428	473	432	594	359	353
Equatorial Guinea	. .	. .	. .	. .	140	200	278	206	321	338
China	. .	106	74	109	180	238	302	240	263	308
India	. .	129	111	128	172	206	270	232	287	271
Uruguay	268	246	217	260	279	310	309	177	239	219
Other countries	2 747	1 929	1 465	1 579	1 875	2 284	2 938	2 243	3 315	4 491
Total	**8 412**	**7 802**	**6 756**	**8 433**	**10 311**	**13 177**	**16 394**	**11 999**	**16 743**	**21 810**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

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Table B.1.6. **SWEDEN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Iraq	1 167	1 466	1 851	2 328	3 719	2 328	4 181	4 043	4 160	4 678
Bosnia-Herzegovina	12	27	98	2 550	10 860	11 348	12 591	4 241	4 064	3 090
Finland	2 974	2 125	2 009	1 882	1 668	1 632	1 389	1 512	1 561	2 816
Serbia and Montenegro	6 352	3 550	2 416	6 052	8 991	4 000	5 134	1 642	2 747	2 061
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1 569	1 531
Turkey	2 742	2 836	2 030	1 402	1 694	1 833	1 398	2 796	2 127	1 375
Iran	4 365	3 867	2 696	2 423	7 480	4 476	2 798	2 031	1 737	1 350
Poland	998	895	636	523	454	159	264	1 906	2 604	1 325
Syria	867	1 330	616	567	653	438	693	588	1 063	1 218
Somalia	209	610	491	491	737	739	2 843	2 802	1 789	1 121
China	222	333	363	302	334	300	434	460	563	675
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	626	642
Chile	1 446	946	707	545	426	693	687	727	689	548
Thailand	288	301	264	343	336	492	525	454	606	443
United States	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	578	397
Other countries	13 442	13 707	11 375	9 459	9 150	9 339	10 537	13 195	11 309	9 736
Total	**35 084**	**31 993**	**25 552**	**28 867**	**46 502**	**37 777**	**43 474**	**36 397**	**37 792**	**33 006**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **SWITZERLAND, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Italy	2 778	3 258	4 376	5 167	4 982	5 613	5 510	6 652	5 386	6 633
Former Yugoslavia	1 454	1 821	2 491	2 783	2 956	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2 085	2 365	3 285	3 686	5 803
Turkey	820	966	1 205	1 432	1 814	2 093	2 260	3 127	3 116	4 128
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	205	409	999	1 128	1 865
FYROM	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	308	410	857	1 022	1 639
Croatia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	634	671	970	1 045	1 638
France	862	935	871	1 045	985	1 152	848	1 360	1 307	1 367
Portugal	89	119	175	262	291	421	481	765	779	920
Germany	890	657	706	675	644	605	461	646	586	817
Spain	319	305	432	453	481	619	507	851	699	691
United Kingdom	347	263	278	299	269	285	228	339	310	350
Austria	413	256	261	248	223	186	140	240	233	227
Hungary	207	243	297	278	206	187	153	167	127	138
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	78	75	69	78	105
Other countries	4 749	4 934	5 703	6 733	6 319	6 809	5 845	8 373	8 084	10 194
Total	**12 928**	**13 757**	**16 795**	**19 375**	**19 170**	**21 280**	**20 363**	**28 700**	**27 586**	**36 515**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **UNITED KINGDOM, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Africa	7 452	7 877	7 940	9 162	8 018	12 941	12 863	21 923	29 790	37 535
Indian sub-continent	12 246	11 263	9 879	10 792	8 465	14 619	14 786	22 146	23 745	26 690
Asia and the Middle East	10 020	9 466	8 360	8 742	6 935	10 683	10 867	15 769	13 960	24 970
Europe	5 475	5 165	4 615	4 650	4 330	5 938	7 285	11 445	11 085	19 345
of which:										
European Economic Area	2 177	2 058	1 755	1 722	1 546	1 291	1 710	2 075	1 680	1 585
America	4 828	4 531	4 096	4 266	3 544	5 224	5 415	6 965	7 245	8 040
Oceania	1 452	1 539	1 666	1 542	1 443	1 645	1 524	1 671	1 515	1 735
Other countries	4 318	4 192	3 960	3 915	4 275	2 475	2 162	2 291	2 955	1 830
Total	**45 791**	**44 033**	**40 516**	**43 069**	**37 010**	**53 525**	**54 902**	**82 210**	**90 295**	**120 145**
Acquisitions of nationality to residents of Hong Kong (China)	**41 800**	**5 900**	**25 700**	**5 500**	**3 285**	**2 780**	**725**	**350**	**365**	**165**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Table B.1.6. **UNITED STATES, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Mexico	23 615	46 169	81 655	254 988	142 569	112 442	207 750	189 705	103 234	76 531
Vietnam	22 520	29 555	31 728	51 910	36 178	30 185	53 316	55 934	41 596	36 835
India	16 527	20 940	18 558	33 113	21 206	17 060	30 710	42 198	34 311	33 774
China	16 943	22 331	21 564	34 320	20 947	16 145	38 409	54 534	34 423	32 018
Philippines	33 925	40 777	37 870	51 346	30 898	24 872	38 944	46 563	35 431	30 487
Korea	9 681	12 367	15 709	27 969	16 056	10 305	17 738	23 858	18 053	17 307
Dominican Republic	12 303	11 390	9 999	29 459	21 092	11 916	23 089	25 176	15 010	15 591
Jamaica	7 911	12 252	11 156	25 458	20 253	15 040	28 604	22 567	13 978	13 973
Poland	5 592	7 062	8 092	14 047	8 037	5 911	13 127	16 405	11 661	12 823
Ukraine	141	583	2 715	6 959	5 971	6 952	12 190	16 849	11 828	12 110
Iran	7 033	10 041	11 761	19 278	11 434	10 739	18 268	19 251	13 881	11 796
Cuba	15 064	16 380	17 511	63 234	13 155	15 331	25 467	15 661	11 393	10 889
El Salvador	3 038	5 643	13 702	35 478	18 273	12 267	22 991	24 073	13 663	10 716
Colombia	9 985	12 309	12 823	27 483	11 645	7 024	13 168	14 018	10 872	10 634
Haiti	5 190	7 989	7 884	25 012	16 477	10 416	19 550	14 428	10 408	9 280
Other countries	125 213	178 319	185 361	344 635	204 034	156 455	276 623	307 568	228 463	238 944
Total	**314 681**	**434 107**	**488 088**	**1044 689**	**598 225**	**463 060**	**839 944**	**888 788**	**608 205**	**573 708**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.6.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.6. et B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria		Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium		National Statistical Office and Ministry of Justice.
Canada		Statistics Canada.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	Data by nationality exclude minors who were automatically naturalised on reaching adulthood under legislation existing prior to 1 January 1994 and minors acquiring French nationality under new legislation (July 1993) requiring minors to state their intention to become French citizens.	Ministry of Social Affairs, Labour and Solidarity.
Germany	Includes naturalisations of persons of German origin until 1999. Russian Federation and Kazakhstan figures are included in Former USSR figures until 1994.	Federal Office of Statistics.
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 (CBS).
New Zealand	The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available.If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.	Department of Internal Affairs.
Norway		Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Data do not include the acquisition of nationality through marriage and adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE).
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Data for 2002 are preliminary.	Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Inflows of Foreign and Seasonal Workers

Inflows of foreign workers

Most of the statistics published herein are based on the number of work permits issued during the year. As was the case for overall immigration flows, the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrant workers persons who have received a permanent immigration permit for employment purposes. In each of these four countries, it is also possible to work on a temporary basis under various programmes (these data are also available in this annex). Data by country of origin are not published in this annex.

The data on European countries are based on initial work permits granted, which sometimes include temporary and seasonal workers. Major flows of workers are not covered, either because the type of permit that they hold is not covered in these statistics, or because they do not need permits in order to work (free circulation agreements, beneficiaries of family reunification, refugees). Some data also include renewals of permits. The administrative backlog in the processing of work permit applications is sometimes large (as in the United States, for example) and affects the flows observed. The data may also cover initial entries into the labour market and include young foreigners born in the country who are entering the labour market.

Inflows of seasonal workers

Not all OECD countries have specific programmes for seasonal workers (see Table A.2.2). The activities concerned are most often agriculture, construction and civil engineering, hotels, catering and tourism. Data by country of origin are not published in this annex.

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Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Australia										
Permanent settlers	22.1	12.8	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0	27.9	32.4	35.7	36.0
Temporary workers	14.9	14.2	14.3	15.4	31.7	37.3	37.0	39.2	45.7	43.3
Austria	37.7	27.1	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.9
Belgium	4.3	4.1	2.8	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7
Canada	65.4	67.5	69.6	71.4	75.5	79.8	85.9	94.9	95.6	87.9
Denmark	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1	4.8
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	10.4	14.1	13.3
France										
Permanents	24.4	18.3	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3 |	17.1	18.4	22.2	20.5
APT	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3	5.8	7.5	9.6	9.8
Germany	325.6	221.2	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5	304.9	333.8	373.8	374.0
Hungary	19.5	18.6	18.4	14.5	19.7	22.6	29.6	40.2	47.3	49.8
Ireland	4.3	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.7	6.3	18.0	36.4	40.3
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	21.6	21.4	58.0	92.4	139.1
Japan	97.1	111.7	81.5	78.5	93.9	101.9	108.0	129.9	142.0	145.1
Luxembourg	15.5	16.2	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	26.5	25.8	22.4
Netherlands	. .	. .	. .	9.2	11.1	15.2	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6
New Zealand										
Permanent settlers	. .	. .	. .	. .	4.8	5.1	6.7	9.8	13.8	12.0
Temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .	25.4	29.5	32.5	43.1	54.6	63.5
Norway	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.3	15.9	19.0	24.2
Poland	. .	. .	10.4	11.9	15.3	16.9	17.1	17.8	17.0	22.8
Portugal	. .	. .	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8 |	133.0	52.7
Spain	7.5	15.6	29.6	31.0	30.1	53.7	56.1	. .	. .	. .
Switzerland	31.5	28.6	27.1	24.5	25.4	26.4	31.5	34.0	41.9	40.1
United Kingdom	. .	. .	24.2	26.4	31.7	37.5	42.0	64.6	85.1	88.6
United States										
Permanent settlers	147.0	123.3	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5	56.8	107.0	179.2	175.0
Temporary workers	. .	. .	. .	. .	208.1	242.0	303.7	355.1	413.6	357.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata which follow.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Australia	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 1996/1997 on. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. From 1994 on, only non-EU citizens need a work permit; this accounts for the drop in the estimate.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) member states are not included.	Ministry of Employment and Labour.
Canada	Persons issued employment authorisations to work temporaly in Canada (excluding people granted a permit on humanitarian grounds, foreign students and their spouses). From 1997 on, persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit except for seasonal workers who are counted each time they enter the country. Figures prior to 1994 are not comparable because of multiple entries by the same person.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Work and residence permits for foreign workers entering Finland are granted from abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates.	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
France	1. Permanent workers "Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the Office des migrations internationales (OMI). Until 1998, EEA citizens were included in the OMI figures through the "déclarations d'employeurs". Some of them employed for short durations may not be included. From 1999 on, estimates of EEA workers are made by the Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF data) by means of residence permits. Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time and the self-employed 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 (OMI) and Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF).
Germany	New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers. Citizens of EU member states are not included.	Federal Labour Office.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners.	Ministry of Labour and National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. Including renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admited for the first time to the labour market.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Holders of a temporary work permit (regulated since 1995 under the Dutch Foreign nationals labour act, WAV).	Center for work and income.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** *(cont.)*

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
New Zealand	Permanent settlers refer to principal applicants 16 and over in the business and skill streams. Temporary workers refer to work applications approved for persons entering New Zealand for the purpose of employment.	Statistics New Zealand
Norway	Data include granted work permits on the grounds of Norway's need for workers. This includes permanent, long-term and short-term work permits.	Directorate of Immigration
Poland	Data refer to work permits granted.	Ministry of Economy, Labour, and Social Policy.
Portugal	Persons who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared that they have a job or are seeking a job. Data for 2001 and 2002 include permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme.	National Statistical Office.
Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for the self-employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit. For 2001, data refer to January to June.	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.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits and first permissions. Data exclude dependents and EEA nationals .	Overseas Labour Service.
United States	A. Permanent workers Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas. *Period of reference:* fiscal years (October to September of the given year). B. Temporary workers Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, (categories H, O, P, Q, R, NATO, and NAFTA). Family members are included. *Period of reference:* Fiscal years (October to September of the given year).	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Table A.2.2. **Inflows of seasonal workers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Australia (Working Holiday Makers)	25.6	29.6	35.4	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6	71.5	76.6	85.2
Austria	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	38.3	45.6	50.0	55.8
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.8	11.5	11.7
France	11.3	10.3	9.4	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.6	7.9	10.8	13.5
Germany	181.7	155.8	192.8	220.9	226.0	201.6	223.4	219.0	277.9	298.1
Italy	2.8	5.8	7.6	8.9	8.4	16.5	20.4	30.9	30.3	. .
Norway	4.6	4.5	5.0	5.4	6.1	7.5	8.6	9.9	11.9	15.7
Switzerland	93.5	83.9	72.3	62.7	46.7	39.6	45.3	49.3	54.9	–
United Kingdom										
Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme	4.2	4.4	4.7	5.5	9.3	9.4	9.8	10.1	14.9	19.4
Working Holiday Makers	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.8	38.4	35.8	41.7
United States	16.3	13.2	11.4	9.6	. .	27.3	32.4	33.3	27.7	15.6

Note: For details on sources, refer to the metadata which follow.

Metadata related to Table A.2.2. **Inflows of seasonal workers**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Offshore WHM visa grants (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 Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria	Permits delivered to seasonal workers working in agriculture.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Finland	First permits for temporary work granted by Finnish missions abroad (include categories in addition to seasonal workers).	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
France	Number of contracts with the Office des migrations internationales (OMI). European Union nationals are not subject to OMI control.	Office des migrations internationales (OMI).
Germany	Workers recruited under bilateral agreements. From 1991 on, data cover Germany as a whole.	Federal Labour Office.
Italy	Agricultural seasonal workers entering Italy with a work authorisation.	Ministry of Labour.
Norway	Non-renewable work permits granted. Issued for 3 months, mostly to Polish nationals.	Statistics Norway.
Switzerland	The seasonal status was abolished on 1 June 2002.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration .
United Kingdom	Seasonal workers under the special Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (including readmissions) and Working Holiday Makers.	Home Office.
United States	Agricultural workers with a H-2A visa (non-immigrants).	US Department of Justice.

Stocks of Foreign and Foreign-born Labour

The international comparison of "immigrant" workers faces the difficulties already mentioned earlier regarding measuring the overall stock of immigrants and taking into account different concepts of employment and unemployment.

For the European countries, the main difficulty consists of covering EU nationals, who have free labour market access in EU member States. They are sometimes issued work permits, but this information is not always as readily available as for third-country nationals. Switzerland recently revised the sampling of its labour-force survey in order to compensate for the information that was no longer available on EU workers in registers of foreign nationals following the signature of free movement agreements with the European Union. These bilateral agreements enable employees who are holders of "EU/EFTA" permits to change their job or profession (professional mobility), and this change is not registered in the Central Register for Foreign Nationals, the usual source for statistics on the stock of foreign workers.

The use of work permit statistics can result in counting the same person more than once if the data include temporary workers and this person has successively been granted two permits during the same reference period. On the other hand, holders of "permanent" residence permits allowing access to the labour market are not systematically covered, especially since it is not always possible to determine the proportion of those who are actually working.

Another difficulty concerns determining the number of unemployed, self-employed and cross-border workers. The unemployed are generally included, except when the source is work permit records and when permits are granted subject to a definite job offer. Self-employed and cross-border workers are much less well covered by statistics. The reference periods of data are highly variable, as they are generally the end of December for register data, and the end of the first quarter of the reference year for employment survey data.

The management of population registers (when the population in the labour force can be identified) and work permits results in numerous breaks in series when expired work permits are eliminated, when this is not done automatically, or when regularisation programmes are implemented, which often give priority to foreigners who can show that they are employed or have a job offer. When these breaks occur, the analysis of the growth of the stock of foreign workers is significantly biased.

Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Australia	2 178.0	2 178.9	2 200.4	2 268.1	2 270.1	2 313.7	2 318.1	2 372.8	2 394.4	2 438.1
% of total labour force	25.3	24.8	24.4	24.9	24.7	24.8	24.6	24.7	24.6	24.6
Canada	. .	. .	. .	2 839.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 150.8	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	19.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.9	. .
Mexico	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	120.5	. .	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4	. .	. .
New Zealand	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	372.3	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19.9	. .
United States	. .	12 187	13 492	15 314	16 712	17 373	17 068	18 055	19 020	20 964
% of total labour force	. .	9.6	10.3	11.6	12.3	12.7	12.3	12.9	13.4	14.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.3.

Table B.2.3. **AUSTRALIA, immigrant labour force by place of birth**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	2002	2003	*Of which:* Women		
							2001	2002	2003
Europe	**1 343.4**	**1 332.1**	**1 224.1**	**1 142.1**	**1 148.3**	**1 166.0**	**450.4**	**473.3**	**476.3**
United Kingdom and Ireland	677.2	697.6	661.3	630.0	637.6	662.7	255.9	268.8	274.9
Former Yugoslavia	106.8	109.3	110.8	92.9	96.1	98.6	36.9	38.2	41.8
Italy	154.1	138.6	95.8	86.2	75.8	83.7	25.0	25.2	27.0
Germany	70.2	70.2	59.8	62.3	64.7	57.6	24.1	24.8	25.9
Netherlands	63.4	55.6	45.0	40.7	40.8	46.8	15.6	17.0	18.0
Greece	86.6	80.3	60.1	45.3	37.3	44.2	16.1	13.5	15.7
Poland	29.0	26.6	31.2	32.7	32.5	28.9	14.2	18.6	14.1
Malta	28.2	28.8	30.1	20.3	24.1	21.6	7.6	9.6	7.2
Other countries	127.9	125.1	130.0	131.7	139.4	121.9	55.0	57.6	51.7
Asia	**227.9**	**378.0**	**479.5**	**582.1**	**633.6**	**655.5**	**262.6**	**292.5**	**301.9**
Vietnam	49.7	60.8	83.6	90.8	101.3	105.6	38.7	39.2	43.8
China	16.3	59.5	56.3	80.0	93.5	90.2	35.0	41.5	40.1
Philippines	16.3	44.3	56.4	64.8	79.1	81.6	41.1	48.1	50.9
India	33.7	39.6	49.0	75.0	71.1	75.7	27.7	28.6	28.6
Malaysia	24.6	43.1	51.1	47.1	58.0	55.9	23.9	30.6	27.1
Other countries	87.3	130.7	183.1	224.4	230.6	246.5	96.2	104.5	111.4
New Zealand	139.8	187.3	208.7	251.1	245.2	257.4	115.0	105.6	111.7
North Africa and the Middle East	**71.2**	**94.4**	**104.9**	**119.6**	**113.0**	**100.2**	**39.7**	**35.0**	**32.6**
Lebanon	23.8	37.0	35.8	39.3	34.7	33.7	11.4	9.7	9.5
Others	47.5	57.4	69.1	80.3	78.3	66.5	28.3	25.3	23.1
America	**55.8**	**75.6**	**97.3**	**99.9**	**117.9**	**112.9**	**47.5**	**46.9**	**49.0**
Other countries	77.9	101.6	134.8	172.5	180.0	194.8	78.9	79.3	88.5
Total	**1 916.0**	**2 169.0**	**2 249.3**	**2 367.3**	**2 438.0**	**2 486.8**	**994.1**	**1 032.6**	**1 060.0**
% of total labour force	25.5	25.7	24.8	24.2	24.6	24.7	23.1	23.6	23.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.3.

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Table B.2.3. **CANADA, immigrant labour force by country of birth**

Thousands

	1991	1996	2001	*Of which:* Women	
				1996	2001
United Kingdom	422.0	372.5	335.4	180.6	154.9
India	127.0	158.3	209.4	68.2	91.8
Philippines	. .	126.7	166.1	76.4	97.8
China	90.0	113.8	162.8	51.8	76.7
Hong Kong (China)	96.0	129.4	140.9	62.5	68.9
Italy	214.0	166.2	140.1	62.7	54.3
United States	144.0	142.0	137.1	74.2	73.2
Poland	89.0	98.0	104.1	45.1	50.3
Vietnam	. .	85.8	103.5	37.7	47.6
Portugal	111.0	101.0	95.6	43.4	41.4
Germany	115.0	100.7	87.0	45.3	39.6
Jamaica	. .	79.5	85.4	44.1	47.8
Netherlands	82.0	70.5	60.2	28.2	23.9
Other countries	1 191.0	1 094.7	1 323.3	468.7	590.1
Total	**2 681.0**	**2 839.1**	**3 150.8**	**1 288.9**	**1 458.3**
% of total labour force	18.5	19.2	19.9	8.7	9.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.3.

Table B.2.3. **UNITED STATES, stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which:* Women		
											2001	2002	2003
Mexico	3 774.8	4 203.7	4 033.8	4 414.8	4 578.1	4 618.6	5 005.2	5 334.6	6 348.7	6 458.4	1 753.8	2 025.0	2 059.2
Philippines	743.2	754.3	840.8	873.5	922.1	1 016.8	938.7	941.1	1 016.0	1 010.9	515.5	586.5	590.9
El Salvador	506.4	446.9	479.9	463.0	566.9	574.3	557.4	614.0	667.6	788.6	250.3	283.4	285.6
India	350.4	291.3	536.5	514.5	510.4	584.7	681.3	670.1	890.5	787.7	235.0	272.0	270.9
China	340.5	285.8	498.6	531.0	537.7	548.2	565.7	597.9	590.6	657.6	293.7	270.5	306.6
Germany	598.8	558.7	514.9	595.7	629.7	517.1	625.2	617.7	632.8	585.8	340.9	344.5	300.7
Vietnam	227.3	245.4	484.1	551.8	682.4	629.9	485.8	488.2	544.9	579.7	195.8	244.5	272.0
Korea	293.2	280.5	283.2	407.0	411.1	340.1	441.0	511.5	461.3	543.9	257.5	249.2	278.6
Canada	437.9	481.3	475.4	424.0	419.8	462.9	495.1	536.0	519.3	519.5	255.7	248.4	241.1
Cuba	449.3	466.7	448.9	513.7	502.9	545.0	520.0	458.2	452.4	492.2	197.2	180.9	212.2
Jamaica	286.9	361.2	336.7	273.1	262.8	282.3	311.5	362.9	378.0	460.9	168.0	207.1	253.2
Dominican Republic	266.8	217.7	272.0	330.0	363.2	370.1	369.5	362.8	384.2	432.3	199.8	207.7	242.1
United Kingdom	370.5	410.7	394.8	441.0	440.3	473.3	438.9	401.4	443.7	399.0	178.2	198.9	187.6
Haiti	220.6	200.5	255.6	289.8	316.2	254.4	268.6	395.5	412.9	324.7	181.1	168.9	148.1
Colombia	251.2	208.5	234.5	242.5	304.0	312.8	273.6	329.5	326.2	321.7	157.9	162.5	152.6
Other countries	3 068.9	4 079.0	5 225.1	5 846.5	5 925.5	5 537.4	6 077.1	6 398.9	6 895.0	7 200.7	2 680.3	2 896.9	3 087.6
Total	**12 186.7**	**13 492.2**	**15 314.5**	**16 711.8**	**17 373.1**	**17 067.9**	**18 054.7**	**19 020.2**	**20 964.3**	**21 563.7**	**7 860.7**	**8 546.8**	**8 889.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.3.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.3. and B.2.3. **Foreign-born labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date*: August. Data for China exclude Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei. Data in table A.2.3. are annual averages whereas data in table B.2.3. refer to the month of august.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	Statistics Canada, Censuses of Population.
Mexico	Data refer to the foreign-born labour force population aged 12 and over.	Census of Population, INEGI.
New Zealand	Labour force aged 15 and over.	2001 Census, Statistics New Zealand.
United States	Data refer to all foreign-born labour force (including those born abroad with US citizenship at birth). Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* March.	Current Population Survey (from 1994 on), US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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Table A.2.4. **Stocks of foreign labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Austria	304.6	316.5	325.2	328.0	326.3	327.1	333.6	345.6	359.9	370.6
% of total labour force	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.0	9.9	137.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	10.9
Belgium	. .	. .	328.3	341.7	333.0	345.0	381.7	367.7	359.9	359.6
% of total labour force	. .	. .	7.8	8.2	7.9	8.1	8.7	8.3	8.4	8.3
Czech Republic	51.6	72.1	111.9	143.2	130.8	111.2	93.5	103.6	103.7	101.2
% of total labour force	1.0	1.4	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9
Denmark	77.7	80.3	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	100.6	101.9
% of total labour force	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6
Finland	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	41.4	45.4	46.3
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.6	1.7	1.8
France	1 541.5	1 593.9	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.8	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8
% of total labour force	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.2
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	3 575.0	3 501.0	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.1	9.2
Greece	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	413.2	. .
% of total labour force	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.5	. .
Hungary	17.6	20.1	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7
% of total labour force	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
Ireland	37.3	34.5	42.1	52.4	51.7	53.7	57.5	63.9	84.2	101.7
% of total labour force	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.7	5.5
Italy	304.8	307.1	332.2	580.6	539.6	614.6	747.6	850.7	800.7	840.8
% of total labour force	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.6	2.4	2.7	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.8
Japan	95.4	105.6	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6
% of total labour force	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Korea	. .	30.5	52.2	82.9	106.8	76.8	93.0	122.5	128.5	137.3
% of total labour force	. .	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6
Luxembourg	101.0	106.3	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	152.7	170.7	177.6
% of total labour force	49.7	51.0	52.4	53.8	55.1	57.7	57.3	57.3	61.7	62.1
Netherlands	. .	. .	282.1	280.5	275.2	269.5	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9
% of total labour force	. .	. .	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.8	3.7
Norway	47.9	50.3	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2 |	133.7	138.4
% of total labour force	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0	4.7	4.9	5.9	6.1
Portugal	63.1	77.6	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8 |	233.6	285.7
% of total labour force	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	4.4	5.3
Slovak Republic	5.5	3.9	3.9	4.8	5.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.7
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	117.4	121.8	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8 |	454.6	607.1	831.7
% of total labour force	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.5	3.4	4.5
Sweden	221	213	220	218	220	219	222	222	227	218
% of total labour force	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.1	4.9
Switzerland	725.8	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8	829.6
% of total labour force	18.5	18.9	18.6	17.9	17.5	17.4	17.6	17.8	18.1	. .
United Kingdom	862	864	862	865	949	1 039	1 005	1 107	1 229	1 303
% of total labour force	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.4	4.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Former Yugoslavia	126.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	118.6	108.0	94.2	84.9	79.2	77.1	75.6	70.8	63.8	32.5	31.3	28.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	. .	14.4	22.8	28.1	30.7	32.2	34.2	37.4	41.0	42.4	14.8	17.0	17.6
Turkey	54.5	55.6	55.7	52.2	50.1	49.3	47.7	46.6	43.7	39.1	12.6	11.9	10.7
Croatia	6.4	11.7	16.0	19.2	21.3	22.4	23.2	24.6	25.9	25.9	9.4	10.3	10.5
Poland	11.0	11.1	10.8	10.1	9.5	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.8	11.7	2.3	2.3	2.3
Hungary	10.0	9.9	9.6	9.2	8.9	8.7	9.0	9.5	10.4	10.9	2.0	2.2	2.4
Slovenia	4.3	5.5	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.0	6.0	1.6	1.6	1.6
Romania	9.3	9.5	9.3	8.7	8.3	7.8	7.5	7.2	6.4	5.7	2.5	2.4	2.1
Slovak Republic	0.5	1.8	2.9	3.7	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.1	1.3	1.5	1.5
Former Yugoslavia Republic of Macedonia	. .	0.8	1.9	2.9	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.4	0.8	0.9	1.0
Czech Republic	1.0	2.7	3.6	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
China	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.4
Bulgaria	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.4
Philippines	2.4	2.3	2.1	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6
Other countries	48.4	21.5	17.8	13.9	11.7	10.3	10.0	10.0	10.2	6.7	2.6	2.8	2.7
Total	**277.5**	**268.8**	**269.7**	**257.2**	**247.3**	**240.5**	**239.1**	**242.2**	**240.1**	**228.9**	**85.3**	**87.1**	**83.5**
of which: EU	19.1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Total women	93.4	89.0	89.5	85.7	82.8	81.8	82.6	85.3	87.1	83.5			
Total including foreign unemployed	**304.6 |**	**316.5**	**325.2**	**328.0**	**326.3**	**327.0**	**333.6**	**345.6**	**359.9**	**370.6**	**129.8**	**137.8**	**142.1**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which*: Women		
										2001	2002	2003
Italy	90.5	107.8	96.9	92.5	104.4	106.0	96.5	94.2	86.8	30.2	26.4	28.4
France	37.2	40.2	40.4	45.2	42.7	55.3	45.0	42.4	43.4	20.9	19.1	16.9
Morocco	44.7	36.2	38.5	37.3	42.0	43.2	40.5	28.0	35.2	8.4	5.5	6.7
Netherlands	32.6	34.5	35.8	29.5	38.6	30.7	42.2	47.1	31.2	15.8	21.5	11.4
Spain	23.3	19.8	20.9	26.2	25.8	23.4	20.4	19.8	22.6	9.4	8.6	10.3
Portugal	6.8	10.8	12.0	11.3	7.3	8.3	11.8	7.8	14.3	5.3	3.4	6.0
Turkey	19.6	22.3	19.1	21.0	27.5	19.2	18.6	18.0	12.1	4.1	6.8	2.2
Germany	10.6	11.1	16.7	15.7	18.3	9.1	10.2	17.3	10.0	3.4	7.9	4.3
United Kingdom	10.8	10.1	7.8	8.8	13.9	8.7	13.2	14.8	8.3	4.1	5.2	2.0
Greece	9.2	7.1	6.3	8.0	10.7	6.3	11.9	7.3	7.4	5.7	2.0	2.8
United States	2.4	3.4	3.0	4.5	0.7	2.0	1.7	5.5	3.3	0.4	2.3	1.1
Poland	1.2	0.7	1.7	2.1	3.4	2.1	3.2	4.1	3.0	1.2	2.2	1.6
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2	1.1	0.3	0.6	2.7	–	0.6	2.4
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.9	2.3	1.2	1.5	2.6	0.3	0.3	0.3
Algeria	3.0	4.1	3.0	2.7	4.1	3.0	0.8	1.7	2.5	–	–	0.5
Other countries	36.4	33.7	30.9	40.3	40.4	47.0	42.3	49.5	49.7	15.7	23.5	20.3
Total	**328.3**	**341.7**	**333.0**	**345.0**	**381.7**	**367.7**	**359.9**	**359.6**	**334.9**	**124.7**	**135.4**	**117.2**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

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Table B.2.4. **CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign workers by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Slovak Republic	39.2	59.3	72.2	69.7	61.3	53.2	63.6	63.6	56.6	56.8
Ukraine	12.7	26.7	42.1	25.2	19.3	16.6	15.8	17.5	20.0	21.1
Poland	8.7	12.1	12.8	13.7	9.9	6.9	7.7	6.7	7.3	6.8
Bulgaria	0.7	0.8	1.4	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.6
United States	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.6
Moldova	. .	0.2	0.3	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Germany	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.3
United Kingdom	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.2
Belarus	. .	0.3	0.9	2.5	2.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1
Mongolia	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.1
Russian Federation	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
France	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
Romania	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7
Austria	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Serbia and Montenegro	1.9	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	3.0	4.7	5.4	5.7	5.3	4.5	4.6	4.2	4.7	4.8
Total	**72.1**	**111.9**	**143.2**	**130.8**	**111.2**	**93.5**	**103.6**	**103.7**	**101.2**	**101.9**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **DENMARK, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Former Yugoslavia	5.7	5.5	6.3	7.3	9.3	11.3	10.8	11.5	12.7	12.5	4.6	5.2	5.2
Turkey	14.4	13.8	13.5	13.6	14.0	14.1	13.8	13.0	13.0	12.5	4.9	5.0	4.8
United Kingdom	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.5	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	2.2	2.2	2.2
Germany	5.5	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.5	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.1	2.9	2.9	3.0
Norway	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.2	6.5	6.7	6.8	3.8	3.9	4.0
Sweden	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.9	5.9	3.3	3.3	3.3
Iceland	1.5	1.8	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	1.3	1.3	1.4
Pakistan	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	0.7	0.8	0.7
Finland	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8
Other countries	29.7	31.9	34.2	35.9	38.3	40.1	39.3	39.5	41.4	43.2	17.5	18.8	20.1
Total	**77.7**	**80.3**	**83.8**	**88.0**	**93.9**	**98.3**	**96.3**	**96.8**	**100.6**	**101.9**	**41.9**	**44.3**	**45.5**
of which: EU	18.4	19.5	26.5	21.5	28.9	29.8	29.5	30.2	30.9	31.2	12.0	12.3	12.5
Total women	32.8	33.7	35.2	37.0	39.7	41.9	41.1	41.9	44.3	45.5			

Note: Data are from population registers and give the count as of the end of the given year. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **FINLAND, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	2000	2001	2002
Russian Federation	9.1	10.1	11.0
Estonia	5.3	5.9	6.3
Sweden	3.5	3.6	3.6
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	1.5	1.5
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5	1.5
Germany	1.3	1.4	1.4
Somalia	1.1	1.2	1.2
Turkey	1.0	1.1	1.2
Former USSR	1.3	1.2	1.1
Iraq	0.9	1.0	1.0
United States	0.8	0.9	0.9
China	0.7	0.8	0.8
Vietnam	0.8	0.8	0.8
Thailand	0.6	0.7	0.8
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.7	0.8	0.7
Other countries	12.9	12.9	12.5
Total	**41.4**	**45.4**	**46.3**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **FRANCE, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which*: Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Portugal	381.8	393.4	375.0	359.0	342.5	316.0	325.7	353.1	371.0	376.8	148.3	154.9	159.6
Morocco	179.5	197.1	197.5	203.1	205.0	229.6	226.9	204.3	186.0	199.6	60.3	61.7	60.8
Algeria	237.4	241.9	245.6	253.3	246.1	241.6	237.2	215.0	233.6	198.4	74.9	77.9	60.7
Turkey	73.5	75.6	66.4	72.5	65.8	79.0	76.1	81.5	81.7	92.6	20.5	20.4	24.9
Tunisia	71.0	78.3	81.0	75.2	85.0	84.4	83.9	77.5	84.2	84.4	20.7	24.5	23.0
Italy	98.3	90.3	76.6	74.3	65.5	72.9	75.6	73.8	72.2	71.2	23.9	24.2	25.5
Spain	81.9	84.2	82.1	85.6	90.7	88.2	86.5	65.8	58.3	52.0	27.1	23.2	21.2
Former Yugoslavia	24.3	25.1	32.3	31.8	23.2	30.0	31.4	29.6	24.3	25.2	12.1	10.7	12.6
Poland	8.4	6.2	7.1	10.1	13.8	12.6	14.0	13.5	16.2	15.6	6.4	8.6	7.8
Other countries	385.6	401.8	409.6	439.7	432.2	432.5	436.5	463.5	490.1	508.0	194.7	215.6	224.7
Total	**1 541.5**	**1 593.9**	**1 573.3**	**1 604.7**	**1 569.8**	**1 586.7**	**1 593.9**	**1 577.6**	**1 617.6**	**1 623.8**	**589.0**	**621.7**	**620.9**
of which: EU	658.7	664.4	629.1	612.3	594.8	575.5	595.5	601.4	608.4	615.8	247.5	255.4	263.9
Total women	526.7	560.4	553.6	581.0	560.2	587.4	588.9	589.0	621.7	620.9			

Note: Data are derived from the Labour Force Survey and refer to the month of March. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

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Table B.2.4. **GERMANY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Turkey	1 039	. .	1 008	996	1 004	974
Italy	375	. .	386	395	403	407
Greece	214	. .	219	207	210	213
Croatia	215	. .	189	195	193	185
Poland	94	. .	100	106	113	133
Austria	123	. .	118	110	116	113
Bosnia-Herzegovina	169	. .	103	100	96	98
Portugal	65	. .	77	83	84	76
United Kingdom	76	. .	65	71	74	72
Spain	75	. .	69	71	74	71
Netherlands	63	. .	63	63	61	63
France	58	. .	56	67	62	62
United States	53	. .	54	51	58	55
Other countries	956	. .	1 038	1 031	1 068	1 112
Total	**3 575**	**3 501**	**3 545**	**3 546**	**3 616**	**3 634**

Note: Data are issued from the Microcensus. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **GREECE, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	2001	*Of which*: Women
		2001
Albania	240.7	85.9
Bulgaria	27.5	16.7
Romania	17.3	6.9
Georgia	11.1	6.7
Pakistan	10.3	0.3
Ukraine	10.1	8.0
Poland	7.9	4.2
Russian Federation	7.8	5.3
India	6.6	0.3
United Kingdom	5.3	3.2
Philippines	5.3	4.2
Cyprus	5.0	2.4
Egypt	5.0	0.7
Germany	3.8	2.3
United States	3.7	1.7
Other countries	45.7	19.7
Total	**413.2**	**168.6**

Note: Foreigners in Greece entered for employment purpose. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Romania	7.6	9.0	9.8	8.5	9.5	10.6	14.1	17.2	22.0	25.8
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.9
Slovak Republic	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.8	2.8
China	0.4	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.9
Vietnam	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3
Poland	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3
Former USSR	2.0	1.8	2.6	2.2	3.1	2.8	4.0	5.2	6.5	. .
Former Yugoslavia	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3	. .
Other countries	4.4	5.8	4.0	5.0	4.4	5.2	5.7	5.3	5.2	5.6
Total	**17.6**	**20.1**	**21.0**	**18.8**	**20.4**	**22.4**	**28.5**	**35.0**	**38.6**	**42.7**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **IRELAND, stock of foreign labour force by nationality**

Thousands

	2002
Europe	**108.5**
of which:	
United Kingdom	62.2
France	5.9
Germany	5.8
Spain	4.4
Italy	3.8
Romania	3.0
Netherlands	2.5
Lithuania	2.2
Latvia	2.2
Africa	**10.9**
of which:	
Nigeria	4.1
South Africa	3.1
Asia	**13.2**
of which:	
Philippines	4.2
China	2.2
America	**9.9**
of which:	
United States	7.0
Australia	3.6
Other countries	2.7
Total	**150.5**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **ITALY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Morocco	46.9	44.4	47.9	. .	. .	. .	. .	115.1	. .	. .
Albania	16.0	15.6	18.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	89.3	. .	. .
Philippines	23.9	25.2	27.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	53.4	. .	. .
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	46.8	. .	. .
China	8.8	9.1	10.0	. .	. .	. .	. .	44.1	. .	. .
Senegal	13.0	12.5	13.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	36.5	. .	. .
Tunisia	20.3	18.5	19.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	34.2	. .	. .
Egypt	9.5	9.7	9.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	25.6	. .	. .
Former Yugoslavia	16.8	17.5	17.7	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.6	. .	. .
Sri Lanka	10.1	10.6	11.5	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.5	. .	. .
Peru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	22.7	. .	. .
Poland	4.6	4.3	5.2	. .	. .	. .	. .	17.8	. .	. .
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	16.9	. .	. .
India	3.3	3.5	4.1	. .	. .	. .	. .	16.2	. .	. .
Nigeria	2.3	2.2	2.4	. .	. .	. .	. .	15.8	. .	. .
Other countries	129.2	134.0	144.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	269.3	. .	. .
Total	**304.8**	**307.1**	**332.2**	**580.6**	**539.6**	**614.6**	**747.6**	**850.7**	**800.7**	**840.8**
Total women	96.4	101.2	111.2	220.6	187.8	. .	229.3	258.8	241.1	. .

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **JAPAN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Philippines	26.2	31.8	13.7	18.1	20.3	25.7	28.6	45.6	46.9	48.8
China	20.0	22.8	23.3	26.6	29.7	32.6	33.4	35.8	38.9	40.8
United States	18.1	17.9	17.5	17.7	17.8	17.2	16.8	17.6	18.8	19.9
Korea	6.0	6.5	6.4	6.7	6.9	8.2	9.3	10.7	12.3	13.1
United Kingdom	5.4	5.6	5.6	6.1	6.8	7.0	7.4	8.1	9.1	9.8
Canada	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.5	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.8	6.6	7.1
Australia	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.6	5.7	6.3
India	1.4	1.6	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.5	4.5	5.3
France	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.4
Germany	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7
Other countries	9.8	10.7	10.6	11.0	12.1	13.7	14.8	19.5	22.2	24.5
Total	**95.4**	**105.6**	**88.0**	**98.3**	**107.3**	**119.0**	**125.7**	**154.7**	**168.8**	**179.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **KOREA, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
										2000	2001	2002
China	10.6	18.0	33.2	43.8	36.5	48.1	43.2	46.1	47.5	11.3	18.2	18.5
Philippines	5.3	8.5	10.1	12.0	6.9	9.2	9.8	12.2	12.4	4.0	4.1	4.0
Canada	0.4	1.1	2.7	3.2	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.6	0.9	1.2	1.5
United States	2.7	4.2	6.1	6.1	4.3	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.2	0.9	1.0	1.3
Uzbekistan	–	0.8	1.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.5	3.6	2.8	0.7	1.1	0.8
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.9	2.3	2.7	1.6	2.0	2.3
Japan	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.1	0.2	0.3
New Zealand	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.4
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.9	–	–	0.3
India	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	–	–	–
South Africa	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2
France	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	–	–	–
Australia	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	–
Bulgaria	–	–	0.1	0.1	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	–	–	–
Other countries	9.3	17.0	26.0	35.0	22.1	23.6	55.1	53.3	57.8	17.2	10.2	10.7
Total	**30.5**	**52.2**	**82.9**	**106.8**	**76.8**	**93.0**	**122.5**	**128.5**	**137.3**	**37.3**	**38.9**	**40.6**
Total women	9.3	18.0	25.1	31.4	23.6	28.5	37.3	38.9	40.6			

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4

Table B.2.4. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
France	28.4	30.7	33.2	36.0	39.7	44.1	49.0	52.0	60.0	62.4
Portugal	26.0	26.4	27.3	27.8	28.3	29.5	30.5	32.0	32.8	33.8
Belgium	17.2	18.4	19.6	20.9	22.4	24.3	26.6	28.4	31.7	33.2
Germany	11.1	12.0	12.7	13.6	14.6	16.0	17.8	19.1	21.7	22.9
Italy	7.9	7.8	7.7	7.6	7.7	8.1	8.2	9.0	8.6	8.6
Former Yugoslavia	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.3
United Kingdom	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.8
Spain	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3
Other countries	6.6	7.2	7.3	8.0	8.2	8.4	9.3	7.4	11.0	11.3
Total	**101.0**	**106.3**	**111.8**	**117.8**	**124.8**	**134.6**	**145.7**	**152.7**	**170.7**	**177.6**
of which: EU	96.4	99.5	105.4	111.2	118.0	127.8	138.2	141.7	161.9	167.9
Total women	35.6	37.8	39.9	42.2	44.8	47.8	51.7	54.8	61.1	63.5

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 details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which:* Women	
										2002	2003
Turkey	48.2	36.6	33.6	34.7	26.7	56.8	54.5	48.9	53.3	20.6	18.7
Morocco	35.9	33.6	28.8	39.1	32.2	34.6	42.1	33.1	34.3	11.4	12.5
Germany	32.0	39.6	38.7	34.1	30.7	30.2	34.1	30.4	33.6	15.5	16.5
United Kingdom	25.9	25.9	22.5	24.0	29.2	36.6	33.4	30.4	32.4	10.3	11.8
Belgium	18.7	23.8	22.2	17.4	19.3	16.9	19.2	25.7	16.7	13.4	7.3
Spain	8.5	7.6	12.3	6.7	15.6	7.7	18.1	15.6	11.3	7.9	5.9
Other countries	112.9	113.4	116.9	113.4	113.9	117.3	101.1	111.8	135.6	51.1	57.9
Total	**282.1**	**280.5**	**275.2**	**269.5**	**267.5**	**300.1**	**302.6**	**295.9**	**317.2**	**130.2**	**130.6**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **NORWAY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Sweden	6.2	6.9	7.8	8.7	10.8	12.9	13.4	13.6	15.4	15.2
Denmark	8.7	8.9	9.0	9.1	9.5	9.9	9.1	9.0	10.7	10.6
United Kingdom	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.6	5.9	5.5	5.4	6.3	6.2
Pakistan	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	4.8	4.9	5.8	5.9
Germany	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.0	4.3	4.4	5.6	5.9
Sri Lanka	2.4	2.6	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.5	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.6
Finland	1.5	1.6	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.6	3.7	4.4	4.3
Turkey	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.8
Poland	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.8
Chile	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.3
United States	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.4	2.5	2.4	2.9	2.9
India	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.7
Netherlands	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.3
Other countries	11.7	12.6	14.2	15.3	17.2	20.2	45.1	50.6	63.1	66.8
Total	**47.9**	**50.3**	**52.6**	**54.8**	**59.9**	**66.9**	**104.6**	**111.2 |**	**133.7**	**138.4**

Note: Data are for the 4th quarter (except for 1993-1994, 1997 and 1998: 2nd quarter). The unemployed and the self-employed are included for 2001 and 2002. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **PORTUGAL, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ukraine	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	45.3	61.8
Brazil	7.2	8.9	9.6	9.7	9.7	9.6	9.9	10.6	34.5	46.4
Cape Verde	18.1	20.6	21.8	22.2	22.1	21.9	22.0	23.1	29.0	32.0
Angola	2.3	6.6	8.0	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.4	9.7	15.3	18.3
Guinea-Bissau	3.5	6.0	7.0	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.8	8.9	12.6	13.8
Moldova	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	9.0	12.1
Romania	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.7	10.6
Spain	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.3	5.5	6.1	6.8	7.7	8.3
United Kingdom	4.7	5.0	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.0
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5.4	7.0
China	0.9	1.0	. .	1.3	. .	1.3	1.5	1.7	5.3	5.9
Germany	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.8
Sao Tome and Principe	1.2	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	4.0	4.9
France	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.6
India	0.3	0.4	. .	0.4	. .	0.4	. .	0.5	3.4	4.0
Other countries	14.8	16.4	18.8	17.9	19.9	18.3	18.9	20.5	37.6	43.1
Total	**63.1**	**77.6**	**84.4**	**86.8**	**87.9**	**88.6**	**91.6**	**99.8 |**	**233.6**	**285.7**
of which: EU	18.2	19.7	21.1	22.2	24.4	25.5	. .	. .	. .	. .

Note: Data for 2001 and 2002 includes people with permanence permits. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **SLOVAK REPUBLIC, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Germany	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.4
Ukraine	. .	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
United States	. .	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
United Kingdom	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.2
Austria	. .	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Poland	. .	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Russian Federation	. .	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
France	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Italy	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	0.1
Serbia and Montenegro	. .	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Croatia	. .	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	–	–	–
Vietnam	. .	0.1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Other countries	. .	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.0	1.4	1.5	0.9
Total	**4.0**	**2.7**	**2.7**	**3.3**	**3.8**	**3.7**	**2.2**	**2.5**	**2.5**	**2.7**
of which: EU	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1.1
Czech Republic	**1.4**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.5**	**1.7**	**2.2**	**2.3**	**2.2**	**1.9**	**2.0**

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

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Table B.2.4. **SPAIN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which:* Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Morocco	43.4	45.0	51.6	61.6	68.8	76.9	80.4	101.8	124.2	148.1	15.6	18.5	23.0
Ecuador	0.5	1.0	1.4	2.3	3.1	7.4	9.4	25.7	67.9	125.7	13.3	29.1	58.0
Colombia	2.4	2.6	3.1	3.6	3.8	4.3	4.8	12.1	26.8	60.5	7.6	14.6	32.9
Romania	. .	. .	0.9	1.1	1.5	2.4	3.0	8.3	18.2	38.2	2.6	5.4	12.3
Peru	6.1	8.6	11.4	14.3	15.0	16.3	14.7	18.6	22.7	27.4	10.9	12.8	14.9
China	5.0	5.7	6.2	8.2	9.3	11.9	12.4	15.7	20.7	27.2	5.4	7.1	9.5
Argentina	9.0	8.0	7.5	7.8	6.6	4.9	3.9	7.0	9.9	16.9	2.7	3.7	6.2
Dominican Republic	5.2	7.6	9.7	12.4	12.3	13.2	11.0	12.3	13.2	14.6	9.5	9.7	10.4
Cuba	0.8	1.0	1.4	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.4	8.7	10.9	12.9	4.0	4.9	5.9
Algeria	2.2	2.0	2.7	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.2	7.0	8.8	11.0	0.5	0.7	0.9
Philippines	6.0	6.4	7.1	8.3	8.3	8.4	7.5	9.2	9.9	10.4	5.7	3.8	6.3
Poland	2.7	2.6	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.8	3.3	5.8	7.4	9.8	2.3	2.9	4.1
Senegal	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.2	7.0	8.1	0.5	0.7	0.8
Brazil	1.5	1.5	1.6	. .	. .	. .	. .	3.4	4.6	6.1	2.2	3.1	4.0
Chile	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.8	. .	. .	. .	2.8	3.7	4.8	1.2	1.4	1.8
Other countries	27.1	24.4	25.8	31.5	36.0	36.0	36.7	211.0	251.2	310.1	73.9	90.1	109.6
Total	**117.4**	**121.8**	**139.0**	**166.5**	**178.7**	**197.1**	**199.8 |**	**454.6**	**607.1**	**831.7**	**157.8**	**208.4**	**300.5**
of which: EU	. .	. .	92.9	109.0	116.8	125.8	110.4	. .	. .	178.2	. .	. .	67.7
Total women	34.9	38.9	46.1	57.5	61.9	71.3	62.4	157.8	208.4	300.5			

Note: Data are for 31 December of each year and are counts of valid work permits. Workers from the EU are not included. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	*Of which*: Women		
											2000	2001	2002
Finland	61	58	56	57	54	52	52	50	53	53	30	31	30
Former Yugoslavia	15	10	15	23	31	31	28	27	23	19	11	9	8
Norway	18	18	19	19	18	17	19	17	16	17	8	9	10
Denmark	16	14	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	5	5	5
Iran	12	14	15	10	10	9	8	5	4	4	4	2	2
Poland	8	8	9	7	7	7	8	8	10	8	7	7	6
Turkey	9	7	7	7	7	5	4	10	7	5	4	3	2
Other countries	82	84	86	82	80	85	90	92	100	98	35	41	40
Total	**221**	**213**	**220**	**218**	**220**	**219**	**222**	**222**	**227**	**218**	**104**	**107**	**103**
Total women	101	96	98	100	101	98	111	104	107	103			

Note: Annual average. Estimates are from the annual Labour Force Survey. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which:* Women		
											2001	2002	2003
Italy	224.7	214.3	202.5	191.7	184.4	179.3	177.4	172.3	. .	173.5	57.2	. .	59.4
Former Yugoslavia	133.0	134.6	136.2	138.2	142.8	80.4	82.8	85.7	. .	167.0	31.3	. .	68.0
Portugal	78.8	80.5	79.3	77.4	76.6	76.5	77.0	77.9	. .	84.7	33.3	. .	36.3
Germany	55.7	56.3	56.7	57.3	58.7	61.3	65.4	73.3	. .	78.6	28.2	. .	31.7
Spain	66.5	63.5	59.8	56.4	53.7	51.7	50.1	48.8	. .	. .	19.2	. .	. .
Turkey	37.4	35.6	34.3	33.1	32.8	33.3	33.7	34.1	. .	. .	12.2	. .	. .
France	32.7	32.3	31.3	30.7	30.7	31.8	33.2	34.2	. .	39.4	13.4	. .	16.3
Austria	20.0	19.4	18.8	18.2	17.8	17.6	17.9	18.5	. .	19.0	6.8	. .	7.4
United Kingdom	9.8	9.9	9.8	9.7	10.0	10.6	11.4	12.3	. .	. .	3.7	. .	. .
United States	5.2	5.4	5.5	7.4	5.6	5.8	8.5	6.3	. .	. .	2.2	. .	. .
Netherlands	7.9	8.1	8.1	8.0	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.2	. .	. .	3.1	. .	. .
Other countries	68.6	68.7	66.8	64.6	70.2	145.1	152.0	167.3	. .	246.7	70.8	. .	106.3
Total	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8 |	829.6	808.9	281.4 |	338.6	325.3
of which: EU	485.2	499.2	479.8	462.5	452.8	450.1	452.3	457.8	488.5	490.9	169.6	196.8	189.2
Total women	261.2	261.3	257.9	255.1	256.8	262.3	271.0	281.4	338.6	325.3	281.4	338.6	325.3
Total 2 (Swiss LFS)	**738.0**	**784.0**	**789.0**	**771.0**	**795.0**	**778.0**	**781.0**	**831.0**	**829.6**	**808.9**	**329.0**	**338.6**	**325.3**

Note: 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. Since 2002 data are from the Swiss Labour Force Survey. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

Table B.2.4. **UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign labour by country or region of nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	*Of which:* Women		
											2001	2002	2003
Ireland	241	216	218	216	221	220	206	212	184	185	101	89	91
India	59	60	58	56	71	66	61	61	72	86	24	25	34
United States	36	49	46	53	63	55	61	75	57	72	36	29	30
France	33	34	27	33	49	44	48	47	62	64	24	33	37
Central and Eastern Europe[1]	22	23	23	27	32	25	45	55	73	63	30	36	35
Australia	27	34	32	35	31	36	54	46	59	57	21	29	33
Italy	40	43	42	42	52	43	55	58	58	56	22	22	26
Portugal	20	18	15	14	23	20	15	35	50	55	14	21	22
Germany	20	27	30	32	39	44	33	35	34	41	19	18	20
Spain	26	17	20	24	18	25	30	30	33	36	18	17	16
New Zealand	18	19	26	21	30	23	25	25	38	30	12	14	15
Pakistan	22	20	17	20	20	27	31	29	33	29	–	–	–
Bangladesh	–	–	12	18	16	17	14	19	14	12	–	–	–
Caribbean and Guyana	37	38	41	37	35	24	31	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Other countries	263	264	258	321	339	336	398	502	536	610	223	240	277
Total	**864**	**862**	**865**	**949**	**1 039**	**1 005**	**1 107**	**1 229**	**1 303**	**1 396**	**544**	**573**	**636**
of which: EU	413	441	395	416	454	453	452	508	508	530	242	243	256
Total women	418	421	421	430	471	465	523	544	573	636			

Note: Estimates are from the labour force survey. The unemployed are not included. The symbol "–" indicates that figures are less than 10 000. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.2.4.

1. Including former USSR.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.4. and B.2.4. **Foreign labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Foreign labour		
Austria	Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded. Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. From 1994 on, EEA members no longer need work permits and are therefore no longer included. A person holding two permits is counted twice. The second total presented in Table B.2.4. (including unemployed) is based on statistics from Social Security records and includes EEA nationals.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Data refer to the foreign labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* Second quarter of the given year.	Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).
Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers. Excluding holders of a trade licence. *Reference date:* 31 December (except 2003: 30 July).	Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs.
Denmark	Data are from population registers. Data for 2002 are preliminary. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Foreign labour force recorded in the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
France	Labour Force Survey. *Reference date:* March of each year.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Microcensus. Data include the unemployed and the self-employed. *Reference date*: April.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Foreigners who entered for work reasons.	Census 2001, National Statistical Service.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.2.4.) are issued from the 2002 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over in the labour force.	Central Statistics Office.
Italy	Figures refer to the number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including the self-employed, the unemployed from 1995 on, sponsored workers and persons granted a permit for humanitarian reasons). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese national, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restrictions imposed on the kind of activities they can engage in while in Japan and are excluded from the data.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Data are based on registered foreign workers, which excludes short-term (under 90 days) workers. Trainees are included.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. *Reference date:* 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Data are from the Labour Force Survey and refer to the Labour force aged 15 and over. *Reference date:* March.	Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the unemployed and the self-employed. *Reference date:* second quarter of each year (except in 1995, 1996, 1999 and 2000: 4th quarter).	Statistics Norway.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.4. and B.2.4. **Foreign labour force** *(cont.)*

Country	Comments	Source
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Including foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993, 1996 and 2001 regularisation programmes. Data for 2001 and 2002 include workers regularised following the 2001 programme. Data from 1999 on are estimates. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior and National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. Czech workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	National Labour Office.
Spain	Number of valid work permits. EU workers are not included. In 1993, the data include work permits delivered following the 1991 regularisation programme. In 1996, the data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. From 2000 on, data relate to the number of foreigners who are registered in the Social Security system. A worker may be registered several times if he/she has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001 data. *Reference date:* 31 December.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Til 2001, data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Since the bilateral agreements signed with the European Union have come into force (1 June 2002), movements of EU workers can no longer be followed through the central register of foreigners. An estimate of the foreign labour force is nonetheless available from the labour force survey (see total 2 at the end of table B.2.4, as well as the detail by nationality for 2003). *Reference date:* 31 December.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included.	Home Office.

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